

**Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in
Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa City
Administration**

**A Thesis presented to the Collage of Graduate Studies
Addis Ababa University**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Master of Arts
in Human Resource and Organizational Development in Education**

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Acronyms

ACAEB- Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau

MoE- Ministry of Education

AAU- Addis Ababa University

ILO- International Labor Organization

MoWA- Ministry of Women's Affairs

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to find out the barriers for women to enter leadership positions in secondary schools in Addis Ababa. It was intended to assess the institutional, domestic or personal as well as intra personal problems of women to inter leadership positions in educational institutions. In this regard, secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration were selected to be the main focus area. The main beneficiaries of the study were secondary school female teachers, principals and deputy principals in Addis Ababa. The opinions of City Administration Education Bureau were also taken as important data source. A significant contribution was intended to be made with the research findings to the main participants and policy makers at all levels. To extract their perception on the matter data gathering tools like the questionnaire and interview was considered appropriate. From the 56 secondary schools in the ten sub-cities, thirteen were purposefully selected from among 4 sub-cities. From the general findings of the study it was evident that 42% of the participants perceive those in principal-ship positions to have both feminine and masculine characters while about 28% of them said that they perceived principals with characters like, assertiveness, aggression, high self esteem and self confidence or in short with 'masculine characters'. While this is so 67% of the female teachers included in the study never aspired for leadership positions at the beginning of their career while the rest did not. Additionally, choosing from issues involved in recruitment and selection about 39% of the respondents said that it is the attitude of recruiters is the most influential. While, 32% claimed that the criteria for recruitment is not clear and understandable. Regarding the dominant domestic responsibility 34% said that 'caring for children' takes the upper hand for them, as a barrier to enter leadership positions followed by 'getting married'. From among the personal barriers 'educational background' and 'childhood background' of female teachers had taken the lead in influencing women's decision to move up the hierarchy. The number of female teachers and early gender socialization were also considered to be other factors that are believed to precipitate the problem of lower representation of women in leadership positions. Regarding the recruitment and selection of leaders for and within secondary schools in Addis Ababa, most of the respondents see the attitude for recruitment as a discouraging factor. Therefore, it was concluded that the traditional sex role stereotypes have an effect on the way women view leadership positions, as masculine or feminine. In addition to this; another major conclusion reached based on the findings was domestic responsibilities as barriers for women to enter leadership positions, implying that the traditional roles of women in the household is still have a persistent effect on their decision to join leadership. Additionally, early gender socialization which starts from an early age has a significant effect of female teachers' aspiration to join leadership. Based on the findings it is recommended that policy makers, City Administration officers and immediate supervisors, assert gender sensitive issues in the making of policies to hire or promote principals. Facilitating communication between recruiters and the potential recruits is an admirable act. To facilitate lifelong learning using e-sources and published materials that can encourage women to seek opportunities to move up the hierarchy is also another recommendation. Other than this, formulating women networks and mentoring were also suggested.

Chapter One

Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the study, statements of the problem, objective of the study, significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study, the research design and methodology, definition of operational key terms and organization of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Women are taken as the pillars of the house hold in most societies. It is even said that “women hold up half the sky”. This implies that almost 50% of the world population is composed of women. Women form the core of the family and household; they work longer hours than men in nearly every country and do more of the total work than men; and in so doing contribute to the development of their societies (Meron 2005). Despite this fact women are not enjoying the fruits of development of a society as their male counterparts due to the multi faceted problem that they face based on gender.

Traditionally, women were regarded as homemakers, who oversee and coordinate the affairs and activities at home. They are only considered part of the labour force if they get a job outside the house. During the first half of the 20th century, the number of the jobs available to women was limited and strong sentiment existed against married women working outside the home. As marriage was the only way out of being a burden on their family. In the 1960's women's liberation movement was started with the notion to break free from male domination and ensure their role in the economic sector. Since then things have changed for them. More and more women have joined higher education and the labour force. An investigation made further up the century, however, may reveal a different truth. As one Russian woman who lived around 1906 wrote to the time's king “we have

lived with out having any rights whatever. . . . We are not even considered human beings, but simply beasts of burden” (Watchtower, 1987).

Women were considered labour force participants only if they work outside the home, in the first half of the century. Women have made significant progress in advancing gender equality, since then. Globally, women’s labour force participation has increased. Therefore, women around the world have been moving steadily in to occupations, professional and managerial jobs previously reserved by men. Though this is so the majority of women in the labour force have always been isolated in “female” occupations, called such because they are often extensions of the work women do at home and because the vast majority of the people doing them are women. The majority of women were employed as servants, dressmakers, teachers, seamstresses, tailors, housekeeper, launderers, milliners and saleswomen (Meskerem 2009).

Women have demonstrated considerable leadership in community and informal organizations, as well as in public office. However, socialization and negative stereotyping of women, including stereotyping through the media, reinforces the tendency for political decision-making to remain the domain of men. Likewise, the underrepresentation of women in decision-making positions in the areas of art, culture, sports, the media, education, religion and the law have prevented women from having a significant impact on many key institutions (UN women 1995).

Despite the improvements made some problems still exist. Occupational segregation by sex persists as do social policies based on a traditional model of the family with a male bread winner. It is also observable that females occupy few of the positions with the most power. Real obstacle remain and these are often rooted in the way work and life are organized. In most societies, men still have a disproportionate responsibility for meeting the financial needs of the family well being. Women are still concentrated for the most precarious forms of work throughout the world (Wirth, 2001). They too often experience discrimination in

the recruitment and selection process and many barriers that are invisible within the work place, called “Glass ceiling”.

In the educational sector many relating barriers to women’s entry to leadership has so far been identified by researchers. As educators, women date back to prehistoric times. H.G. Wells theorized that both education and religion, in their truest form, were initiated by women (Guy & Farrell, 1982). He expressed that women were probably the first in every profession and trade, with the exception of those associated with killing. Then he contends that “the question then arises, if women trailblazed different professions, including education, why haven’t women achieved at least equitable occupational status with men?”

Prolman (1982) and Adkinson (1981) assert that the career paths for men and women in school administration not only are different but that women are underrepresented in administration positions. Prolman notes that career contingencies disadvantage women’s career in school administration. For example, women tend to teach longer than men and women tend to be grouped in elementary schools. While promotions to the upper levels tend to be from secondary level and human hold staff positions in the central office rather than in line positions at the school and central office for omen early se^x-role socialization combined with sex-role stereotyping the decision to teach to the lack of mobility and to the lack of mobility expectation. The lack of expectation in turn, relates to longer teaching careers of women and lack of mobility. Adler (199) also mentions that teaching is seen as a ‘feminine job’, but, it is unfortunate that female teachers are rooted in the classroom or whether they decide to move to middle or higher management do not follow a straight forward.

At the local level, societal attitudes toward the education of girls, women’s domestic responsibilities and ability to provide leadership contribute to female self-image and ability to envisage careers involving leadership. Institutional structures, including qualifications and required work experience, promotion procedures and job descriptions may help or hinder women’s progress to leadership. In addition, each workplace encompasses informal

attitudes and behaviors that may also support women, or discriminate against them. But still, the numbers of women who are in the key managerial positions still remain negligible (Key 2001).

At a global level, the Beijing Declaration (1995) and Millennium Goals (2000) have increased awareness of the social justice issues that are raised by the under-representation of women at policy making levels of education systems, and in the leadership of schools and higher education. These have provided a framework for examining trends of gender equality across nations and in many spheres of life. The majority of the world's nations are now committed to ensuring globally agreed upon goals for girls' education and women's representation in all areas of government by 2015 (Sperandio). Increased understanding of the factors supporting under-representation and the actions that can be taken to address and remedy discriminatory practices has resulted from the need to meet these goals

In relation with capacity, empowering women fuels thriving economies, spurring productivity and growth to a nation. In agreement with this the Federal Democratic Government of Ethiopia has declared its unequivocal commitment to the development of women with the announcement of the National Policy on Women in 1993 (referred to as the Women's Policy), and the promulgation of the new Constitution in 1994. To this effect specific policy changes has been made, programs and actions plans originated and women's groups formulated at different levels of different sectors. Educational bureaus, according to Women Watch (2008), are mandated to formulate education system which encourage females, introduce Gender class, and make the education curriculum and system more gender sensitive as well as ensure Gender balance in the community training center.

These endeavors are easily said than done, this is mainly because that number of women in leadership positions in Ethiopia is discouragingly low. Though teaching is considered a "women's natural profession" women are not expected to lead educational institutions (Pigford and Tonnesen, 1993). In the past hundred years it has been believed that women nurture learners while men run schools and there are very small number of women school

administrators in cross cultural studies. Sara (2007), concluded from her research conducted in Addis Ababa City Administration “Education is a profession that had traditionally employed a large number of women, the leaders are seldom female, where it is readily apparent that the rate of participation of women diminishes the higher up the occupational hierarchy goes”.

Genet (2009) also noted that traditional patriarchal beliefs and practices have an influence on women’s aspiration to leadership positions. She contends that patriarchy is deeply rooted in the society that both men and female are responsible in precipitating the problem. Shakeshaft (1999) claim that “Women are their own worst enemies”, which could be due to their upbringing and socialization.

The obstacle that women face is no exception to Ethiopian women. In light of this, the Federal Democratic Government of Ethiopia has declared its unequivocal commitment to the development of women with the announcement of the National Policy on Women in 1993 (referred to as the Women's Policy), and the promulgation of the new Constitution in 1994. Consistent with the above policy, Article 25 of the new Constitution guarantees all persons equality before the law, and prohibits any discrimination on grounds of gender. In addition, Article 35 reiterates principles of equality of access to economic opportunities, including the right to equality in employment and land ownership.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Beijing Platform for Action considered the inequality between men and women in the sharing of power and decision-making at all levels as one of the critical areas of concern for the empowerment of women. It stated

Women's equal participation in decision-making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but can also be seen as a necessary condition for women's interests to be taken into account. Without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women's perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.

In modern capitalist world of work, however, men are considered as ideal in being independent, unemotional, logical and make a decision easily. In most cases men come to be associated with commitment, dedication and careerism, thus men are the numerous and visible gender at the top leadership and management positions in almost all counters of the sector worldwide (Whithead, 2006).

Women on the other hand remain marginalized from leadership and decision making structures of many countries in the world. Too often women leaders never move beyond entry level supervisory positions. Few women that assume higher decision positions are numerically minority and usually face gender specific problems which are not common among men leaders (Collinson and Hearn, 2001). This problem of the underrepresentation of women seems to be international (Tichy, 1996).

According to the United Nation's world women report (2000), women's share of the administrative and managerial labour force is less than 30% in all regions of the world in the year 2000. It also depicts that women's share leadership position is less than their total share of the labour force.

According to a report by the federal statistics office (2007) 43% of the employees of civil service are women, among which 28% of them are in leadership positions. Exclusion of women from leadership positions includes even those who are employed in occupations that are deemed to be for women. These types of profession, like the teaching profession, comprise a large proportion of women. A report by Addis Ababa Education Bureau (2009) from both primary and secondary schools women's share of leadership position (principalship) is limited to 13.75% and deputy principals in the city are about 24% of the total leadership positions available.

The reason why there are so few women in schools administration positions and especially at the top has been addressed by many researchers (e.g, Acker 1992; Auster 1993; Izrael and Audler, 1994,). Many Ethiopian researchers have tried to get a grasp of the problem with its root causes as well (e.g. Meskerem 2009, Ababayehu, 1995 and Abeba 1990 among others). Accordingly the antecedent factors for women's underrepresentation from educational leadership are thought to be similar with the ones which hinder their carrier success in other fields. Though each researcher categorizes the reasons differently most agree on the influence of external traits, internal variables and self related factors as the major obstacles of women's participation in leadership (Ababayehu, 1995). The external factors include that of the socio-economic and political environment outside of the school, while the internal environment includes that of the factors within the school or the related educational system in general and the third one is related to a woman's self aspiration to achieve leadership positions. Albeit the above mentioned obstacles, having women as administrators is as essential to the school environment as air is to humans. Primarily, they bring a new perspective to the forefront to deal issues at hand and also they are taken as role models for new comers.

Therefore it is imperative that women's participation be well scrutinized on the existing barriers and suggests possible solutions for the issue. Making this as a base line this research attempted to answer the following basic questions.

Basic Questions

1. How did institutional barriers affect women teachers and principals in their pursuit of leadership positions in secondary schools in Addis Ababa?
2. How did domestic or personal situation\ of women teachers in secondary schools of Addis Ababa affected their career advancements?
3. How did women teachers in Secondary schools of Addis Ababa deal with intra personal obstacles in their career?

1.3 Objective of the Study

The study has the following objectives

1.3.1 General Objective:

The general aim of the study was to look in to the barriers for women to enter leadership positions in secondary schools of Addis Ababa.

Specific Objectives

- 1.3.1. Find out the institutional barriers women principals and teachers in secondary schools of Addis Ababa encountered in their pursuit of leadership positions.
- 1.3.2. Examine the degree to which domestic or personal situations of women principals in secondary schools of Addis Ababa, affected their carrier advancements.
- 1.3.3. Observe how women leaders in secondary schools view and utilize career planning scheme in their career path.

1.4 Significance of the Study

By identifying the major barriers that affect women's participation in education leadership in secondary schools the study was intended to bring about the following substance:

1. By identifying hindering factor of women participation in leadership the study will give information to tackle those hindering factors.
2. Investigation of gender specific problems of women managers and leaders important to find solution
3. The research is important to create gender discourse in relation to leadership in the secondary schools investigated in Addis Ababa City Administration.
4. Give new orientation for concerned bodies to take new measures to enhance women's participation in decision making structures

1.5 Delimitation of the Study

The purpose of the research study was finding out the barriers of women in educational leadership in secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration. For this purpose the scope of the study was delimited to four sub-cities in Addis Ababa City Administration. The study analyzed the institutional, domestic and intra-personal barriers that women teachers and principals faced in their pursuit of leadership positions.

Addis Ababa is the capital city of Ethiopia. As a chartered city it has both the status of a city and a state. It is one of the metropolitan cities around the world, where many headquarters of national and international institutions are found. It is also true that many activities regarding women's participation in the labour force and in to leadership positions are initiated. There are also more than a thousand female teachers in the city, who are assigned by AACAE, making it suitable to examine the perception of the research participants working under the same jurisdiction. This is why only governmental secondary schools were chosen to be examined.

Additionally the researcher's own experience while working within the city administration and according to preliminary information obtained from the city administration education bureau there are only a few women in leadership positions; which makes the problem worth investigating in the city.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The undertaking of this study has encountered some setbacks. Only twelve schools within four sub cities were able to be reached out of the fifty six. The challenge was locating these schools, as they are scattered around the city. The questionnaires distributed could not be distributed and recollected in the intended time frame. This took the time of the researcher which was allocated for other purposes in the undertaking of the study. In addition to this because of the aforementioned reason not more than twelve schools could be reached. It would have been ideal if more schools could have been included in the study.

Another problem related with this is the time the questionnaire distributed, it was during the mid semester exam in most of the schools. This was a challenge because most of the female teachers, the respondents of the questionnaire, only come to the school for specified hours, making them unreachable, and causing a delay in the dissemination and return of the questionnaire. In relation with the work load at these times, mid semester exam and break, most teachers were not willing to fill in the questionnaire. This made some not to fully complete the questionnaire, which was a set back in the data analysis phase of the research. Thus this made the researcher to employ more effort to reduce the problem.

1.7 Definitions of Terms

Gender Equality: Gender equality refers to that stage of human social development at which "the rights, responsibilities and opportunities of individuals will not be determined by the fact of being born male or female, 2 United Nations Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues (Miesher &Linday, 2003).

Feminine: pertaining to a woman or a girl, having qualities traditionally ascribed to women, as sensitivity or gentleness. Effeminate, womanish. Belonging to the female sex. Female (Webster dictionary) (Linda, 2005).

Stereotypes: is a commonly held popular belief about specific social group or types of individuals (Mann & Crompton, 1994)..

Glass ceiling: is a symbolic term for the existence of an invisible line in the hierarchical structures of working life above which it is difficult for women to rise (Auster, 1993).

School principal: refers to management of the school that includes: school director (AACAEB annual abstract, 2010).

Secondary school: structure of educational system that includes general secondary education (9-10) and preparatory education (11-12) (H/silasse Gerima).

1.8 Organization of the Study

The study has five chapters .The first chapter is an introductory part which incorporates general background of the study, statement of he problem, research questions, objectives, significance, delimitation, limitations of the study and definition of terms. The second chapter is devoted to review of relevant literature, under which formulation of conceptual and theoretical frame works of the study are indicated .The third chapter is about the study area, research design and methodology. Chapter four discusses the result of the study and the final section presents summary of the study, conclusions and recommendation.

Chapter Two

Review of The Related Literature

This chapter presents some important topics, which are related to factors affecting Women's Participation in Education Leadership, books, journals and other material sources were used to review the topic. The major topics discussed include: overview of Leadership and the Leader, Women in Management, Barriers to Women's Participation in Leadership Positions, Institutional Barriers and Strategies used to Encourage Women's Participation.

2.1 Definition of Leadership

Despite over half a century of research in to leadership, there appears to be no nearer a consensus as to its basic meaning. Some suggest it is rather like beauty; it is hard to define but individuals can recognize it when they see it. Currently, there are countless definitions and conceptual views pertaining to it. Every individual researcher perceives leadership in a different light. The word was originally used in the early 1800's in writing about the political influence and control of the British parliament during the first half of the 19th century (Bass, 1990).

Early definitions of the leadership recognized the importance of the ability to influence others, for example, "any act of influence on a matter of Organizational relevance" (Katz and Kahn, 1966), however a more recent definition defines leadership as a personal influence over other people that is having an effect on their behavior with the aim of better results in their work (Weiss, 1996). Also, the GLOBE Study of 62 societies has elaborated on this definition by describing leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (House et al., 2004). Here the focus extends beyond influence to include motivation and enabling of others to help achieve the goals of the organization. Furthermore, the ability to control others is given no prominence in this recent definition of leadership. A brief review of early through contemporary theories will

be explored and consideration will be given as to the role each theory may have played in raising the profile of women in management or leadership.

Thus definitions of leadership are as numerous as the researchers engaged in its study. However, one common element, implicit or explicit, is that leadership is concerned with the implementation of those policies and decisions which assist in directing the activities of an organization towards its specified goals. Thus leadership is the process of influencing the achievements in a given situation. The nature of leadership is largely determined to the nature of the followers and that of the society or situation in which the leader is operating. ←

The concept of measuring leadership is always controversial. There exist four different approaches to leadership, person based leadership, results based, process based and position based. The first one, person based leadership resonate with the traditional traits approach: a leader's character or personality. We might consider the best example of this as the charismatic. To whom followers are attracted because of the charismatic or personal 'magnetism'. (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1998).

Result based leadership is essentially related to results. According to this approach the success of leadership is manifested only and primarily through results and nothing else then we should not be surprised to fund hospitals and schools manipulating their activities to generate the requisite results even if the overall performance as a health or education provider plummets. Nor should we be surprised by the Enron's of this world: if shareholders only recognize result- based leadership then ethical and process issues tend to be sidelined.

Those processes of leadership imply that we can distinguish leaders from non-leaders on the basis of examining what it is that leaders do but, irrespective of the issue of coercion, it is still not clear that successful leaders are necessarily exemplary nor that such processes are generic across space and time. Again, if the form by which leaders are judged is the extent to which they embody the required formal processes then we may end up with

leaders who are excellent 'actors', whose behaviors are tightly tied to the monitoring requirements but who are actually rather ineffective in generating results.

If organizations assume that leadership is primarily positional so that for e.g. only those people in formal positions of power are recognized as leaders, then those without formal positions will be discouraged from taking, showing initiative, taking responsibility and so on are not actions that non formal leaders will take. The result may be an extremely bureaucratic and torpid organization.

Traditionally, leadership is defined by its alleged opposite: management. Management is concerned with executing routines and maintaining organizational stability- it is essentially concerned with control; leadership is concerned with control; leadership is concerned with direction setting, with novelty and is essentially linked to change, movement and persuasion (Kauppinen and Aaltio, 2002)

Another way to put this is that management is the equivalent of déjà vu (seen this before), whereas leadership is the equivalent of vu jade' (never seen this before). Management implies that managers have seen it all before and simply need to respond correctly to the situation by categorize it and executing the appropriate process; leadership implies that leaders have never seen anything like it before and must therefore construct a novel strategy. But this division is often taken to mean that different people are necessary to fill the different roles- hence anyone related to the role of 'mere' managers, cannot be considered as bringing anything unique to the party after all, their task is limited to the mechanical take of recognizing situations and applying preexisting processes.

However there has been a pre-established similar framework of the both leadership and management. The two dimensions of considerations concern for people and concern for result. Also the sources of power and influence used by leaders and managers share a common framework. The close way in which leadership and aspects of management have been treated in many literature works is an indication of their intimate connection.

2.2 The Leader

The earliest interpretation of leadership was to view the leader as a specially gifted person. It was believed that he possessed certain unique physical, intellectual and socio psychological traits which made him a more superior personality than any other person around him and thus qualified him to lead others (Tedrow, 1999).

Earlier management took it for granted the managers are men (Dalton, 1959; Mintzberg, 1973, 1987), and ignored gender issues altogether. The so-called great-man theory is one of the earliest management theories. Philosophers suggested a theory of leadership which was termed the "Great man" theory (Denmark, 1993). It argues that persons (men) who have influenced Western civilization have characteristics that are needed in a good leader. Another of the early theories is trait theory. It assumes that effective leaders have distinct personal qualities that differentiate them from other people.

Many of these traits tend to be stereotypically male (Weiss, 1996). It assumed that personal attributes of the great man "determined the course of history". The great man is believed to have unique and exceptional features and qualities that distinguished him from his followers (Bass, 1990). Only very few people were thought to have such abilities, which were believed to be innate, i.e. leaders were born with these qualities (Denmark, 1993). It argues that persons (men) who have influenced western civilization have characteristics that are needed in a good leader. This theory is not perceived to have any contribution to raising the profile of women.

Behavioral theories focus on managerial behavior. There are three main types of behavioral theory. The first distinguishes between two types of behavior: task oriented style and interpersonally oriented style. The second distinguishes between two types of leadership autocratic and democratic. The third types situations. The behavioral theories implicitly suggest that better managers are either masculine (high task/ high-interpersonal style, autocratic decision-making) or feminine (i.e. low-task/high-interpersonal style, democratic decision making) (Powell, 1993).

Powell (1993) introduces a modern approach to management theory and claims that there are three perspectives in the difference between female and male managers (1) there are no differences between man and women as managers. Women managers try to become like men and reject the gender stereotype: (2) men make better managers because their early socialization experience differ: they play more team sports than girls (Henning & Jardim, 1977); (3) stereotypical differences between the sexes, where women in managerial roles bring out their feminine characteristics which tend to be stereotypical.

Feminine researcher, such as Rosener (1990), argues that female and male leaders differ in accordance with gender stereotypes. Rosener argues that femininity is particularly needed in today's work life and claims, along same lines as Powell (1993) and Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999), that there are profound differences between male and female leaders: female leaders concentrate on the relationships between people whereas, men tend to concentrate on the issues or tasks. Women use more personal contacts, whereas men tend to use structural power, that is, power based on the organizational hierarchy and position. Eagly & Johnson (1990), in turn argue that there is no difference between men and women in interpersonal style of leadership, but that men are more task oriented than women

Through studies and observations some researchers have come to conclude that leaders are people with certain characteristics that especially fit them for their leadership roles. Whether in a school, in the army, in politics or in the community, leaders are expected to exhibit specific qualities which mark them out from other people. Leaders are people who have the ability to get others to cooperate with them in doing it. They are people with a purpose and a vision of possible accomplishment which give them the inspiration necessary for real success leaders are not drifters going along without seeing where they are going they must appear confident and act as if it were impossible to fail (Kauppinen, 2002). Real leadership requires the leader to be wholly committed to a single purpose. A leader must be friendly too, because friendliness is essential to good leadership.

Previously, women were not perceived as the proper choice for leadership roles. Earlier management took it for granted that managers were men (e.g., Dalton, 1959; Mintzberg, 1973), and ignored gender issues altogether. The so-called great man theory is one of the earliest management theories. It argues that persons (men) who have influenced western civilization have characteristics that are needed in a good leader. Another of the early theories is trait theory. It assumes that effective leaders have distinct personal qualities that differentiate them from other people. Many of those traits are stereotypically male (Wisess, 1996).

Schein's 1973 classic study concluded that both female and male executives believed that managers possessed characteristics that were more associated with women. In later studies that examined the perception of executive women. Women no longer describe successful managers as having only masculine characteristics. More recent management theories, such as the Managerial grid theory claims that both masculine and feminine characteristics are important in a good manager. This theory suggests that the best managers are androgynous; they combine both masculine high task and feminine high interpersonal styles (Kauppinen, 2002). Although the concept of androgyny has received mixed support, one aspect has been agreed upon leadership is generally conceived in masculine terms (Goktepe, 1995), but also feminine features are needed in a manager. Some researchers suggest that women should adopt a masculine style to become accepted as leaders (Sapp, Harrod & Zhao 1996).

To illustrate the matter further in to our day the Kiamba (2009):

Historically, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today. Although the number of female leaders has increased, they are often named as an afterthought. The societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally exclude women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain.

The same author further argues that the cultural construction of leadership in itself instigates difference and this is only now being transformed or contested as women gain access to leadership positions. In African societies, it is believed that men lead and women

follow (Nzomo, 1997 & Grant 2005). It is not uncommon in rural villages in Africa to find the man literally walking ahead of the woman.

2.3 Women in Management

It is said that women hold up half the sky, implying that at least 50% of the world population are women. Women form the core of the family and household, women work longer hours than men in nearly every country and do more of the total work than men, and women contribute more to the development of their societies (Meron, 2003). Though this is so occupational segregation to enter the labour force based on gender is still evident in many countries. This can be due to two major factors, according to Lawanson (2008), formal and informal barriers.

The formal barriers which continue to hinder the entry of women into such occupational categories include: lack of educational or technical training and labour laws and trading customs. While the informal barriers include: customs and religious practices, difficulties in combining domestic and labour market activities, as well as management and worker attitudes. The writer even claims the influence of such demographic factors as age, education and marital status of women themselves as contributors to the problems at hand. He describes how, “age determines whether or not a woman will decide to work less now than in the past”. With regards to education, Lewanson described how it can play a role in gender and development, by citing the findings of others that positive relationship exists between the amount of education and probability of engaging in paid employment among women. Though the choice and age to get married varies with the culture women are raised in, it is still an influencer in the decision making of women to work or not among other personal differences. In the same token women’s decision to join leadership can be precipitated by the same variables.

Women's leadership was observed for the time when women's movements arose in many countries in the late eighteenth century. These movements had different forms and magnitude and strove for different objectives (Journal of Developing Societies 2008). But earlier management took it for granted the managers were men (e.g. Dalton, 1959; Mintzberg, 1973, 1983), and ignored gender issues altogether. The so-called great-man theory is one of the earliest management theories.

In many organizations the ideal of a good manager is still implicitly included in the notion of 'hegemonic' masculinity that represents qualities such as competitive, aggressive, non-emotional, goal orientated, and psychologically and physically strong (Connell, 1997). Hegemonic masculinity is, as Brock (1999) defines it, the culturally dominant and most powerful form of masculinity. It is based on heroism, where the hero controls and guides his subordinates. The dominant forms of masculinity, construed in aversion to femininity, are those that dictate how organizations are managed (Cheng, 1996). But some insist that this kind of leadership may have existed in times when people worked in hierarchic organizations where work was organized in to assembly lines, but not in today's more flexible expert organizations (Koivunen, 2002).

The literature is rich with research exploring alleged differences between male and female leaders. Over the past three decades, each gender group has proclaimed the superiority of its own leadership styles. Heated debate regarding leadership styles of women versus men gained a heightened awareness in the 1990s due to the attempt of researchers to clarify qualities of gender differences specific to contemporary conditions. These findings according to Rosner's Harvard Business Review article state that in a new organizational world, female behavior, particularly collaborative-ness and nurturance, have become more appropriate for managers than the stereotypical power and control antis. In typical leadership styles, women have displayed a number of advantages over males. Slight disadvantages are also noted, due to various prejudicial evaluation of their competence as leaders, especially in an environment filled with masculine predominance (Eagley, 2003).

Surprisingly the exclusion of women from leadership positions includes even those areas where traditionally women constitute the majority in the organizations teaching is one of these occupations. Data regarding the participation of women in educational management in developing countries are generally sketchy however; the existing data to still depict very low proportion of women in educational leadership (MoWA, 2002).

Women's low status in Ethiopia, as anywhere else, is expressed in different forms including in their lack of assets to ownership, leadership and decision making opportunities and their multiple role that made them lag behind every endeavor. Only 30.8 % of female employments are in the formal sector, which are mainly engaged in clerical and fiscal administrative positions earning less than 200.00 birr per month. Moreover, only 29% of professional positions are occupied by women compared to 71% that of men. Moreover, illiteracy is high at 74%, 54% for male and 75% for female. The gap goes wider as one goes higher the educational ladder (MoE, 2007).

Furthermore, numerous and varied customs and traditions prevalent in the country continue to define 'women's appropriate public behaviors' trigger interlocking forms of institutional exclusion of women. Besides, the decision-making environment is not gender friendly. The situation is further exacerbated in a country where the political and culture background does not encourage women's participation. These among others have made women's participation in various development endeavors mainly in leadership and decision making positions insignificant, where most important decisions that affect their life are taken.

2.4 Barriers to Women's Progress to Leadership Positions

Women have always had the capacity and desire for leadership, however, due to political, economic and societal restrictions, they were not able to advance in leadership positions (Porterfield, 2005). A number of writers have attempted to identify and categorize some of these barriers to the progress of women's careers in educational leadership (Brown and Ralph, 1996; Coleman, 2001; Hall, 1996). Many researchers believe that we live in man dominated world where gender power relations are clearly in favor of men. Three types of

barriers are put forward by researchers: the first one states sex role stereotype as an influencing factor, the second is concerned with the emotionality and feelings of working women and the third barrier is concerned with organizational variables. These are going to be discussed here with.

2.4.1 Institutional Barriers

Despite significant efforts made by the feminist and equal opportunities movements, women still face unspoken prejudices in the workplace. Sometimes these come to the foreground when a woman assumes a leadership position. They must be aware of this prejudice in order to ensure that they will not act in ways to confirm them. Ankele (1998), described types of stereotypes that may influence the choice of career of women. These are positive, negative and other types of stereotypes. In positive stereotype women are taken caring nature, skill and experience based on household related work, greater manual dexterity, greater honesty, and good physical appearance. It would seem logical to hypothesize that these characters, if true, would help qualify women for nurse, doctor, social worker, teacher, maid, house keeper, sales person etc.

Negative stereotype is described with the following characters, disinclination to supervise other, less physical strength, less ability to do science and Math's, less willingness to travel and to physical danger and use physical force. These characteristics make it possible for men to have jobs like manager, supervisor, government executive, miner, driver, police officer security guard etc. this may put women at a disadvantage. Other types of stereotypes include women own such character as; greater willingness to take order, greater docility, and less likelihood to complain about work or working conditions, less likelihood to join labour unions, greater willingness to accept lower wages and less need for income, greater interest in working at home. These characters have a greater influence on the general characters typifying female occupations than on qualifying or disqualifying women for particular occupations (Bass, 1998).

Most men and women even, within the work environment, believe that women are not fit for leadership since they easily fall apart when the going gets tough, love to gossip, afraid to make decisions, are not good team players, allow their families and personal lives to get on the way of their job, can't travel as they have personal and family commitments, gets emotional and cry too easily, make things complicated and are moody at certain times of the month or are inconsistent. These and other behavior patterns are uniquely assigned to women leaders in their daily lives. The following paragraphs discuss what other researchers about the root causes of women being prejudiced in the work environment.

Women are raised being told that they are in danger in most societies. It is true that the crime rate on women has shown a significant increase. Simmons (1996) contends that as children girls can be sensitive, soft and can cry when they are hurt. They are expected to be frightened if there is aggression about and not stand up for themselves. Later in life women find that being too emotional is itself a part of a negative stereotype about how women behave at work-if one gets too emotional, this leads to poor judgment on their part as well as being difficult for everyone else (particularly for men).

Nevertheless, little girls are brought up with some expectation that being soft unacceptable-for e.g. expressions of outrage and anger are considered 'unfeminine'. 'Real women' do not become hostile or demanding, turn violent, or make trouble. This can create particular difficulties for women where their class position or culture encourages them to be powerful.

Some of the major constraints hindering the progress of women in sustainable development are: the low level of consciousness in society of the role played by women in the development of the country; the deep-rooted cultural beliefs and traditional practices of society that prevent women playing their full role in the development process; lack of appropriate technology to reduce the workload of women at the household level; shortage of properly qualified female development agents to understand and help motivate and empower rural women.

These are countries where they “are cast as both bringers of change and guardians of the old cultures”. Economic rationalization programmes in developing countries intended to liberate the market present their own contradictions. Discussing the effects of one such programme in India, Ghosh (1996) argues that the economic policies and liberating market forces, which only take productive economy into consideration, are structurally biased against, and further disadvantage, women. On the meso-level, attention is drawn to power relations within organizations and, in particular, the hierarchical and paternalistic nature of most educational institutions. Acker and Feuerger (1996) present an analysis of the university as “a patriarchal institution inevitably favoring men”. Heald (1997) describes paternalism as “a tactic of power not only in the obvious sense of ‘father knows best’, but because it makes everyone else responsible for father’s disfavor”.

In a study of primary schools, Court (1998) reports that despite the changing image of gendered leadership images, links persist between dominant forms of masculinity and authority and leadership. Garrett (1997) reports a conversation with a female head teacher who spoke of the difficulty local authority officers had in dealing with her as a woman and particularly as a woman in a “position of authority”.

Newman (1994) points out that women managers seem to be accepted but often only in a traditional familial role; that is: as mothers, concerned with staff welfare; as aunts, the older, single woman with a senior status but little real power; as wives, the supportive secretary or assistant; or, as daughters, who are “allowed some privileges on the expectation that they would eventually leave home and therefore present little challenge”. The third dimension, concerning the individual can be conceptualized in terms of women’s perceived lack of self esteem (Gold, 1996); which may well be a consequence of the impositions of traditional male hegemony at the macro level and the patriarchal culture and climate at the meso-level.

There is also the added imperative of dutiful compliance to socialization and societal “norms”, values and roles. In their study of Ugandan women managers, for instance,

Brown and Ralph (1996) draw attention to the different experiences of males and females in education and “the additional social responsibilities that the majority of girls and women hold”. Within this contextual background, the authors conducted an exploratory study in order to: determine the major influences on women’s career choices and, in particular, their family backgrounds and history; identify the positive or negative influences encountered by women as they sought to progress within their careers in educational leadership; and identify commonalities and differences between women seeking senior positions in education in a range of cultures and societies.

Ababayehu (1995) described in his study some of the proposed weaknesses within an organization, especially educational institutions, reflecting on what Shakesht (1989) has written. The first perspective is that Women can’t handle the pressure and threat with students’ disciplinary problems. Morgan Tanton (1995), further elaborates the issue, he contends that this is mostly referred to particular characteristics which women needed or lacked, for example, assertiveness, aggression, self-esteem, confidence, and so on. For example, they said ‘women are less aggressive’, ‘women lack self-esteem’. Men perceived women to be nurturing than men as suitable more for teaching than administration. But according to Maccoby & Jacclin (1975) it is not long age tradition that made them so. There is no reason to claim the behavior doesn’t exist in men. Emotionality, suffering from stress, taking maternity leaves has also been considered as a deficiency at the work place.

Another barrier described is that women lack self confidence mainly in order to exercise command and set things done. But as some studies reveal it is the level of showing confidence that differentiate the two, men show in public sphere (Maccoby and Jaccin, 1981). It is true that all women are not equal they are as different with each other as they are with men. Therefore the myth that all can progress under the right circumstances is wrong. In fact Shakeshaft further argues the things are that women’s self confidences, in terms of male defined standards, i.e, in sight of the level of confidence women develop in

public sphere activities. Thus since women have been kept separate from public sphere. Obviously the lack the experience thus has been interpreted for lack of self-confidence.

Though the above is so true the extent to which women internalize or reject is a limiting factor on their career progress to greater extent. They may experience a lack of courage to try new skills or fear to join leadership positions least encounter failure (Cubillo, 2003).

2.4.1.1 Sex Role Stereotypes

One of the theories put forward to explain the under-representation of women in senior management positions is that of socialization and stereotyping. The stereotyping of women can be traced through history, with roots being in religious traditions and diverse cultural histories. Many ancient texts contain references to women being obedient or submissive to men. These texts lay out rules about what women can and cannot do how they are to speak, stand and even what they were to wear. In very primitive cultures (such as the Nomadic tribes of Africa) there is commonly a social group which places men at the “head” as hunters and gatherers, with the women far beneath them on the social ladder.

Schmuck (1986) warns of the dangers of subscribing to this “deficit” model where women are seen to need to be trained or educated up to the level of men, rather than being valued for what they might bring to the field of Management.

In various societies certain behavior or characteristics are considered as typical of female nature or others as a sexual line is commonly called sex role stereotypes (Yekfign, 1990). In other words, expectation and beliefs that individuals in certain culture hold about the characters of men and women constitute stereotypes. It is accepted that stereotypes exist in almost all societies. But the belief that men and women possess different characters typical to each sex is widely held at every social setting (Colwell, 1989).

Such factors as the once mentioned above may have an effect on many parts of women’s life. It seem clear that women’s responsibility for house wok and child care affects the types of jobs many prefer, since flexible jobs in terms of hours (part time jobs) and

relatively easy entry/exist/reentry enable women to combine work and family. However, there are two possible reasons why “female” occupations tend to be flexible in terms of hours and labour turnover. It could be that women gravitate towards occupations with these of the type of sex stereotyping described just above with flexible working condition or consequence of the fact that these are female occupations (Ankele, 1998).

On the whole traits that society prescribes for the sexes seem roughly to fall in competency and communal cluster (Eagly and Steffen, 1992). Some of the stereotypes may have biological ground. Ababayehu (1995), contends the sex hormones, physical characters of boys and girls can potential influence how the behavior for him the tendency for men to be aggressive of difference in dispositional traits. In some other studies (Jacline and Maccoby, 1975) it is found that men are physically stronger than women. Women were observed to be manually dexterous than men. Does this affect the way that women rule or aspire for leadership in educational institutions? No as Rolan 1992, say that even the largest difference in cognitive functioning is not as large as the differences that male and female height.

The impact of stereotypic belief and biases may sometimes arise from the cultural restrictions in some societies. Women’s career advancement to educational leadership is no exception. It largely centered in the self concepts of male “gate keepers”. Attitudinal studies show that males in positions have less positive attitude than do females towards women in educational administration. Many of the belief forwarded in the form of sex role stereotypic assumptions.

When examining the relationship between work and family, researchers and writers have all too often ignored and underestimated the time and efforts involved in housework and child-care and the inequality of the distribution of labour in the home (Buckely, 1995). Woman in most societies take charge of the household responsibilities. They do hours of cleaning, washing, cooking, decorating, buying and repairing cloths, and so on; and still most do not complain about their over responsibility.

The work share women handle in the household or within the community is enormous. Women are primary responsible for the household responsibilities activities. All the household chores including caring for a child, the old and the sick is mainly women's responsibilities. Even, in, most households, husbands need caring services form their wives.

The engagement of women in paid employment has not relieved them from house hold responsibilities. As a result, women unlike men are found working longer hours at home even after their paid work outside. Since a number of women do not afford the cost of housemaids, particularly, in this economy, women carry out the domestic works without the assistance of maids. Moreover women's lack the support of husbands in handling domestic activities and it is identified as a major problem.

There are little improvements of men's engagement in some domestic activities. It is still seen as a taboo and does not help to degrease women's domestic burden. Women are also found active in community words. Apart from activities in the household, women during mourning, wadding and other related events handle activities similar to their household works (cooking, cleaning).in the community while men do other things. They perform these activities without any consideration of payment.

In relation to paid jobs, according to a study in two sub cities in Addis Ababa (Yeka and Bole) by Eyuel (2007), women do support by working formally employed and or informally as petty traders, housemaid among other things. Which ever the case the income they generate is considered less or secondary compared to what men husbands generate some have found that the income that they generate is importance is of a primary source to the survival of their family, according to the findings. Unlike men women's work is given less value by their coworkers, customers and relatives.

Sadie (2005) advanced the argument that at the bottom of the constraints that women face is the patriarchal system where decision making powers are in the hands of males. In the African context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes regarding the role and status of women in society are still prevalent and many women are part of this system finding it difficult to dislocate from this culture and tradition lest they be ostracized. Despite women's education and entry into the job market, the woman's role is typically one of homemaker. The man, on the other hand, is bread winner, head of household and has a right to public life (Sadie, 2005).

2.4.1.2 Glass Ceiling

Glass ceiling is a symbolic term for the existence of an invisible line in the hierarchical structures of working life above which it is difficult for women to rise (Auster, 1993; Kauppinen- Toropainen, 1994, Wirth 2001). Auster claim that the glass ceiling is a gender bias that occurs all the time and takes many forms. Women encounter both internal and external obstacles in their careers. It has been easier for a woman to reach a middle management position in an organization than to rise to the very top management. However, if she does that, she is still a "loner" that is, the only or most only representative of her own sex (Kauppinen-Toropainen, 1987).

In other public arenas, women's access to leadership positions has been hindered by discrimination and stereotyping. Women are more or less persecuted for seeking an executive position. This is largely due to society's attitude toward appropriate male and female roles. In their discussion on barriers women face in leadership positions, Growe and Montgomery (2000) say that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to seek leadership positions. There are also few social networks (formal and informal) for women such as membership in clubs, resulting in a lack of recognition that leads to advancement.

Administrative/leadership positions require hard work, long hours and are stressful. For women, this burden is added on to their child-care, home, and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the 'double shift' in Sader, et al. (2005). These observations are also true of women in higher education. In addition to issues of family responsibility that make it difficult for women to advance, cultural beliefs about the roles of men and women inhibit women's advancement to top leadership as much as it does in politics (Pandor, 2006). Pandor (2006) also pointed out the all too common statement (often not taken seriously) that women at senior level positions are not always supportive of other women and tend to want to maintain the status quo. Of course, institutional culture and micro politics do act as barriers for women implicitly or explicitly influencing the research environment that ultimately breeds professors and executive leaders. For many women, the time demands of such positions conflict with the demands of the family, and this in itself is a barrier.

2.4.2 Intra -personal Barriers

A second group of theories considers internal barriers such as one's lack of confidence, lack of competitiveness and a fear of failure. Often the result of socialization and the historical dominance of men over women, these "internal" barriers are not easily overcome (Acker and Feuerverger, 1996).

However, these qualities should not necessarily be seen as weaknesses, but strengths women could utilize for effective leadership and management. Kruger (1996), reports from her research that women successfully used adaptation and conflict avoidance to solve conflicts, unlike men, who were generally much more competitive and less likely to be able to employ such strategies. Cubillo (1999) found in her study that women's so-called lack of confidence was more to do with unfamiliarity with the territory than a lack of faith in their abilities. The fear of failure, too, tended to be much reduced once women were aware of the "rules of the game".

This initial fear of the unknown is hardly surprising given women's virtual exclusion from the male-dominated world of educational management for so long. Exploring the contradictions faced by women "working inside a system not of their own making", Blackmore (1999) describes them as "outsiders inside"; that is, inside the institution, but outside the "boys' club".

A third model concerns the culture and traditions affecting the ways in which women can operate within society. Meron (2003) have identified three levels: the "macro" socio-political level; the "meso" organizational level; and the "micro" level which concerns the individual herself. The socio-political dimension focuses on the entrenched hegemonic traditions and culture of a region or country (often strongly influenced by religious customs and beliefs) which women, positioned by circumstances, are obliged to accept. In their introduction to an international study of gender and management in education, Drake and Owen (1998) draw attention to countries where women are both leaders and among the most oppressed people.

2.4.3 Cultural and Sociological Factors

It is difficult in the African environment with its extreme deprivation to emphasize women's issues when there are so many pressing national issues (BBC News, 2005). Tripp (2001) also found that despite the political progress made by women in the 1990's, their efforts did not pay off in terms of women being appointed to public office. Women lack the necessary financial support or resources (often mobilized individually and publicly) and this is another tactical measure applied to discourage women from politics. In addition, they are said to lack political experience, confidence, education and connections to run for office (Tripp, 2001: BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to women's reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to women's participation in leadership (Shayo, 2005).

These barriers are not unique to African women. Similar issues have been raised regarding educated Chinese women. Qin (2000), in examining the development of female college students in China, found that several factors combine to restrict their desire to become successful career women. These include traditional prejudice, social pressures, women's sensitivity to people's misconception of successful women, and the tendency of men to choose 'family-oriented' wives. These women even fear being more capable than men and as a result shy away from demanding jobs. Women are torn between work and family as, on the one hand they do not want to be housewives but at the same time they are challenged to be super women. They wish for and fear the opportunities and challenges of the external world.

Professional women in managerial positions face many challenges and those in institutions of higher learning are no exception. Moutlana (2001) noted that the socialization of women at the work place occurs within a system of power and inequality and those systems tend to reproduce various forms of inequality. In South Africa, traditional universities have had corporate cultures whose norms and values were those of the dominant white male society (Moutlana, 2001). When women join such institutions as leaders, they soon realize that they are expected to conform or assimilate to the established culture. After all, how can one be admitted to an exclusive club, and then contradict the club's core values? Moutlana argues that women (Black women particularly) in management are more visible, experience more hardship and feel isolated. Women have to work extra hard as they do not seem to be given the latitude to make mistakes.

In many institutions women's attainment of leadership positions has been facilitated by the implementation of employment equity policies and affirmative action. However, because of this there is the perception that one was 'let in,' and even the most capable women are viewed with suspicion. Leadership for women is not an easy task, and, as observed by Moutlana (2001), moving up and staying at the top is not necessarily filled with joy.

Other literature on women's leadership in higher education reveals that women are less likely than men to participate in upper levels of administration (Tedrow, 1999). This author advances the theory that there is some kind of 'success-avoidance' by women that influences their leadership ability or interest in leadership positions. Advocacy in the higher education arena has tended to rely upon and respond to government legislation on equity rather than being something that women in the sector actively struggle for.

Clearly, many women do make sacrifices in the effort to succeed, whether professionally or personally. For example, women still expect and are expected to take responsibility for bringing up their children, but less parental responsibility is expected of men.

As observed by Polly (1988), "If women don't care enough for their children, they know their children risk neglect. If men don't care enough, they know their wives will" (Washington Monthly, May 5, 1988). This observation is true for many working African women today. The issue of children, or family for that matter, is one that disturbs many women as they make the decision to take up a leadership position. Therefore, it is not surprising that some women are perceived as avoiding success in order to care for their families.

According to Yania (2008), Ethiopia is one of the countries where gender disparities exist in the family, society and in the work place. In line with this, socio-cultural factors were mentioned as one for the hindrances for women's participation in leadership. These mainly include socialization of women in the family and in the society and gender decision of labour that is women's family responsibilities and community responsibilities and their impact on the level of women's participation in leadership.

The study (Yania, 2008), was conducted on academic women in leadership: in the case of Addis Ababa University. Its findings indicated that women in Ethiopian family are considered as a secondary sex mainly because of patriarchal relationships most of the family orients women to be dependent and introverts individuals whereas men grew on the way to be extroverts and independent which in turn affects the attitude of both men and

women towards themselves and holding o leadership positions. As the result of this participation in leadership is characterized as the masculine and women's involvement in the leadership is not as such encouraged and even the hiring of bodies are also unintentionally influenced to nominate males for leadership positions. So generally speaking the society women grew up in, their current family and the work environment, told them they cannot move up the corporate ladder. This problem seems to be rooted deep in the society that efforts have to begin from the home level.

2.5 Strategies Used to Ensure Equitable Representation in Leadership Positions

Despite women's efforts (collectively and individually) to fight for recognition and inclusion in all structures of governance, including leadership, it has been very difficult to achieve equity without direct intervention from the government, even where, as in the case of South Africa, the constitution and other regulations make provision for women to be given equal rights to job opportunities and positions of power. For instance there has been a breakthrough in politics for female parliamentarians due to party regulations and electoral laws which have been changed to ensure that women are elected. Changing the rules provides an opportunity for women to participate in politics, since, "women's increased participation in decision-making seldom happens by some evolutionary miracle" (Sadie, 2005).

Worldwide, there are three policies that are applied to ensure women's representation in various structures, and Norris (2000) outlined these as rhetorical strategies, affirmative action programs, and positive discrimination strategies. Rhetorical strategies are an informal means of getting women to participate in decision-making structures articulated through political and other public speeches. Rhetorical strategies are often viewed as merely symbolic gestures made in order to appear politically correct and thus gain political mileage. However, rhetorical strategies may also represent the first step toward more

substantive reforms if they encourage more women to be selected as parliamentary candidates (Norris, 2000).

Unfortunately, rhetorical statements are made that may not always result in implementation and there are usually no mechanisms to ensure or enforce compliance. In the words, of the chairperson to the Kenya Women Parliamentarians Association, “unless the 30 percent target is legalized, women will always remain short-changed” in leadership positions (Daily Nation, July 6, 2007). Rhetorical statements have to be followed up with concrete measures and women themselves should take up this challenge.

Affirmative action has been used in many countries to correct gender imbalances. According to Norris (2000), affirmative action programs are meritocratic policies that aim to achieve fairness in recruitment by removing practical barriers that disadvantage women. Affirmative action programs provide training (on public speaking for example), advisory group goals, financial assistance, and monitoring of outcomes. Gender quotas may fall into this category if they are advisory in nature. Positive discrimination strategies on the other hand set mandatory quotas for the selection of candidates from certain social or political groups (Norris, 2000). Quotas can be set at different levels (to indicate proportion of representation) or at different stages of the selection process. Quotas can also be binding and implemented by law or other internal party rules.

Obviously when quotas are legally specified as part of the constitution, they are more likely to be implemented, and guarantee women (or other minority groups) inclusion in leadership. Some people view this process as unfair as some people are automatically included or excluded from recruitment processes exclusively on the basis of their gender or race. It has been argued that such strategies violate the principles of fairness and competence and contribute to a culture of laxity in women (Sadie, 2005).

As Sheely and Stallworth (2000) described women should not expect overt discrimination, but do need to be aware of how stereotypes can manifest themselves on the job. Almost

immediately, a woman's level of commitment to the company may be questioned. Typically, women in the workforce are classified into two groups: career-primary women and career-and-family women. While professional success is the priority of career-primary women, career-and-family women want the flexibility to balance their family and work. Rice (2006) the following suggested the following variables or actions as platform for solving or reducing the problems faced b y women today:

2.5.1 Mentoring

The concept of mentoring has its origins in Greek mythology. "Ulyssess" entrusted has son, Telemadus, to care and direction of his friend, Mentor, while he went off to fight in the torjan wars. The word 'Mentor' has since become synonymous with wise counseling and has, in recent years, been adopted as a conscious development option by many companies (Williamson, 2007).

The role of a mentor is difficult to define, for the function is informal and voluntary. Having a mentor is like having one's own career development officer. A mentor goes beyond the call of obligation in to the realm of guardian angel ship. A boss teaches a subordinate what to do, but a mentor presents a protégé with a privileged view of what to be. Mentors are surrogate parents, experts in subtle modeling, in well placed introduction to people and ideas and, probably most important, in the subtle are of letting go.

From the point of view of organizational leaders, mentoring ensures 'the smooth transfer of the company culture between one generation of managers and he next', a process necessary 'for the long term corporate growth and survival if the company'. When mentoring works well, the new junior manager will have detailed knowledge of how to handle both peers and subordinates and with how to exercise and feel comfortable with power.

It is easy to argue that women should be mentored by women and men by men. This solution would certainly eliminate many sex role problems in organizations. In addition, mentors would be dealing with protégés with whom they could easily empathize and

protégés would be provided with same sex role models with whom they could easily identify. In fact, it is usually assumed that best possible mentors for aspiring female are a more highly placed female.

The need to actively seek out mentors and to identify multiple mentors who can serve multiple needs. For instance, one mentor may have functional expertise of interest; another may be particularly politically savvy, such that he/she can help to navigate the organization; yet another may have leadership qualities to emulate. And sometimes, a great mentor is someone who can be a sounding board for issues one faces, and help reflect back ways in which to manage a particular situation.

But still this could present a problem too as there are only a few women who are at the top leadership positions to serve as mentors. One solution suggested by Williamson (2007) is to use men as mentors to women. She even mentions his own experience in making men change agents and gave some useful tips that male partners can offer:-

Engage in the dialogue with women – ask questions; provide honest feedback, guidance and tips. Don't sugarcoat it – if there is something a woman, or man, needs to do to improve, it's important to be candid and explain what actions should be taken.

Place women in key roles – understand and appreciate the richness that diversity of thought and a woman's leadership style can bring to your project, client, or team.

Be willing to be a mentor – help women come up with good solutions to tough situations with clients or colleagues and encourage them to seek advancement opportunities in their career.

2.5.2 Networking

There are few social networks (formal and informal) for women such as membership in clubs, resulting in a lack of recognition that leads to advancement. Administrative/leadership positions require hard work, long hours and are stressful. For

women, this burden is added on to their child-care, home, and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the 'double shift' in Sader, et al. (2005).

To overcome this overwhelming situation relationships matter, regardless of whether one resides in a complex organization or small business, in a corporate staff role or a personal sales role. Women need to invest in relationship development for their own sake, and they need not be afraid to leverage those relationships when needed.

Networking is the process of developing and using one's contacts for information, advice and moral support as one pursues his/career (Welch, 1991). It's building a community of working women, across professional and occupational lines, outside the 'old boy's' network, as the above mentioned writer puts it. It is asking for help when you need it, Welch adds-knowing when you need it, knowing whom and how to ask for it. It's giving help; too, serving as a resource for other women, in sum it's getting together ahead.

But a good network is not always composed of women. A good networker uses every resource available to her; and that includes men, besides, as Crowley (1990), points out men are the only ones out there. Women are seeking out other women-for information, advice, for moral support- because only other women in business have problems that their male colleagues simply don't have. Not least among those problems is the fact that men don't acknowledge that such problems exist. Another reason may be that women need other women to talk to is the men's informal network. Men are leaving women out of their informal channels. Men aren't telling women what they tell each other as a matter of course. Whether this is deliberate or not is a moot point. Whatever the cause it puts women at a disadvantage for information is power.

By networking women are establishing connections with each other both inside and outside the places where they work both in groups formed for the purpose and in one-to-one relationships they develop informally. But some ask aren't women supposed to mistrust each other? That is a common view, says Collins (1993), but good networkers are trusting

and helping their women to a degree that defies the old stereotypes. Probably, the biggest benefits of effective networking are psychological—a sense of community, for example, as opposed to the feeling of separateness so many women experience in “man world”. To find role models, to see how successful women talk and act, can give a psychological uplift. But there are also precise pragmatic benefits, one is information. Information is power. What one does not know can hurt. A network is a conduit to the kind of information you need in order to advance in your career. You don’t even have to know what kind of information that is; in fact, you probably don’t know at this juncture. Referrals is the other benefit of networking; sometimes the best kind of information is a referral, “I don’t know” your networker will say but you should talk to x and y. knowing whom to call is almost as good as knowing. Thirdly, feedback is another benefit of networking; it helps to check out the behavior, idea, strategies for success for going out to the real world.

2.5.3 Self Advocacy

Women need to become their own causes to success, their own bosses and change agents. There has been facilitating mechanisms to ensure that women are given a chance at attaining leadership positions such as gender quotas and affirmative action policies (Kiamba, 2009). Women’s collective movement to speak for themselves in this regard has been given the name ‘Women’s Activism’. This by definition implies, acting upon, acting against, and acting for causes and issues of social concern and not only personal concern (Nair, 2004). Women’s activism, the world over, has been successful in creating the legal framework and constitutional changes that have enabled women to attain positions of power/leadership. There is no doubt that women have come a long way in challenging the status quo. African women in particular have made great achievements, especially in political activism given their cultural and social backgrounds. The growth in women’s organizations in Africa since the 1990’s, and their ability to organize locally and nationally to voice their concerns has been phenomenal (Tripp, 2003)

Experts say that it is good to take a chance and get involved in every activity available to them. Women will need to work systematically at reclaiming feeling good about themselves. Gender conditioning, by defining the characteristics of a 'real woman', confronts each woman with how she fails to live up to the definition this causes feeling of inadequacy and self criticism. Low self- esteem is a terrible burden women may end up not trusting their own judgments, always seeing the worst of them-selves and, in some way, setting up situations so that failure is more likely.

The most important contradiction to feeling badly about oneself is to begin the task of reclaiming one's self-esteem. Women can decide that they will not spend time worrying about the 'right way' of doing things, begin to notice what they do well and refuse to listen to inappropriate criticism. They can have fun appreciating themselves. Many women report that it is helpful to undertake self-appreciation without limit or reservation and to continue to do so every day, especially at times when one is feeling self-critical or is being criticized.

Some researchers (Laney, Adler and Parker, 1996) tried to explain women's career prospects in terms of women's deficiency and inability to accept the challenge of promotion. But several recent studies have attempted to find a different explanation for women's exclusion from powerful positions in education. These researchers also mentions many other publications, aimed at women managers, these encourages women to act like men not to cry and to dress like men, minimize their femininity, to be successful and gain acceptance by others.

To see this concept in educational context, teaching is accepted to be a job for women. It, teaching children, is associated with motherhood, marriage and the caring aspect of femininity. It is seen as an acceptance job for women and as one that fits with women's other roles (Parker 1996). Some of the suggestion given by literature suggests that women should be champions of their own self, being their own boss and being confident in their achievements in their career.

In general the literatures reviewed prove that there are barriers to women's aspiration to move up the corporate ladder of organization. Making the root cause of the problems was and still is the designations given to leaders. Earlier management took it for granted the managers are men and ignored gender issues altogether. Obvious discriminations of women from privileged positions were made even in management text books and management theories, like the Great Man theory and Behavioral Studies.

Even after traditional stereotypes start to fade away the discrimination of women from management positions is still evident, as the differences between male and female leadership is being entailed (Tripp, 2001). This basically revolves around women's positions in the society and in the house hold and the related characteristics they manifest to go over the responsibilities. For instance nurturing and caring for others feelings is considered as only a woman's character. Among the institutional barriers sex role stereotypes and the Glass Ceiling can be mentioned as determining factors. Intra personal barriers, i.e. not aspiring for leadership positions and socio cultural barriers are also considered as contributing factors for women not to join leadership positions. But the suggested remedies for these were also articulated. Generally speaking these are Mentoring, Networking and Self-Advocacy.

Chapter Three

Research Design and Methodology

In this chapter of the study, the discussion focuses on the overall research design and strategies. The first part describes the research method of the study. While, the second details data gathering instruments one by one. Also, the sample population, sampling techniques and the sample area are also entailed. Data gathering procedures and data analysis methods are also discussed.

3.1 The Research Method

The general aim of the study was to look in to the barriers for women to enter leadership positions in secondary schools of Addis Ababa. Additionally both the internal and external barriers, and to how much extent it affected women teachers' aspiration to join leadership positions was targeted up on. The study aims more specifically on finding the institutional and external factors women leaders perceive as a dominant barrier in their career. The above mentioned issues are worth investigating to do so the perceptions and experiences of women in educational administration is important to have a full-fledged view of the problem.

Keeping this in mind, Descriptive research design was chosen as the appropriate method of carrying out this study. The term descriptive research refers to the type of research question, design, and data analysis that are applied to a given topic. It does not "fit neatly into the definition of either quantitative or qualitative research methodologies, but instead it can utilize elements of both, often within the same study" (AECT, 2001). This method was chosen for its appropriateness to the nature of the topic, which needed wider description and investigation of facts and opinions related to the current status of the problem as well as to collect and analyze data so as to find possible solutions or to forward recommendations. Furthermore, the relevance of this descriptive method for such purposes has been emphasized by Seyoum and Ayalew (1989); Kane (1995), and Kelinger (1986).

3.2 Data Source

Both primary and secondary sources were used as data source in the process of collecting data. The primary sources of the data are women principals, deputy principals and unit leaders working in Addis Ababa secondary schools, Addis Ababa City Administration Education bureau officials and sub city level education representatives. As for secondary data source, documents, records of strategies to assign principals, periodicals and annual statistical reports from Addis Ababa City Administration.

3.3 Instruments

There are different data gathering instruments that were employed for this study. it was felt essential to adopt both a quantitative and qualitative data collection approach, which are survey instruments that help reveal the nature and strength of women education leaders as well as pinpoint problems that hamper Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. The quantitative data was obtained from questionnaire whilst the qualitative approach took the form of in-depth interviews to acquire relevant information. The details of each instruments used are as follows.

Questionnaire

The questionnaires are an extremely flexible, for a researcher, data gathering tool as data on almost any topic involving large or small numbers of people can be gathered. A questionnaire was designed in English as it was established that the respondents, secondary school teachers and leaders. The goal of the questionnaire is to uncover mainly the institutional and external barriers for women teachers face to become leaders. To go along with this, the strategies that women leaders used to overcome these barriers are also looked in to. Overall, the questionnaire consisted of three sections, prepared for secondary school leaders and teachers (see Appendix A).

Section one was designed to collect data on the background characteristics of the target groups that pertain to the demographic features, education level, years of service in teaching and leadership, marital status as well as number of children. The second section was prepared in the form of close ended multiple choice questions. The aim of the multiple choice questions was to find out the dominant institutional, external and domestic barriers that women teachers encounter while perusing their career advancements. These were designed to enable the respondents to bring together the multifaceted problems they perceive as barriers, in to a specific category, institutional, external and domestic. In congruence with this, it was aimed at identifying which barrier is the dominant from within each category. Also since it was distributed to both those in leadership positions and those who are not, the questions helped to find out the differences and or similarities in perceptions and what can cause it.

The second item of the questionnaire are composed of Likert scale questions, to find out the most prevailing measures that needs to be taken to reduce or alleviate the barriers for women in secondary schools in Addis Ababa. Likert scale questions are a type of survey questions where respondents are asked to rate the level at which they agree or disagree with a given statement. The level of agreement was indicated on five-point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'disagree'.

Pilot testing

In order to undertake some necessary corrections and modifications on the questionnaire, pilot testing was conducted prior to the final distribution to respondents. For this purpose a secondary school in Sendafa city was selected, to include a sample outside the study population. In this regard, about 20 teachers filled the questionnaire. Afterwards each item of the questionnaire was examined to detect ambiguous and unclear statements. For instance some indicated that some of the options in the first item of the questionnaire are not descriptive of their own perception of barriers and experiences. Therefore improvements were made to insure validity of the information from the questions.

Interview

Interviewing according to Anderson and Jack (19991), are “particularly valuable for uncovering women’s perspective” of the problem. In this regard both semi-structured and unstructured techniques of interviewing, were used to interview with the participants of the study, mainly focusing on female administrators. The semi-structured interview questions were administered to female administrators (Principals and deputy principals). While the unstructured once, were employed to those responsible at city education administrators and those in Woreda education offices.

The interview questions were intended to get an inner insight of women administrators’ perception in joining leadership. Moreover, exclusive information regarding the challenges they faced in their career advancement and how they persevered was obtained, through the open discussion. Additionally, it was intended to get acquainted with their childhood background as well as their experiences they gained at the start of their career, and how it helped them to up grade themselves to the positions they are in at the moment. Notably, this is inline with the questions raised at the start of the study, in the basic questions.

The interviews made with regional and sub city officials, were also important data sources, as they shaded lights on how they recruit and select principals in the selected area of research. The aim of conducting these interviews is to balance the views obtained from the respondents of the questionnaire regarding the criteria, and attitude of recruitment and selection of principals within city administration and the respective Wereda education bureau. The content of the questions also cover the issues of gender blend policies and their utilization within the assignment of principals in secondary schools in the city. Also their view of strategies that encourage women to join leadership was inquired to poise with the strategies suggested from the principals and teachers.

3.4 Sample Area, Sample population and Sampling Techniques

In this sub section, the rational for selecting the sample area is illustrated; along with the description of the sample population and sample size. Also the sampling techniques employed to gather data is thoroughly described.

3.4.1 The Sample Area

The research is based in the city of Addis Ababa. It is located in the geographic center of the country. Addis Ababa has the status of both a city and a state, with a charter endorsed by the national government. The Mayor has responsibilities that include: primary, secondary, and college education; primary health care, health centers, and hospitals; policing, water supply and infrastructure. The city council, which is elected directly every five years, provides the mayor with a cabinet, which functions to help the mayor in decision-making (New World Encyclopedia, 2009).

There are about ten Sub-Cities within the jurisdiction of the City Administration. Recently, each monitor smaller structures called “Woredas”. According to the information from the city administration bureau, each Woreda has its own respective control on sub-subsectors, such as the education bureau. The rational for selecting this city was based on two reasons. Primarily the researcher is a resident of the city and had worked in one of the primary schools, making it suitable to observe the gap in women joining leadership positions. But as the data collected from the Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau manifests the problem is more severe in secondary schools than in primary schools. Therefore, the focus of the study was delimited within secondary schools in Addis Ababa,

Generally speaking, female teachers contribute a small proportion to the total number of the teaching staff throughout the city’s secondary schools, as table one below illustrates. Unfortunately as the same table manifests things are not any different with the representation of women in leadership positions. It was difficult to find the most recent

data on the number of women in leadership position within the sub cities. Though this is so based on last year's report, four sub cities (Bole, Kirkos, Yeka and Ledeta) and some of the secondary schools within their administration were selected as the lower link of this study. The grounds to select each are somehow related since all sub cities have lower rates of female teachers and administrators in secondary schools. But also at the same time each has a unique character. One of them has more than one deputy principal while others have none. Hence the selection of the sub cities were based on the fulfillment of the issues raised at the start of the research.

3.4.2 Sample Population and Sample Size

Population

The determination of the population and sample schools bases the 2009 Annual Statistical Report of AACAEB. The general population of the study includes women principals and teachers working in government administered secondary schools in Addis Ababa. There are about 6,018 teachers in the ten sub-cities, 17% of these, 1,055, are female. As table one below shows there are about fifty six secondary schools in the ten sub-cities of Addis Ababa. For the sake of proper handling of resources at hand and representation of the population only four sub-cities were selected. These sub-cities intern eighteen schools under their jurisdiction, for answering the questions raised at the beginning of the study twelve schools were selected. The main theme during the selection of the sub-cities and the schools was the number of female teachers. In one sub-city all of the schools were taken in to consideration for there were only three and all have different kinds of character like no other. But in others, like Bole sub-city, the schools with the highest ratio of female teachers had to be selected and the school with a deputy principal has to be added too.

According to Morgan and Krejcie (1970) the determination of sample size has to be representative of the study population. Therefore in the selected four sub cities, there are almost 500 female teachers, and from out of these 286 were in the twelve schools taken as

a sample. Out of these using the selected sampling technique, 135 were given questionnaire.

Table 1 Principals in the Ten Sub Cities of Addis Ababa

| Sub-city | | Positions | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---------------|------------|---|-------|-------------------|----|-------|-------|----|-------|
| | | Principals | | | Deputy principals | | | Total | | |
| | | M | F | Total | M | F | Total | M | F | Total |
| 1 | Addis Ketema | 3 | - | 3 | 6 | - | 6 | 9 | - | 9 |
| 2 | Akaki Kality | 6 | - | 6 | 11 | 1 | 12 | 17 | 1 | 18 |
| 3 | Arada | 12 | - | 12 | 18 | 5 | 23 | 30 | 5 | 35 |
| 4 | Bole | 3 | 2 | 5 | 8 | 1 | 9 | 11 | 3 | 14 |
| 5 | Gulele | 6 | - | 6 | 7 | 5 | 12 | 13 | 5 | 18 |
| 6 | Kirkos | 5 | 1 | 6 | 12 | - | 12 | 17 | 1 | 18 |
| 7 | Kolfe Keranio | 7 | - | 7 | 14 | - | 14 | 21 | - | 21 |
| 8 | Ledeta | 3 | - | 3 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 8 | 1 | 9 |
| 9 | Nefas Selk | 4 | - | 4 | 7 | - | 7 | 11 | - | 11 |
| 10 | Yeka | 4 | - | 4 | 6 | 3 | 9 | 10 | 3 | 13 |
| Total | | 53 | 3 | 56 | 94 | 16 | 110 | 147 | 19 | 166 |

Source: (Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau:study/plan/budget, 2009)

3.4.3 Sampling Techniques

To ensure a fair representation of all administration parts of Addis Ababa, out of ten sub-Cities, four (40%) sub-cities were selected through purposive sampling technique. In purposive sampling, each sample element is selected for a purpose, usually because of the unique position of the sample elements. Therefore, two sub-cities with female principals and two that doesn't have any principals were selected. In this regard the researcher's own intuition and judgment based on preliminary research and other studies were used, to validate the technique. According to Denscombe (2003) the researcher's own experience in dealing with the specific problem can determine the selection of the sampling technique.

To go about the process using the technique selected, preliminary information was obtained from Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau. And then, as table 1 above shows those sub cities with female administrators were purposefully chosen. In this regard four sub-cities (Bole, Kirkos, Ledeta, and Yeka.) were preferred and after a visit to each one it was possible to determine the secondary schools to be taken as a sample from each of them. Although the primary reason driving the process is the availability of female principals and deputy principals in secondary schools in the four sub-cities, the number of female teachers was also given attention. Also a matter of concern was the gender blend policies employed within each schools, based on the information from sub-city officials.

Another sampling technique was used once the distribution of the questionnaire was started, Availability sampling technique. Availability sampling is a sampling method used to sample what is easy to find and available. Availability sampling is used because it is cost effective and the least time consuming. For instance, availability sampling can be seen through magazine surveys, in which the magazine's readers are targeted because they are the most convenient population. The selection of female teachers was based on this theme, those available during the researcher's presence in the school was given the questionnaire.

3.5 Data Gathering Procedures

The following procedures were carried out to find out factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration. To gain an insightful perspective of the problem extensive relevant literature was assessed. Then some preliminary research was done on the research area, by reviewing some statistical reports and other documents obtained from the City Administration Educational Bureau as well as other sources.

Afterwards appropriate data collection instruments were designed and checked for validity through 'pilot testing'. Subsequently both the questionnaire and the interview questions

were utilized to gather the data needed, after the appropriate permission to enter the research site was obtained. In this regard the City Administration Education Bureau, women's affairs section was informed of the objective of the research and was cooperative in writing a supporting letter to the all the sub-cities and secondary schools to be visited. Hand in hand with this each of the four sub-cities responsible officials and the principals of each school were informed of the purpose of the questionnaire before the distribution.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

After the collection of the questionnaire; the information was organized and tabulated in a meaningful manner. The collected data from the Likert scale questions were organized and framed by suit analysis and interpretation was made by categorizing of rate of the respondents to each item as positive (those who answered agree and strongly agree), as neutral (for undecided) and as negative (strongly disagree and disagree). In order to provide answers to the basic questions percentages and mean were employed to describe the data quantitatively and tables were used to summarize the data. Data obtained from document and interview was used to complement and support the quantitative data.

As for the data from the interview, a compiled note of the major information was made at the end of each interview with school administrators and sub-city officials. Meticulously, the information from the interviewees were organized in a meaningful manner, according to the questions they were asked and the general theme of the study. In other words, as Creswell (2008), describes coding the data (reducing the data into meaningful segments), combining the codes in to broader categories or themes and displaying and making comparisons in different forms are the main elements of analyzing the data. The categories were based on the barriers faced by women's participation in leadership; which by itself includes the socio economic, organizational, and personal variables. Also the opinions of the subjects of the study regarding the strategies for avoiding or reducing the barriers were assembled in line with the general argument.

Chapter Four

Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter deals with to presentation and analysis of the data that are categorized in to two major parts. The first part contains information about the characteristics of the respondents while the second is about is filled with general information about the barriers that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership.

4.1 Characteristics of the Respondents

As it has been indicated in previous chapters the main aim of the study is to assess female teachers' participation in leadership positions in secondary schools in Addis Ababa. To this end the perception and views of these female teachers is mandatory, that is why they are the basic informants of the study. Generally speaking, there are about 29,000 workers in relation to education in Addis Ababa. This includes teachers from Kindergarten to the secondary schools and city administration facilitators; as the annual abstract of the Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau (AACEB, 2002 E.C) describes. According to the same report there were about 30 female officials working at different authority levels, in the bureau and the ten sub cities. Therefore, at the aforementioned year women contributed 20% to the leadership positions. The focal point in this study, however, is on women working in secondary schools. This section contains the background information of the study participants.

The ten sub cities of Addis Ababa administer about 23.013 teachers both in the primary and secondary level. Among these 6018 were serving in the 56 secondary schools, according to the annual report of 2002, mentioned earlier. 17% of these are women, numbering 1,055. It was also evident that there were three principals and sixteen deputy principals scattered around the ten sub cities.

The general information regarding the participants with respect to their responsibility and sex is summarized in the following table.

Table 2 Respondents by Sex and Responsibility

| Responsibilities | Male | | Female | | Total | |
|---------------------------------------|----------|----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Educational bureau officials | 5 | 83 | 1 | 17 | 6 | 100 |
| Principals & D. Principals | 3 | 33 | 6 | 67 | 9 | 100 |
| Teachers | 0 | 0 | 160 | 100 | 160 | 100 |
| Total | 8 | 5 | 167 | 95 | 175 | 100 |

Source: survey Result (see Appendix A)

As the above table shows the very large proportion of the study are female school teachers and school leaders while most of those of the positions in Educational Bureaus in the AACAEB and in sub-cities are filled by men. There were about six female school leaders in the four sub-cities that were included in this study. These were then selected for interviewing and filled in the questionnaire, while, unstructured interviews were employed to assess the views of educational officials and male school leaders. The 160 female teachers were reached though questionnaires, in which, 135 was returned. This makes the return rate to be 84%, among which 10 were incomplete. It is important to mention that the respondents are current workers in twelve secondary schools in four sub-cities in Addis Ababa.

4.2 Barriers to women Teachers to Enter Leadership Positions

Researchers have attempted to find some explanation for lower participation of women in principal positions, usually by focusing on the obstacles women face attempting to obtain a principal-ship. The research literature reveals several different obstacles for women's lack of success in entering administration. These obstacles can be categorized into two groups:

Internal and External obstacles. Taking in to consideration the questions raised earlier in the basic questions, the questionnaire scrutinized on specific factors. The succeeding table demonstrates the core findings from the questionnaire.

Table 3 Barriers to Women Teachers to Enter Leadership Positions

| Barriers | Teachers | | Principals | |
|--|----------|----|------------|----|
| | No | % | No | % |
| No aspiration to leadership positions at the beginning of their career | 84 | 67 | 3 | 50 |
| Masculine domain | 35 | 28 | 1 | 17 |
| Joined the profession believing it's a women's job | 37 | 30 | - | - |
| Problems in attitudes of recruitment | 39 | 31 | 1 | 17 |
| Domestic responsibilities (giving birth & caring for children) | 42 | 34 | 1 | 17 |
| Culture of the society | 32 | 26 | 1 | 17 |
| Women's childhood background | 48 | 38 | 3 | 50 |
| Women's lack of initiative to participate in leadership | 33 | 26 | 3 | 50 |
| Low number of female teachers | 41 | 33 | 1 | 17 |

Source: survey Result (see Appendix A)

4.2.1 Institutional Barriers

Internal obstacles include exist within the internal environment of the secondary schools. The problems detected by some other researchers like: sex-role stereotyping, lack of aspiration, recruitment and selection strategies for the position was scrutinized by other researchers. Additionally, the number of female teachers and the scarcity of role models are also discussed in the sections succeeding.

Factor One: Sex-role Stereotypes

The literature over the past two decades is replete with claims of sex role stereotyping as the major barrier to women seeking entry to or advancement in educational administration

(Abaebayehu, 1995; Meskerem, 2008). It is said that both positive and negative stereotypes are reflected towards women in all types of situations. The positive stereotypes include that women are taken as having caring and nurturing behavior and skills and experiences are based on household related works. Women are also said to have greater manual dexterity, greater honesty and good physical appearance. Negative stereotypes are described with the following characters, disinclination to supervise others, less physical strength, less ability to do science and Math's, less willingness to travel and susceptible to physical danger and use less physical force.

Even in western organizations the ideal of a good manager is still implicitly included in the notion of masculinity that represents qualities such as competitive, aggressive, non emotional, goal orientated and psychologically and physically strong (kauppinn and Aaltio, 2006). According to the encyclopedia of sex and gender (2004) the earliest study on stereotypes were conducted by Mcjee & Sheriffs in the 1950's in California using the list of 200 adjectives they found that there were a large number of characteristics differentially ascribed to men in general and women in general. Men were ascribed as frank, straight forward, rational, competent, bold and effective. Women were emotionally warm and concerned with social customs. Their findings were consistent with those of Parsons and Boves (1955) who identified the traits associated with men as more adaptive instrumental and those associated with females as integrative expressive.

To find out the study participant's perspective on the gender role stereotyping in the school environment some items on the questionnaire focused on related issues. The first one was concerned with what female teachers think about the gender and related characters of a principal should be. The question was provided with options to select from: the first one was concerning masculine characters and the second one tended to represent the feminine behaviors. It is worth reminding that these variables or representations of the sexes that are most commonly used. The third alternative is provided for those who think that both the above characteristics represent the principal. However the fourth one is left for those who think that there could never be a specific character sticking to the position.

Accordingly the findings of this study is quiet different from that of the above mentioned researches. Most of the respondents, about 42%, opted to say that both feminine and masculine characters come to their mind when asked about a principal, as it can be seen from Table 2. Also the next higher choice of the respondents indicates that they think principals should have masculine behaviors, about 28% of them said that they perceived principals with characters like, assertiveness, aggression, high self esteem and self confidence. Of course not an insignificant number of respondents that they see school principals as female (about, 17%) and some did choose not to associate leaders with any of the characters mentioned in the options (about 13%). This shows that the famous trend that men are leaders tend not to be perceived true with this batch of female participants. Hand in hand with this three of the six principals and deputy principals chose feminine characters are what come to their mind when they think of a principal. Since, these have worked in leadership positions before their present one; they may be drawing conclusions from their experience.

There is a wide spread belief that women are suited to the teaching profession because of their caring and nurturing behaviour. They are thought to replace the role of mothers, and students, are almost expected to turn to them for comfort at hard times. When asked about how they joined the teaching profession, only 15% of the respondents joined because they think that it is the suitable job. 42% of them responded that it was the only available career line at the time. The other 13% and 30% said that they joined with the suggestion of a friend or another family member and because they wanted the profession itself, respectively.

Factor Two: Recruitment and selection of Principals

Recruitment is the active pursuit of potential candidates for the purpose of influencing them to apply for positions in the organization. It is a process of searching for qualified prospective candidates, both beginning and experienced and stimulating, them to apply for

vacancies in the organization, in the process of recruitment, an effort is, thus, made to attract potential employees with necessary characteristics and in the proper quantities for jobs available (Melaku, 2010). Once a pool, of potential recruits are created through recruiting the process of selection takes place.

In Ethiopia's educational policy the recruitment and selection of personnel, teachers, principals and other education related officials is supervised indirectly by the Ministry of Education. Regional education bureaus are given the authority to assign these personnel to the right position. These bodies intern are supervised by zones and kelels, and eventually MoE. All regional offices are expected to take the overall human resource plans of the year from these bodies and make its own practical plan. That's why it is reasonable to say that the Human Resource recruitment and selection standards are uniform as are the procedures followed.

The number of a female teacher at various levels and in administrative and leadership positions is low, the number is decreasing as one moves from primary to secondary schools, and institutes of higher learning in Addis Ababa and other districts in the country. Some researchers claim the standards or criteria of recruitment and selection is discriminatory as is the attitude of recruitment. Since the process is an interactive one attitude of recruiters may have a significant influence. Female teachers, 31% of them, perceived that the attitude of the recruitment is a factor that influenced or still influencing them not to join leadership position. They claim that females are knowingly or unknowingly, denied the access though technicality of the process.

According to interviews made with the Addis Ababa City education Bureau officials, a list of qualified people from the teaching staff members or other leadership positions is created after a brief background research. Then a more through assessment is completed concerning the recruits, by taking in to consideration other conditions and traits of each person. The Bole sub city head said that such traits of the person includes working in harmony with others, leadership ability and commendable behavior both at work, or his her

household as well as in the community is given due attention, when asked about the work done to strengthen women's participation in the recruitment process he said that their theme is to have "50 plus 1" participation rates of women in leadership positions. He also added that many women are recommended for principal-ship positions but they are not willing to accept. He reasoned that this may be because of the multifaceted responsibilities of women. Other sub city heads also mentioned the priority they give for women teachers in the recruitment phase. For instance the Kirkos sub city teachers' development head mentioned the need for women in these positions, as they are loyal and dedicated in accomplishing their job and their human relations skills are also considered valuable.

When inquired about the attitudes of those who make the final decision on the recruitment and selection process, all sub city education bureau representatives described some of the efforts made in their part. To start with, the recruiters themselves need to have the right experience and knowledge regarding human resource planning, in educational institutions. Additionally frequent training programs are undertaken to make sure that the recruiters stay flexible with the changes taking place in the work environment. In Yeka sub city it was mentioned that timely assessment is mandatory to contribute to the solution.

In the school environment, when recruiting is done for positions like unit leader and department head in secondary schools, the procedures followed are some what different. Teachers with high achievements in their assessments are selected and then put up for the further assessment. The teaching staff is responsible for evaluating these and finally assigning one that best fits the position.

One principal assumes this procedure to be discriminatory for female teachers. In her experience, she said most staff members don't believe that women are fit for the responsibilities that come with the power to make decisions. She also mentioned that what is written can not be useful unless people's attitude change on the matter. This principal believes that these positions should in by all means have to be considered elementary as they build women's confidence to move to higher positions. Another female deputy

principal, now working in Beshale secondary school, agrees with this argument, saying that the attitudes for recruitment in her school made her to aspire for a higher position. In relation with this she mentioned a well known Ethiopian proverb, “ kefitfetu fitu”, to confirm to the earlier raised issue, attitude of recruitment is a contributory factor to the decreasing number of women in leadership positions.

When enquired about what they consider influences the attitudes of recruitment and selection, female principals and deputy responded that there are many related factors. Three of them mentioned that male teachers have more access to information regarding recruitment issues, this is called informal networks. Travers and Pemberton (2000) do agree that the lack of informal networks can hinder a woman’s chance of career advancement and limit access to resources critical to doing her job properly. To prove the truthfulness of the matter the women mentioned some of their own work experiences. They say that they were the last to know the criteria or standard for leadership positions.

Men on the other hand use their informal networks grasp all the information needed. Previous researches on why women lack the ability to form informal networks. Informal personal contacts one has inside and outside the organization is held responsible for the problem. Also women’s ability to gather information is claimed to be lower than that of men. The amount of communication depends on factors mostly related to gender. The interview results with women in power and the information from questionnaire, filled with female teachers manifested that at the start of their career they had little or no interest in management.

Mainly because of lack of information what it could mean to be in a decision making process and what is really needed for it. This may have been caused by lack of mentors in the work environment. This contemporary scheme and its effect on the school environment are thoroughly discussed in the following section.

Table 4 Institutional variables that are barriers for women to enter leadership

| Characteristics | Teachers | | Principals | |
|--|----------|-----|------------|-----|
| | No | % | No | % |
| Gender blend policies | 10 | 8 | 1 | 17 |
| Criteria for recruitment | 40 | 32 | 2 | 33 |
| Attitude for recruitment | 49 | 39 | - | - |
| Information gap of the recruitment process | 26 | 21 | 3 | 50 |
| Total | 125 | 100 | 6 | 100 |

Source: survey Result (see Appendix A)

As it can be seen from the table highest share of the female teachers, 39%, said that the attitude for recruitment is a barrier within their school. But none of those in leadership positions thought this is an impeding factor for them to join leadership. In fact three of them perceived to be a barrier for them to join leadership, i.e. information gap of the recruitment process. It was evident from the general information gathered that the principal have a considerable experience in the teaching profession, while most of the female teachers, about 42%, have an experience from one to five years. It is obvious that the policies for recruitment and selection for principal-ship may have changed from one year to another; making it reasonable to think that recent changes may been seen in the attitudes for recruitment to be a de-motivating factor for female teachers.

Factor Three: Number of female Teachers

According to the documents analyzed more than six thousand teachers are known to be working in the fifty six secondary schools of Addis Ababa, in the past year. Out of which 17% are female. While the larger half about 83% of the teaching position is occupied by men. In other words there are only 1,055 female teachers at the secondary level within Addis's ten sub cities. On the other hand female teachers in primary level contribute 45% whereas; male educators have 55% contributing to the total amount of 16,281.

It is considered to be an important variable to scrutinize, the number of female teachers as it is widely believed that number have a significant effect on how women view their own role within the school environment. It is also one of the reasons often mentioned as a barrier for women to acquire the leadership positions in schools in the region. Viewing the figures above and comparing the two levels, primary and secondary, makes one to wonder what the reason behind is for the decreased proportion of women teachers in the secondary schools. It is not entirely discouraging but shows that there is room for improvement. Whether the reason lies in the educational requirements needed to enter secondary schools or not is another research topic. But here the focus is how the entry of women to leadership positions can be affected or facilitated by the number of women educators in secondary schools.

Generally speaking almost half of the country's population is contributed to women; any developmental activity of the country should involve them. It is undeniable any social, political and economic activity that does not take in to consideration women can not be complete. The need to ensure the equality of men and women participating and being beneficiaries is un-debatable. Women have great opportunities to succeed in the global knowledge economy in any fields they choose. Unfortunately, outdated beliefs and traditional cultural values sometimes impede women's progress, not only in developing countries, in developed countries as well.

More than 200 years ago, Mary Wollstonecraft wrote, as quoted by Pevitts (2006),

Women are told from their infancy, and taught by the example of their mothers, that a little knowledge of human weakness, justly termed cunning, softness of temper, outward obedience, and a scrupulous attention to a puerile kind of propriety, will obtain for them the protection of man, and should they be beautiful, everything else is needless, for, at least, twenty years of their lives.

To what extent has the world changed from the 18th Century and to what extent do traditional beliefs tether women and prevent them from achieving their full potential: is a

debatable subject to our day. Though this is so, the twenty first century, has brought along improvements to human kind and women. For instance, women have entered the formal labour force in “unprecedented numbers during the past three decades.” So reports the research organization World watch Institute (2000). “In both rich countries and poor,” the report continued, “inflation encourages women to work for pay.” Or as one Nigerian woman put it: “The economic pressure is such that I just have to go out and work.”

Additionally, occupations have become professionalized over the 19th and 20th centuries. But women’s access to high paying jobs, like law and medicine has been delayed, owing to the fact they were excluded from higher education (Byers-Pevitts, 2006). Researchers say that such factors largely limited women from low- paid and poor status occupations for most of the century. Inequalities in access and participation which include the wage gap and the glass ceiling have also been the described as the precipitators. This historical perspective may help to get to the point that women have suffered to inter the work force internationally, and the problems with the few number that are working today may be related to the widely accepted norm that women will remain the underdog.

Education helped solve some of the problems that women faced or are still facing. To enable them to advance to the goals they set for themselves. In a SHELF conference Dr Beverly Byers, indicated there is a significant improvement for women in educational leadership in higher institutions, basing her position on a national survey conducted in the year 1986 and comparing it to today’s number of women leaders in the US higher education institutions. Afterwards she reflected her own view on how the increasing number of female instructors with the right education and mentorship was able to advance to leadership positions.

The views of contemporary researchers on the matter, within the historical context, have so far been discussed. So now it can be revealed that about 33% of the respondents perceive the lower the number of female teachers the lower gets those who aspire for leadership

positions. All of the 13 schools involved in this study have a staff dominated by male teachers in terms of number. The following table demonstrates these further.

Table 5: Proportions of Female/Male teachers in Secondary schools

| Sub cities | Schools | Male | Female |
|------------|--------------------|------|--------|
| Bole | Bole mesenado | 90 | 30 |
| | Hadis Alemayehu | 34 | 12 |
| | Lem, | 56 | 12 |
| | Beshale | 30 | 12 |
| Kirkos | Abiyot Kirse | 119 | 31 |
| | Misrak Goh | 71 | 19 |
| | Shimelis Habte | 126 | 27 |
| Yeka | Dejazmach wondirad | 46 | 16 |
| | Karrallo | 54 | 21 |
| | Kokebe tsibeha | 111 | 42 |
| Ledeta | LematMinch | 51 | 17 |
| | Africa Hibret | 51 | 19 |
| | Dejach Balch | 124 | 40 |

Source: survey Result

As it is shown in the above table, it is not surprising that most of the study participants to consider the number of female teachers to be lower than it should be. Astoundingly, it is a fact that in all the sample schools, even in larger sized staffs female teachers are under employed. What about who are currently in a position of authority? What do they think of the number female teachers contributing to the less representation of women in leadership positions? Apparently, only one of the six thought that it is a matter of concern. The other five on concentrated on other factors as institutional culture, male networks, and qualification criteria for principal-ship. The interviews made with these women revealed that there was no, if little competition from female teachers, at the time they tried to join leadership positions.

4.2.2 Domestic Barriers

It is a fact that all women work. They perform dual roles of production and reproduction. Their work goes unrecognized because they do a variety of jobs daily which does not fit in to any specific 'occupation. Most of them are involved in arduous work. Although women work for longer hours and contribute substantially to family income, they are not perceived as workers by whether the women themselves or data collecting agencies and the government (WHO, 2009). The so-called housewife is already doing a single shift. If a woman also works outside home, she is consistently working a double shift. When children or family members are ill, she does three shifts day after day. On an average, women work much longer hours than men. According to International Labour Organization (ILO), 2/3rd of the working hours around the world are worked by women because of the combination of various roles in the workplace, in the family and in the society. Most often, the women's work remains invisible but it contributes a major portion to the world economy.

According to Vanhala (2002), the responsibilities do not decrease even if women have careers working outside the house. The researcher also mentioned that the problem does not get any easier even in dual career families and with women in top positions. The women's career suffers than that of men's. Women spend hours and hours of household chores, cooking, cleaning, washing and taking care of children.

In some areas of the world, the media portrays the ideal woman as successful in her chosen career-highly paid, immaculately dressed, and totally self-assured. When she gets home, she has the energy to solve her children's problems, correct her husband's mistakes, and handle any domestic crisis. Understandably, few real women can live up to this illusion (Watchtower, 2008). In practice, many secular jobs that women obtain are monotonous and relatively low paying. To their chagrin, working mothers may find that their job does not enable them to use their natural abilities to the full. The book social psychology (2000) points out "Despite progresses toward equality, men continue to occupy better paid and higher powered jobs. Women who build their identities around their work are therefore at a distinct disadvantage."

Among those who responded to the questions in the questionnaire 35% are married while 58% are single and among those married many of them have children. Some even have raised more than one child. The age group of their children also matters, as the degree of responsibility vary for different age group of children. For instance, infants and toddlers need more care and nurturing, while children need more discipline and guidance to adapt to the school environment. From the information in the questionnaire, many of the children are in the age group from 6 to 11.

Generally speaking, when asked the most dominant domestic responsibility that they believed is a barrier 34% of the female teachers, chose the alternative which encompasses having and caring for children; as it can be seen in table 1. While, 16% of them assumed that getting married is an obstacle.

In dual career families both the husband and the wife work outside house. Whether they are in the same profession or not they spend most of the hours of the day at work but still the housework waits when they get back. If both spouses must work secularly, cooperation at home is vital.

In our society this kinds of work is expected to be performed by women. There are of course, some husbands that are cooperative enough to make them. In-fact some of those interviewed did indicate such kinds of behaviors of their husbands. One deputy even mentioned that she got married at an early age and afterwards went to secondary school and raise a child at the same time. She explained the situation she was in as follows:-

With out an experience of marriage and raising children or even house hold works; my husband saddled up and thought me everything I know-now. In our marriage, we had to separate for almost six years because of my husband's work. During these years I was lost and I let my career be lead by drift rather than planning for change.

Through out the study findings, the above kinds of thoughts were quiet frequent. A former principal who has been married for less than a decade said that if it was not for her

husband's support she would have stopped trying to do better in her career as soon as she joined the profession. But of course they did not deny that the household responsibilities are double the amount than that of them being single. It is interesting to note that all those in leadership are married and have children. In fact one even mentioned that her first born, now in his 20's is very supportive of her career advancements. So this shows that effective family support groups were successful in developing women's aspiration for leadership.

4.2.3 Personal Barriers

As it was evident from the questionnaire responses 67% of the female teachers did not aspire for leadership positions at the beginning of their careers. There might be a lot of reason for this. Women feeling comfortable in their present positions, not having role models, the work environment is not being encouraging, among other things. The findings of the questionnaire and the extracts from the interview made are detailed as follows.

Factor one: Scarcity of Role Models

Role models are doers and showers. Role models are often seen as mentors who guide, encourage and inspire others in their desire to upgrade themselves to better levels in their careers. Among those who never aspired for leadership positions, only 5% of the respondents took this factor, not having role models, as a precipitator of the problem. On the other hand many of those interviewed mentioned that they have had many role models through out their careers. Some of them still remember their teachers as influencers of their decision to join education and then afterwards leadership. Informal interviews made with female teachers did reveal that they have role models outside of the work environment, like in politics and public administration within the country or outside of it.

It can be noted from this that women teachers do not see others within the school environment as formal mentors. However, as the profession requires interactivity one learns from another, mostly during informal discussions and normal daily routines (Ababayehu, 1995). Though this is so having other women in administration motivate

others to follow suit. Meskerem (2009), found out from the study she conducted on higher education instructors that, the scarcity of women in decision making positions has adverse effect on other women, i.e., absence of role models erode the confidence of women to assume leadership and management positions. Also other researchers (Edison, 2007 and Meron, 2008) noted that the absence of women in various decision making areas remain the constant obstacle for women's coming to leadership. However, some women enjoy their token positions as leaders; they consciously keep distance from other women, do not help other women to further their careers, show envy and jealousy towards other women, and prefer to work with men.

This is referred to as the "Queen-bee" syndrome (Kanter, 1977). The interviewed female teachers, under the management of female principals and deputy principals, stated that there is some real difference in being led by men and women in terms of aspiring them for leadership positions. But some did mention that some men leaders were even supportive enough to join leadership. One particular success story on supportive men was told by a deputy principal. She mentioned that she joined her present position just about a year ago and the support her superior gave her, she said was immense. She also mentioned that the support from her female coworkers has not ceased since she realized her position in the school. All work in co-operation and in support of her power to make decisions. Others that were interviewed mentioned that they felt they have lost the friendship and loyalty of other women working with them as soon as they acquired their present positions.

Men attempt to reproduce their dominant power in relations by only uniting with and sharing the same occupational space and privilege with those males they deem similar in image and behavior, cloning themselves in their own image, and forming the so-called old-boy networks (Auster, 1993). Koivunen (2002), argues that men's physical power and size affects their career development more than capabilities or education. As it is frequently seen men are Homosocial in their approach to form networks. Women in top positions, in many studies, say that the greatest barrier they had to face in their endeavor is breaking through these networks.

According to Nicolson (1996), the only way women can fight patriarchal power in organizations is by networking and supporting other women, according to him, men recruit, promote, and mentor other men, and women should support each other in the same way.

Factor two: General Background of Women

This section tries to summarize the general background of women and its influence on their decision to join leadership. 25% of the respondents say that they consider this factor as a trait for growth. By general background it is meant to say the educational status of women, their childhood background as well as their work experience.

Educational Background

Gender gap exists in education at all levels of the system. In primary and secondary levels boys always outnumber girls. Besides, the number of girls dropping out is higher than that of boys. The problem gets worse as one goes up higher the educational ladder. With age come other responsibilities for women to attend. Some get married and others have children. But the benefit of educated women has often been described as, 'Educating women is educating the society. Obviously, the educational background has a role in developing the learner. Men are more educated than women in educational institutions in Ethiopia (MoE, 2007).

Women's education is one of the important aspects of their self-development, and is closely related to their participation in productive activities, control over their own life and body, the education of their children and their negotiation ability vis-a-vis institutions and men. Promoting equal access and success in education and training for women/girls is given due attention in government policies and action plans.

To join leadership positions in schools, as records show, certain educational criteria has to be fulfilled. For instance to be assigned as a principal for secondary schools, one must have

a degree, two years experience and other necessary criteria. According to the information from the AACAEB, in the year 2000 E.C alone, there were about 22,107 female civil servants with a degree nation wide. Though there is no composed recent data as to the educational background of women in secondary schools, the data collected in this study conducted in 15 schools revealed that 97% of the female teachers achieved a BA degree while the rest 3% have second degrees. This includes the data of women principals and deputy principals in the study.

To see if the educational criteria has any effect on women's aspiration to join leadership positions, respondents were asked to indicate which personal variable is the influencer in issue. 25% of the respondents said that women's general background including educational background is one of the personal barriers for women not to move up. The educational background of women and their decision to join leadership is interdependent. If women are educated it is believed they will be motivated to utilize or transfer it to others.

The educational background may not stop with the formal education given by primary, secondary and higher educational institutions. There is also a process of learning called self directed learning which includes developing the learner's capacity to be self directed and deepening the critical reflection done by the learner. It is also believed that creating learning opportunities is the responsibility of the learner. But experience itself is another source of knowledge. Action learning and collaborative learning are important strategies resulting in sustained changes in organizational culture (Yorks & Marsick, 1999). Contextual factors that influence the ability to lead well enough to implement the desired solution include: the availability of appropriate sources (time, money, people from whom to learn) willingness and motivation; and, the emotional capacity to take on new capabilities in the middle of what could be a stressful challenge" (Marsick & Watkins, 2001).

The principals and deputy principals brought up that they continue to learn using this method. One deputy principal said that the moment she stops learning then at that moment the work becomes monotonous. When asked they come to know of such methods, half of

them said it was by experience. To acquaint themselves with new procedures that are brought along they needed to upgrade themselves in ways that is suitable for the job. The women also mentioned the need to learn from subordinates and coworkers. This, they said, is not only beneficial for themselves but also for the work environment and the betterment of decision making with in the school.

Early Gender Socialization

An early gender socialization start at birth and it is a process of learning cultural roles according to one's sex. Right from the beginning, boys and girls are treated differently by the members of their own environment, and learn the differences between boys and girls, women and men. Parental and societal expectations from boys and girls, their selection of gender-specific toys, and/or giving gender based assignments seem to define a differentiating socialization process that can be termed as "gender socialization". There are numerous examples from varied parts of the world confirming that gender socialization is intertwined with the ethnic, cultural, and religious values of a given society. And gender socialization continues throughout the life cycle.

Gender socialization is the process by which people learn to behave in a certain way, as dictated by societal beliefs, values, attitudes and examples. Gender socialization begins as early as when a woman becomes pregnant and people start making judgments about the value of males over females. These stereotypes are perpetuated by family members, teachers and others by having different expectations for males and females.

Children start facing norms that define "masculine" and "feminine" from an early age. Boys are told not to cry, not to fear, not to be forgiving and instead to be assertive, and strong. Girls on the other hand are asked not to be demanding, to be forgiving and accommodating and "ladylike". These gender roles and expectations have large scale ramifications. In many parts of the world, girls face discrimination in the care they receive in terms of their access to nutritious foods and health care, leading them to believe

that they deserve to be treated differently than boys. The degree of gender differences observed varies in all cultures in respect. But at least one thing is common in all cultures; all see gender as a classifying factor (UNICEF, 2007).

Though in most developing countries it is common to be led by drift rather than utilizing career planning programs, the women do agree that if it hadn't been to some factors in their childhood, they would not be where they are today. Some say of the female principals, deputy principals and the department heads in secondary schools reflected that with the right kind of support and guidance from the responsible in their lives they could have done more than what they did. In other words they are agreeing with the arguments made by many researchers that most of who we are is shaped and molded in our childhood. Generally speaking, in our society, boys are encouraged to pursue the best, in their choice of education and career while girls are thought to settle for something more meager and what can help them cope with life's responsibilities. Mostly education and pursuing careers is not an option, rather getting married is a more popular choice.

One deputy, from Yeka sub city, related her own childhood background to explain her agreement with the above idea. She was the only girl from her five brothers. Though her parents discontinued their education at a basic level, they used to encourage her to do well at school and offered practical help academically as they can. They never made her feel that she is a poor performer, academically than her siblings. This made her, as she claims, to build her confidence even at times when she faced failure, at the end of her secondary education. She was able to look for other opportunities to make a living and that is how she came to be a teacher. Though no one joined the profession before her in the family they were supportive 'every step of the way' to where she is today.

On the other hand, another school leader from Ledeta sub city explained that she had experienced quite the opposite. She said she had to struggle to stay in school as her family lived in a remote area, where the schools are far and the students has to walk for long hours. Not all of her family members were supportive of her going to school, claiming that

the sacrifices is not worth making. Her close relatives as well as one of her parents were not compassionate about her going to school with the 'boys'. In that community, girls are not destined for pursuing education and thereafter a career. So it took, this principal, a lot of courage and determination to overcome those problems. Though she says she never knew she would get this far she is happy with the decisions she has made not to be sidetracked by the perceptions that education is not for girls and was able to finish her education at the same time as the boys in her house and her neighborhood. So the question remaining to be asked is whether this factor, made female teachers to be.

So now the question is now whether early gender socialization has an effect on female teachers to join leadership. To find out, the questionnaire tried to grasp their perception on the matter. Accordingly, from 125 respondents 38% identified that childhood background is a barrier for women to join leadership positions.

The existence of non supportive networks within women's lives is a provable fact. These networks can emanate from the work place, from the house and from the community at large. From among the female respondents, 22% said that the unsupportive networks that emanate from the household affect them in their decision whether they should join leadership or not.

Factor three: Lack of Aspiration for Leadership Positions

According to the findings of the study, 26% of the respondents say that they have no aspiration for being a leader, as it can be seen from table 3. This may be multifaceted by the barriers stated so far. For instance Gendered Stereotype threat can depress career and performance goals. Organizations regularly encourage employees to strive for excellence, yet stereotype threats may lead negatively-stereotyped groups, like women, to set inappropriately low goals for themselves, thereby producing suboptimal performance.

As Dr Emebet, on a conference entitled 'women in science' indicated the lack of aspiration to join leadership positions in science and other fields can be concluded with two factors, lack of personal and social resources. She explained that the former encompasses factors like having not the courage, vision and perseverance to go through the 'bumpy road up' the organizational hierarchy. This she contended might be because of the way they were raised, the organizational culture, their educational background as well as their experience on the job. The later the social resources include the lack of support from family members, coworkers, subordinates, and the society in general.

The situation is not different in educational institutions. Explaining the existing attitude for women in leadership, in higher education, Meskerem (2009) reported very few women are in decision making positions. This may adversely affect the progress of improving the legal and regulatory environment for promoting gender tolerance in educational institutions.

Other researchers (Genet, 2007, Weedon, 1997, Oconnor and Druty, 1999), claim that women perpetuate their own discrimination. The reason, as the researchers agree is that women are the victims of patriarchy in two ways, on the one hand they are made to assume subordinate position and to be submissive to men. On the other hand they are confined in to domestic sphere and restricted their participation in education and labour market. They are dependent economically and therefore assume low social status. Correspondingly, 67% of the respondents in this study related they had no aspiration to join leadership positions and justifying their reason why 22% said that they like their present positions.

The glass ceiling is a barrier that is invisible line that puts women under pressure not to move to higher positions in organizations including the educational sector. The glass ceiling is a term used to describe an invisible line that prohibits women from moving up the hierarchy. Obviously women if they gain leadership positions contribute a role to place items on the agenda of gender stereotype and address gender specific concerns and experience and provide new perspectives. Besides they serve as role models for other

female new comers. The barriers included in the glass ceiling can take many forms and can emanate from both the internal and external environment of an organization.

Some researchers mention the following as internal unsupportive networks, Institutional culture favoring men, scarcity of female staff members, qualification criteria the position and informal network of men. By following the same path the researcher had tried to examine the extent to which the problem was persistent in the secondary schools of Addis Ababa. The findings have so far been described but generally speaking the following was obtained,

The teaching profession has been known for its interactive behavior. What could be considered a normal This doesn't mean that only women in power are to influence others but rather that the interface of those working together, both men and women, can have some effect on what women decide to do about moving up, it can either be encouraging or discouraging, in other words 'Glass ceiling'.

Female teachers and principal positions in secondary schools were asked to select among a set of institutional barriers that prevented them from moving up the hierarchy. As it was noticed most schools have inside them women who are currently working or have worked as department heads in the past. So what is the problem/s that is holding them back not to go any further?

Sometimes a women's progress in to leadership has been considered a mixed blessing. As it was seen in the experiences of many countries women's development caused some problems in their household, becoming a crisis point in more and more marriages. To describe in the words of one husband, "I know intellectually I applaud her success. But emotionally I feel badly. I feel I'm being abandoned. And I feel guilty because I am so upset." No doubt that through discussion is needed to improve the situation. Female teachers included in this study perceive the work of school headship to be burdensome and time taking. They don't want to lose the privilege of half day work to a fulltime dedication, and ruin the quality time they spend with their family, as one experienced teacher in bole

sub city described. However, those in leadership positions begged to differ on this point. It is their opinion that the higher the position, the higher the pay to support their family, which they say is one important element for the integrity of the family.

Generally speaking,, female teachers' aspiration to inter leadership positions is precipitated by factors such as gender stereotypes within the institution, personal barriers like early gender socialization in their childhood and domestic factors, such as un-supporting spouses. Another factor that makes women to hold back is their perception for the work load of the positions themselves.

4.3 Suggested Strategies for Reducing Barriers to Enter Leadership

It is true that women contribute a lot to a country's economic and social as well as political developmental efforts. Therefore, their number is rapidly increasing at different sectors. This is highly manifested in the teaching sector as well. The progress is especially evident in the primary level of education in Ethiopia; at least this is the case in the research area. But in secondary level of education in the sample area only 17% are women. Therefore it should be an area of concern for educational bureaus. In this section of the questionnaire the respondents were allowed to rate some strategies of the problems that were discussed earlier.

It is undeniable that women's participation in strategic formulation in any sector can and does contribute to any effort to reduce the effects of gender stereotypes in organizations to move up the hierarchical structure. Different experts and researchers suggest many kinds of measures that can be applied to alleviate or at least reduce the effects of the barriers women teachers face in their aspiration to leadership positions. Some of these measures were presented to the respondents of the questionnaire and their level of agreement is hereby summarized. The decision rules <3.00 mean score denotes developmental areas, =3.00 score takes as average and >3.00 is taken as it is the mean as well as the median value of 5 level rating scale, i.e. the lowest possible mean score is 1 and the highest will be 5 (Best and Khan, 1995).

Table 6 Institutional strategies to promote women to leadership position

| items | Measurement variables | Respondents 'Ratings | | | | | Mean |
|-------|--|----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|------|
| | | SA | A | N | DA | SD | |
| 1 | Increasing women's participation by increasing the number of women teachers | 65 (52%) | 36 (28%) | 12 (10%) | 12 (10%) | 0 | 4.31 |
| 2 | Giving gender stereotype trainings for the school community | 60 (48%) | 45 (36%) | 9 (7%) | 11 (9%) | 0 | 4.23 |
| 3 | Increasing educational qualification of women or encouraging self learning | 58 (46%) | 41 (33%) | 14 (11%) | 12 (10%) | 0 | 4.16 |
| 4 | Developing women's leadership skills | 80 (64%) | 35 (28%) | 7 (5%) | 3 (3%) | 0 | 4.53 |
| 5 | Making recruitment criteria gender sensitive by revising the existing criteria | 45 (36%) | 52 (42%) | 20 (16%) | 8 (6%) | 0 | 4.07 |
| 6 | Creating leadership programs and then recruiting and empowering the would be leader | 58 (46%) | 45 (36%) | 14 (11%) | 4 (3%) | 4 (3%) | 4.19 |
| 7 | Mentoring | 52 (42%) | 40 (32%) | 25 (20%) | 8 (6%) | 0 | 4.08 |
| 8 | Providing opportunities for women to observe the need and benefit of participating in leadership positions | 68 (54%) | 43 (34%) | 12 (10%) | 2 (2%) | 0 | 4.32 |
| 9 | Creating networks | 65 (52%) | 44 (35%) | 10 (8%) | 6 (5%) | 0 | 4.34 |
| 10 | Encouraging women to participate in leadership | 80 (64%) | 36 (29%) | 6 (5%) | 3 (2%) | 0 | 4.68 |

Source: survey Result (see Appendix A)

'Encouraging women to participate in leadership' and 'developing women's leadership skills' got the highest choice from the respondents of the questionnaire. The mean scores for the first suggestion is 4.68 while for the second one it is 4.53. This is quiet high with

reference to the decision rule that takes the mean score 5 as the highest. Also the interviews conducted with educational officers showed that special attention is given to female teachers while recruiting and selecting for principal-ship positions. One sub-city education officer mentioned that they use the theme “50+1” women in leadership positions. Its intention is to encourage women’s participation in leadership. The interviews with female school principals also showed that for some the encouragements they received from their immediate bosses turned their interests on to peruse leadership careers. As it was discussed in previous subsections it is not that they are discouraged from joining leadership positions directly it is that they are happy from different sections

The next two highest means from table 6 shows that ‘Increasing women’s participation by increasing the number of women teachers’ and ‘creating networks’, got the attention of about 65% of the respondents for both options. The mean scores for the suggestions are 4.31 and 4.34 respectively. This is also quiet high in reference to the decision criteria. As it was discussed in the previous sub-sections the lower proportion of female teachers in the schools assessed as compared to male counterparts were seen as a contributing factor in the underrepresentation of women in the principal-ship. Therefore it is not surprising that this option, increasing the number of female teachers is seen as a solution to the current issues. In the education sector development program gender is mainstreamed in the different components such as curriculum, teacher training, capacity building and through distance education to enhance the participation and performance of female students at different levels (National Action Plan, 2009). Also the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) reports that girls’ enrolments rise relative to boys as the proportion of female teachers increases. Therefore an effective method of ensuring gender parity is to equalize the gender balance among teachers, a strategy Mauritania used to narrow the gender gap in primary schools from 13 to 4 per cent between 1990 and 2000 (Mutume, 2005).

Making recruitment criteria gender sensitive by revising the existing criteria got the lowest mean from all the other options, 4.07, as it can be seen from Table 6. It was indicated from the findings regarding the institutional barriers under the issue of recruitment and selection that the criteria are not believed to be the problem by the respondents. It was the attitude of the respondents themselves that weighed down on the decision to join leadership positions. This may have shaped the attention given to this particular suggestion the interviews with the education officials in sub-city and City Administration level, manifested that there exists a system whereby the criteria for recruitment and selection are checked consistently with the intention of improving the system. Special attention is give, according to one sub-city education officer, the educational background of the recruit, his/her political attitude and his/her experience both in teaching and leading. But the informant also mentioned there are subsection criteria for assessing leadership skills of the recruits.

About 3% of the respondents disagreed with the option Creating leadership programs and then recruiting and empowering the 'would be leader'. It was understood from the additional information given by some respondents this suggestion does not appear to be applicable to the school environment. Nevertheless, it is a nation wide theme i.e. to provide skill training, on leadership issues and it is also believed that it can be incorporated in the educational system by adopting some of the suggestions used in other sectors.

The respondents of the questionnaire showed their agreement with most of the strategies proposed. In Likert scale questions, respondents may tend to agree with statements as presented which is called Acquiescence response bias (Journal of Educational Technology, 2009).

Chapter Five

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter is concerned with the summary of the major findings, the conclusions drawn from the findings and recommendations that the researcher proposes and assumed which will go a long way to help improve and increases Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The general aim of the study was to look in to the barriers for women to enter leadership positions in secondary schools of Addis Ababa. Additionally both the internal and external barriers, and to how much extent it affected women teachers' aspiration to join leadership positions was targeted up on. To go along with this, women principals' experiences on the job and the strategies they used to overcome the barriers they faced as they aspired to leadership positions, was also aimed to be assessed and interpreted.

The following basic questions were put forth to be answered through out the study:-

1. How did institutional barriers affect women teachers and principals in their pursuit of leadership positions in secondary schools in Addis Ababa?
2. How did domestic or personal situation\ of women teachers in secondary schools of Addis Ababa affected their career advancements?
3. How did women teachers in Secondary schools of Addis Ababa deal with intra personal obstacles in their career?

A descriptive survey study with quantitative and qualitative research approach was employed in this study and the related literature was reviewed. To ensure fair representation of all administration parts of Addis Ababa, four out of ten sub-cities (40%)

were selected through purposive sampling technique. The sub-cities selected were Bole, Yeka, Ledeta and Kirkos. Thirteen secondary schools from these sub-cities were included in the study to reach the female teachers within them.

The data gathering tools that were used were questionnaire and interviews. In order to get answers to these core questions; the questionnaire was distributed to female teachers and interviews were made with principals, deputy principals and education bureau officials. The questionnaire distributed was designed to find out the external and internal barriers female teachers and the measures they perceive as the best way to attain the position they aspired for. While the interview questions, for female principals in secondary schools of Addis Ababa, were intended to get a better view of the background of the women. Afterwards, the gathered data were analyzed through both qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques. The summery of the findings are presented as follows.

To find out the sex-role orientation of leaders in the school environment the participants of the study were asked to identify which types of characters, masculine or feminine, they find is most representative for school principals. Interestingly about 42% opted to say that both feminine and masculine characters come to their mind when asked about a principal. Also the next higher choice of the respondents indicates that they think principals should have masculine behaviors, about 28% of them said that they perceived principals with characters like, assertiveness, aggression, high self esteem and self confidence. Of course not an insignificant number of respondents that they see school principals as female (about, 17%) and some did choose not to associate leaders with any of the characters mentioned in the options (about 13%).

From the institutional barriers the recruitment and selection process of principals and related trends like gender blend policies, criteria and attitude for recruitment and selection was given due attention. 39% said that it is the attitude of recruiters that affects their aspiration for joining leadership. While, 32% claim that the criteria for recruitment is not

clear and understandable. Evidently, the respondents perceived that the attitude of the recruiters during the process of selection and assignment as a factor of influence. The generally accepted idea, that there is bias within the process of recruitment and selection must have its sway on the respondents.

Generally speaking, when asked the most dominant domestic responsibility that they believed is a barrier 34% of the female teachers, chose the alternative which encompasses having and caring for children. While, 16% of them assumed that getting married is an obstacle. On the other hand 38% of the respondents are more inclined to think that childhood background has an effect on the way they shape their career patterns and the rest perceive getting involved in spouse's career achievement is what is limiting women from joining leadership positions. Among those whose opinions are in listed 35% are married while 58% are single and among those married many of them have children. Many of those interviewed said that the support of their spouses has been the highlight of their lives and career advancements.

The responses to the questionnaire indicate that 67% of the female teachers did not aspire for leadership positions at the beginning of their careers. While the rest, 33% did have the aspiration to join for different reasons ranging from having good role models and wanting to reflect on gender issues to wanting to minimize male dominance and enhancing gender equality. On the other hand, different rationales for not wanting to join were scarcity of role models and the general background of women (educational, background, early general socialization).

From the institutional variables that are considered as barriers for women to enter leadership; gender blend policies, criteria for recruitment, attitude for recruitment and information gap of the recruitment process. From among this, the attitude for recruitment took the upper hand of the choice of the respondents, about 39% of them followed by the criteria for recruitment (32%) and information gap of the recruitment process (21%).

From among the domestic responsibilities 34% of the female teachers chose the alternative which encompasses having and caring for children were an obstacle while 16% mentioned getting married brings additional responsibilities to their attention that they do not want to move from their current positions. The enduring share believed that it is because of childhood background and getting involved in their spouses career achievement was an obstacle.

Regarding the sex-role stereotypes, when respondents were asked what characters come to their minds when they think of principals, 42% said that both feminine and masculine characters come to their minds. While 28% chose to say that it is the masculine characters that dominate their perception of leaders and 17% did mention that they associate leaders with feminine characters. But a few chose to say that none of the characters come to their minds when they think principals.

5.2 Conclusions

The assessment made manifested that the dearth of women in leadership positions is precipitate caused by many contributing factors; like gender role orientations, the attitude for recruitment and selection, household responsibilities, the less proportion of female teachers and the lack of aspiration of the women themselves. Also the lack of mentorship and aspiration can also be mentioned as other factors.

Women because of early gender socialization grow up in a society that views them as followers, not leaders. This has an effect on the way their self esteem and their perception of who should lead an organization, men or women. It can be understood from the findings that most of the research participants view Principals possessing both feminine and masculine characters. This implies that feminine values are coming to the forefront. However, their number is still insignificant, even in such a profession as teaching which is viewed as a women's job. Their participation decreases as the higher goes the hierarchy of the career ladder. This implies that the efforts extended to increase their number are not adequate to effect real change.

To materialize the advancement of women at all levels building the capacity of all the stake holders, including policy makers at the national and institutional level, is mandatory. The Women's Policy in Ethiopia primarily aims to institutionalize the political, economical, and social rights of women by creating an appropriate structure in government offices and institutions so that the public policies and interventions are gender-sensitive and can ensure equitable development for all Ethiopian men and women (National Actions, 2009). Also in the educational sector an important aspect of the gender programs is the mainstreaming of gender in all policy and program intervention. Apparently the inclusion of such policies is important to bring about change, but to insure their applicability during hiring and promotion is quaky important. As the data gathered manifested, there are clear set criteria for promoting women to leadership positions in Addis Ababa City Administration. But the attitude of the recruiters was seen as problem depriving women the opportunity to join

leadership. This implies that the changes in policy formulation regarding recruitment and selection are not yet entirely inserted in to the way recruitments and selections are performed.

The Ethiopian Constitution guarantees all persons equality before the law, and prohibits any discrimination on grounds of gender, for employment. Though this is so, occupational segregation, the choice of selecting a profession based on gender is a phenomenon that persisted in to the 21th Century. In this particular study most of the women indicated that they joined for different reasons, but generally speaking there is a notion that teaching is seen as a women's profession. Though this so the number of women in the profession is not that encouraging. By implication the widely accepted belief that teaching is for women has an influence on the career choices of female school leavers.

Most of the women in this study are single and are in the first five years of their teaching careers; still they see domestic responsibilities as barriers for women to enter leadership positions. These include such factors as raising children and other household responsibilities. This shows that the traditional belief that women are the only 'right hands' in their household, have an effect on female teachers' perception. It is also undeniable that the work load may not allow women to do both, orchestrate their household and the activities in the work place. Confirming to this fact are women who are married and have raised children, among the respondents. Therefore generally speaking, domestic responsibilities can be a barrier for women to join leadership positions as they make them preoccupied with multifaceted duties. This implies that traditional role stereotype regarding men and women's roles in the family have persistent effect on women's aspiration to leadership positions.

In the findings of the study, women teachers' aspiration to join leadership at the beginning of the career is low. In many societies, women are still assigned a secondary place by the prevailing customs and culture. Examples abound of efforts that have been made to include and involve women but for the most part, these are superficial changes, as their number in

leadership positions is still scanty. Related to this, women in educational leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration are not acknowledged as they should to serve as mentors and role models. This is something that may have far reaching consequences in terms of developing future female leaders as principals do not just appear they are nurtured.

5.3 Recommendations

Given the findings and the conclusions made above, the subsequent recommendations are put forwarded to indicate the areas which needs prime focus by all stack holders to bring women to leadership positions.

Historically, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today. There is a myriad of opportunities for these kinds of stereotypes to exert negative influence on women in their career trajectories to leadership positions. Reconstructing or redefining masculinity requires social change it must occur in early childhood, in schools, in the media (especially television), in universities, in organizations, and through government policies and initiatives. To this end policy makers at national and sectoral level should focus on designing gender sensitive polices, aiming at marginalizing women's participation in leadership positions. It is also as important to make sure their applicability in the school setting and constant monitoring and evaluation is also mandatory. In the school level, immediate supervisors, sub-city education desk representatives and City Administration education officials must highlight characters that transcend gender, like education and work experience, during the day to day operations and while recruiting for school leaders. Moreover, they must avoid negative stereotyping, even in assigning individuals in the smallest levels of leadership and emphasizing on identity-neutral traits such as hard work and perseverance is also a commendable endeavor. In this way it can be acknowledged that femininity is a value in itself that should be exploited and showcased.

Regarding the recruitment and selection process, changes took place in many of the procedures followed within the last decade. Making sure that these are properly executed and communicated to the teachers and those involved is a must. Facilitating communication between recruiters and the potential recruits is an admirable act. This can be done by creating regular discourse sessions, whereby the effectiveness of the existing criteria and the adjustments that can be made can be argued. In effect the gap that exists between the two parties can be minimized. Also the existence of career patterns can be clarified, making the ground for new comers to aspire for leadership positions. Frequent trainings for the recruiters themselves on current trends of management facilitated by both institutional and external bodies is another suggestion as it helps to keep them up-to-date with changes in the school and external environments.

As lifelong learning goes beyond formal and informal methods of education allowing female teachers to do so is a way to inspire and equip them for leadership positions. One formal way to continue the trend of learning in the work place is using e-sources and published materials that can encourage women to seek opportunities to move up the hierarchy. Affirmative action groups, donor organizations that work on gender issues and the government itself can endorse funding for these endeavors. To go along with this, publicizing achievements of female leaders in the educational and other sectors, with regards to overcoming gender stereotypes, through seminars and discussion panels might help to inspire new comers and those who never aspired to go forward. In this way it is possible to enhance the technical, interpersonal and methodological skills of female teachers therefore making them confident in leading others.

The issue of children, or family for that matter, is one that disturbs many women as they make the decision to take up a leadership position. Working women often face the second shift of their day after long hours in the work place. Besides many surveys also showed that men often resist doing domestic work Therefore, it is not surprising that some women are perceived as avoiding success in order to care for their families. So in order to put a

balance between work and their household responsibilities women need a support systems in the society, their household and the community. Husbands as well as other family members must break out from the traditional perception that child care and house work are 'women's work' and share half of the responsibilities. In the community also the need to provide child care services with reasonable price can decrease some of the burden mothers have, in taking care of toddlers and infants.

Creating women networks in the work place is also another suggestion. Men communicate and exchange information through the informal networks women however, doesn't have this opportunity. The decreased access to informal networks appears to contribute to lessened mentorship and guidance towards leadership positions, and increased likelihood of marginalization. Therefore networks within secondary schools of Addis Ababa can accelerate the advancement of women to leadership positions and thereby generating genuine grass root feminism where solidarity links and communication channels can be set. These kinds of networks can be initiated by the regional education bureau and subsequent sub-city levels. The objectives and directives of the networks should be participative of female teachers, as they are the primary beneficiaries.

Women already in leadership positions can also play a big role in showing off their feminine traits such as being caring, empathetic, trusting, sharing and empowering. This is helpful as these characters are more often than not utilized to create negative stereotypes. Women should acknowledge these traits as strengths and not weaknesses. It is possible that a persistent display of such values can make them "core values" that will be embraced in future institutions as the normal culture. Also it lessens the effects of the glass ceiling for new comers. In addition women teachers can play a great role in their own, and others', growth to leadership by identifying their abilities and gainfully utilizing these to the benefit of all other women in the school and its immediate environment. They can also make concentrated efforts to create time and opportunity to get involved in collective women activities and exchange of ideas and experiences in the hope of promoting a common front.

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Appendices

Appendix A Questionnaire

Addis Ababa University
Collage of Education and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Educational Planning and Management
Human Resources and Organizational Development Stream

A questionnaire on Women's Participation in Leadership positions to be filled by Female Teachers in Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa City Administration

Instruction; This questionnaire is designed for the fulfillment MA thesis with the title of women's participation in educational leadership in government secondary schools in Addis Ababa. The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out your opinion about the barriers that are preventing women from participating in leadership positions. Is worth mentioning that the findings will serve to remind the subjects and concerned bodies about the issues and findings to make certain kinds of improvement on women's participation in leadership, which is beneficiary both for women and educational institutions. Therefore I thank you before hand for your kind cooperation and honest responses.

Background information

1. Educational background
Diploma Degree Second degree Other _____
2. Years of \Experiance in teachers
1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21-25
3. Years of experience in leadership positions
1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21-25
4. Marital Status
Married Single Widowed divorced
5. Do you have any children?
Yes No
6. If you answered yes to the above question please indicate their age group.
Below 6 months 6 Months-5 years
6-10years 11-20 years
20-25 25 and above

Instruction: the following questions were designed with the intention to find your views about general barriers faced by women to participate in leadership issues. Please indicate your answer by circling on the options.

1. How did you join the teaching profession?
 - A. I always wanted the profession
 - B. A friend, family member suggested it to me
 - C. It was the only available program
 - D.
2. Have you aspired to leadership positions at the beginning of your career?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
3. If you answered A for question number two please indicate your reason.
 - A. I had good role model/s
 - B. I like to reflect on gender issues
 - C. I would like to see gender equality in the school
 - D. I want to minimize male dominance.
4. If you chose B to question number two please indicate your reason.
 - A. I had/have no role models
 - B. I have no interest in management
 - C. The work environment is not encouraging
 - D. I like my present positions
5. Which of the following characters comes to your mind when the name 'school principal' is mentioned?
 - A. Assertiveness, aggression, self-esteem, confidence,
 - B. Caring, sensitive, and nurturing
 - C. Both A and B
 - D. None of the behaviors describe what I think of a manager

6. Which of the following do you think are the most dominant barriers for women to become leaders?
 - A. Culture of the society
 - B. Women background (educational, family and work experience)
 - C. The recruiting and selection of principals in the education sector
 - D. Women's lack of imitative to participate in leadership.
7. Which of the following institutional barrier/s do you believe is/are prevalent in your school?
 - A. Institutional culture favoring men.
 - B. Scarcity of female staff members.
 - C. Qualification criteria for the position
 - D. Informal network of men
8. Which of the following institutional barrier related to recruitment of principals do you think is an obstacle to women?
 - A. Gender blind policies
 - B. Criteria for recruitment
 - C. Attitudes of recruiting bodies.
 - D. Information gap of the recruitment process.
9. Which of the following unsupportive networks do you believe is a prevalent obstacle for women to move up to leadership positions?
 - A. Discouraging colleges
 - B. unsupportive men leaders within the school and educational bureaus
 - C. unsupportive women leaders within the school and educational bureaus
 - D. Unsupportive family members.
10. Which of the following personal factors do you think are a superior influence on women to participate in leadership?
 - A. Childhood background
 - B. Being married
 - C. Giving birth and caring for a child/children
 - D. Getting involved in spouse's career achievement

Section 2: Measuring women's participation. What is the degree you agree with the indicated measures? Please put \checkmark or X mark underneath the level of your agreement with the measures.

| Measurement variables | | | | | |
|---|----------------|-------|---------|----------|-------------------|
| | Strongly agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| Eliminating socio-cultural variables | | | | | |
| Changing attitude of society | | | | | |
| Increasing women's participation by increasing the number of women teachers | | | | | |
| Giving gender stereotype trainings for the school community | | | | | |
| Increasing educational qualification of women | | | | | |
| Increasing positive discrimination/affirmative action for promotion and appointment | | | | | |
| Developing women's leadership skills | | | | | |
| Making recruitment criteria gender sensitive revising the existing criteria | | | | | |
| Creating leadership programs and then recruiting and empowering the would be leader | | | | | |
| Mentoring | | | | | |
| Providing opportunities for women to observe the need for to see the benefit of participating in leadership positions | | | | | |
| Creating networks | | | | | |
| Encouraging women to participate in leadership | | | | | |

If you have any other suggestion

Appendix B Interview guidelines

This guideline was used to get information from the principals and deputy principals.

1. What education did your mother (influential women in your childhood) have?
2. What education did your father (influential man in your childhood) have?
3. Do you have any sibling in their career pattern/education like or unlike yours?
4. Describe your career and education from leaving school.
5. Why did you go in to education? How would you describe your career pattern to date? Was it drift or luck?
6. Have there been any obstacles to your chosen career development, just because of your woman? If yes could you describe them and say what you used?
7. How did you deal with the institutional barriers you faced in your career?
8. Would you like to say anything about support in your life?
9. What effect do you think having children or not and/or working outside the house has on women's career?
10. If you would like to say anything about your own situation, please do?
11. Have you found your job as you expected your job, in terms of enforcing decision making power? Would you like it relate this to operational matters?
12. Have you ever faced a situation where your decision making power in your respective school, was challenged by men or women? If so how did you deal with it?
13. How are decisions made in your school? And in which ways were you able to effect change in the school?
14. What do you think about women being in management in all sectors?
15. Have you had got mentors? Men or women?

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in other university, and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

CONFIRMATION

Signature: _____

Date of Submission: _____

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor

Advisor: Ayalew Shibeshi (Asso. Prof.)

Signature: _____

Date of Approval: _____