

WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION  
IN ETHIOPIA

A THESIS  
PRESENTED TO THE  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT  
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN  
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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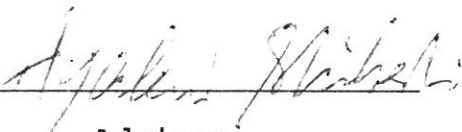
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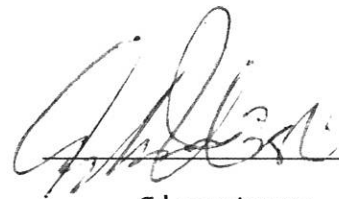
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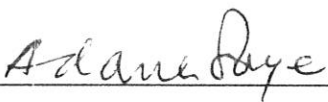
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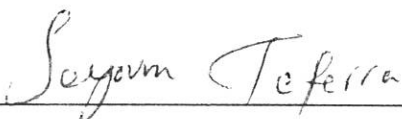
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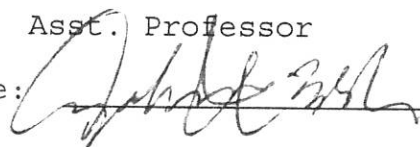
  
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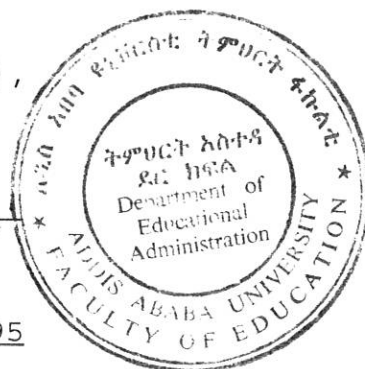
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Date of Submission: June 5, 1995



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....	i
ABSTRACT .....	ii
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES .....	iii
ABBREVIATIONS .....	v
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.1 Background of the Study .....	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem .....	7
1.3 Significance of the Study .....	12
1.5 Delimitation of the Study .....	13
1.5 Limitation of the Study .....	14
1.6 The Research Design and Methodology .....	15
1.6.1 Sampling Technique and Sampling Population	15
1.6.2 Instruments and Procedures of Data Collection .....	17
1.6.2.1 Questionnaire .....	17
1.6.2.2 Interview .....	20
1.6.2.3 Try out of the Instrument .....	21
1.6.3 Methods of Data Analysis .....	21
1.7 Definition of Key Terms .....	26
1.8 Organization of the Study .....	28

	PAGE
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	29
2.1 The Impact of Socialization and Sex Role Stereotyping on Women's Entry and Advancement to Educational Leadership	29
2.1.1 What are Sex Role Stereotypings?	30
2.1.2 What is Real About Sex Role Stereotyping?	32
2.1.3 Sex Role Stereotyping and Androcentric Bias to Women's Entry and Progress into Educational Leadership .....	35
2.1.4 Traditional Sex Role Stereotypes and Women's Self Concepts to Leadership .....	42
2.1.4.1 Women's Self Concepts and Sex Typing of Occupations .....	44
2.2 The Impact of Dual Roles to Women's Entry and Progress in Educational Administration	47
2.3 Organizational Barriers for Women's Entry and Advancement into the Field of Educational Leadership .....	52
2.3.1 Sex Segregation in the Hiring of Educational Administrators .....	53
2.3.2 Sex-Biased Job Assignments and Anticipatory Socialization .....	57
2.4 Traditional Norm and Women's Aspiration to Educational Leadership .....	63
2.4.1 Lack of Role Models and Women's Aspiration to Educational Leadership .....	67

	<u>PAGE</u>
<b>2.5 Management Styles of Women and Men</b>	
<b>Educational Administrators</b> .....	69
2.5.1 Work Environment for Women and Men	
Educational Administrators .....	70
2.5.2 Leadership Styles of Women and Men	
Educational Administrators .....	74
2.5.3 Communication Styles of Women and Men	
Educational Administrators .....	76
2.5.4 Decision Making Strategies of Women and	
Men Educational Administrators .....	80
2.5.5 Conflict Resolving Strategies of Women	
and Men Educational Administrators .....	82
2.5.6 Which Management Style is More	
Appropriate for the Administration	
of Educational Institutions:	
Masculine or Feminine? .....	83
 <b>CHAPTER THREE: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA</b>	 86
<b>3.1 Vocational Orientation and Conformity to</b>	
<b>"Appropriate" Gender Role</b> .....	86
3.1.1 Occupational Stereotypes and the	
Perception of Females and Males	
Towards Women's Role in Leadership .....	93
<b>3.2 The Impact of Marriage and Family on Women's Entry</b>	
<b>and Advancement to Educational Leadership</b>	101
3.2.1 The State of Home-Work Interface Among	
Managerial Women .....	104

<b>3.3 Institutional Sex Segregation Mechanisms</b>	
<b>Inhibiting Women's Entry and Success from Educational Administration</b> .....	109
3.3.1 The Level of Teachers' Participation in Educational Seminars, Workshops and Trainings: Female Versus Male .....	113
3.3.2 Lack of Encouragement and Supportive Systems for Women in Educational Management .....	114
3.3.3 Recognition of the Gender Regime: Female Versus Male Teachers .....	118
3.3.4 Sex Segregation in The Recruitment and Promotion of Women to Educational Leadership	119
3.3.4.1 Sex Sensitive Treatments in the Advertisement of Vacancies.....	122
<b>3.4 Women's Aspiration to Educational Leadership</b>	126
3.4.1 A Close Look to Women's Low Level of Aspiration: The Impact of Institutional Factors .....	131
<b>3.5 The Observed Management Styles of Female and Male Principals</b> .....	132
3.5.1 The Relationship Between Sex and Leader Effectiveness .....	136

	<b>PAGE</b>
3.5.2 Implications of the Observed Leadership Styles of Male and Female Principals for Organizational Effectiveness and Educational Leadership .....	140
 <b>CHAPTER FOUR: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND</b>	
<b>RECOMMENDATIONS</b> .....	142
4.1 Summary .....	143
4.2 Conclusions .....	148
4.3 Recommendations .....	152
 <b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	 160-171
<b>APPENDICES</b>	

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Profound thanks are due to Ato Ayalew Shibeshi, my thesis advisor, for his unfailing encouragement, guidance, constractive comments and useful suggestions. Indeed without his unreserved dedication, the development and completion of this study would have been impossible.

I also express my thanks more than words can do to my friend Ato Getnet Tizazu for his deep concern and devotion of time in carefully going through my draft manuscript.

I owe my gratitude to Wro. Almaz Eshete; her encouragement and useful advice enabled me to pursue the study enthusiastically.

I appreciate my friends: Seleshi Zeleke, Tesfaye Semela, Tamire Andualem, and Banjaw G/Michael for their help in clarifying some statistical techniques employed in this study.

I am also indebted to CERTWID and Addis Ababa University for the financial support of this study.

Finally, I am very much obliged to express my indebtedness to W/t Yalemzerf Zewudu, who in various ways rendered her constant help and encouragement towards the completion of my study.

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to make an investigation into some of the factors that resulted in the underrepresentation of women in educational administration in Ethiopia.

Both micro(internal) and macro(external) variables were treated to meet the objective of this study. These included the effect of sex role socialization, the state of home-work interface, the impact of institutional sex segregation mechanisms and the level of women's aspiration to positions in educational management. Besides, with the intention to determine how effectively practising female educational administrators discharge their duties, comparison was made between the managerial styles of female and male school principals as viewed by their staff.

The data were collected through questionnaire and interview with 205 female and 192 male teachers, 12 female and 12 male school principals 10 male inspectors and 6 female educational administrators currently working at Ministry of Education. Various statistical techniques such as percentages, t-test, chi-square, the correlation coefficient, z-test and ANOVA were used to analyse the data.

The results suggested that at individual level teachers of both sexes developed attitudes largely consistent with traditional assignment of role according to gender. For most respondents the role of women were, thus, perceived to be teaching than educational leadership. On the other hand, the effect of women's family commitments were not evidenced as so severe as had been conceived in blocking their initial entry to educational management. However, family related factors were still influential variables in limiting the up-ward mobility of women who ones secured entry level administrative positions.

Differential treatments during anticipatory socialization and limited access of women to get their same sex role model represented among personnel promotion committee are some of the institutional variables that promote opportunities along sexual lines. Besides, the finding disclosed low level of institutional commitment to undertake affirmative action strategies and supportive mechanisms that may help reduce the existing gender gap in educational management.

Generally, while women showed less aspiration to positions in educational management, the findings from this study did not make clear whether this is a response to limited opportunity accompanying discrimination, or a choice on the part of women for their role in the society, suggesting an area for further research.

The observed result regarding the leadership styles of female and male school principals showed no significant sex difference in most of the dimensions the groups were assessed. Thus, this result provided evidence which defies the socialization assumption of skill deficiencies in managerial role as explanation for women's gross inequalities in the field.

Finally, sex unbiased anticipatory socialization in schools, short and long term trainings for female teachers, change on the organizational culture of schools, the representation of female role models among the promotion committee, and the introduction of career counseling programs were forwarded as major recommendations in order to help improve these variables and facilitate women's entry and advancement in educational administration.

## LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

<b>FIGURE</b>	<b>PAGE</b>
Typical Career Paths of Women and Men in Educational Administration .....	62
 <b>TABLE</b>	
1. How to Tell A Male Administrator from a Female Administrator: Stereotypic Assumption	41
2. A 2 x 2 Contingency Table Showing Frequency of Responses of Female and Male Teachers by Role Type and Corresponding Chi-Square Values .....	87
3. Degree of Conformity to Societal and Occupational Stereotypes by Sex of Teachers .....	92
4. Degree of Conformity to Stereotype "Administrative Positions Demand Physical Strength and Masculine Vigour" by Sex of Teachers .....	94
5. Scores of Female and Male Teachers on the Stereotype "Women are Well Suited to Teaching Than Educational Leadership". .....	97
6. Scores of Male and Female Teachers by Preferred Sex of the Principal .....	98
7. Married Female Teachers by Reported Degrees of Husbands' Help .....	101
8. ANOVA Summary Table: Dependent Variable-Role Conflict .....	102
9. Women Educational Administrators by Marital Status and Position .....	104
10. Anticipatory Socialization and Exposure to "Apprenticeship" Administrative Tasks .....	109

	PAGE
11. Female Versus Male Teachers Who have had Educational Workshops, Trainings, and Seminars at Various Times .....	113
12. Encouragement Obtained by Female Teachers for Administrative Role by the Group Providing Encouragement .....	116
13. Female Versus Male Teachers Who Believe that Women are Discriminated Against Promotion .....	118
14. Members of the Promotion Committee at Three Zone and Three Regional Education Bureaus by Sex	121
15. The Level of Female Teachers Aspiration for Various Positions in Educational Leadership ...	126
16. The Relationship of Aspiration with Personal Characteristics of Female Teachers .....	130
17. Gender Comparison of Leadership Styles: Overall Ratings of the Staff .....	133
18. Leadership Styles of Female and Male Principals as Rated by Female Teachers .....	137
19. Leadership Styles of Female and Male Principals as Rated by Male Teachers .....	139

## ABBREVIATIONS

The following acronyms appear in the text as stated here-  
under.

AAU	-	Addis Ababa University
MOE	-	Ministry of Education
NPW	-	National Policy on Women
REB	-	Regional Education Bureau

**CHAPTER ONE**  
**INTRODUCTION**

**1.1 Background of the Study**

One way of attaining high participation of women for national development is increasing their representation in status positions (Col, 1992: 12). However, though theoretically the representation of women in status and decision making areas is an acceptable issue, various findings [for example, Heller, 1982; Dipboye, 1989; Gordon and Strober, 1975; Marshal, 1985; Shakeshaft, 1989] confirm a very poor representation of women from ranking positions in various fields of endeavour.

Surprisingly, the exclusion of women from leadership positions includes even those areas where traditionally women constitute the majority (or at least considerable portion of the personnel) in the organizations. Teaching is one of these occupations. A survey study conducted by UN in some countries from Africa, Asia, Latin America and Eastern Europe shows excessively low percentages of women's participation in various ranking positions in many professions including teaching (UN, 1992: 72). Data regarding the participation of women in educational management in developing countries are generally sketchy. However, the existing data still depict a very low proportion of women in educational leadership. For instance, referring to UNESCO document, Davies (1986: 63)

reported that in philippines, while 77 percent of primary school teachers were females, out of which only 22 percent were principals. In secondary schools, women made up 57 percent of the teaching staff, but they constituted only 12 percent of school principals in the year 1983. Based on the same UNESCO source, Davies (1986: 64) indicated that in Tunisia in the years 1974-1975 while 65 percent of teacher training students were females, even not a single woman was evidenced to step up to positions of educational management such as school inspection.

The antecedent factors for women's exclusion from educational leadership are thought to be similar with the ones which hinder their career success in other fields. In light of this, first, researchers give due concern in identifying traditional stereotypes as one of the major road blocks for women's success in administration. Traditional societal stereotypes presuppose the notion that women possess biological and psychological impediments to assume leadership roles (Jacculin and Maccoby, 1975 : 23). Central to the socialization process which excludes women from leadership roles in most societies is the value attached to status jobs. The more the work is symbolically important and honourable, the less likely for women to be identified with it (Epstein, 1975: 8). Epstein further adds that women are generally considered unfit to status jobs. Those who prove their competence are regarded as having special

"idiosyncratic traits" that justify the belief (Epstein, 1975: 8).

Researchers [Heller, 1982; Eagly and others, 1992; Marshal, 1985; McGrath, 1992] doubt the extent to which stereotypings reflect reality and maintain that sex-characteristics stereotypes are female domesticating mechanisms. However, the impact of sex characteristics stereotyping usually transcend to the work place and affect how organizations function.

Among the various structural and organizational variables that are accountable to differentiate women, researchers [such as Weber and others, 1981; Kanter, 1977; Adikson, 1981; Davies, 1986] identify the following:

- male domination while selecting and hiring administrators.
- lack of female role models among the top management
- sex biased preparatory and anticipatory schemes.

In this regard, it is pertinent to see how these variables are operational in organizations like schools. In explaining how the first variable (i.e. male domination while hiring employees for administration) works, Kanter (1977; 967) argues that in order to ensure predictability and trust worthiness managers recruit those who fit the existing male norms. Kanter contends that people whose social characteristics are not in line with the homogeneous

management group tend to be clustered in positions having the least uncertainty such as routine activities than decision making areas. In educational hierarchy, therefore, women being excluded from homogeneous management group appear to be appended to the lower end of the echelon.

Implicit in Kanter's argument is lack of role models for women (i.e., the second variable). Davies (1986: 69) and Schmuck (cited in Adikson, 1981: 323) state that lack of role models among the management circle deprives women opportunities. First, lack of role model dampens women's aspiration for advancement. Secondly, it gives room for those who are in charge of recruiting and hiring to view women stereotypically. Weber and others (1981: 322) capitalise "crunysim" or the "buddy" system where male refers to his own likes to positions hinders women from advancement.

The discrimination mechanisms characterised by male management group further deprives women of other opportunities. As explained by Sampson (1987: 34) and Schmuck (1986: 181) there always exists opportunity differentials for male and female teachers in inservice apprenticeship administrative experiences or anticipatory socialisation. Sampson (1987: 34) further argues that men are often given extra responsibilities, assigned to committees, become chairs of departments or assigned to temporary administrative positions. Thus, these experiences

orient the participants to behave with authority and responsibility; enable them to get the reward and to learn the risk. On the other hand, those who are alienated from these opportunities tend to take fewer risks and do not demonstrate their potentials. And this seems to be happening to women.

Research has also looked into the influence of women's home making and family roles as barriers to their move in to ranking positions. Hawley (cited in Terborg, 1977: 657) found that women's stereotypes held by men are positively related with women's own role expectations. Thus, women are often forced to give up their professional career for family responsibilities. Indeed, given the burden of family and home making roles, women's entry to leadership positions demands great sacrifices. Supporting the same view, Marshal (1985: 133) has this to say:

Administrative positions demand nearly total immersion, long hours, many evening meetings, and high personal visibility, men have met these expectations with wives support... for women the norm conflicts with women's roles. Women are less likely to have spouses, community associates who tolerate, support and reward them for immersing themselves in their careers.

The effect of family responsibility is very likely to bring different career orientation for women and men teachers. Women unlike men spend much of their experiences as teachers (since teaching has been socialised to complement their nurturant role). If at all they move in to

administration, thus, it is late in their lives, when children grow and child rearing responsibilities get less burdensome.

As indicated above, factors that adversely affect women's entry to educational leadership are varied. It should also be noted that these barriers are not peculiar to a given country. In spite of the great cultural, ideological and economic differences between countries, the problem that women face while seeking administrative positions are similar in most cases (UN, 1992: 85). However, still there are relative determinants of the problem in each country. One such determinant is former inequalities of women in educational opportunity. Since lack of access for formal education implies the social, psychological, and economic factors that militate against full gender equity, these in turn leads to low educational achievement and promotional opportunities (Davies, 1986: 65). In light of this, owing to their continued marginalisation from education, African women are considered to be the worst of any region in terms of their participation in decision making (INSTRAW, 1992: 3).

In countries like Ethiopia educational access had almost exclusively been reserved for men in the past. For instance, explaining the nature of traditional Ethiopian church education, Seyoum (1986: 8) indicates that since preparing priests and deacons was the main objective of

church education, women had been deprived of both the church service, and the educational opportunity as per the underlying tenets of St. Paul.

Currently, the country's educational policy makes no distinction in gender. However, the proportion of female students in the total student population remains low, i.e. 46 percent (MOE, 1994: 4).

The pervasive effect of such initial educational inequalities encountered by Ethiopian women persists to present time. Though organized data is scant, the day-today observation depicts a very low number of administrators in various fields of endeavour including the educational system.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Similar to many other countries, the under-representation of women in educational administration in Ethiopia is a felt problem. In order to understand the extent to which women are excluded from educational leadership in Ethiopia, it is imperative to see the portion of women's share in the teaching force. Out of the total number of elementary school teachers women make up of 25.6%, in junior and senior secondary schools they constitute 10.4% and 9.0% respectively (MOE, 1994: 20).

As can be understood from these data, the number of women among the teaching personnel is far below that of their male counterparts. However, without forgetting this small representation, it is imperative to examine whether women could maintain this same representation (comparable to their size) in leadership positions. Indeed, on top of the common observation, the excessive underrepresentation of women from educational leadership of this country can be assessed from the number of qualified school administrators who had graduated from Addis Ababa University, and various teacher training institutes (National data concerning the placement of principals or other educational administrators by sex is scant). Thus, while the total number of elementary school principals who have had their trainings in different TTI's from the year 1982 to 1992 is 10,194, women are 106 i.e., they constitute only about one percent (Report of the department of Inservice Training, MOE, 1993). Data regarding the number of female graduates from AAU for junior and senior secondary school principalship (both at regular and extension programmes) depict still fewer proportion. According to the data the number of graduates at the diploma level (i.e., 12+2) for the position of junior secondary school principals from the year 1984-1993 are 953, out of this women are only about 13 (i.e., 1.4%). In these same academic years those who graduated with B.A. degree as senior secondary school principals are 247. Out of this figure women constitute only about 7, i.e., 2.83% (Report of the Registrar's Office, AAU, 1994).

In addition to this, there are evidences which show high magnitude of women's exclusion from educational leadership even in cities such as Addis Ababa where the concentration of female teachers is high. For instance, as the statistical data for the Regional education office of Addis Ababa (1993) indicate, the number of female teachers in elementary schools is 2479 (i.e. 47.58%) and in junior secondary schools 4.48 (i.e., 15.86%). Significant as their proportion (mainly at primary level) is, female teachers are almost excluded from positions such as school principals and assistant principals. The data further reveal that out of the 59 government elementary and junior secondary schools available in Addis Ababa the number of women participating in leadership position is limited to six: five principals and one assistant principal.

The proportion of women principals and assistant principals in senior secondary schools is all the same. With the exception of one female senior secondary school principal and one assistant principal (i.e., out of the 25 senior secondary school available in Addis Ababa) the remaining 23 senior secondary schools are run by men.

Thus, as the above facts indicate, the problem of the underrepresentation of women in educational administration in Ethiopia seems worth stressing. To the researcher's knowledge, no research has so far been conducted in response to this problem. Capitalizing the impact of women's absence

from educational leadership, Coles (1975: 327) notes: "if the aim of education is the full development of human potential, then educators have substantially failed one-half of the humanity." With regards to this, in the first place, the role of women as educational leaders is one indicator of the degree to which the principle and practice of equity in the educational system of the nation has been maintained (Fauth, 1984: 65). Secondly, as noted by Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 99) women's access to educational leadership touches the basic question of equal rights, mainly the right of women to political participation in school goal setting. Their systematic exclusion from decision making areas, thus, hinders their political maturation as well as the degree to which they internalise public goals.

Other than the above apparent moral implications, the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership implies "female brain drain" that the new managerial style in school leadership demands today. Concerning this, Goin (cited in McGrath, 1992: 64) indicates that since school leadership is currently moving from strict hierarchical arrangements to a more supportive, inclusive structure, women's management talents are badly needed to meet this new demand. Heller (1982: 61) further comments that in school organization whose main purpose is to educate children and youngsters, one has to appreciate the function of motherhood, sensitivity and gentleness. Implicit in

Heller's contention is that women are generally egalitarian, their inclusion in the educational leadership with men is, therefore, additional asset to the existing potential.

Furthermore, in light of the influence of same sex role model (Eastler, 1975: 375) the promotion of women to educational management is felt to encourage girls' participation in education.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine some of the major factors that may result in the exclusion of women from educational leadership of this country. In due course, the study attempts to answer the following basic questions:

1. a) Do female teachers conform to societal and occupational stereotypes that limit their entry to educational leadership?  
b) Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in the level of internalising societal and occupational stereotypings?
2. To what extent does women's home-work interface affect their participation in educational management?
3. What are the most common institutional factors in the Ministry of Education and various educational hierarchies that promote opportunities along sexual lines (i.e., in favour of men)?
4. a) To what extent do female teachers aspire for positions in educational administration?

- b) Does women's aspiration for positions be significantly affected as a function of women's characteristics (such as marital status, age, years of experience, educational level, and training obtained in educational administration)?
5. Do female educational administrators (mainly school principals) perform their duties effectively compared to their male counterparts?

### 1.3 Significance of the Study

In addition to its moral implications, the under-representation of women in educational administration is a loss both to the educational system and to the society at large. Therefore, this study is felt to be important for the following reasons.

1. by identifying some of the negative societal and occupational stereotypings about females in educational administration, the study indicates ideas that bring attitudinal change in the minds of those who fetish of male dominance in status positions (such as "male gatekeepers" in MOE)
2. the study is felt to minimize some of the demotivating factors (such as institutional barriers) for women's representation in educational administration so that they could participate in these positions and obtain the professional satisfaction there in.

3. it is expected that the study provides suggestions that could help make a better utilization of women man power in education.
4. increasing the number of women in educational leadership may also help to alleviate some of the problems that female teachers in Ethiopia encounter as a result of their gender.
5. one of the objectives of Ethiopian national policy on women, as indicated in the draft policy is to preserve "the rights of women to work in positions of authority, and the right to involve them in the decision making process at all levels" (NPW, 1993: 10). Thus, this study is felt to provide recommendations and insights to planners and policy makers who are engaged in facilitating women's inroads to decision making areas. Added to that, it is also believed that the study may give some suggestions for researchers who want to pursue further study in the area.

#### **1.4 Delimitation of the Study**

The study is limited to the investigation of some major factors that hinder the participation of women in educational administration in five regional towns of Ethiopia (one from each geographical zone of the country). These towns are Harar from East, Jimma from West, Bahir Dar from North, Awasa from South and Addis Ababa from central Ethiopia. On top of roughly representing each geographical

zone of the country, these towns host relatively one of the largest number of female teachers (which approaches the average percentage at the national, or greater for most cases). The table in Appendix A shows this distribution.

In evaluating the effectiveness of female versus male principals in their administrative roles, only leadership styles have been taken as a frame of reference. This study, thus, did not encompass other diversified areas or school activities from which effectiveness could also be assessed.

### **1.5 Limitation of the Study**

Originally, in addition to female school principals, assistant principals and unit leaders, the study intended to include women educational administrators working at different capacities in region and zone education offices. However, no women had been evidenced to work at these levels in the sample areas. Thus, although the researcher tried to bridge this gap by retaining women educational administrators working at the main office of MOE; the study still suffers from the limitation of inclusive data that unfolds the experience, career orientation and aspiration of women educational administrators who work at various managerial levels.

In addition, due to the absence of reference materials related to the study in Ethiopia, the researcher has been forced to rely on foreign sources.

## 1.6 The Research Design and Methodology

As mentioned earlier, this study was aimed at investigating some of the influential factors for women's exclusion from educational leadership in Ethiopia. Since the study was felt to be the first of its kind, a descriptive survey approach was designed with the assumption that it could help reveal the current state of women's participation in the field and to disclose some of the global problems in breath which could serve as a spring-board for further in depth treatment of the subject.

The relevance of this approach for such a purpose has been noted by seyoum and Ayalew (1989: 17), Kerlinger (1986:377), Hopkins (1980: 270) and others.

### 1.6.1 Sampling Techniques and Sampling Population

There were about 8 senior, 42 elementary and junior secondary schools in the four towns (other than Addis Ababa) where this study was conducted. Out of these 18 schools (i.e., about 36%) were represented in the study.

In order to ensure representation of schools with high or considerable number of female staff, purposive sampling technique was employed. This sampling technique was felt to facilitate easy access to reach the required respondents with the limited time available at the researcher's disposal. Irrespective of the number, however, schools run by female principals were retained in the sampling.

Considerations were also given to represent the schools by their levels. Quota sampling technique was employed in this regard.

The schools in Addis Ababa were found to be too large to take the same ratio as the ones in other towns. Thus, in order to ensure fair representation, first schools run by female principals were identified (based on the information obtained from REB for Addis Ababa). Accordingly 6 schools (one senior secondary and five elementary and elementary and junior secondary schools) were identified and represented using availability sampling methods. Second, of 56 elementary and junior and 23 secondary schools run by male principals 5 schools (two senior secondary and three elementary and junior secondary schools) were randomly selected. After having accomplished this task, 210 female and 200 male, i.e., a total of 410 respondents were selected from 29 sample schools. Cluster sampling technique was employed in the selection of female teachers in junior and senior secondary schools as their number in most cases was small. On the other hand, because of their large size, male teachers in these schools were selected using random sampling techniques.

In the sample elementary schools the number of male and female teachers was relatively proportional. Thus, to maintain fair representation of male and female teachers, first stratified quota sampling technique was used. Then,

respondents from each group were picked by random sampling technique.

The study also included 12 male and 12 female principals 3 female assistant principals and 2 female unit leaders. Also 8 inspectors working at zone and regional education bureau were included in the study. Furthermore, some 6 female educational administrators currently working in MOE at various capacities were represented in the study.

#### 1.6.2 Instruments and Procedures of Data Collection

In the process of data collection, three basic instruments were used: questionnaire, interview and document analysis.

##### 1.6.2.1 Questionnaire

Two kinds of questionnaire were prepared originally in English which were later translated into Amharic to be filled out by female teachers and male teachers.

The questionnaire prepared for female teachers has four parts. The first part was prepared in the form of a Likert-type attitude scale and the level of agreement was indicated on five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This helped to get information on the level of female teachers' agreement or disagreement with societal and occupational stereotypes that exclude women from educational management.

The second part of the questionnaire was designed to collect information on vocational role orientation to traditionally assigned masculine and feminine roles. To this effect, various teaching and administrative positions in education were listed down for which the respondents were required to classify according to whether they perceive these tasks as masculine or feminine. The third option (i.e., gender neutral) was excluded from the alternatives since the responses obtained during the pilot testing were inconsistent and biased.

The items in the third section were designed to obtain information on the level of female teachers' aspiration to positions in educational management. For this purpose, various administrative positions were listed down to elicit women's area of interest and degree of participation in educational leadership.

The fourth part of the questionnaire examined the level of female teachers involvement in pre-administrative "apprenticeship" experiences at school level. To this end, female teachers were asked to show their present and desired area of participation against each position listed. They were also expected to show whether task assignments would be undertaken by individual interest or by allocation.

On the fifth part of the questionnaire multiple type of items were forwarded. These items generally seek

information on women's dual role, career orientation and, gender biased institutional sex segregation mechanisms. With the intention to disclose free responses of respondents, some open ended items were also included in this category.

Summary of some factors that were sought to exclude women from educational management were listed down on the sixth part of the questionnaire. Female teachers were requested to rank the factors in the degree of priority they felt that these factors affect women's participation in educational leadership.

In the end, items that uncover the management styles of female and male principals were listed down. While part of these items were prepared by the investigator from the existing literature, part of them were adapted from Morsink (1972). Each item in this regard represents a particular managerial behaviour or style. The styles examine both the major managerial areas (such as task oriented, interpersonal oriented etc.) as well as stereotypic managerial areas for which women often times blamed for. Against each style, five alternatives were given (i.e., very high, high, moderate, low, very low) in order to label the degree to which female principals exhibit a particular behaviour or style effectively. Since degree of effectiveness was determined, all items were stated in affirmative.

The questionnaire prepared for male teachers had the intention to cross check the information obtained from female teachers. Thus, for most part, it was similar with that of female teachers except that it did not include items which seek information from females regarding the impact of dual role and career aspiration.

#### 1.6.2.2 Interview

In addition to the questionnaires, the study employed both structured and unstructured interview questions.

The structured interview questions were administered to female school administrators (assistant principals, principals and unit leaders) and inspectors at regional and zonal education offices. The interview question made with these groups generally addressed unique problems encountered by female heads as they discharge their administrative duties. These groups were also asked whether or not MOE and its various branches facilitate affirmative action strategies for women's participation in educational leadership.

Moreover, unstructured interview was made with some female educational administrators working at MOE to elicit information on general problems and prospects of women in educational administration in Ethiopia.

In the end, on top of data obtained through questionnaire and interview, information from documents (such as vacancy notices, and statistical figures) were used in due course of data collection.

#### 1.6.2.3 Try Out of the Instrument

The draft questionnaire was first administered to 48 teachers for the try out at Nazareth town. After it had been filled by these teachers, each questionnaire was examined item by item to detect ambiguous and unclear statements. Especially, to examine the internal consistency of the attitude scale, cronbach alpha was calculated and a moderately high coefficient ( $r=0.77$ ) was obtained. The observed correlation coefficient is, thus a good indicator of the internal consistency of the items. The rest of the questions in the questionnaire were found to be useful for the purpose intended, except some minor modifications.

Moreover, during the pilot test, opinions of some four female school principals were obtained from Nazareth and Addis Ababa which later helped in the organization of the final interview questions.

#### 1.6.3 Methods of Data Analysis

Depending on the nature of the basic questions and the data collected, different statistical techniques were employed.

In order to test the first basic question, i.e. stereotype effect, three different statistical techniques were employed. First, with the intention to assess vocational orientation or conformity of male and female teachers towards traditionally assigned "masculine" or "feminine" roles, the frequency (number) of female teachers who rated each task areas as "masculine" and "feminine" were obtained. Then as to whether conformity to traditional task assignments depends on the sex of the respondents was examined by a chi-square test of association.

Secondly, by categorizing sex role stereotypes roughly in to two, i.e. societal and occupational, mean scores of male and female teachers were separately summarized under each category. Then, the differences of these mean scores were examined through t test.

Third, the intention in this case was to test attitudinal conformity to particular stereotype (example, administration demands physical strength). To this end, by associating each response with five point scale (i.e., Strongly agree = 5, Agree = 4, Undecided = 3, Disagree = 2, and Strongly disagree = 1) an individual's score was determined by adding the point value given for each statement. After that the scores were categorised into high and low using the median test (Hays, 1981: 576). In calculating the median test, which is a special application of the chi-square test of association, first the respondents

were grouped by sex. The attitude score of each teacher was listed under the group he/she belongs. Then the scores of both groups were combined into a single distribution and the grand median was calculated. After that the scores in each group were compared with the grand median. If the particular score is above the grand median, the observation is assigned to the "above median category" - this implies high conformity to stereotypes. On the other hand, if the scores fall below median" category - indicating low level of conformity to stereotypes. Through this, the data were arranged into two by two contingency table followed by the computation of the chi-square statistics to show whether there is a significant difference between male and female teachers in the degree to which they internalise stereotypes that exclude women from educational management.

The impact of dual role on women's career progress, which is the second basic question was analysed using two different statistical techniques. In the first case, as the intention was to know reported degree of husbands' help amongst married female teachers, the proportion of women's report at each category (teachers, principals and office holders) was determined by using percentages. In the second case considering degree of role conflict as a dependent variable, and marital status as independent variable one way ANOVA was calculated to see whether or not female teachers differed in the reported degree of role conflict as a function of their marital status.

In regard to the third basic question, i.e. the effect of institutional barriers, different interlocking variables were involved. These include: level of anticipatory socialisation, differential treatments in the provision of workshops, seminars etc, degree of encouragement women obtained, recognition of the discrimination laid upon women, the effect of women's role models among the recruiters, problems attached with the recruitment and advertising of positions, and status of affirmative action undertaken. In order to test the effect of these variables both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used.

Chi-square was employed to determine the association between women's present and desired level of participation in pre-administrative activities at school level. The association between sex of the respondent and recognition of women's discrimination against promotion was also tested by using chi-square. Moreover, the same statistical techniques was employed to show whether or not inspectors and female educational administrators significantly departed in their evaluation of the status of affirmative action strategies undertaken by the MOE and its various branches.

While determining the association between sex and institutional rewarding practices, such as seminars, workshops and trainings, first the proportion of male and female teachers who have gone through these experiences were calculated from their respective total numbers. Then, the

significance of the difference between the groups was tested by "z" test.

Data regarding the encouragement provided to female teachers to participate in educational administration was categorised by groups providing such encouragements. Then, percentages were used to identify the group that often, sometimes and rarely encourages women for promotion. Percentages were also used to determine the proportion of female role models among recruiting committee at various regional and zonal education offices under study.

Data regarding sex sensitive treatments in the content and procedures of advertisements were analyzed qualitatively in such a way that first the content of documents such as vacancy notices were explained. Then, this was seen and analyzed in the light of the prevailing practice in Ethiopia, and according to the existing theoretical assertions.

In relation to the fourth basic question the intention was to know the level of women's aspiration to various positions in educational leadership. To determine this, first some eight different positions were listed down in terms of their increased management level. And for these, percentages of female teachers who aspired for each position were calculated. Then, in order to test whether or not the distribution of aspirants was unbiased for each position

(i.e., for low and high ranking ones) chi-square of independence was used. In addition to this, the joint contribution of women's personal characteristics variables to level of aspiration was calculated using regression analysis.

In order to show the degree to which female versus male principals perform their managerial duties effectively (that is the fifth basic question) mean scores given to female and male principals by both sexes of teachers were calculated for each dimensions or style. Then, in order to show the relationship between principals' sex and managerial effectiveness, t test was used. Moreover, to determine whether or not female and male principals varied in their degree of effectiveness in terms of their managerial dimensions, "t" values were calculated for each style by sex of the principal.

In all of the above cases the existing differences were tested for statistical significance at .05 level.

### **1.7 Definition of Key Terms**

The meanings of some of the Leader Behaviour Dimensions are presented here under as used in the study. These definitions are provided by Morsink (1970: 82).

- Consideration - the perceived degree to which an individual regards the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers.
- Demand Reconciliation - the perceived degree to which an individual reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder in the system.
- Persuasiveness - the perceived degree to which an individual exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.
- Production Emphasis - the perceived degree to which an individual applies pressure for productive output.
- Role Assumption - the perceived degree to which an individual actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrenders leadership to others.
- Superior Orientation - the perceived degree to which an individual maintains cordial relations with superior, influences them and strives for higher status.
- Tolerance of Freedom - the perceived degree to which an individual allows followers' scope for initiative, decision and action.

Tolerance of Uncertainty - the perceived degree to which an individual is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset.

### **1.8 Organization of the Study**

This paper is organized in four chapters. The first chapter deals with the background of the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study and definitions of key terms. The methodology and procedures employed to collect and analyse the data are also included in this chapter. The second chapter presents the review of the related literature. The third chapter deals with the presentation, analysis of the data and interpretation of the findings. Summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations are presented in the fourth chapter.

CHAPTER TWO  
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

As indicated in the first chapter various researchers have confirmed the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership. Factors that result in the exclusion of women from educational leadership are manifold and interlocking. Some of the glaring ones which are indicated in the work of different researchers (Shakeshaft, 1989; Weber and others, 1981; Maccoby and Jacclin, 1981; Heller, 1982; Colwill, 1989; Davies and Gunawardena, 1992; Grambs, 1978) include: the impact of traditional sex role stereotyping, the pressure of family and home making roles, the traditional norm attached to women's aspiration, institutional sex segregation mechanisms in the hiring and job placement of employees, and biases attached to management styles and job performance of women educational administrators. This review, thus, addresses some of these issues to some detail.

**2.1 The Impact of Socialization and Sex-role Stereotyping on Women's Entry and Advancement to Educational Leadership**

Socialization and sex role stereotypings have been presented by several researchers (Coles, 1992; Yelfign, 1992; Shakeshaft, 1989; Grambs, 1978; Bukatko and Marvin, 1992) as explanations of why people, including women

themselves, do not immediately relate women with administration.

The concept of stereotypings, stereotypic beliefs of male "gate-keepers" against women's career progress, stereotypic beliefs and women's self concepts to administrative positions in education versus to teaching will be dealt with.

In light of this, first it is imperative to begin with what sex role stereotypings are all about.

#### 2.1.1 What are Sex-role Stereotypings?

In various societies certain behaviors or characteristics are considered as typical of female nature and others as male. This classification of behaviors along sexual lines is commonly known as sex-role stereotyping [Yelfign, 1990: 23-24]. In other words, expectations and beliefs that individuals in certain culture hold about the characteristics of men and women constitute sex role stereotyping [Bukatko and Marvin, 1992: 494].

The logic behind sex role stereotyping is generally tenuous. As such, it is difficult to argue with articulation about the existence of stereotypings, and almost no society has ever tried so (Colwill, 1989: 98). However, the belief that men and women possess different characteristics typical to each sex is widely held in almost

all social settings: home, school, work place etc. (Colwill, 1989: 98).

According to these socially desired behavioral standards, women are described as passive, submissive, cooperative, nurturant (Grambs, 1978: 41), gentle, tactful (Schein, 1973: 95), humanitarian, dependent (Rosen and Jerede, 1973: 44), emotional, sensitive (Weber and others, 1981: 32). On other hand, men are perceived as independent, aggressive, dominant, strong, competitive, adventuresome, physically strong and decisive (Bukatko and Marvin, 1992: 494).

Other studies (such as Fauth, 1984: 55; Marini and Brinton, 1984: 28) indicate that while females are considered as more fearful, timid, and likely to seek help and reassurance from others, men are considered as courageous and determined.

On the whole, traits that society prescribes for the sexes seem roughly to fall in "competency" and "communal" cluster (Eagly and Steffen, 1992: 735).

In relation to that Broverman et al (1972: 62) state male designated characteristics as reflecting a "competency" or "agentic" clusters (such as being independent, objective, active, competitive, logical, adventurous, ambitious etc.).

Traits identified with females are designated as "communal" or warmth and expressiveness clusters (such as being gentle, sensitive to others feelings and tactful). These clusters of traits generally entail the expectations held by the society regarding the behaviors of men and women. According to Broverman et al (1972: 62), for example, while men are expected to be adventurous, women are expected to be nurturant. As per this premise, thus, the prevalence of nurturant behavior among men is considered unusual, as to be adventurous among women is unwanted.

#### 2.1.2 What is Real About Sex-role Stereotyping?

Since men and women have different hormones and body parts, it is natural for some real differences to exist between the two sexes. And indeed it would be odd if human brains were "100%" unisex (Ronald, 1992: 45).

Thus, according to some researchers [Bukatko and Marini, 1992: 495; Marvin and Brinton, 1984: 208; Jacklin and Maccoby, 1975: 34] some of the sex role stereotypings may have biological ground. Bukatko and Marvin (1992: 495) contend "the sex hormones, physical characteristics of boys and girls can potentially influence how they behave." Jacklin and Maccoby (1975: 34) particularly concur. For them, the tendency for men to be more aggressive than women seem to result from differences in dispositional traits.

In some studies (for example, Block cited in Marini and Brinton, 1984: 208; Jacklin and Maccoby, 1975: 36) it is found that while men are physically stronger than women, women are observed to be manually more dexterous than men. However, women's superiority in manual dexterity depends on the kind of task they have been observed to perform. For instance, their superiority in finger dexterity is constantly observed. Women's overall manual dexterity is, however, still a contentious issue.

Recent findings of Maccoby and Jacklin (1981: 80) evidence sex difference in terms of women's superiority in visual-spatial abilities. The findings also show women's superiority in verbal ability. Women's superiority in verbal ability has also been replicated in another study. To the extent women's superiority in language is felt to have biological base. It is reported that the principal language centers of the brain are usually concentrated in the left hemisphere. Some neurological studies seem to confirm that unlike men, women make use of both sides of their brain. Thus, women's appreciation of everyday speech appears to be enhanced by inputs from various cerebral regions (Ronald, 1992: 41).

What do these differences entail? And how do they affect women's career advancement to leadership positions? Do the existing trait differences between the sexes outweigh the similarities? Some researchers (for example Dipboye,

1989:118; Ronald, 1992:20) argue that the difference between men and women are not that wide to warrant as much difference as observed in status gap between men and women. After making an extensive research Maccoby and Jacclin (1981: 80) came to believe that the real differences between the behaviors of men and women are insignificant. A few neurological studies also indicate that "even the largest difference in cognitive functioning is not as large as the difference in male and female height" (Ronald, 1992: 40).

On top of this, since people are cultural animals the observed sexual difference is highly shaped by cultural factors. Ronald (1992: 20) forwards one instance that implies the impact of environment on trait differences between sexes. The researcher, for example, examines how women are more intuitive than men, and men less emotional than women. According to this authority, the ability of girls to be intuitive comes from societies emphasis on raising girls to be sensitive. On the other hand, younger boys are told to ignore pain and not to cry. This generally leads boys to restrain their emotions as they develop to adulthood. Similarly, thus, if not all, most of the differences are largely reinforced by cultural factors.

However, although trait differences between men and women are not that wide, women's career progress and planning seem to have always been affected by the belief attached to the norm that "women are different from men".

The crux of the issue is not in the categorization of "masculine" and "feminine" traits. But the problem lies on the value attached to the assumed differing masculine and feminine traits (Colwill, 1989: 98). It so happens that while masculine traits have always been considered as suitable for ones career progress, feminine traits are considered as irrelevant, mainly for ones progress to administrative and managerial positions (Schein, 1973: 95; Grambs, 1978: 39).

In light of this, the problem seems to lie in the categorization inherent to the androcentric world. According to Shakeshaft (1989: 113) the male hegemony takes all men (as a category) suitable for leadership, and all women as possessing traits irrelevant to administration and managerial duties.

The impact of stereotypes and the potential bias that male attitudinal belief imposes upon women's career progress mainly into the field of educational leadership is, therefore, the focus of the next topic.

### 2.1.3 Sex-role Stereotypes and Androcentric Bias to Women's Entry and Progress into Educational Leadership

As implied above, sex-role stereotypes are individual level explanations as to why women do not succeed to administrative positions. As per this assumption, female

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As implied above, sex-role stereotypes are individual level explanations as to why women do not succeed to administrative positions. As per this assumption, female

deficiencies in knowledge, skill and personality have been presented as blocking women from entering into the field of administration.

In relation to this, researchers (Dipboye, 1989; Grambs, 1978; Colwill, 1989; Adikson, 1981; Rosen and Jeredee, 1973; Shakeshaft, 1989; Maccoby and Jacclin, 1981 identify some of the potential stereotypic beliefs and biases that result in the exclusion of women from leadership positions.

For example, women have been considered as less task oriented than men and they are reported to lack the so called "task oriented traits such as aggressiveness, rationality, enterprising and toughness so as to make out good administrators (Dipboye, 1989: 118).

Men and women have also been judged for managerial positions as a function of their physical attractiveness. As Shakeshaft (1989: 39) observes while physical attractiveness renders consistent advantage for men, it appears to be a disadvantage for women. For instance, supposed physical strength and athletic appearance of men facilitate their recruitment for administrative tasks. Much as athletic appearance has been favourable for men, beauty is stereotypically viewed a negative element. It rather acts as deterrent in sorting out women through their own stereotypes (Colwill, 1989: 110).

The impact of stereotypic beliefs and biases against women's career advancement to educational leadership is largely centered in the self concepts of male "gatekeepers". Attitudinal studies show that males in positions have less positive attitude than do females toward women in educational administration (Grambs, 1978: 41; Shakeshaft, 1989:57; Rosen and Jeredee, 1973: 44). Many of these beliefs are usually forwarded in the form of sex stereotypic assumptions. For example, for Shakeshaft (1989: 40) male school board members believe that women cannot stand the emotional and physical stress that school administration demands. One instance, which is documented by some researchers such as Shakeshaft, 1989: 39; Grambs, 1978: 41) is women's incapability to handle student disciplinary problems. In this regard, women's small and supposed lack of strength have been presented as reason for their inadequacies for managing student disciplinary problems.

Another frequently heard comment about women's shortcomings in administration is that they lack self confidence mainly in order to exercise command and set things done (Brown, Worthy and Geyser, 1965: 28). However, the finding of Maccoby and Jacclin (1981: 79) evidences no sex difference in terms of the level of confidence men and women develop. In fact it is found that areas in which men and women exhibit self confidence are different. While men are observed to show self confidence in public sphere

activities, women show this in private sphere areas (Shakeshaft, 1989: 84).

As Shakeshaft (1989: 84) further argues the things is that women's self-confidence has always been judged in terms of male defined standards, i.e. in light of the level of confidence women develop in public sphere activities. Thus, since women have been kept separate from public sphere activities obviously they lack the experience (Yeaky, 1986: 128-9). Their lack of experience, therefore, has been misinterpreted for lack of self confidence.

Some findings also indicate that men in leadership positions expect women to concentrate more on interpersonal skills, such as personnel relationships (Powel, Posner and Schemidt, 1984: 917). When women exhibit behaviors that are related to leadership they are often discouraged. For instance, based on the report of educational research service, Shakeshaft (1989: 114) documents the biases held by male superintendents regarding behaviours and activities featuring women. As per this claim, thus, women more likely than men are expected:

... to enjoy doing routine tasks; not to set long range goals or work towards them; to want less responsibilities; to be home rather than job oriented; to be more sensitive to criticism; to be less aggressive than men; to be less likely to stand under fire; to be less independent and self sufficient; to cry more easily; to be good at detail work; to be unable to understand formal matters.

Men executive also consider women as more nurturant than men and as suitable more for teaching than administration (Grambs, 1978: 39). According to Maccoby and Jacclin (1981: 82), however, nurturance behavior is not what has naturally been endowed to women. It is rather the age long tradition that might have made women so. Still, there is no reason to claim that this behavior is absent in men. Studies of people's willingness to help others in distress have some times shown men to be more helpful, sometimes women based on the nature of the person needing help and the kind of help that is required (Maccoby and Jacclin, 1981: 82). That women experience frequent absenteeism and that they take more maternity leaves, that they suffer more work related problems, and that they are excessively emotional at work have also been presented as their deficiency in management (Rosen and Jeredee, 1973: 44). And also they are considered as passive and more dedicated to their family (Weber and others, 1981: 320). However, apart from the common assumption which is based on stereotypic beliefs, different findings conducted at different settings (with women in administration) do not bear this out. That women fail as administrators because of their excessive emotions and their passive behaviors and frequent absenteeism at work have not been evidenced so far.

The bias of male gate-keepers against women in administration is also reflected in the form of erroneous association of traits that are sought to explain the

behavior of women. Surprisingly, similar traits of a leader are given totally a different interpretation when possessed by two sexes. Traits considered positive when possessed by male leaders are understood as negative when exhibited by female leaders. Some of these traits are specified by Hanson (1985: 183) in table 1.

Although the attitude of "gate keeper" about women's advancement in administration is largely hostile, researcher evidence conditions or some determinants in which the bias will be alleviated to some degree.

One such determinant is working experience with women in management. Men who have had actual working experience with women managers tend to develop positive attitude to the idea of women in leadership than those who lack such exposure (Shakeshaft, 1989: 45). According to Browman, Worthy and Geysser (1965: 166) those people who say their view about women's access in management is based on their knowledge of human nature and how people react in management situations where "theory rather than experience seems to govern their attitudes about women's promotability".

Table 1  
 How to Tell A Male Administrator from A Female  
 Administrator (Stereotypic Assumptions)

A Male Administrator	A Female Administrator
Dynamic	Aggressive
Firm	Inflexible
Good at details	Picky
Loses his temper	Bitchy
Go getter	Pushy
Follows through	Does not know when to quit
has a courage of his conviction	Stubborn
Doesn't afraid to say what he thinks	Mouthy
Exercises authority	Power mad
Closed mouthed	Secretive
Makes decision easily	Impulsive
Stern task master	Hard to work for
Experienced	Has been through the mill

It is also documented that the bias that men executives hold about women's promotion to leadership softens when the situation shifts from general attitude to the reaction of respondents to specific issues involving women in managerial roles. For example, in a more specific situations such as employee moral, efficiency, in being less corrupt men hold more favourable attitudes towards women as executives (Browman, Worthy and Geysler, 1965: 26).

#### 2.1.4 Traditional Sex Role Stereotypes and Women's Self Concepts to Leadership

Although male bias is one of the most strong factor to exclude the participation of women from educational administration, the extent to which women themselves internalise, or reject traditional sex-role stereotypings also limit their career progress to a greater extent (Rosen and Jerdee, 1973:45).

True that women's bias to women in administration is basically rooted in the socialization process (i.e., in society's insistance and pressure). But women are also partially considered responsible at least for not acting upon to these pressures. According to Mlama (1990: 65) through out the various patriarchal system, while men have guarded their own positions, women have uncritically accepted the economic and social conditioning, which in effect has contributed to their inferior position. It is also maintained that despite tremendous jobs that women accomplish in society, they fail to realise their potential and tend to underscore their own achievements (Yelfign, 1990: 23). For instance, evidences show that in the index of manager's effectiveness, women managers receive higher ratings than men both from their subordinates and superiors. However, women tend to see themselves as performing more poorly than their male peers (Deaux cited in Dipboye, 1989: 126). Lack of courage to try new skills, and fear to join leadership positions lest they should encounter failure as

administrators have commonly been observed as characterising among many women [Stracher, 1993: 218]. Thus, as women underestimate their own values, they tend to put low trust upon other women further perpetuating their own subordination to lower positions.

However, it should be noted that socialization and sex role stereotypings may not put similar adverse effect on all women. In other words, some women somehow come to manage and overcome sex role stereotypes and thus, succeed in their careers.

One determinant of women's career progress in administration, and which softens the potential androcentric bias is the level of women's educational attainment. For example, it is evidenced that women attending their college education tend to reject the traditional notion that "the good mother remains home to care for children" (Gump, 1972: 84). These respondents were reported to believe that a mother could be responsible and self-sufficient when she mixes her role as a mother and career woman. However, all women who attain higher education do not shade traditional feminine image to the same degree. Field relevance (or area of specialization) plays its part in this regard. For example, college female students who graduated in management show deviation from "typical female" stereotypes compared to those who major in traditional female areas, such as home economics and library science (Steinberg cited in Dipboye,

1989: 123). Sex-role orientation of women is also felt to minimize for those women who once come to succeed in their career. Findings (Gump, 1972: 84; Shakeshaft, 1989: 46) indicate that once women succeed to power, they come to realize their potential and tend to reject the hitherto accepted femininity norm that relegate women to lower positions. For example, as Dipboye (1989: 123) contends women in higher echelons of the organization (those playing a leader role) exhibit high power and achievement needs, high self esteem and high motivation to manage.

However, those women who tackle with traditional "feminine" image cannot do it without facing hinderances despite their educational achievement and career orientation. Once again sex role stereotype is the most intervening factor. As Gump (1972: 91) maintains, on top of ones educational attainment and exposure to traditional masculine settings, success for women to leadership positions demands one's "determination, greater ego strength and resourcefulness". This entails that success to leadership is still the province of the very few women, perhaps it includes only those who suit to Kanter's the "iron maiden" group (Kanter, 1977: 984).

#### 2.1.4.1 Women's Self Concepts and Sex-typing of Occupations

Theories of sex role socialization explain the process by which individuals learn the behavior that a culture defines as suitable for their sexes. Just from

birth, children learn the behavior that is appropriate for their sex via the process of sex role socialization (Yelfign, 1990: 23).

As per this division of labour while men are expected to support the family income, women shoulder the responsibility of home management, child care and catering the emotional needs of the family.

Women's home making and family roles further transcend to their work lives. Their sex role becomes their work role.

The carry over of the sex role to the work role primarily emanates from society's insistence that an individual's sex makes a difference in every domain of human experience. Thus, a person often seen as a man or a woman first, a nurse and a pipe fitter second (Nelson cited in Gutek and Morsasch, 1982: 58).

Thus, women who have traditionally been destined to help mate roles at home concentrate on jobs that foster these experiences and expectations. Some of the typical female occupations, thus, include teachers and other child workers, nurses, clerks, typists, cleaning and house hold service workers etc. (OECD, 1979: 29).

According to some researchers (Marini and Brinton, 1984: 198; Coles, 1975: 326; Grambs, 1978: 39) women's separate roles (which are largely attuned to family affairs) perpetuate their exclusion from positions of prestige in several ways.

First, women's concentration on jobs that complement their traditional roles affect the status of the occupations they hold, creating a relationship between the status and sex typing of occupations, high status of occupations being accepted as male (Marini and Brinton, 1984: 198).

Secondly, female jobs have been perceived as having characteristics such as greater flexibility of working hours and are thus considered easier for women to combine with family responsibilities. This in turn excludes women from so called challenging administrative and managerial jobs and appends them in what one calls "soft" jobs. According to Geiger (1989: 190) schedule flexibility is rarely accepted for administrative and managerial jobs as these jobs are considered challenging and time taking. For this authority, therefore, women who work reduced hours are forced to clump in areas where these arrangements are possible, i.e. to clerical and service jobs (jobs of less visibility and prestige).

In light of this, teaching mainly at lower levels has traditionally been associated with feminine roles. Women

also tend to develop self concepts consistent with this role.

For instance, according to the findings of Martin and Light (1984: 316) female elementary school teachers consider their role as feminine. But, those who teach at secondary schools consider their role as masculine. This finding further complements the traditional version of what women ought to be "elementary teaching is women's work, men avoid it. Working in secondary schools demands assertiveness and counter aggression - this is men's work" (Grambs, 1978: 39).

In the same way, much as women consider their role as a teacher (mainly at elementary level) "feminine", they tend to resort their role from feminine to masculine when the issue is administration than teaching (Grambs, 1978: 39)

Women's tendency to resort from educational leadership is better explained in the biases and norms that are attached to their dual roles: home and administrative responsibilities. The next part highlights this issue.

## **2.2 The Impact of Dual Roles to Women's Entry and Progress in Educational Administration**

It is an age long tradition in many cultures and societies, irrespective race or color when the issue of women's career lives are considered, they are highly contingent up on their family lives (Marshal, 1985: 133;

Shakeshaft, 1984: 108; Adikson, 1981: 315). And indeed the impact of women's home making roles is specially difficult for women's progress into administrative areas (Marshall, 1985: 133).

In light of this, a number of factors have been identified as having an important influence on women's entry to leadership positions. First, women's marital status. It is assumed that single women are expected to have more time, and less constraints for their career than married ones (Browman, Worthy and Geysler, 1965: 172). According to this contention, it is believed that the road for self fulfillment cannot be selected if the woman is married. The decision as to how much time, effort each wife and mother devotes to career outside the home, has essentially been considered a family matter.

However, there are relative determinants of the extent to which women's marital status affects the advancement of women to administrative positions. One such determinant is the characteristics of her marital partner. Generally, it is believed that those women administrators who become successful in their career are the ones who obtain substantial help from their husbands (Nancy, 1989: 182). Yet, findings in this regard are mixed. For example Coffin and Ekstrom (cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 108) underscore the impact of husbands help. The finding evidences the profiles of many women educational administrators who claim that they

did not get any help from their husbands for their success. On the other hand, Nancy (1989: 182) reports that women administrators in her study owe much their husbands for their success. And still another determinant of husbands help is the situation in dual career families. The evidence shows that women administrators take the larger share of the work in the home than they do in relationship when only the husband work outside the home (Shakeshaft, 1989: 88).

Secondly, the age at which women marry and the extent to which they achieve some occupational and educational credentials and status prior to marriage is considered an influential variable for their career progress. According to Solomon (1990: 102) the dilemma is that if women postpone marriage and child bearing until they attain professional credit, their personal and family lives lose their momentum (for instance, they may reach the age of menopause). On the other hand, if they slow their professional commitment during early child rearing years, their professional growth will get out of their hands. It will be too early for them especially to move to top ranking positions. However, findings indicate that women educational administrators are the ones who usually take the first option i.e., the ones who scarify marriage for professional success (Shakeshaft, 1985: 108). Referring to Time Magazine, Solomon (1990: 101) reports that 90 per cent of male executives younger than the age of 40 are fathers, and only 35% of female executives in the same age group are mothers in 1989 in USA.

In the end, among married women child bearing and child rearing practices are expected to be important variables. In light of this, the number and age of children are generally considered to influence women's career advancement. Many and younger children are for instance considered to inhibit career progress of women (Rosen and Jerede, 1974: 46). However, the burden of child care is found to be difficult particularly for women in middle and lower level management position than those in upper management. For instance, Nancy (1989: 192) explains that women in upper management can possibly afford at home child care, which enables them to go full speed ahead with their careers. In the absence of government help, indeed, the cost of good child care is crippling for women at lower and middle management levels. And still another determinant is placement requirements attached to administrative positions. The impact of marriage and children are especially difficult to women's career mobility when the position demands relocation (Firestone, 1981: 43). Firestone further reports that most women are evidenced to reject positions requiring relocation lest it should affect their family and home making roles.

On the whole, the above findings indicate that those women educational administrators who are successful in their administrative careers are the ones who have no or few children, whose children are grown, and those who can

privately afford child care in the form of full time house keeper.

Other than the burden of dual role, which women actually come to face (or somehow manage) the biases attached to the inappropriateness of these roles for women in administration are additional hinderance.

In this regard, although findings (Adikson, 1981; Shakeshaft, 1989; Eagly et al, 1992; Weber et al, 1981) do not support the notion that women's work suffers from added responsibilities, men executives mostly believe that family responsibilities adversely affect the performance of women administrators. For instance, Shakeshaft (1989: 112), referring to the study conducted by American Association of of School Administrators (AASA) reports that 78% of superintendents and school board presidents believe that women more than men put family on top of their jobs. Women are also depicted as taking more time off for personal reasons than do men.

As reported by Shakeshaft (1989:113), home and family responsibilities thus lay obstacles for women in two ways: first women should effectively juggle all their tasks. Second, they must contend with male executives who are totally convinced that not only are women unable to manage the balancing act but that it is odd for them to even attempt it.

### 2.3 Organizational Barriers for Women's Entry and Advancement into the Field of Educational Leadership

As has been noted in the previous parts, socialization and sex role stereotypings have been considered as individual level explanations for women's inequalities in educational leadership. However, women's gross inequalities in educational administration cannot be solely attributed to factors which are internal. As some researchers (for example Schmuck, 1986: 177; Weber, 1981: 322) believe the premise in socialization which blames women themselves for their sparse number in administration is a kind of victim analysis strategy, a camouflage for external barriers. Thus, there is a need to focus more on macro external factors such as institutional sex segregation mechanisms in response to the problem of women's underrepresentation in educational administration.

In light of this, therefore, it is imperative to ask whether educational institutions provide opportunities in favour of men than women. Some researchers (Adikson, 1981: 324; Wealthy cited in Rimmer and Davies, 1985: 166) maintain that opportunity within the organization, among other things can be measured by the degree to which a job allows a person to grow and develop, to use skills and to learn new ones, and to be recognised and rewarded for those skills.

The practice of sex discrimination in the hiring of potential administrators to educational leadership is one indicator of whether educational institutions foster sex segregation.

### 2.3.1 Sex Segregation in the Hiring of Educational Administrators

Since the top positions in the organization are useful for accumulating power, wealth, and prestige, men (who initially hold these positions) do not seem willing to alter the rules for fear that women's involvement will affect the norm. Regarding this, Kanter (cited in Roos and Reskin, 1984: 240) has this to say:

Hiring an outsider for managerial jobs has greater organizational implication given the higher level of uncertainty and rewards in these jobs. Since workers in these occupations have more control over their work, the elites must make sure that new entrants shouldn't disturb the ongoing system. They keep the norm, thus, by hiring only those whose socialization and background resembles the ongoing ones.

With this respect, first, insufficient participation of women in the selection and promotion panels, and the fact that the hiring process is dominated by men recruiters limits the chances of women applicants from being hired from educational leadership. For instance, the finding of Schmuck (1986: 179) reveals that the odd ratio of a woman being hired when there is no women in the selection committee is twenty percent; at the presence of at least one woman among the selection committee, the odd rose to thirty five percent. A similar study conducted by AASA shows, that women in most cases are favourable for women as men are more favourable for men in school administration (Shakeshaft, 1989: 104).

Secondly, decisions to hire an employee for administrative positions are usually affected by biased treatments and practices and subjective criteria which is unrelated to the job (INSTRAW, 1992: 15). Referring to the work of Timpano and King, Shakeshaft (1989: 107) lists down some of these gender sensitive hiring mechanisms that limit women's entry to administrative positions. These include:

- Advertising vacant positions in settings or districts known to have only male audience.
- Limiting eligibility to within the districts when it is known that there are only few or no women who fulfill the requirement needed.

- Notify for women only certain openings which are related to their traditional role (such as director of home economics).
- Using criteria with unproven validity as predictor of success, such as requiring a specific length of experience in a specific position.
- Not allowing applicants to substitute, comparable or superior alternative experiences for specific requirements.
- Permitting men to skip steps on the career ladder but expect women to complete each.
- Asking women irrelevant questions about child care and personal matters.
- Focusing upon the applicant as a woman, rather than as a qualified professional.

Researchers (Rosen and Jeredee, 1974: 54; Davies and Gunawardena, 1992:9) have also identified job characteristics and the personality of the recruiter as affecting women's chance in the hiring process.

In this respect Rosen and Jeredee (1974: 54) examine how the nature of the job determines the chances of women's acceptance to administrative positions. Their finding indicates that the more the administrative job is sought to be challenging, the less likely for women candidate to be accepted. Similarly, Davies and Gunawardena, (1992: 9) in

their survey research in China find out that women are especially screened out from administrative jobs that require movement. One instance indicated in the study is women's exclusion from educational inspection. The researchers state that the belief "women's work is inside or near their home" seems to intervene in the decisions that recruiters make in the hiring process.

In the same vein, it is also reported that the bias against women applicant is intensified when the position requires supervision of male subordinates (Rosen and Apper cited in Dipboye, 1989: 128).

The personality of the recruiter also affects the chances of women's recruitment to status positions. Basically, although it is observed that most men recruiters are perceived to have negative attitude toward female candidates for administrative jobs, the bias is observed to be less severe amongst old than young recruiters who have had some working experience with female employees (Rosen and Jeredee, 1974: 51). And also authoritarian recruiters are evidenced to be highly, biased against female applicant (Dipboye, 1989: 128).

As an alternative strategy, in a less bureaucratic systems recommendations play an important role in hiring a potential employee to administrative jobs. However, recommendation systems are also found to deter than

facilitate women's recruitment. Roos and Reskin (1984: 251) contend that since women's helper or assistant role have been institutionalised as effective, female jobs (such as clerical jobs) are deemed to be more effective than male jobs to provide direct service to one's superior. Thus, superiors will be reluctant to recommend productive assistant to leadership roles.

On top of the segregation mechanism in the hiring process, women's exclusion from educational leadership is promoted in the form of job assignments and anticipatory socialization.

### 2.3.2 Sex-Biased Job Assignments and Anticipatory Socialization

One important indicator of career success into leadership positions appears to be the degree to which job assignments and promotions the worker receives are conducive to the development of managerial skills (Dipboye, 1989: 131).

In light of this, researchers (for example, Roos and Reskin, 1984: 236; Schmuck, 1986: 181; Davies and Gunawardena, 1992: 16; Coles, 1992: ) have shown that men in administrative position are less likely to assign female subordinates to pipe line tasks that lead to administrative and managerial positions. In relation to this issue one consistent finding is the fact men are assigned to "heavy"

tasks whereas women are assigned to "light" works. It looks that the belief "women are vulnerable to stand heavy task assignments" remains a strong bias and creep into the minds of male superiors (Roos and Reskin, 1984: 236). For instance, Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 16) in the case study conducted in Ghana found out that men perform most of the "hard" administrative tasks in schools such as time tabling, organization of examination, curriculum development etc. Whereas women found to be engaged in pastoral side such as pupil welfare and girls' discipline.

There is also an evidence which shows that while men teachers are given extra assignments (i.e. in addition to their teaching loads ) women are excluded from these assignments. For instance, Schmuck (1986: 181) observes that while male teachers are often assigned as members of committees, departments chair persons, club coordinators etc. women are deprived of these duties.

In addition to differential treatments in the assignments of tasks women are screened out from other opportunities such as participation in workshops, seminar, meetings. For example, findings indicate that while male principals select male teachers to attend conferences, meetings and trainings, they are less likely to extend these rewarding practices to female teachers (wealthy cited in Adikson, 1981: 326). This finding is also conforming with that of Rosen and Jeredee (1974: 51) in which it is reported

that executives less frequently send female subordinates for meetings and seminars specially if the meetings and the seminars are to be held in the city outside the working and residence areas of the employee.

Issues and practices in the job assignments and anticipatory socialization are sexually biased not only to women who have not yet entered into leadership positions, but also the saliency of these practices affect the career progress of managerial women as well.

An examination of different studies (for example, Dipboye, 1989: 131; Roon and Reksin, 1984: 250; Shakeshaft, 1989: 73) show that most women administrators are placed in dead end jobs where they cannot develop any more, and proceed to the top visible positions.

Implicit here is the difference in the career paths of men and women administrators. Referring the case study conducted by New York state's civil service system, Roos and Reskin (1984: 250) point out how career ladder perpetuate sex segregation. These authorities observe that women concentrate in the lowest level jobs with short career ladder that have few advancement opportunities, while men predominate the higher longer ladders which lead to advancement. On top of this, women's job ladders are harder to climb because the educational and experience requirements

for promotion are difficult to satisfy than the career ladders in male dominated positions.

It is also reported that while men's career ladders are steady, women's career ladders are an interrupted ones (Grambs, 1978: 39).

For Grambs, an interrupted life styles of women (such as the realities of child rearing, marriage and other burdens) compel them to follow an interrupted career ladders. On the other hand, men seldom face these hardships and tend to move in a steady career ladder.

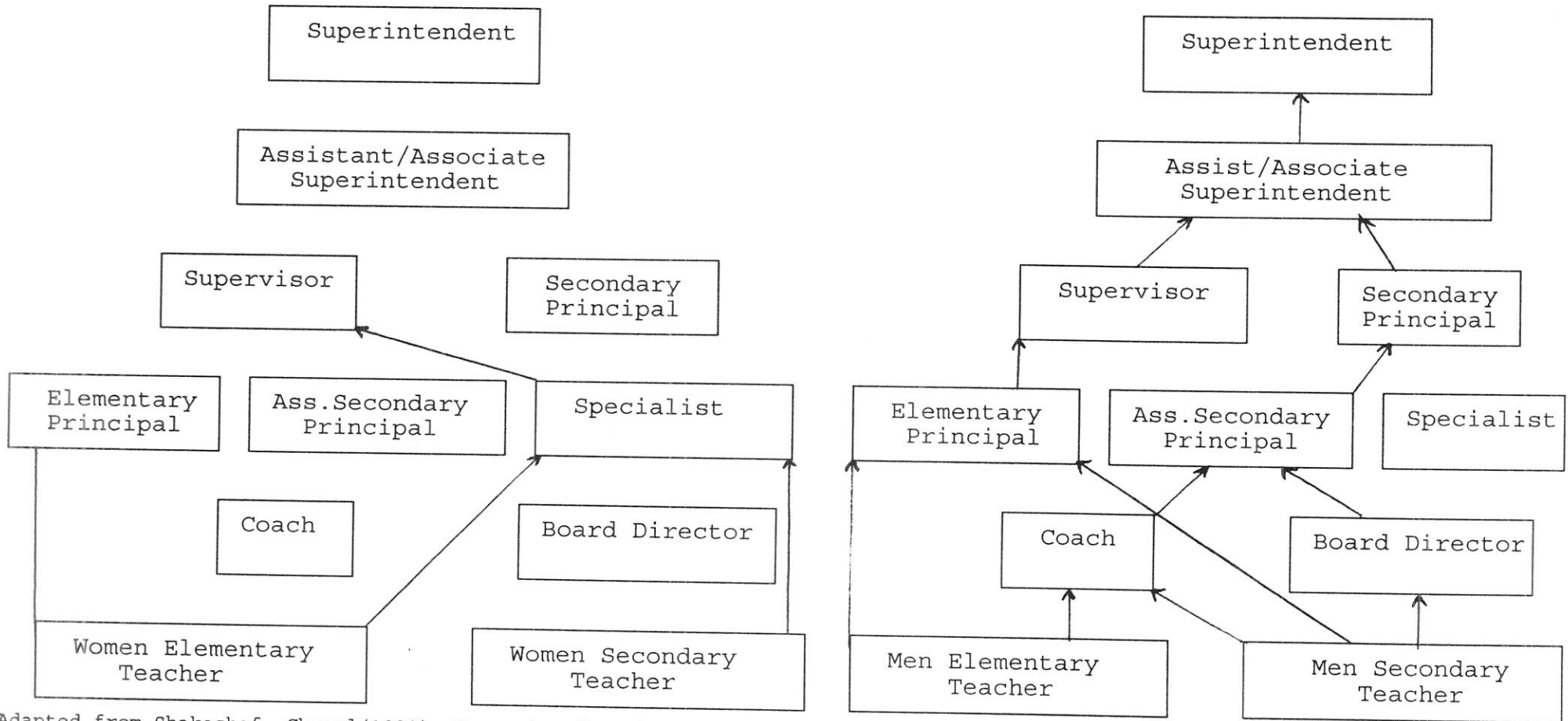
In a more specific way, Shakeshaft (1989: 72) and Grambs (1978: 41) further examined the career ladders of women and men in educational administration. Grambs (1978: 41) reports that female educational administrators tend to be appended in lower job ladders which are not very far from teaching positions. Shakeshaft's extensive research is more illustrative in this instance. According to Shakeshaft (1989: 71) men in educational administration have a steady paths up to the top ladder. That is, they move from teaching position to an assistant principalship or to principalship then, to an assistant superintendency and finally to a superintendent position. On the other hand, women, though they serve as teacher more than men do, start

administration with specialist position and then they move to elementary school principalship and, as Shakeshaft notes this is the stage where the majority of women administrators remain. According to Grambs (1978: 41) such positions are the ones women educational administrators on their part too would like to remain when viewed in terms of the commitment they make to education and children.

Further implied in the works of Shakeshaft (1989: 73) is that women educational administrators tend to be excluded from line positions such a secondary school principalship, assistant or associate superintendency and superintendency. These career ladders are mostly taken by men. Furthermore, Shakeshaft evidences the existence of more entry level positions for the typical male teacher than female teachers. The summary of the works of Shakeshaft is presented in figure 1.

Figure 1

Typical Career Paths of Women and Men in Educational Administration



Adapted from Shakeshaf, Charol (1989). *Women in Educational Administration*, New Delhi: Sage Publications (p.73).

#### 2.4 Traditional Norm and Women's Aspiration to Educational Leadership

One explanation for women's sparse number in educational leadership is that they have very low intrinsic motivation or aspiration to leadership positions (Levine and Crumrine, 1975: 934; Dipboye, 1989: 118).

Indeed, it is true that traditionally women apply for educational leadership less frequently than men do. However, as Maccoby and Jacclin (1981: 79) contend there is no reason to claim that this lies in women's inherent lack of aspiration or motivation for positions. Some other researchers (for example Davies and Gunawardena, 1992: 11) further maintain that in the present age where female educational and other opportunities have relatively been expanded, trait difference in achievement motivation has little explanatory power to entail women's lower aspiration as reason for their gross inequalities in educational leadership.

Thus, instead of focusing on the individual (i.e., women's inherent lack of motivation for positions) researchers are devoted to examining other external variables that may result in women's lower aspiration or which give the color that women lack inherent motive to aspire.

In this regard, first, for most women aspiration entails a different meaning to what has traditionally been accepted

in the definition of the term by most men (Shakeshaft, 1989: 86). It is also noted that this traditional definition of aspiration leaves out much of female experience, thus, if measured by this definition it appears that women do not aspire. For example, women's aspiration for positions has been measured in terms of behaviors such as status seeking, risk taking, leading subordinates and being independent (Cole, 1992: 18). All of these things mean, moving up the hierarchy. According to the male lense of aspiration, for instance, for teachers having a career aspiration means wanting to become a principal not wishing to remain a teacher (Shakeshaft, 1989: 87). One way of understanding women's perceived failure to aspire to high levels of school administration lies in the achievement norm inherent in this belief. According to Yeaky and others (1986: 133) in educational administration much of the theory and practice have been adapted from business. And this business model is less suitable to the experiences and expectations of most women although they stayed in the profession for long. The contentions of Yeaky and others is deeply explained in the works of Callahan (1962: 80-1). According to Callahan, the bureaucratization that took place early in this century is related to the notion that the business model was the best model. And also the belief that management is management and that there is no much difference between a factory and a school was the fashion of the time. This premise in turn led the school boards to invite men into school leadership, men who did not necessarily have educational credentials. In

effect, men who lack appropriate educational experience are forced to focus more on the clerical than technical aspects of school administration.

According to Shakeshaft (1989: 87) the modelling of school administration into managerial rather than educational or instructional enterprise fails to meet much of women's orientation to educational leadership. It is also maintained that women's administrative orientation is largely attuned to the classroom (i.e., to the instructional aspects of the job). For women teachers, thus, success is not measured in moving from job to job, or in terms of one's contribution to the clerical details, but it is measured by the quality of one's contribution to the job, to the classroom teaching (Yeaky and others, 1986: 133-4).

The finding of Lyson too (cited in Dipboye, 1989: 133) though not specific to educational settings, explains women's orientation to administrative position in general. According to this finding, women who are planning to join administrative jobs express more concern to intrinsic aspects of the job.

Men on the other hand focus on extrinsic aspects (i.e., money, power, prestige etc.). It is noted that this tendency of men for the extrinsic aspects of the job shows the tendency to catch opportunities that lead to positions of

authority. On the other side of the coin, women reveal this opportunity on the work it self.

Difference in the motivation of women and men while entering the teaching profession itself has been presented as accountable to result in a different orientation in the aspiration of women and men for educational leadership. It is evidenced that while most women enter teaching to teach, most men enter with anticipation to administer (Grambs, 1978: 40). For example, Gross and Trask (cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 87) indicate that 65% of female principals and only 27% males decide upon teaching as a career as early as their senior years in high schools.

Some researchers (Marini and Brinton, 1984: 200; Marshal, 1985: 133; Horner, 1972: 159) further claim that even if one accepts the male definition of aspiration, low aspiration may not be what is being measured. What is really being measured, they argue, is low opportunity which is deep rooted into women's self concepts and expectations. In relation to this, Marini and Brinton (1984: 200) note that there is a difference between wishful aspiration and realistic expectation. The discrepancy between aspiration and expectation provide some indication on the degree to which individuals perceive that constraints may prevent realization of their aspirations. Kanter's assertion "things may become evaluated as less desirable as they become less likely" (Kanter, cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 91) may better

explain the cause of women aspiration in this respect. For instance, lack of aspiration in women is largely the reflection of reality in terms of home and family responsibilities (Marshall, 1985: 133). Shakeshaft (1989: 89) also points out that if a woman works outside home, she will continue to do the major portion of work inside the home as well. She also underlies, "for males to be husbands, fathers, and school administrators entail not two careers, but one. For most women, family responsibility is work responsibility bring home the pay check".

On top of that, women tend to exclude themselves out of the competition from positions, as a means of keeping their sense of femininity. This is, in fact, an expected response to societal pressures on the part of women. Regarding this, Horner (1972: 17) states that anticipation of success for administrative positions against the male competition poses a threat to the sense of femininity and self-esteem and serves as a potential bias for being socially rejected. Thus, in order to appear more feminine, women disguise their abilities and act in a more self limiting way.

#### 2.4.1 Lack of Role Models and Women's Aspiration to Educational Leadership

An alternative way to view women's achievement orientation in educational careers lies in the organizational structure frame work (Weber, 1981: 322, Schmuck, 1986: 179).

According to Kanter (1977: 967), opportunity, power and relative number (ratio) have the potential to explain an individual's response to the organization. Kanter goes on contending that those individuals who have little opportunity to move up the hierarchy (in this case women teachers) are disengaged in the form of dwindled aspirations. On the other hand, those who are highly mobile within the hierarchy (i.e., male teachers) tend to develop attitudes and values that reinforces them further along the hierarchy.

Among other things initial inequalities in the involvement of one's sex type in the opportunity structure determines the level of aspiration one develops to approach the opportunity track (Adikson, 1981: 323)

In light of this, bearing in mind the high ratio of men against women to educational leadership, administrative positions in education have been a special province of men than women (Davies and Gunawardena, 1992: 2). Thus, lack of opportunity for women to see other women in administrative positions, to observe how these women speak of their lives and compare themselves with women just steps ahead of them is one potential hinderance for women's aspiration to managerial roles (Grambs, 1978: 40).

Lack of same sex-role model affects women's career aspiration in another way as well. It is evidenced that women are most often detestful of patterning themselves after

men, because they identify men's behavior as "male" and therefore inappropriate for them (Marshal, 1986: 361). Even if women emulate male model it is more of a challenge than of some help to their career progress. In the first place as noted by Marshal (1986: 362) women's patterning after male is usually perceived by colleagues, friends and the society at large as sex inappropriate behavior. Secondly, since women and men have different career orientation, adapting male behaviour is indeed foreign to their femininity. In both directions, thus, male role model dampens than impels women's aspiration to leadership positions.

## 2.5 Management Styles of Women and Men Educational Administrators

Various explanations have been forwarded for the decline in the number of women in educational leadership. One of the most frequently given reasons is that they are inferior in their performance as administrators compared to their male counterparts.

Thus, as various researchers maintain (Morsink, 1970; Heller, 1982; Shakeshaft, 1989; Mcgrath, and Goin, 1992; Coles, 1975; Adikson, 1981; Davies and Gunawardena, 1992, Hanson, 1985) there is a need to look into the existing differences between women and men educational administrators regarding the behavior they exhibit in the work as administrators. Whether there is justification in the claim

that women are less competent than men on the way they manage their organizations is, therefore, the focus of this part.

While examining the managerial performances of women and men in educational administration, different findings focus on different issues. However, the summary of many of these findings (for example, Morsink, 1970; Shakeshaft, 1989; Coles, 1975; Stracher, 1993) seems to fall in identifying the existing differences in the areas of work environment, leadership, communication, decision making and conflict resolution.

#### 2.5.1 Work Environment for Women and Men Educational Administrators

According to some researchers (Shakeshaft, 1989: 170, McGrath and Goin, 1992: 64; Coles, 1975: 326) although activities that women and men educational administrators undertake to meet their job responsibilities are basically the same, there are some differences too. Differences in the manner they spend their time, in their day-to-day interactions, in the priorities that shape their actions, in the perceptions of them by others, and in the satisfaction they derive out of their work are some of the areas where sex differences seem apparent. Therefore, these differences combine to create a work environment which is somewhat different for women educational administrators than their male counterparts.

In light of this, first it is observed that areas of emphasis women and men educational administrators lay in budgeting (spending) their time is somewhat different. For example, women principals more often than men principals are observed conducting unscheduled meetings, taking fewer trips away from the building, and observing teachers frequently (McGrath, 1992: 63). It is also noted that female principals take shorter desk work session during the school day and spend more time during after school hours (Davies and Gunawardena, 1992: 16). The observed difference in this instance seem to come from women principals' pressure owing to home making roles.

There are also some differences in the way women and men educational administrators interact. For instance, it has been reported that female superintendents and principals interact more with teachers and students than men do (Adikson, 1981: 317). However, it was found women principals interact more with female teachers than male teachers. As compared to male principals, female principals are observed to interact with male teachers more often than male principals interact with female teachers (Wealthy cited in Adikson, 1981: 326).

It is also found that the issue of sociality at work determines the interaction dynamics of women and men principals and their group choice. As indicated in the works of Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 105) for women, peer

relationship and colleguality at work is more important than it is for men.

As a result, while men principals look peer groups from super-ordinates, women principals prefer to have one from teachers and work associates. Researchers (Coles, 1975: 326; McGrath and Goin, 1992: 65) have also examined the different emphasis women and men educational administrators put on the central purpose of their work. In light of this, women educational administrators are reported to concentrate more on the academic achievements of students, the content of the curriculum, the productivity of the teachers, and the developmental problems of individual students than their male couter parts do (Coles, 1975: 326).

Men on the other hand are observed to focus more on managing operations, facilities and finance (McGrath and Goin, 1992: 65). Explaining how these differences come, Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 107) assert that the uncritical borrowing of business management model to educational settings result in the masculine norm in school management where the virtue lies on the administrator's ability in managing the business side of school administration. Thus, management was supposed to come before teaching.

It should be noted that it is not only the administrator's perception of himself or herself and the mission that each carries out that make a different working

environment for women and men educational administrators. The perception others hold about the sex of the administrator also influence a working environment which is somewhat different for women and men educational administrators.

On the whole, studies (for instance Coles, 1975: 326; Davies and Gunawardena, 1992: 16) report that male teachers prefer to work with male administrators, whereas, female teachers prefer to work with female administrators. However, working experience with women and men administrators may change the attitudes that teachers hold about the sex of the leader. For instance, as found out in Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 16) teachers who had never served under female principals declined to choose a female as a head; while those who had the exposure to both group of principals do not present gender as a variable in evaluating a principal. Eventually, the source of satisfaction women administrators derive out of their work is identified as one determinant in shaping their working environments. It is evidenced that many women obtain satisfaction more from intrinsic aspects of their job than from its extrinsic aspects (such as money, prestige etc.). Lioyed (1991: 156) notes that the link between men's mind, money and power is obvious. The writer keeps on saying that "many men feel unsuccessful and even unmanily in the company of women who earn more than they earn." Women on the other hand capture money and power for the sake of good personal relationship at work.

From the foregoing discussion it looks that although men and women tend to do the same things in undertaking their duties, the emphasis they lay on the importance of tasks, and the manner they behave in discharging their duties is to some extent different. Overall, however, the observed differences seem to favour women than men. Bearing in mind ones first loyalty more with teachers and students, their primary commitment to the instructional aspects of school management are the most glaring ones for women to out-rank their male counterparts. The last issue, i.e., the commitment women pay to the instructional side of school administration as indicated in the words of Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 107) is the bench mark around which all is calculated. The writers further maintain that all other roles and duties are facilitators than central to the educational work of the school.

#### 2.5.2 Leadership Styles of Women and Men Educational Administrators

A number of researchers have examined the leadership styles of women and men educational administrators (for example, Eagly and others, 1992; Heller 1982; Morsink, 1970; Shakeshaft, 1989; Davies and Gunawardena, 1992; Stracher, 1993).

Based on LBDQ (Leader's Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire), Morsink (1970: 80) attempted to find out if there are sex differences between women and men secondary

school principals in terms of twelve dimensions. The dimensions include: representation, demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration and superior orientation. Morsink shows non significant difference between the styles of women and men principals in any of these dimensions.

Employing instruments other than LBDQ, other researchers have come up with some differences in the leadership styles of women and men educational administrators. For instance, Stracher (1993: 73) find out women educational administrators to score high in interpersonal dimensions; such as student and teacher moral compared to male counterparts. Jovick (cited in Adikson, 1981: 338) has also reported that women principals out-ranked men on the trust and consideration dimension. In similar vein, other researchers examine whether women educational administrators are task oriented in their style of leadership compared to their male counterparts. In response to this, Eagly and others (1992: 76) have made a comparative study on the leadership styles of women and men school principals. In the measure of task oriented styles, women principals scored higher than male principals. Similarly, Gross and Trask (as cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 178) report the superiority of female principals in task oriented styles. For example, women are evidenced to exert more control of teachers professional

activities by requiring teachers to keep the principal informed about problems of children, by checking whether teachers had prepared lesson plans etc. According to Heller (1982: 10) women's superiority in task oriented dimensions is an important observation in deciphering the commonly hold belief "women are like earth mother and that they sacrifices their duties for people".

The findings so far discussed reveal that while the pre-socialization and pre-placement patterns of men and women are different, these differences do not bear out the inferiority of women's leadership styles to men's. Yet, Schmuck (1980: 181) has evidenced that there always appear to be differential expectations from others depending upon whether a leader is a male or a female. According to Schmuck, women's devaluated status in the society transcends to the work place creating "a legitimation gap" to the styles of leadership exercised by women.

### 2.5.3 Communication Styles of Women and Men Educational Administrators

One determinant of success in the organization is believed to be the communication competence of an administrator. The way administrators convey messages and the level of influence they gain over other members of the organization is largely determined as a function of their communication ability.

In this regard the administrator's language style is one determinant variable. Substantiating this view, Colwill (1989: 108) says that it is through words that administrators bargain with concrete or personal resources and that they can express their helplessness or competence.

On the whole, although style difference in language use are largely a matter of individual difference, sex characteristics stereotypings are still intervening factors while evaluating a male or female administrators in light of this issue as well. A phenomenon which Dickens calls "genderlect" is a common aspect in giving gender tone or color to the style of speech women and men make (Dickens, cited in Colwill, 1989: 108).

In relation to this, some researchers (Shakeshaft, 1989: Colwill, 1989; McGrath and Goin, 1992) have documented difference between male and female language use and tried to show whom the existing differences are favouring especially if someone is to take leadership positions.

For instance, in verbal communication women are observed to use many correct speech forms than men. They seldom use slangs and more precise with standard grammatical usage (Ronald, 1992: 41). When they happen to face shortcomings in language command, they tend to exhibit variety in other ways such as difference in intonations, use of qualifiers,

pitch, loudness and change in the rate of speaking (Shakeshaft, 1989: 180).

Women are evidenced to use language that encourages community building and politeness. According to Shakeshaft, (1989: 181) women's politeness is exhibited in their listening behaviour. Women are observed to listen more than men and remember more of what the participants in the conversation say. Men on the other hand are found to interrupt in the communication and seldom recall what the participants have said. Women also look at the speaker while he/she is talking, but men rarely do this (Zimmer Man and West cited in Colwill, 1989: 109). Women tend to hear the emotional and personal issues in a conversation, while men listen for facts (Shakeshaft, 1989: 181). In a conversation women are also evidenced to be less defensive, and shy away from universal pronouncements which indicate that the way they see things is the only way. Men on the other hand seldom give up, and stick on what they propose.

According to some researchers (Maccoby and Jacclin, 1981: 80; Shakeshaft, 1989: 181) the difference between women and men in written language resembles those in spoken discourse. For instance, women's superiority in the use of correct grammatical structure has been documented in the work of Shakeshaft (1989: 1810).

Hait (cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 182) after examining women's and men's writing styles concludes that women's styles is more perceptive, moderate, consistent and overhanded than men's.

Other than verbal use of languages people communicate non-verbally; with expressions and bodily movements. Like in the use of spoken and written language, men and women differ each other in this area too. For instance, Colwill (1989: 109) maintains that women take up less space than men. Women are observed to sit with legs together and with arms to the side, whereas, men spread and claiming more territory.

Then what do these differences between the communication styles of women and men show? On the whole the afore discussed findings show the appropriateness of the communication styles of women for organizational success. For example, good organizational communication presupposes non-coercive, motivational, persuasive skill, humanised feed-back, and threat reducing strategies (Hanson, 1985: 263). The styles of women respond to this need more properly. Also, women seldom use imperative (assertive) statements less often than men. Their hedging constructions also depict more a democratic and less an autocratic approaches which facilitate organizational communication.

Non defensive communication strategies, and conflict reduction skills of women are also indicators of their

proficiency in communication (McGrath, and Goin, 1992: 62). On top of that, women's listening skill and receptivity to variant views and audience analysis will be necessary for good communication. In a way that is sign of courtesy, respect and support. It also provides the administrators as much feed-back as necessary to foster good organizational communication.

From the literature, thus, it looks that women's traditionally stereotypic styles of communication, if not more effective they are not deficient as compared to the ones employed by their male counterparts. According to Shakeshaft (1989: 186) the traditional assumption "women administrators should forgo feminine styles, speak and act like men to be effective administrators" is unwise so to say.

#### 2.5.4 Decision Making Strategies of Women and Men Educational Administrators

Researchers like Eagly and others (1992: 72), Heller (1982: 3) and Shakeshaft (1989: 187) find out that women are perceived as more democratic and participatory than men in their styles of decision making.

Shakeshaft (1989: 187), for instance, evidences the work of female principals as more characterized by asking subordinates for information more often than their male counterparts.

Berman (cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 188) also observes women principals as competitive in meetings. And that they are less committed to the formal hierarchy and more willing to submerge displays of personal power in order to get the efforts of others.

According to Leavitt (1988: 35) this tendency of women to involve others in doing tasks is a natural outgrowth of the socialization process as well.

The participatory styles of women educational administrators appear to enhance than threaten the power base of female administrators and yields consistent advantage to themselves, to the group they lead and to the organization at large.

Emphasizing women's inclusive and participatory strategies and the advantages gained in sharing ones power in decision making, Grahaum (1991: 154) has this to say:

Power is not a lump of meat that can be cut up and shared... it is interactive and increases the total power of the group.... By pooling individual powers, we get not only the addition of the separate personal power of those in the group but also something extra - the extra value created through their interaction. Women leaders are in fact pooling the power of the members in their group, thus increasing individual and overall effectiveness.

On top of exercising a more participative and inclusive strategies in decision making, women educational administrators are also found to be evaluating their

decisions more often than their male counterparts (Morsink, 1979: 64). Women are also reported as including long range planning and evaluative data in making decisions and thus have been rated as better planners (Shakeshaft, 1989: 188).

#### 2.5.5 Conflict Resolving Strategies of Women and Men Educational Administrators

Researchers (Grambs, 1978, Shakeshaft, 1989; Fauth, 1984) realise women and men educational administrators as enforcing a variety of conflict management styles. Overall however it is noted that women most often than men withdraw from conflict, or use collaborative strategies whereas men use authoritarian response (Fauth, 1984:68; Grambs, 1978: 41). In school situations handling student disciplinary problems is one of the most important areas where the administrator's adequacy in managing conflict is evaluated. The evidence shows that the response of men administrators for student disciplinary problems is authoritarian. As noted by Grambs (1978: 41) "aggression by students is met by counter aggression by administrators". On the other hand Grambs (1978: 41) argues that women do not react to aggression - producing situations in the same way and the same degree as men do. And they seldom respond to attacks with attacks. Instead, they use more problem solving approach. Unlike men, women are more prone to find out what caused the behavior. While men tend to deal more with the behavior itself.

The different strategies employed by women and men educational administrators in handling organizational conflict are largely the outgrowth of the socialization process. The fact that men have been brought up and encouraged to be adventurous and combative from early childhood (Maccoby and Jaccolin, 1981: 82) gradually channels their behaviors to approach situations (that cause conflict) in a more aggressive manner. While women's socialization, which is more attuned to affiliative manners does not allow them to prescribe aggression for aggressive behaviours. According to Shakeshaft (1989: 190), therefore, "women cool conflict out than hit it up."

2.5.6 Which Management Styles is More Appropriate for the Administration of Education Institutions: Masculine or Feminine?

It is true that people characterise themselves in ways the culture regards as appropriate and positive. As Epstein (1974: 12) notes "no woman wants to indicate that she is a "masculine" and no man wishes to be seen as "feminine" especially if she or he is to engage in work considered non traditional.

Thus, as far as cultural role expectations are persistent, it is no wonder if women and men exhibit a different approach in the management of schools. The crux of the issue is, however, whether women's management strategies are deficient to men's.

According to Heller (1982:61) while deciding a strategy suitable for educational management, first of all, one has to see the central purpose of schools. Considering a student as a focal point, and a good teaching-learning process as a means (a thorough put) the interactive, collegial and affiliative styles of women educational administrators is of great help in order to win the collaborative efforts of teacher, parents, and others to meet the objectives of the educational system.

On the other hand, Rosner (1991: 152) notes that the command and control styles which has largely been considered a masculine virtue is not suitable for service giving institutions (such as schools). As Davies and Gunawardena (1992: 107) contend a school leadership, thus, needs a shift of norm from hierarchy" to "colleaguality". The writers put the shift needed in the following equation.

Management = power = male
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to the equation

Management = support = everyone
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It should be however, noted that all femine styles are not the best styles and the only way for good school management. Nor does it mean that those which are masculine are deficient for management of schools. In the first place without forgetting that women and men educational leaders behave differently due to the impact of socialization,

stressing on gender difference of leadership styles is inhibiting. "Gender differences are sexy in part because sex is sexy, so we notice them more than other large differences" (Jane, 1991: 154). Second, as women and men educational administrators work together and get much of management exposure, the styles they use will be more complimentary than different (Sannenfield, 1991: 160). Third, many of the successful men administrators are evidenced as employing those leadership styles that are largely considered as featuring successful administrators (Epstein, 1991: 150). This entails that many of the accepted styles which largely feature women (such as colleguality and participatory approaches) are also employed by successful male administrators. Fourth and most important, there is a need to make an amalgamation between feminine-masculine styles in order to be eclectic and situational (Strober and Gordon, 1975: 167). Thus, as workable management strategies are being chosen out of blended styles, and as women and men start learning from each other, the tendency to categorize styles along sexual lines gets less strong, and both sexes are treated equally as individual leaders than as a category of women and men.

## CHAPTER THREE

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This part of the paper deals with the presentation and analysis of the data gathered through questionnaire for female and male teachers. Of the total questionnaire distributed for female and male teachers respectively, 206 (97.6%) and 192 (96%) were returned and usable. Also the data obtained through interview with 12 male and 12 female school principals, 8 inspectors, 6 female educational administrators working in the MOE were used in the analysis of the study. Information from documents of the MOE and statistical figures from Regional and zone education offices were also used in the analysis.

#### 3.1 Vocational Orientation and Conformity to "Appropriate" Gender Role

Traditionally, women and men are assigned to tasks that are sought to be suitable to their sexes. Apart from the broad occupational sex typing, gender based division of tasks may also exist within a given profession. In the teaching profession, while some of the tasks are socialised as "masculine" the others are designated as "feminine". Degree of conformity male versus female teachers show towards these role assignments is felt to imply their level of vocational orientation and career developments. This is clearly seen from table 2.

Table 2

A 2x2 Contingency Table Showing Frequency of Responses of Female and Male Teachers by Role Type and Corresponding Chi-square Values

Role Type	Role Assignment	Respondents Frequency			Chi-square
		Male	Female	Total	
Kindergarten teacher	Masculine	0	0	0	0
	Feminine	187	181	368	
Primary school teacher	Masculine	65	20	85	*28.86
	Feminine	113	150	263	
Language teacher	Masculine	161	61	222	*69.79
	Feminine	20	73	93	
Maths teacher	Masculine	115	105	220	0.14
	Feminine	50	50	100	
Home economics teacher	Masculine	10	8	18	0.31
	Feminine	162	170	332	
Typist	Masculine	18	8	26	3.32
	Feminine	177	172	349	
Assistant director	Masculine	118	54	112	*6.64
	Feminine	101	80	181	
director	Masculine	154	106	260	*13.2
	Feminine	42	67	109	
School inspector	Masculine	134	101	235	*13.8
	Feminine	46	80	126	
Head of Education Bureau	Masculine	127	115	242	2.47
	Feminine	52	67	119	

- N.B. 1) Teaching Positions that are specified by subject areas refer to secondary school teaching.  
 2) \*Statistically significant at 0.05 level.

The result of the computation of chi-square in table 2 indicates that, for the most part, both male and female teachers are consistent with traditional assignment of role according to gender. As can be seen from the table kindergarten teaching, home economics teaching and typing jobs are not controversial for male and female teachers. Both agreed that these jobs are typically feminine. Similarly, elementary school teaching has also been assigned as a feminine job by both group of teachers (however, the chi-square value = 28.86 shows a significant variation,  $p < 0.05$  between male and female teachers with high score and tendency of women to internalise this job as feminine).

The agreement reached between female and male teachers to associate these jobs with feminine role may imply why women primarily enter to these jobs. It should be noted that considering the economic demand to get employment, these jobs are perceived as complementing women's socialization and traditional role. For instance, a secretary or a typist job usually gives the impression of a helpmate role in the larger society and in the occupational culture as well. Home economics too has traditionally been considered as no more than cooking and child care taking. Its scientific essence seems to be overlooked. In effect, the role models that undertake this subject in schools are usually perceived as women rather than men. In a similar vein, teaching at lower level is an accepted feminine job. Presumably this could be because of the traditional

association of teaching with feminine role of socialization and caring.

The present finding, particularly which disclosed the association of kindergarten and elementary school teaching with feminine role seems to be consistent with the findings and arguments of Davies (1986); that is the younger the student, the more its nurturance is associated and identified with the natural feminine role, in which case the task is also deemed to warrant little academic qualifications.

Implicit in the arguments of Davies is the need for qualification and academic credentials as a requirement for professional jobs. In light of this, much as teaching is assigned a feminine job at lower levels, this role is not exclusively left to women as the position increases and when the job is felt to require specialization. However, the tendency to assign subjects according to traditional gender role is still apparent. For instance, as table 2 shows while mathematics teaching is uncontroversially assigned as masculine area ( $X^2 = 0.14$   $p > 0.05$ ) home economics teaching (as has been dealt above) is assigned as a feminine job. The assignment of mathematics teaching with masculine role concedes with the existing stereotype " mathematics is a male domain." As indicated in previous findings (eg. Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987) women are generally reported to have less confidence in their mathematics ability in comparison

to males even when their objectively measured abilities are equal. In effect, such feelings of "maths avoidance" among women may negatively affect their career progress in a wider variety of professional life.

on the other hand, male and female teachers have showed a significant departure in the assignment of the role of language teaching by gender ( $X^2 = 69.79$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). While females considered language teaching a feminine job, males associated it with masculine gender role. According to the prevailing stereotype which tends to emphasise women's superiority to men in language capacity (Macoby and Jacclin, 1981) and which associates this role more with women than men, this study does not provide any conclusive evidence for or against the existing stereotype.

Further assessment of the results in table 2 reveals sex biased job assignments which imply female role decline for positions of educational leadership. Though the calculated chi-square indicates significant difference between male and female teachers (Assistant director  $X^2 = 6.4$ , Director  $X^2 = 13.2$ , Inspector  $X^2 = 13.8$ , for all of which  $p < 0.05$ ) the majority of both groups of respondents seem to believe that these positions are masculine. With regard to this the observed statistically significant difference indicates that, whereas both male and female teachers assign these jobs as masculine, the degree of

association between leadership and masculinity is significantly higher for male than female teachers.

Likewise, both male and female teachers seem to agree that males should assume top positions in educational leadership like head of the education bureau ( $X^2 = 2.47$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Traditionally, since women are excluded from visible and prestigious positions, a role decline or deviation from managerial areas is a response to societal role prescription. Moreover, it is imperative to examine the attitudes of female and male teachers in light of the prevailing societal and occupational stereotypes that portray masculine value for managerial positions.

Table 3 shows the level to which female and male teachers internalize societal versus occupational stereotypes that may identify women as "role deviants" to leadership in general, and to educational management in particular (the details of the items referring to societal and occupational stereotypes are presented in Appendix H).

Table 3  
Degree of Conformity to Societal and Occupational  
Stereotypes by Sex of Teachers

Stereotype	Males		Females		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Societal (SS)	33	6.8	31.3	7.7	*2.24
Occupational (OS)	51.4	8.6	49.8	10	1.72
Over all	84.5	13.7	81.11	13	*2.42

N.B. Maximum for: - Societal Stereotype = 55  
 - Occupational Stereotype = 75  
 - Overall = 130

\* Statistically significant at 0.05 level.

In table 3, average scores which indicate degree of conformity to societal and occupational stereotypes have been calculated for male and female teachers separately. The results indicate that both male and female teachers showed above average degree of conformity to both societal (33, 31.3) and occupational (51.4, 49.8) sex role stereotypes respectively. Also female and male teachers conform to occupational stereotypes to the same degree ( $t = 1.72$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). This indicates lack of statistically significant difference in the degree to which female and male teachers internalise occupational stereotypes that may exclude women from educational leadership. However, in relation to

societal stereotypes and on the sum of the two (societal and occupational stereotypes) there is a statistically significant difference implying more conformity of men than women ( $t = 2.24$ ,  $t = 2.42$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

The fact that men depicted a significantly higher level of agreement mainly to societal stereotypes explains the androcentric bias upon women's entry to positions of leadership. The results of this study go in harmony with that of Shakeshaft (1989), Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) who have found that women's attitudes towards women's role in management are more liberal than that of men.

### 3.1.1 Occupational Stereotypes and the Perceptions of Females and Males Towards Women's Role in Leadership

The summative effect of societal and occupational stereotypes, as seen in table 3, shows the general trend concerning women's role and status for administrative positions. In addition to this, there are some specific and most commonly heard occupational stereotypes that are largely attuned to put adverse effect upon women's entry to educational management. The perception of female and male teachers with regard to some of these sex role stereotypes is, thus, worth investigating.

Table 4  
 Degrees of Conformity to Stereotype "Administrative  
 Positions Demand Physical Strength and Masculine Vigour"  
 by Sex of Teachers

Category	Respondents		Total
	Male	Female	
Above median	121 (71.5%)	34 (24.1%)	155
Below median	48	107	155
Total	169	141	310

$$X^2 = 69.1$$

\*Significant at 0.05

In table 4 the median for 310 respondents, i.e. the grand median is 14 (see Appendix E for the calculation). As shown in the table, respondents who got above the grand median (i.e., who have shown high conformity to stereotypes) and those who got below the median (i.e. who have shown less conformity to stereotypes) are differentiated in terms of their sex forming a two by two contingency table. Based on the data, a chi-square ( $X^2$ ) median test statistics is computed. The result shows that since the computed chi-square value ( $X^2 = 69.1$ ) is greater than the critical chi-square value ( $X^2_{1,0.05} = 3.84$ ), there is a statistically significant difference between female and male teachers in

the degree to which they conform to stereotypes that identify administration as a function of physical strength and masculine vigour.

A look at the distribution of the data reveals that out of male respondents 71.5% scored above the median as compared to 24.1% females. This indicates a higher agreement of men than women to the stereotypes of "physical vigour and masculine image" as a requirement for leadership positions. In light of the influence of same sex role model, and the androcentric bias, it is not surprising that the majority of men (whose likes are represented in management) than women internalized this stereotypes as a prerequisite for educational management. This finding also goes in concordance with that of Shakeshaft (1987), Grambs (1978) and others. Based on the above finding it could, thus, be argued that there is a tendency among male teachers to stand in favour of stereotypes that promote male "value" in management. The crux of the issue here is to know the rationale underlying the association between masculine vigour and effectiveness in leadership role. Explaining the existing stereotypic relationship, Betz and Fitzgerald (1987:92) contend that while men in general are considered as capable to stand tasks that require endurance and exertion, the supposed small size of women is perceived as inconsistent with administrative roles. However, the rationale of "men's physical vigour" and women's deficiency

in this attribute seems to have less ground than explaining the discrimination practice laid upon women. In the first place, physical strength, exertion and endurance are not solely masculine traits unless what Betz and Fitzgerald (1987:92) believed worked out to be true "gender differences always over emphasise within and underemphasise between gender differences". Otherwise, there are also women who are physically strong and even stronger than men. Secondly, the achievement norm and the value attached to physical strength for managerial pursuits seem to go beyond what the task requires. For instance, in school setting where the task demands more of cooperation and nurturance, physical vigour has still been mistaken to be as an asset for educational leadership. One instance this study evidences in this regard is the case of student disciplinary problems in schools. As a result of the norm attached with handling this problem, women are generally considered as less appropriate for management of schools in spite of the high regard given to them in teaching. Table 5 and 6 provide some ideas pertinent to women's perceived role in teaching versus in educational leadership.

Table 5  
 Scores of Female and Male Teachers on the Stereotype  
 "Women are Well Suited to Teaching than to  
 Educational Leadership"

Category	Respondents		Total
	Male	Female	
Above median	80	75	155
Below median	89	66	155
Total	169	141	310
Chi-square 1.05			

In table 5 the grand median for 310 respondents is 10 (see Appendix E). As shown in the table there is no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in the degree to which they internalize occupational stereotypes that identify women with teaching but not with administration ( $X^2 = 1.05$  is less than the critical  $X^2_{1, 0.05} = 3.84$ ).

However, a look at the distribution of the data in table 5 reveals that (in general) out of the male respondents 47.3 percent fall above the median compared to 53.1 female respondents. According to this result the proportion of female teachers who conform to the occupational stereotype

that associate females with teaching but not with educational leadership is greater than the proportion of males. Moreover, table 6 indicates preferred ideal sex of the principals in terms of the perceived effectiveness they maintain to the school.

Table 6  
Scores of Male and Female Teachers by Preferred  
Sex of the Principal

Respondents	Sex of the Principal		Total	Chi-Square
	Female	Male		
Females	90 (45%)	108 (55%)	198	1.64
Males	32 (18%)	146 (82%)	178	*75.77

\*Statistically significant at 0.05 level.

As indicated in table 6, a relatively high proportion of female teachers (55%) have preferred a male principal against 45% who have preferred a female principal as appropriate for school leadership.

The consideration of percentages may of course reveal that female teachers associate leadership role more with men than women. The chi-square result, however, shows lack of a statistically significant difference between female teachers in their preference to a male and female principal ( $X^2 = 1.64, p > 0.05$ ).

On the other hand, of male teachers the great majority, i.e. 82%, preferred a male principal as an asset for school management. The chi-square result (i.e.  $X^2$  computed = 75.77 is much greater than the table value,  $X^2 = 3.84$ ) is also statistically significant indicating the preference of men over women for the position of a school principal. According to this result, thus, unlike female teachers, male teachers highly favour a male principal as an effective leader of the school. This result also replicates that of Fishel and Pottker (1975) where it is generally evidenced that men are biased than women regarding women's role in management especially when evaluating women not currently performing administrative duties.

The data gathered from open ended items (responded by male and female teachers) show even more interesting picture concerning their preference of male principals. For the majority of the male and female teachers, i.e., 85% and 54% respectively, it is only the male principals that can withstand challenges resulted from the prevailing student disciplinary problems. And this implies that currently the conventional method, i.e., the corporal punishment is still practised in our schools, and is surprisingly considered to be "well handled" by male principals. Thus, by analogy, the majority of male and female teachers tend to perceive this customary method as more suitable for men than women. However, what seems to be put at odd sides would have been this customary method. To acknowledge only men for the

management of student disciplinary problems is the same as institutionalizing this same approach. As Grambs (1974:41) contends "counter aggression to aggression" only hits up the problem; it will not be curative more often than not. On top of the apparent adverse effect this traditional method lays up on student behaviour, the male role model attached to its administration might have also acted as one potential filtering mechanism for women entrants to school leadership.

On the whole, observation of the results from table 2-6 implies conformity of both men and women to stereotypes that identify women with teaching than educational leadership. However, the response of female teachers in relation to stereotypes of "physical vigour and masculine image as a requirement for leadership" where women showed less agreement seems inconsistent with other findings (where uncontroverted agreement of both groups have been observed). Nevertheless, this inconsistency is only apparent. A close look into the responses of female teachers on a related stereotype, for instance, acknowledging a male principal as an "effective" leader for the position of a school principal indirectly discloses women's conformity to this same stereotype.

### 3.2 The Impact of Marriage and Family on Women's Entry and Advancement to Educational Leadership

Marriage has been considered as one determinant variable for women's career progress (see for example Marshal, 1981; Adikson, 1981). Associated with this variable are husbands help and attitude, number of children and the availability of child care and other facilities.

The female teachers considered in this study seem to be affected by factors like marriage. That is because the majority of them are married and with children (see Appendix A).

In other words, the majority of female teachers are involved in family affairs which in one way or the other adds some work overload upon their career lives. However, unless other factors are complemented, such as the level of husbands' help, number of children etc, marriage alone can not predict the degree to which female teachers suffer from home and work interface. Table 7 addresses one of these issues - husband's help.

Table 7

Married Female Teachers by Reported Degrees of Husbands' Help (For Home Making and Family Roles)

High		Moderate		Low		Total	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
30	19.6	31	20.26	92	60.1	153	100

As can be seen from table 7, the majority of female teachers (60.5%) labelled the help they obtained from their husbands as low. Surprisingly, however, in responding to the open ended question that asks whether they suffer from role incongruity, significant number of them (i.e. 75%) reported only moderate degree of role conflict. This result is more complex when it is viewed in light of the number of children these respondents have and when the existing role conflict between unmarried and married female teachers is assessed. As the study evidences 68% of female (see Appendix A) teachers have more than 4 children, while 25% of them have 1-4 children. For the majority of them this would have also inflicted high level of role conflict. Important of all, the reported degree of work over load between married and unmarried female teachers is not significantly different. Table 8 highlights this issue.

Table 8

ANOVA Summary Table: Dependent Variable-Role Conflict

Source	DF	SS	MS	F
Marital status	1	1.09	1.09	1.89
Residual	178	103.11	0.58	
Total	179	104.20		

As the results in table 8 indicate there is no statistically significant difference in the reported degree of role conflict between married and unmarried female teachers.

On the whole as the above findings indicate at the presence of different variables which would have added work overload and, thus role conflict among female teachers, the reported degree of role conflict is not high. The possible explanation for this unexpected response of female teachers could be that either (1) female teachers are not speaking their real minds (as a projection to androcentric bias) or (2) family responsibility may not be a strong factor as has been otherwise conceived by others to significantly affect women's career progress. The results of this study seem to complement the second explanation. Rank order of summary of the variables affecting women's career progress disclosed that while men ranked the impact of family responsibility as the second most influential factor, female teachers ranked it only as the sixth (see Appendix B). According to this result family related reasons may not, thus, be as insurmountable as others (outsiders) perceive it to block women from leadership roles.

The findings of this study have also been in conformity with that of Fauth (1984). According to the findings of Fauth, women see only a minimal likelihood of career interruption for marriage and child bearing compared to other macro level factors.

Moreover, the results of this study bears out sex role orientation more than the actual work overload as more strong to adversely affect women's career progress. In

other words, lack of a statistically significant difference between married and unmarried female teachers in the reported degree of role conflict seem to disprove the socialisation assumption "unmarried women are free from dual role to pursue career". This finding fits to what Betz and Fitzgerald (1987: 36) assert as "homogenisation of women" on the basis of their sex role. According to Betz and Fitzgerald sex role orientation grossly affects women as a category irrespective of their life styles or individual differences.

### 3.2.1 The State of Home and Work Interface Among Managerial Women

Table 9  
Women Educational Administrators by Marital Status and Position

School Principals						Office Holders					
Married		Single		Total		Married		Single		Total	
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
10	83.3	2	16.6	11	100	5	83.3	1	16.6	6	100

Note: Office holders are women educational administrators who are currently working as head of departments and senior experts at the MOE.

Generally it is believed that managerial women suffer from added work overload as compared to women in non-

managerial roles. This is because administrative duties are sought to demand extra responsibilities to teaching assignments. As a result, various research findings (Shakeshaft, 1989; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Marshal, 1981) characterise the profiles of women in leadership roles as single than married. According to Shakeshaft (1989) this tendency of single hood among female educational administrators is tantamount to greater ego strength whereby administrative women forego marriage for the sake of career development. On top of that, the issue of hypergamy (the tendency of men to marry downward educationally and status wise) has also been identified by Betz and Fitzgerald as promoting single hood among the female educational administrators.

The results of this study, however, seem to diverge these findings. As the study further indicates the great majority of female educational administrators (i.e. 83% of the principals and 83% office holders) are married and nearly all of them have got children (see Appendix A).

The observed difference in the marital life of women educational administrators in this study and early findings is not clear. And generally as the sample of educational administrators in this study is small, it is difficult to make a reliable and conclusive explanation. However, added to the cultural diversities that may influence marital relationship, the management levels for women educational

administrators in this and previous findings are different. While women educational administrators in related works (such as Shakeshaft, 1989) were found to be on top management level (superintendents, vice superintendents) the majority in the present study are school principals. Thus, the issue of hypergamy may be less influential to promote singlehood among women educational administrators in this sample (as they are at low management level).

In light of the new cultural imperative (which promotes planning to combine both marriage and career life), women educational administrators in this study seem to proceed along the favoured line. However, it should be noted that in the absence of child care and other facilities (which generally reflects the realities in Ethiopia) managing both administrative duties and family responsibilities is a big challenge. Moreover, interviewed whether or not they obtain help from their husbands in complementing home making activities, the great majority of female educational administrators, i.e. 83.3% of them reported that their husbands offer them little or no assistance. Responding how they manage both their administrative duties and family responsibilities, the majority of them reported that they sacrifice all the spare time available at their disposal (for instance, on week ends by arranging all what is needed, and which covers the whole week for the family).

As can be seen from the above reports of female educational administrators, it looks that work-home interface is not minimal. Asked whether they face any role incongruity between their administrative duties and family responsibilities the majority of them, i.e. 72% in fact, reported that they encountered only minimal level of role conflict. This response of female educational administrators seem to have mixed implication. On the one hand, the reported low level of role conflict implies the high level of work commitment, and sacrifice they pay to handle both sides of their lives. In light of the conventional masculine bias which considers women unable to handle both marriage and administrative duties (and which questions the level of endurance women develop), this finding is a good justification to defy this assumption. The assertion provided here also corroborates that of Dipboye (1989); that is once women have taken managerial positions, they exhibit high power and achievement needs, high self esteem and high motivation to manage. Thus, their determination to pursue career could be strong enough to break the boundaries of socialization which relegates their roles to home making activities.

On the other hand, however, the reported low level of role conflict shouldn't be misunderstood for lack of work overload. Obviously, in the absence of husbands' help, child care and other facilities, the interface of marital life upon career advancement of women educational

administrators is unescapable evil. In fact, interviewed whether they are interested for higher administrative posts, most female school principals have shown that they will prefer such posts provided that position requirements do not involve relocation. Being away from one's residence has been considered as conflicting with their family roles. Thus, though in subtle form, family responsibilities are still background issues in limiting the career progress of women.

In addition to their teaching loads, teachers may handle extra responsibilities in their schools. With regard to this, the level of responsibility taken and areas of responsibility assumed to predict the extent to which female teachers apply for positions. As indicated by Sampson (1987: 34) this may be the consequence of "post-hoc" training, that is people who are trained at administrative inservice activities have already been appointed as administrators of one kind or another. That is teachers who are involved in different activities gain the experience and learn the risk. While those who are alienated from these experiences remain idle and fail to demonstrate their potentials.

### 3.3 Institutional Sex Segregation Mechanisms Inhibiting Women's Entry and Success from Educational Administration

Table 10

Anticipatory Socialization and Exposure to "Apprenticeship" Administrative Tasks

Task Areas	Present Level of Participation		Task Allocated at Present Level of Participation		Desired Level of Participation		Chi-Square Test for Desired vs Present Level of Participation
	No.	P(%)	No.	P(%)	N	P(%)	
School finance and property administration	10	5	7	70	42	21	*18.2
School community relationship	16	8	10	62.5	64	32	*28.8
Setting school annual plans and programmes	24	12	16	66.6	52	26	*10.3
Chairing meetings	9	4.5	6	66.6	58	29	*35.8
Organizing the activities of clubs and committee's	41	20.5	32	78	36	18	0.76
Handling staff and student disciplinary problems	19	9.5	11	57.8	66	33	*25.8
Provide advice and guidance to students	51	25.5	38	74.5	67	33.5	2.16
Offer hospitality and catering services to the staff and visitors	52	26	30	57.6	57	29	0.22
	X <sup>2</sup> = 79.21						

N.B N = 200 at each category

\* Statistically significant at 0.05 level

With this regard, in schools the basic staffing pattern has further reinforced the assignment of different activities to male than female teachers. The result in table 10 justify this contention. As the table depicts, the present participation of female teachers for each task area is on the whole low (i.e., it ranges from 5% to 26%). The desired participation of female teachers, though better than the present, is still low (i.e., it ranges from 18-33.5 percent).

The existing practice (where activities are being assigned to teachers, i.e. "by order of school administration") seems to be a strong determinant factor that limits the level and area of women's participation in these inservice anticipatory activities. As shown in table 10, the majority of female teachers in each task for present level of participation (who range from 57.6-78 percent) indicate that they have been allocated to these tasks by the school administration. This means individual interests in the distribution of duties are not given prior consideration (in fact a practice which may be true with men, but to tasks which are more geared to administration). Moreover, the chi-square results, which for most part, are beyond 0.05 level of significance, disclose variations between the present and desired level of women's participation with a great tendency among female teachers to participate in future in many of the activities for which they do not have access at present. This may also indirectly imply

restriction laid against individual women to pick activities for which they have little interest. The interview made with school principals shows that women are often prevented from participating in anticipatory activities because of family commitments. Many of the school principals contend that women's dual roles (home and work) interfere with their own work when they are assigned to tasks other than their regular duty, i.e. teaching. Compared to their male counterparts, female teachers are of course under two competing roles. However, in light of the existing practice which recruits educational administrators on the basis of their credentials (such as experience requirements) the decision made by school heads to free female teachers from "apprenticeship" administrative activities seems to impede their career development. Even if assignments made through some kind of recommendation are beneficial to the promotion of an employee, (as has been introduced and practised in Ethiopia) the promotees lacking the experience may often not fit the position. Their unfitness can be seen both in terms of position requirement (i.e. organizational effectiveness) and work satisfaction of the promotee. In light of organizational effectiveness, for instance, employees with some orientation regarding the post they assume are more productive than those who have not had such orientation (Bateman and Zeithaml, 1990: 103). If promoted without the right orientation and credential, the promotees may not obtain satisfaction from their administrative duties. Especially among women (whose background and socialization

have long been threatened by societal ill expectation) such promotions lead to low self image and low level of self confidence to properly undertake their managerial duties. In light of other findings too this assumption gains much support. For instance, Chacko (1982: 1123) found out that female employees who were promoted on the basis of their credentials gained much work satisfaction and showed organizational effectiveness compared to those who had been promoted on the basis of their sex alone.

In addition to the apparent low participation of female teachers for various activities, table 10 shows the nature of activities in which female teachers are made to participate at present. As indicated in table 10, the "apprenticeship" experiences of female teachers are low for administrative activities (for instance, school planning, financial management) and high for those at pastoral side (for example, club activities and offering catering services). The chi-square result ( $X^2 = 79.21, p < 0.05$ ) also shows significantly uneven distribution of female teachers at each task area for present level of participation. This result seems to confirm what has been found by Davies and Gunawardena (1992) and Sampson (1987). According to these findings women are considered too weak to stand "heavy" administrative tasks, and, thus, assigned to "light" tasks which complemented their traditional role (mainly such as girls discipline, recreation clubs, etc.).

3.3.1 The Level of Teachers' Participation in Educational Seminars, Workshops and Trainings: Female vs Male

In addition to anticipatory administrative experiences at school level, one way for teachers to gain exposure to leadership roles is participating in various educational workshops, seminars and trainings. Other than providing managerial skills, these programmes enable teachers to strengthen their informal net work and add their knowledge of public sphere activities. Table 11 shows whether there exists opportunity differentials in the provision of educational workshops, trainings or seminars for male and female teachers.

Table 11  
Female Versus Male Teachers Who Have Had Educational Workshops, Trainings and Seminars at Various Time

Females		Males		Z Value
Number	Percent	Number	Percent	-*5.43
124	62	163	86.2	
N =	200	N =	189	

\* Significant at 0.05 level.

As can be seen from table 11, a significantly greater number of male than female teachers have had different educational workshops, trainings and seminars (Z = -5.43, p<0.05). Therefore, this may imply opportunity

differentials in favour of male teachers. The finding of this study also replicates that of wealthy (cited in Adikson, 1981) which evidences that educational institutions extend rewarding practices such as short and long range trainings for male than female teachers.

In addition to this, the responses of male versus female teachers (on open ended questions) reveal the existence of gender sensitive institutional schemes in the provision of these programmes. Asked about the types of workshops, seminars etc. they were involved in, the majority of female teachers reported that they participated in trainings related with child care and home economics. On their part male teachers reported that they took part in fields related with physical education and curriculum development. Alternately, it may be that female and male teachers might have chosen these areas of seminars, workshops etc. by their own, or the MOE might have taken the initiative (as often as it happens). The result of this study may not provide definitive analysis as to which factor is more responsible. Whichever way it is done, the existence of traditional sex role orientation in the provision of these trainings is evident.

### 3.3.2 Lack of Encouragement and Supportive Systems for Women in Educational Management

Anticipatory socialisation in school settings and opportunities in the provision of seminars, workshops etc.

indicate whether female teachers encounter sex segregation at preparatory schemes for educational leadership. In addition to this, the direct encouragement provided for female teachers for administrative roles and the degree to which female versus male teachers sense the existence of sex segregation (i.e. the existence of the gender regime) have been identified as a potential institutional variable to limit the levels of women's participation in educational administration. The following part is devoted to examine these issues.

Owing to the impact of sex role spill over, women do not obtain the kind of social "message" that encourages them to aspire for positions in particular to managing and controlling other people, especially as leaders of men (Sampson, 1987: 37).

As shown in table 12, female teachers are asked whether they have ever obtained encouragement to apply for promotion in educational leadership. As seen in table 12 out of the 186 respondents, 65, i.e. only 35 percent of them reported to have obtained encouragement of that kind.

Table 12

Encouragement Obtained by Female Teachers for Administrative Role by  
the Group Providing Encouragement

Reported Encouragement						Group Providing Encouragement											
						School Principals				Inspectors		Colleagues				Total	
Encouraged		Never Encouraged		Total		Male		Female		All Males		Male		Female			
No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
65	35	121	65	186	100	8	12.3	26	40	6	9.2	12	20	12	18	65	100

Furthermore, when groups that provide encouragement are examined, in the majority of the cases, female principals have been traced as the main referents (for 40 percent of female teachers). Of all groups inspectors have been reported to have contributed least (i.e., only 9.2 percent of female teachers obtained encouragement from inspectors). In addition to this, both male and female teachers encouraged female teachers to a relatively similar degree (20 percent of female teachers reported to have obtained encouragement from male teachers against 18 percent who reported to obtain from females).

According to this result, thus, whereas there is no sex difference in the degree to which male and female teachers provide encouragement for female teachers (i.e., those playing a follower role), there is apparent sex difference in the level of encouragement obtained from those playing leadership role. That is, the encouragement female teachers obtained from female principals is better than that of male principals and inspectors. This result somewhat complements the findings of Wealthy (cited in Adikson, 1981: 79). This authority observes that since male principals often communicate with male teachers, their limited encouragement to female teachers is a function of this informal communication. On the other hand, the results of this study contradicts the conventional belief exposed by Shakeshaft (1989: 104) "Women are their own enemies" in providing encouragement and support to other women aspirants in

educational leadership. On the contrary, the finding bears out the importance of "same sex role model" for women's advancement in educational administration.

### 3.3.3 Recognition of the Gender Regime:Female Versus Male Teachers

Within the organizational system, it happens that sometimes individuals may not recognize the existence of sex segregation regarding their career development. As Sampson (1987:37) indicates, workers may believe that their own career are a matter of "personal ability, predilection or choice" . In order to ascertain whether this is the case, female and male teachers are asked if they thought women are discriminated against promotion in educational leadership.

Table 13

Female Versus Male Teachers Who Believe that Women are Discriminated Against Promotion

Females		Males		Chi-square
No.	%	No.	%	
110	56.4	112	61.8	0.018
N = 195		N = 181		

As seen in table 13, the majority of female and male teachers (i.e. 56.44%, 61.8% respectively) believe that women are discriminated against promotion. The chi-square result is not statistically significant (i.e.,  $X^2 = 0.018$   $p > 0.05$ ).

According to this result, male and female teachers perceived the discrimination laid against women in promotion to a relatively similar degree. The result of rank order where female and male teachers ranked organizational sex segregation as one of the top influential factors (i.e., third and fourth respectively) is quite concordant with this result (see Appendix B).

On the one hand, the fact that both group of teachers sense the discrimination against women has far reaching attitudinal implication. For women the perceived organizational blockage hinders their career aspiration since "things that are less likely are less desired".

On the other hand that male teachers are cognizant of women's discrimination is a positive attitudinal development in deciphering the belief "women fail in management because of their internal frailties than organizational sex segregation."

#### 3.3.4 Sex Segregation in the Recruitment and Promotion of Women to Educational Leadership.

As seen in the above tables (i.e., tables 10-13) because of the differential treatments against female teachers at preparatory and anticipatory levels, women in the majority of the cases seldom apply for promotion. Moreover, some of them who once able to surpass the exclusion, and come to apply for position may still suffer

from sex sensitive filtering mechanisms in the hiring and recruitment process.

In light of this, female representation among the recruiters of the 'promotion committee is one potential indicator of women's participation in educational administration. Table 14 addresses the issue.

As table 14 indicates in the majority of the cases, women are totally excluded from promotion committee. In some cases (for example, Jimma and Harar Education offices) where their representation is observed, they are working only at membership level. At no region or zone have women been evidenced to take chair positions or even a secretary, i.e., important positions which enable to execute decisions in the recruitment process.

In light of other research findings (for example, Shakeshaft, 1989), the representation of female role models in the hiring process is a potential ally for women entrants to educational leadership. On top of increasing the aspiration of women competitors, it helps to reduce the biases of male "gate-keepers" - who usually are reported to focus on the applicant as a woman than as a qualified professional. The finding of Schmuck (1986) also ascertains that the odd ratio of women being hired when there is a woman member among the selection committee rises than when the committee is homogeneously male group.

Table 14

Members of Promotion Committee at Three Zone and  
Three Regional Bureaus by Sex

Education Offices/Bureaus	Chair Person		Secretary		Members		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
REB for Addis Ababa	1	-	1		3	-	5	-
REB for "killil"3	1	-	1	-	3	-	5	-
REB for "killil"4	1	-	1	-	3	-	5	-
Jimma Zone E. Office	1	-	1	-	2	1	4	1
Harar Zone E. Office	1	-	1	-	2	1	4	1
Sidamo Zone E. Office	1	-	1	-	3	-	5	-

N.B. Total number of members in the promotion committee are 5.

#### 3.3.4.1 Sex Sensitive Treatments in the Advertisement of Vacancies

Decision to hire male or female educational administrators may also be affected by the content and the process through which vacancy notices are advertised. In fact, it should be noted that the present practice with regard to job openings through vacancy notices may not be as effective as it was in the past in Ethiopia. Recommendations seem to play the major role to promote teachers from teaching position to educational leadership. Still, whether the advertisement system has played the role for the hitherto exclusion of women from educational leadership is worth investigating. In order to discover this, vacancy notices of different kinds have been collected from the MOE and analysed in light of the existing practice. Interview results have also been complemented to this.

Accordingly, it has been found:

- a. In the majority of the cases vacancy notices are posted in the staff where it is legible and made open both to male and female teachers.
- b. Vacancy notices invite both sexes. That is there is little discrimination while advertising positions. However, some job openings (though not administrative positions) invite only female candidates (for example, a typist and a janitor jobs).

- c. The content of the advertisement notice for leadership positions refers to the experience and anticipatory socialisation of male teachers (such as unit leader, department head etc.) comparable and substitute experiences that may involve women seem to be excluded.
- d. As part of the requirement in the recruitment process, a specific year of experience for specific position is needed. This work experience may also be out of one's work setting and family residence. The effect of such requirement is more sensitive to women than men. In the interview item addressed to female principals, it is understood that the majority of these principals reported fear of relocation as a strong factor hindering their career progress to move to the next or higher leader in educational administration.

From the above findings, it looks that both men and women are invited for job openings through advertisement notices. At that women may not encounter open exclusion. However, a close look to the practice and the nature of advertisement reveal subtle forms of sex segregation mechanisms as being laid against women. For instance, generally the advertisements presuppose various credentials such as "exposure to administrative jobs" for which women have low access. On top of that, there are evidences which show that for some positions where women's comparable or substitute experiences may meet the requirement, only those on men's side are being advertised. For instance,

experience requirements as a unit leader, assistant principal or a department head is needed for the position of a school principal (see Appendix K). However, all of these experience requirements refer to anticipatory socialization of male teachers. Although women are not openly excluded from these "apprenticeship" administrative experiences, their socialization in school setting is largely attuned to advisory function, such as guidance officer (an experience which may equally serve the purpose).

As the finding further indicates some jobs are open only to female applicants. Typical in this regard are jobs that complement women's traditional helpmate role (such as a typist, a janitor). At this juncture, men's exclusion from these openings is an important justification to notice institutional sex segregation mechanisms which apparently favour women (by reserving these jobs), but ironically such openings promote women's further subordination to dead-end jobs.

In light of women's dual role, the requirement which presuppose work experience out of one's residence may adversely affect women's entrance to educational leadership more than it does affect men's.

In fact, as the preceding result of this study indicates family responsibility is not deemed as greatly affecting the level of work commitment and career progress

of female teachers than has been otherwise considered. But it should however be remembered that women are not as free as men in terms of work overload and in the level to which they assume family responsibility. Thus, the idea of leaving family affairs on behalf of the husband and to seek promotion out of one's residential area seems less practical. True, from feminist point of view, there is no reason why women should not leave the family behind at the husbands sake and seek promotion (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987: 127). But, this contention leads to various controversial issue and practical problems. In the society such as ours, where family status has been assumed to drive from the husbands occupation, and in a situation where husbands' still favour traditional type of marriage, women's move out of her family place in search of position may create status uncertainty and adds role conflict. Thus, in principle, although women have the same right as men to seek promotion out of their living area, this can not be secured in light of the present state of affairs; women themselves are not liberated from societal prejudice and maintained psychological security. They are also in a situation where the society is not yet ready to shade the hitherto established women's devaluated role in occupational arena. As these attitudinal transformations take time, endorsing relocation as a requirement to promote both men and women is detrimental more to women's promotability than to men's.

Generally, as the above findings on institutional sex segregation mechanisms reveal women encountered both open and subtle forms of sex segregation. In order to redress the problems encountered by women and to enhance their participation in educational administration, affirmative action strategies must have been developed by the MCE and other concerned bodies. However, the structured interview presented to female educational administrators and inspectors affirm lack of planned and organised efforts on the part of the MCE and other concerned bodies to enhance strategies that promote women's participation in educational leadership (see Appendix C for the details).

### 3.4 Women's Aspiration to Educational Leadership

Table 15  
The level of Female Teachers' Aspiration for Various Positions in Educational Leadership

Positions	Number of Aspirants	(%)
1. School personnel administration	23	11.5
2. Vice school principal	26	13
3. School principal	27	13.5
4. Inspector	54	27
5. Vice head of education office for administrative affairs	12	6
6. Vice head of education office for academic affairs	16	8
7. Head of education office at zonal level	11	5.5
8. Head of education Bureau at regional level	9	4.5
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) = 104.32*		

N = 200 at each category.

\* Statistically significant at 0.05 level.

Table 15 indicates that of 200 female teachers who are asked about their preferred choice, among the various positions listed above, only some of them (whose percentages range from 4.5 to 27) show interest to leave teaching and join leadership positions. This tendency of female teachers to remain at their present teaching position has also been addressed in a related item which disclosed their preferred area of study in the future. Asked whether they pursue their future education in the subject area or in educational administration, 78 percent preferred to study subject areas. The remaining 22 percent showed interest to study educational administration. On top of this, the interview item presented to female school principals and inspectors elicited information pertinent to this issue. In these items both principals and inspectors were asked the extent to which female teachers apply for positions advertised by the MOE and their respective zone or "wereda" education departments. The response obtained from both groups is that female teachers "never apply" or "rarely" apply.

The observed low level of women's "aspiration" for positions may be a function of different interlocking factors. At individual level, women's "aspiration" to educational administration is generally thwarted by societal expectation of appropriate gender role. For most women, on top of economic pressure, teaching is a job that complements their expectation of nurturant and traditional helpmate role (see the results in table 1). However, women suffer from

"legitimation gap" as they aspire for roles in traditional masculine area - such as leadership. The finding that disclosed women's high conformity to stereotypes that identify them with teaching but not with educational leadership, and the ones which revealed their conformity to proper gender role are quite concordant with this result. In both cases, the self concepts and aspirations of female teachers are influenced by expectations presupposed to what a male and a female should be.

As depicted in table 15, the chi-square (104.32,  $p < 0.05$ ) which is highly significant also shows that teachers who are interested to join educational leadership are not homogeneously distributed as one goes across each hierarchy. The result is that as the position increases in hierarchy, the number of aspirants decreases except for the fourth position i.e. educational inspection, where the number of female teachers is greater than those below it (i.e. school principal, vice principal and school personnel administrator). This tendency of female teachers to restrain themselves from higher positions may be ascribed to either or both of the reasons below:

1. When the position increases in hierarchy there is a felt increment in responsibility and this may pose fear of failure among female teachers.
2. Generally, since women tend to underestimate their own values, this low self concept may result in demotivating them from aspiring to top positions. As

found in the works of Yelfign (1990), Stracher (1993) women re evidenced to underestimate their own values even in situations where their performance is much better than that of their male counterparts. On the other hand, a shift of response and a relatively better interest female teachers showed in relation to educational inspection is difficult to predict. However, this finding may be associated and discussed with the results in table 4. As the results on table 4 indicate, one of the most demotivating factor for women's aspiration to school leadership (mainly for positions like a school principal) is student disciplinary problem, and the way of its handling. Thus, on the one hand, while educational inspection is not one of the highest top positions for female teachers to perceive it as unaccessible, on the other hand, it is felt to be a position free from demanding school student disciplinary problems.

In looking for the antecedent factors for women's low levels of aspirations to positions, attempts have been made to see whether or not women's low aspiration is affected by female personal characteristics (such as age, marital status, years of experience, educational level, number of children and training in educational administration). Table16 highlights this.

Table 16  
The Relationship of Aspiration with Personal  
Characteristics of Female Teachers

Variables	r x y
Age	0.47
Marital status	0.004
Years of experience	0.11
Educational level	0.09
Number of children	0.04
Training in educational Administration	-0.11

As can be seen from table 16, the relationship of aspiration with any of the above personal characteristics is not strong as a whole (i.e., not statistically significant -  $p > 0.05$ ). However, while women's age, years of experience, educational level and number of children and marital status are positively correlated, training obtained in educational administration is inversely correlated. On top of that, the joint contribution of personal characteristics variables to aspiration level were analysed using multiple regression. Still, the regression analysis does not show a statistically significant effect of these variables while predicting the direction of causality (see Appendix G).

The absence of strong relationship between aspiration and personal characteristic variables of women might have

been influenced by external intervening factors (institutional, societal). However, without forgetting factors that this research has not raveled, the observed result may cast some doubt on the socialization assumption which associates the low level of women's aspiration as solely contingent upon their personal characteristics.

#### 3.4.1 A Close Look to Women's Low Level of Aspiration: The Impact of Institutional Factors

The assessment made regarding the level of women's aspiration to positions based on the response obtained from female teachers needs great caution.

As the above results indicate, generally whereas women show low interest to leave teaching and join educational leadership, this self limiting response of female teachers may be the outcome of both internal and external factors.

At individual level, it has been evidenced that the traditional role definition and the job requirement associated with managerial positions exclude women from such roles and, thus, affect their aspiration level.

At macro level, the preceding results of this study evidenced various institutional barriers (such as lack of female role models, differential treatment at anticipatory socialization, lack of encouragement and support systems

etc.) which, in one way or the other, discourage women from aspiring for positions.

Thus, owing to the aforementioned factors, female teachers seldom apply for positions. However, this tendency of female teachers should not be interpreted for lack of internal motivation, or indifference to educational leadership. It should be noted that the existence of external barriers provide some explanation on how women perceive that constraints could prevent realization of their aspirations which in effect implies lack of access than lack of internal motive. Thus, in looking for the antecedent causes for women's low aspiration level, the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation as instigated more by factors outside of women's self concepts need to be understood. With respect to this, Kanter's argument (cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 91) "things may become evaluated as less desirable as they become less likely" may in fact explain why women preferred to remain in their present teaching position.

### **3.5 The Observed Management Styles of Female and Male Principals**

One of the various explanations which have been forwarded for women's low number in management is that they are inferior to men as administrators. More specifically

the task of educational administration is conceived as masculine and women are considered inadequate for the task. In order to ascertain whether there is some truth which supports men's superiority over women in leadership roles, the management styles of men and women have been examined. Tables 17-19 address gender comparison of leadership styles as rated by both sexes of teachers.

Table 17  
Gender Comparison of Leadership Styles  
(Overall ratings of the staff)

Leadership Styles		Male Principals		Female Principals		"t"
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1.	Demand reconciliation	3.13	0.98	3.92	0.91	-1.86
2.	Tolerance of uncertainty	3.58	1.95	3.93	0.86	*-3.41
3.	Tolerance of freedom	3.65	0.98	3.96	0.81	*3.28
4.	Communication command	3.97	0.83	3.82	1.02	1.60
5.	Teacher appraisal	3.85	0.89	4.03	0.77	*2.03
6.	Exercising control	3.75	0.80	3.93	0.79	*2.06
7.	Teacher participation in decision making	3.56	0.97	3.85	0.83	*2.98
8.	Tolerance of innovation	3.76	0.90	3.92	0.95	1.55
9.	Plan implementation	3.52	0.92	3.76	0.91	*2.44
10.	Consideration	3.69	0.92	3.92	0.79	*2.60
11.	Work oriented	3.78	1.00	3.99	0.98	*2.03
12.	Superior orientation	3.75	0.90	4.20	0.79	*4.99
13.	Reality orientation	4.32	0.67	4.40	0.62	1.27
14.	Handling disciplinary problems	3.97	0.81	4.12	0.80	1.83

\* Significant at 0.05 level.

Table 17 shows a summary of findings of the perceptions of 12 male and 12 female principals on the fourteen dimension of leader behaviour as perceived by both male and female teachers. It is noted that on five dimensions of leader behaviour, i.e. demand reconciliation, communication command, tolerance of uncertainty, reality orientation, handling conflicting situations (such as student disciplinary problems) there is no significant difference between men and women principals in the perceived degree to which they exhibit these leader behaviours. On all other dimensions of leader behaviour, women principals were rated by their staff members to exhibit better performance than male principals (these difference were all statistically significant beyond 0.05 level).

The assessment of the data in table 17 further shows consistency of responses between the ratings given to male and female principals for the dimensions that have some degree of relationship. For instance, principals that are seen by the staff as allowing teachers for initiative decision and action show higher ratings both for tolerance of freedom and participating teachers in decision making. In both cases female principals are rated higher than males. Similarly, principals that are willing to apply new ideas, methods and procedures (i.e. tolerance of innovation) are less affected by arbitrary rules and less adamant to break tradition (i.e. reality orientation). Male and female principals obtained a relatively similar ratings in these

dimensions ( $T = 1.55$ , and  $1.27$ , for tolerance of innovation and reality orientation respectively,  $p > 0.05$ ).

In the same vein, women's superiority in the manner to which they are considerate to the staff morale and personal well-being (mean scores of females =  $3.92$ , of males  $3.69$ ,  $t = 2.60$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) may be seen in relation to the other dimension, i.e., exercising control. Otherwise, too much value on the consideration dimension could be disastrous to an organization. A leader who allows too much room for initiative and freedom and who fails to exercise control is a weak leader. In this latter dimension, female principals obtained significantly better scores than their male counterparts [ $t = 2.06$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ]. Also, female principals are rated significantly better than male principals in a work oriented dimension which in effect shows a trend to maintain good organizational effectiveness. In light of the commonly held belief "women are more humanitarian and less task oriented" (Heller, 1982: 10) and which promotes the belief that women sacrifice the need of the organization for the sake of good human relations, this finding is an important justification in shading this common assumption. While cross checking this finding with previous works, for example with that of Eagly and other (1992: 78) women's superiority to men in task oriented behaviour has been replicated. However, women's superiority in interpersonal oriented behaviour which is evidenced in this research does not correspond with the findings of Eagley and others (1992)

but it goes in harmony with the findings of Stracher (1993) McGrath and Goin (1992).

The other dimensions, such as the ability to withstand external interference (i.e. tolerance of uncertainty) without breaking harmonious and cordial relations with superiors (superior orientation) consistently favour female principals.

In the last administrative behaviour, i.e. handling student disciplinary problems, male and female principals obtained a relatively similar scores ( $t = 1.83, p > 0.05$ ). In relation to this, the ability of women to handle student disciplinary problems to a relatively similar degree to men is an important justification in deciphering the stereotype "women can not handle student disciplinary problems" owing to their small supposed size and lack of strength.

### 3.5.1 The Relationship Between Sex and Leader Effectiveness

Assessing the effectiveness of either a male or a female principal in terms of the mixed scores obtained from the staff may not clearly indicate if sex is a significant variable in evaluating a principal's behaviour in leadership roles. Therefore, in order to cross examine whether or not female and male teachers have been sensitive to the sex of the leader their independent evaluations with regard to a

male and a female principal need to be assessed. Tables 18 and 19 address this issue.

Table 18  
Leadership Styles of Female and Male Principals as  
Rated by Female Teachers

Leadership Styles		Male Principals		Female Principals		"t"
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1.	Demand reconciliation	3.82	0.89	4.14	0.77	*2.55
2.	Tolerance of uncertainty	3.92	0.74	4.04	0.91	0.92
3.	Tolerance of freedom	3.92	0.81	4.05	0.85	1.02
4.	Communication command	4.10	0.84	4.00	0.72	0.82
5.	Teacher appraisal	3.91	0.66	3.98	0.97	0.53
6.	Exercising control	3.83	0.82	3.88	0.84	0.39
7.	Teacher participation in decision making	3.90	0.81	3.92	1.23	0.12
8.	Tolerance of innovation	3.72	0.86	3.85	0.98	0.91
9.	Plan implementation	3.80	0.76	4.14	0.77	*2.89
10.	Consideration	3.96	0.93	4.07	1.03	0.72
11.	Work oriented	4.17	0.68	4.31	0.86	1.15
12.	Superior orientation	4.29	0.65	4.56	0.55	*2.98
13.	Reality orientation	4.09	0.72	4.20	0.91	0.85
14.	Handling disciplinary problems	3.92	0.77	4.08	0.94	1.19

\* Statistically significant at 0.05 level.

Table 18 shows the evaluations made on men and women school principals by female staff members. As can be noted from the table, female teachers do not seem to perceive the men and women principals to behave significantly differing in almost all dimensions except with regards to demand

reconciliation, plan implementation and superior orientation where they view female principals as exercising these behaviours to a greater degree than male principals. According to this result, thus, the sex of the principal is not a significant variable in the assessment female teachers made. In other words, female teachers are not significantly biased towards either same or opposite sex in the degree to which they evaluate leader behaviour. This finding also replicates other findings such as Shakeshaft (1989), Coles (1975) which document unbiased perception of female teachers regarding leader behaviour.

Similarly, table 19 addresses the assessment given by male teachers to female and male principals. As the results in table 19 indicate male teachers do not perceive male and female principals to behave in a significantly different way in any of the above dimension ( $p > 0.05$ ). However, if only mean scores are considered to see whether male teachers favour a male or a female principal, the average scores given to female principals are relatively better than those given to their male counterparts in eleven of the above dimensions.

Table 19  
 Leadership Styles of Female and Male Principals  
 as Rated by Male Teachers

Leadership Styles	Male Principals		Female Principals		"t"
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1. Demand reconciliation	3.66	1.03	3.7	0.97	0.26
2. Tolerance of uncertainty	3.76	0.95	3.65	0.93	0.76
3. Tolerance of freedom	3.81	1.07	3.94	0.93	0.87
4. Communication command	3.94	0.81	3.81	0.95	0.96
5. Teacher appraisal	3.71	0.89	3.89	0.80	1.38
6. Exercising control	3.56	0.97	3.78	0.75	1.66
7. Teacher participation in decision making	3.75	0.94	3.76	0.98	0.07
8. Tolerance of innovation	3.52	0.81	3.57	0.96	0.36
9. Plan implementation	3.65	0.85	3.84	0.90	1.40
10. Consideration	3.73	0.91	4.01	0.98	1.91
11. Work oriented	3.70	0.96	3.93	0.73	1.77
12. Superior orientation	4.32	0.66	4.39	0.63	0.70
13. Reality orientation	4.00	0.73	4.07	0.81	0.58
14. Handling disciplinary problems	3.92	0.91	3.85	0.97	-0.48

On the other three dimensions: demand reconciliation, communication command and handling disciplinary problems, male teachers evaluated male principals to exercise these leader behaviours more effectively. According to this result (1) male teachers seem to reveal unbiased and fair

evaluation. In other words, the sex of the principal is not found to be a significant variable to affect the self concepts of male teachers (2) the androcentric belief "male teachers seldom accept orders from a female head" is not evidenced. On the contrary, male teachers evaluated a female principal more favourably than the male in many of the above dimension (though the differences are not statistically significant). Furthermore, this finding ascertains the contention of some researchers (Brown, 1979, Fishel and Potiker, 1973) which states that stereotypes of women's inferiority in management get less salient for women in actual leadership role.

### 3.5.2 Implications of the observed Leadership Styles of Male and Female Principals for Organizational Effectiveness and Educational Leadership

The judgement made regarding the effectiveness of the principals based on this finding needs great discretion. To conclude that evidences derived from the scores of 12 male and 12 female principals is indicative of one group's being superior to the other would be a gross mistake. However, some conclusion can be drawn relevant to the appropriateness of the leadership styles of male and female principals.

First, although female principals were rated by the staff as more effective in most dimension, this was not replicated in the assessment which cross checked the perceptions of male and female teacher regarding the sex of

the principal (i.e., table 18 and 19). Thus, there is no strong justification in the argument that women behave more appropriately than men in their leadership role.

Secondly, the effectiveness of the school head may not be explained solely on the basis of the scores obtained through managerial styles. The dimensions measured in this regard may not encompass all the school activities undertaken by the principal. Thus, to put a strong conviction on the scores obtained through management styles as indicator of organizational success, and thereby to judge females as more effective than men in maintaining school effectiveness would also lead to gross mistake.

Finally, although few specific conclusions can be made from the findings of this study as to the superiority of men or women in the observed styles of leadership, there is nothing to suggest any valid reasons for women's lack of representation as a result of skill deficiencies in management.

CHAPTER FOUR  
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major purpose of this study was to bring to light some of the factors that have contributed to the exclusion of women in educational administration in Ethiopia.

In order to achieve this, basic questions were raised which addressed areas such as level of attitudinal conformity to stereotypes on the part of male and female teachers, the influence of work at home on women's entrance and progress to educational leadership, and the effect of institutional barriers in the Ministry of Education and various educational hierarchies which deprive women of opportunities to participate in educational leadership. Questions were also raised regarding the level of women's aspiration to educational leadership, and the extent to which female educational administrators discharge their managerial duties effectively.

The study was conducted in 5 towns and 29 schools selected on the basis of availability and random sampling methods. Availability sampling was used for selecting schools run by female principals, where as the selection of schools led by male principals was done through random

sampling. The subjects of the study were: 205 female and 192 male teachers, 12 female and 12 male principals, 8 inspectors and 6 women educational administrators currently working in the MOE. Statistical figures and documents were used in buttressing up the information obtained through respondents.

The data obtained were analysed using various statistical tools such as percentages, the chi-square of association, the t-test, the z-test, the correlation coefficient and ANOVA. The analysis made warrant the following major findings and conclusions:

#### 4.1 Summary

4.1.1 It was evidenced that the attitude of female and male teachers, for the most part, was consistent with traditional norm and occupational prescription according to gender. In relation to this:

- a) job classification by gender was one important area where clear stereotyping had been observed. While jobs such as typing and teaching at elementary and kindergarten levels had exclusively been assigned as feminine, teaching at secondary schools was perceived either masculine or feminine depending up on subject area.
- b) In a similar vein, female and male teachers showed high conformity to the groups of societal and occupational stereotypes that exclude women from

leadership positions. However, the level to which males internalised societal stereotypes was significantly higher compared to their female counterparts.

- c) Among the various stereotypes that restrained women's entry and progress from the realm of educational administration, the pervasive effect of the association between "physical vigour", i.e.; men's biological superiority over women for managerial role had been strongly addressed and accepted by both sexes. A scrutiny to the root factor of this association revealed the hitherto norm in which male school administrators exercise the handling of student discipline by means of corporal punishment.

4.1.2 Despite the existence of different variables that make work overloaded on the part of female teachers and female administrators (such as, absence of husbands' help, the burden of children, lack of child care and other facilities), the reported role conflict was not so severe to warrant that women's plan and participation in educational leadership had been significantly thwarted as a function of their dual roles. What is more, the observed role conflict between married and unmarried female teachers was not significantly different.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that although women's dual roles were not found to be so deterrent to be capitalised as major variables for their absence in educational leadership, there still existed family-related reasons, which to some degree inhibited the upward mobility of managerial women. For instance, for most school principals, fear of relocation (seeking promotion out of one's living area) was quite evident.

4.1.3 The results of this study indicated various open and subtle forms of institutional sex sensitive mechanisms that deprive women of opportunities to educational leadership. In connection with this, it was noticed.

- a) At school level, female teachers were generally evidenced to lack access to participate in different preparatory activities for administrative role.
- b) That fact that women had often been prevented from participation in pre-administrative activities by reasons of family commitments, was evidenced as being reflected in the self-opinions of school principals. In effect, those few female teachers who had got assignments were allocated to activities which were largely attuned more to pastoral side, "soft" options, than to administration.
- c) Compared to male teachers, female teachers had reported to have less access to workshops, seminars and trainings. In addition, the nature of trainings

provided to male and female teachers were mostly different. While males had participated in areas such as physical education, and curriculum development, women were offered those areas related to home economics and health.

- d) Generally, female teachers received less encouragement from superiors, such as inspectors, to prepare for and become administrators. For those few female teachers who got encouragement female school principals were their main referents.
- e) The assessment made to survey the involvement of female role models in personnel promotion committee at three regional and two zone education offices revealed lack of female representation mainly in key areas such as chair person or secretary of this committee.
- f) Apparently, official vacancies or job opportunities for leadership positions invite both female and male teachers. At that level there was little sex segregation. However a closer investigation revealed the existence of subtle and invisible forms of sex discrimination favouring men than women.
- g) Institutions such as the MOE and its various departments made no special effort to increase the participation of women in educational management. For instance, affirmative action strategies were undertaken only to a marginal degree.

4.1.4 On the whole, the level of women's aspiration for positions in educational management was low. The study revealed:

- a) Only few female teachers showed interest in leaving teaching and join educational leadership. Furthermore, it was disclosed that as the position increased in hierarchy, the number of female aspirants decreased.
- b) Female teachers had less interest to academically prepare themselves for administrative positions.
- c) Female characteristics variables in general did not seem to have a significant relationship to women's aspiration level. Personal characteristics such as age, marital status, years of experience, educational level, training obtained in educational administration had shown a non-significant relationship with aspiration level.
- d) Eventually, a close look to the low level of women's aspiration to positions revealed the adverse effect of external limiting variables. At institutional and societal levels, the study evidenced barriers, such as, lack of encouragement and support systems for women, the lesser access to pre-administrative training, the job definition and requirement of educational administration, etc. as threatening women's aspiration to educational management.

4.1.5 Despite the differing pre-socialization and pre-placement background of males and females, the degree to which practising female and male school managers act in leadership roles were relatively similar. According to the results of this study, thus, although there could be difference in leadership behaviour, the observed difference was not significant to warrant one group's superiority over the other in almost all of the leadership dimensions the sexes had been assessed.

#### **4.2 Conclusions**

Traditional norm and societal and occupational stereotypes are among the possible factors to adversely affect women's participation in educational administration. In this regard, on the one hand, the observed attitudinal association between masculinity and leadership among male teachers indicates the direct influence of androcentric bias to block women's entry to tasks traditionally occupied by men, such as management. On the other hand, female teachers have also developed self-concepts consistent with the ongoing stereotypes. This implies that without forgetting the effect of social, occupational and cultural factors that may militate against and shape one's behaviour and attitude, women's consistent response with the existing system of patriarchy may entail a self limiting response from within.

Apart from putting a pervasive effect on the self concepts of women, gender role stereotypes may also transcend to work place and affect how organizations function. A typical evidence in this connection could be the male norm governing the management of student behaviour by employing a militaristic approach of corporal punishment. On top of the adverse effect that this approach lays up on student conduct, it is also inconsistent with socially affiliative role of women. On the part of women, an attempt to emulate this approach tantamounts to denying their identities which have long been established and socialised. This, in fact, put women in double bind. The perpetuation of such practice, thus, leads to further exclusion of women from educational management.

Of the several knotty issue which surround the entry of women in to management, the integration of career and family is the main one. According to evidences from this study, while it is generally true that women are not free in assuming family responsibilities, the challenge resulting from such roles is not much deterrent at least to block women's initial entry to educational leadership. At the same time, however, there are some evidences which disclosed family related reasons as adversely affecting women's further progress in the field. For instance, most female principals reported to detest promotions that require relocation. In other words, since most of the

school heads are married and have children, the perceived incompatibility of being out of one's residence is felt to create a gap between family and career goals.

Generally, however, it should be noted that without forgetting the impact of family responsibility on women's entry and progress to educational management, the perceived expectation and sex role assignment related with family goals are still more influential to hinder women's career progress than the actual burden emanating from such roles. Particularly, this phenomenon had been observed between married and unmarried female teachers, where the reported role conflict was not significantly different. Implicit here is the issue of women's "homogenisation" (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987:36) to be grossly affected by societal norms and expectations which presuppose presidency to family and home making roles for all women irrespective of individual variables affecting individual women.

Socialisation and sex role stereotyping are individual and micro level factors to explain women's underrepresentation in educational management. To rely much on these factors, however, is simply "analysing the victim", a comouflage to macro level factors. Thus, without forgetting the self-concepts of women which contributed their own share in limiting progress to leadership positions, the fundamental causes for the

exclusion of women in educational management may rest on the organizational framework and opportunity ladder. Women's initial inequality to educational leadership, thus, begins at school level where they have been deprived of access to anticipatory socialisation or pre-administrative apprenticeship activities. Once female teachers are marginal at this critical step, it is foreseeable that their entry to and access in educational administration remains low. No matter how sex unbiased are requirements for vacancies and job openings, such measures yield no practical utility and meet only official demands which give the colour that women are not discriminated. Moreover, at times vacancy notices are not based on flexible criteria that assess efficiency for the position required. Alternative pre-administrative experiences that are on women's side and which may be grounded for effective performance have been left out. Therefore, unless the participation of female teachers in school activities is enhanced and flexible criteria for recruiting school administrators is developed, women's low proportion in the field may remain the same.

Obviously women's aspiration level to positions in educational management is generally low. Yet it is not clear whether the observed low level of aspiration is a response to the limited opportunity accompanying discrimination or a choice on the part of women in response to society's expectation for their role. It is

not clear, for instance, how women will respond when opportunity is increased, suggesting an area for further research.

Moreover, as evidenced in this study, individual female characteristics variables are not significantly related with aspiration level. This may further suggest macro level factors as more important to determine women's aspiration to educational management.

Finally, contrary to the existing prejudice and biases that women are inferior to men in leadership roles, practising female school administrators were proved as effective as their male counterparts in most of the dimensions the sexes had been examined. According to these results, thus, skill deficiencies in management as reasons for women's spare representation in educational leadership has no valid ground.

#### **4.3 Recommendations**

On the basis of the findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made:

4.3.1 As evidenced in the study, women's under-representation from educational leadership begins at school level where they are deprived of access to participate in apprenticeship administrative tasks. First, since assignment of tasks at this level are the primary concern of school heads, good will and positive

attitudes of these people towards women's career progress is highly needed. School officials should be aware of the career costs that women pay as a result of being exempted from such activities, though such exemptions are usually made in order to offset the pressure of women's family commitments. Once school authorities are genuinely concerned with women's career development, they can encourage women, and look for various means that may help women participate in educational administration without paralysing their commitment to family affairs. Secondly, officials of the MOE such as inspectors, as part of their work plan, need to make recurrent assessment regarding the distribution of work load by sex of teachers. In fact, such measures will make women's involvement in school activities a matter of course than a one-time activity. In this connection, practical measures should also be undertaken to encourage women to pursue in traditional masculine areas such as unit leader, head of department, etc., and men to traditionally feminine areas such as home economics and other activities on pastoral side. These strategies may have great attitudinal change up on women. When female teachers prove their efficiency in previously masculine tasks, they develop self confidence, realise their own values, and gradually shade the hitherto attitudinal conformity to traditional designation of career according to one's gender.

4.3.2 As observed in the study the current administrative practice in schools underrates female socialization for sympathetic emotional reactions and helpful behaviour for others. For instance, a masculine approach of corporal punishment has been approved as a means to correct student disciplinary problems. Apart from the limitation that this approach has on student behaviour, it is instrumental in demotivating women from aspiring to educational leadership. Thus, in order to ensure more representation of women in educational administration, schools need to develop strategies that may gradually change the prevailing organizational culture. The new approaches, however, should not solely be the ones that reflect traditional feminine role (i.e. socially affiliative). Instead the new approaches should be a blend of both the so called masculine and feminine behaviours to produce a complete, well-balanced individual and unaffected by sex role prescriptions.

4.3.3 Government policies need to address the economic and social barriers that result in the exclusion of women in educational management. Major issues, in this regard, could be giving attention to alternative child care programs, maternity and paternity leave policies. These policies may involve the establishment of child care, old care, etc. centers which in one way or the other may help minimize the interface of women's dual role up on their career development.

4.3.4 More specifically, policies designed to bring equal representation of women in educational management should center on institutional practices and policies of the MOE. This may involve the following:

- a) Formal scrutiny and regulation of hiring and promotion policies should involve women candidates at every level within the system. As evidenced in this study, the present criteria for job requirement exclude women's comparable and substitute experiences and socialization. As a result, most female teachers will be filtered out before they appear to the stage recruitment. It is recommended that job requirements should go beyond what seem pertinent to certain position and need to scrutinise and envisage alternative areas that touch women's anticipatory socialization if institutions are really committed to include women in educational administration.
- b) One way of increasing the chances of female teachers for administration is offering training in educational administration at higher educational institutions. However, since the present system of recruitment of potential trainees is based on gender-blind criteria, female teachers remain victims of underrepresentation in training institutes. Thus, some kind of quota system must be employed selectively for female teachers at least for some time until female role models are nurtured

and represented in administration. Once this norm is introduced, it becomes instrumental in eroding some of the prejudice which hinder women's participation. However, it must be noted that this quota system in favour of women should not be exercised at the expense of potential male trainees for administration. Some kind of system that bridges this gap must be created at the same time.

- c) In addition to trainings offered at higher educational levels, women should be given access to short and long term inservice trainings which may provide skill in administration. Particularly trainings which are geared towards eroding traditional attitudes and prejudice regarding women's role in management are highly essential. One of the most important trainings for women in this connection is "assertiveness". Assertiveness training helps women develop self confidence, express and honour their own perspectives, even when these do not conform to established organizational norms and ways of thinking (Marshal, 1986: 368). Trainings related with life planning and career building, management effectiveness are also areas that redress women's initial inequalities in educational leadership.
- d) Currently, despite the existence of anti-sex discrimination laws in Ethiopia (for instance, labour proclamation of 1975 on employment, the 1987

constitution of PDRE, Art. 36, the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 1994, Art. 35) Women's equality with men in educational leadership is far below the expected. This implies that former inequalities and prejudice against women in management has not gone away as a result of formulating these laws, although these laws certainly found to be helpful. Thus, recurrent follow-up in the execution and translation of these laws is highly needed. To this end, the representation of women executives with men in charge of the promotion committee at all levels of the educational system is one important step. Indeed, as has been found in the study, this is one apparent shortcoming. That is, members of the promotion committee in most educational offices are men homogenous management group. Such combination, besides giving room for possible male bias in the selection process, may be functional in dampening women's aspiration which otherwise could be achieved through the involvement of the same sex role model.

- e) One area of institutional support for women should be lifting relocation as a requirement for women aspirants in educational management. In other words, generally since women are not the same as men in assuming family responsibilities, the conflict (at least, the perceived role conflict) emanating from being out of one's residence in search of

promotion may be minimized when women are provided promotion at the vicinity of their family.

4.3.5 Since the various prejudice that affect the status of women are fundamentally rooted in the mental attitudes of people (that of both men and women), these attitudes should be changed. To this end, the MOE and other concerned bodies need to develop programmes that may effect in bringing tangible change of attitudes on the behalf of female teachers and students regarding leadership, and the traditional role of men and women. This might involve attention to the elimination of sexist curricula, the development of career counselling in schools and colleges and towards leadership training programmes with in the educational system. the role of women's organizations, teachers' professional organizations in raising the consciousness of the general public, and in bringing social democratization to alleviate the prevailing societal and occupational sex stereotypes is highly imperative.

4.3.6 one of the drawbacks that the researcher faced during data collection (as indicated in the limitations of the study) is the absence of current data on the distribution of educational administrators by sex at all levels of the system. Obviously, this would paralyse research undertakings and affirmative action strategies which may bring equality of the sexes in the field.

Thus, it is suggested that as part of basic educational statistics recurrent data on the sex distribution educational administrators should be taken at all levels of the system at least at annual basis.

4.3.7 Finally, as far as the researcher's knowledge goes, this study is the first of its kind in Ethiopia. Therefore, there is a need for conducting further studies, mainly in rural schools and education offices in a way to make comparison with city schools. Various findings from these parallel studies may help as a good barometer of the existing societal values and mores regarding women's role in management.

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A P P E N D I C E S

## APPENDIX A

### Background Information Regarding Sample Schools and Sample Population

#### I. Sample Schools:

##### Addis Ababa

1. Addis Ketema Comprehensive Senior Secondary School
2. Beherawi Betmengist Elementary School
3. \*Edget Behibret Elementary and Junior Secondary School
4. \*Ethiopia Tikdem Number 2 Junior Secondary School.
5. \*Finfine Elementary School
6. \*Higher Four Senior Secondary School
7. \*Kebena Elementary School
8. Kokebe Tsibah Senior Secondary School
9. \*Tinsae Brehan Elementary and Junior Secondary school
10. Miazia 23 Elementary and Junior Secondary School
11. Dejazmach. Geneme Elementary and Junior Secondary School

##### Awawa

1. Awasa Comprehensive Senior Secondary School
2. Awasa Tabor Elementary and Junir Secondary School
3. Bete kehnet Elementary School
4. Gebeya Dar Elementary School.

##### Bahir Dar

1. Tana Haik Comprehensive Senior Secondary School
2. Sertse Dingel Elementary and Junior Secondary School
3. Dil chibo Elementary and Junior Secondary School
4. \*Ewuket Fana Elementary and Junior Secondary School
5. \*Schembit Elementary School

##### Harar

1. \*Ewuket Fana Elementary School
2. \*Keladamba Number 2 Elementary School
3. Medhanialem Comprehenisve Senior Secondary School
4. \*Ras Mekonin Junior Secondary School
5. \*Yeshimebet Elementary School

##### Jimma

1. Jimma Comprehensive Senior Secondary School
2. Jirren Senior Secondary School
3. Kerra Junior Secondary School
4. Hermata Elementary School

\*Schools with female principals, assistant principals, or unit leaders.

II Personal Attributes of Female Respondents

	Variables	The Sample Groups					
		Female Teachers		Female Educational Administratos			
				Principals		Working in the Office	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1.	Age						
1.1	21-25	6	3.5	-	-	-	-
1.2	26-30	39	21.78	-	-	-	-
1.3	31-35	57	31.8	6	50	-	-
1.4	36-40	57	31.8	4	33.3	2	33.3
1.5	41-45	14	7.82	2	16.6	3	50
1.6	46-50	6	3.35	-	-	1	16.6
	Total	179	100	12	100	6	100
2.	Marital Status						
2.1	Married	153	85.47	10	83.3	5	83.3
2.2	Unmarried	26	14.52	2	16.6	1	16.6
	Total	179	100	12	100	6	100
3.	Years of Experience						
3.1	1-5	-	-	-	-	-	-
3.2	6-10	1	0.55	-	-	-	-
3.3	11-15	26	14.52	6	50	-	-
3.4	16-20	66	36.87	5	41.6	2	33.3
3.5	21-30	57	31.84	1	8.3	4	66.6
3.6	31 and above	29	16.20	-	-	-	-
	Total	179	100	12	100	6	100
4.	Educational Level						
4.1	TTI Graduate	99	55.30	8	66.6	-	-
4.2	Diploma (12=2)	54	30.16	3	25	2	33.3
4.3	B.A/B.Sc.	25	13.96	1	8.3	4	66.6
4.4	MA/MSc.	1	0.55	-	-	-	-
	Total	179	100	12	100	6	100

Continued

5.	Number of Children						
	5.1 None	12	6.7	-	-	-	-
	5.2 1-4	45	25	7	58.3	2	33.3
	5.3 More than four	121	68	5	41.6	4	66.6
	Total	178	100	12	100	6	100
6.	Training in Educational Administration						
	6.1 Trained	23	12.84	9	75	3	50
	6.1 Untrained	156	87.15	3	25	3	50
	Total	179	100	12	100	6	100

- N.B: - Male teachers and Male educational administrators are not included for they are not found relevant for the purpose intended in this part.  
 - Female respondents who did not show consistent response for the variables were also left out.

### III Proportion of Female Teachers in the Sample Towns

The table below shows percentages of female teachers in the sample town (where the data for cities is scant, that of the regions where the towns are located is considered).

#### Percentage of Female Teachers by School level in the Five Sample Towns

School level	Harar	Awasa	Jimma	Bahir Dar	Addis Ababa
Primary	59.01	19.8	28.35	28.68	47.58
Junior Secondary	10.14	12.85	10.27	11.95	18.31
Senior Secondary	11.8	8.82	8.04	6.96	15.86

Source: Basic Educational Statistics, MOE 1993.

- Note - National average percentages of female teachers at primary level is 25.55, that of junior and senior secondary are 10.43 and 9.04 respectively.  
 - The percentages for Awasa and Bahir Dar are that of their respective zones (ie. Merab Gojjam and Sidama respectively)

APPENDIX B

Rank Order on Summary of the Explanations Given for  
 Women's Exclusion from Educational Leadership  
 by Sex of Teachers

Factors		Rank of Male Teachers	Rank of Female Teachers
1.	Lack of credentials on the part of females (such as experience, relevant qualification etc.)	6	7
2.	The impact of family responsibility	2	6
3.	Lower self image among women	3	4
4.	Organizational sex segregation during recruitment for administrative position	4	3
5.	Traditional Stereotypes attached with women's low status	1	1
6.	Biased attitudes of officials of MOE towards women in administration	7	5
7.	Lack of inherent administrative skill on the part of women	8	8
8.	Lack of same sex role model representation for women at various echelons of the education system	5	2

APPENDIX C

The Status of Affirmative Action Strategies as Assessed by Female Educational Administration and Inspectors

Strategies		Perceived Degrees of Execution by Respondents									
		Female Educational Administrators (Principals and Others)					Inspectors (All men)				
		High	Moderate	Low	Not practised at all	Total	High	Moderate	Low	Not Practised at all	Total
1.	Provide workshops and trainings for women which are geared to nurture their administrative potential	-	2	2	8	12	-	2	-	6	8
2.	Include women's anticipatory socialization during position announcement	-	-	2	10	12	-	-	3	5	8
3.	Promote women than men candidates for positions when substitute and equitable credentials of both sex are observed	-	-	3	9	12	1	4	2	1	8
4.	Offer separate quotas for men applicants during positions announcement	-	-3	3	6	12	-	2	4	2	8
5.	Exercise job rotation at school level, i.e. men to traditionally feminine areas, and women to traditionally masculine areas	-	2	2	8	12	-	-	3	5	8
6.	Lift relocation from the requirement while promoting and placing women to administrative position	-	-	-	12	12	-	2	-	6	8
7.	Give priority for women applicants while recruiting candidates for trainings in educational administration	1	1	2	8	12	2	3	2	1	8
8.	Ensure female representation among the personnel promotion committee at various levels of the educational system.	-	-	1	11	12	-	-	1	7	8

APPENDIX D

Formula used to compute (2x2) contingency  
table for df = 1

$$X^2 = \frac{N(AD-BC)^2}{(A+B)(A+C)(B+D)(C+D)}$$

Example: A 2x2 contingency table showing frequency of  
responses of female and male teachers

Role Type: Primary School Teaching

Role Assign.	Respondents Frequency		Total
	Male	Female	
Masculine	65	20	85
Feminine	113	150	263
Total	178	170	348

Calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} X^2 &= \frac{348 [(65)(150) - (20)(113)]^2}{(178)(170)(85)(263)} \\ &= \frac{348 [(9750) - (2260)]^2}{676462300} \\ &= \frac{348 (56100100)}{676462300} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore X^2 = 28.86, P < .05; df = 1$$

APPENDIX D CONTINUED

Example: Role type-language teaching

Role Assign.	Respondents Frequency		Total
	Male	Female	
Masculine	161	61	222
Feminine	20	73	93
Total	181	134	315

Calculation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 X^2 &= \frac{315[(161)(+3) - (61)(20)]^2}{(181)(134)(222)(93)} \\
 &= \frac{315[(11753) - (1220)]^2}{500748080} \\
 &= \frac{315(10533)^2}{500748080} \\
 &= \frac{34947388000}{500748080}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore X^2 = 69.79, p < .05, \text{ with } df = 1$$

APPENDIX E

CALCULATION FOR MEDIAN CHI-SQUARE ( $X^2$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Formula Used: } X^2 &= \frac{(N-1)}{a(N-a)} \frac{(N_{aj}-n_ja)^2}{Nn_j} \\ &= \frac{(N-1)}{n_1} \frac{(Na_1-n_1-n_1a)^2}{N} + \frac{(Na_2-n_2a)^2}{N} \end{aligned}$$

a) Calculations for the Resulted indicated in table 4.

	M <sub>1</sub>	F <sub>2</sub>	
Above Median	a <sub>1</sub> =121	a <sub>2</sub> =334	a=155
Below Median	n <sub>1</sub> -a <sub>1</sub> =48	n <sub>2</sub> -a <sub>2</sub> =107	N-a=155
	n <sub>1</sub> =169		N=310

M = Male  
F = Female

Md = 14

$$X^2 = \frac{(310-1)}{155(310-155)} \frac{[(310 \times 121) - (169 \times 155)]^2}{310 \times 169} + \frac{[(310 \times 34) - (141 \times 155)]^2}{310 \times 141}$$

$$= \frac{309}{24025} \frac{(37510-26195)^2}{52390} + \frac{(10540-21855)^2}{43710}$$

$$= 0.012861602 \frac{(11315)^2}{52390} + \frac{(-11315)^2}{43710}$$

$$= 0.012861602 \left( \frac{128029225}{52390} + \frac{128029225}{43710} \right)$$

$$= 0.012861602 (92443.772189 + 2929.060254)$$

$$= 0.012861602 (5372.832473)$$

$$= 69.10323288$$

$$X^2 = 69.1$$

APPENDIX E Continued

b) Calculations for the results indicated in table 5.

	$M_1$	$F_2$	
Above Median	$a_1=121$	$a_2=75$	$a=155$ M = Male F = Female
Below Median	$n_1-a_1=48$	$n_2-a_2=66$	$N-a=155$
	$n_1=169$	$n_2=141$	$N=310$

$$Md = \underline{\underline{10}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 X^2 &= \frac{(310-1)}{155(310-155)} \left[ \frac{(310 \times 80) - (169 \times 155)}{(310)(169)} \right]^2 + \frac{[(310 \times 75) - (141 \times 155)]^2}{(310)(141)} \\
 &= \frac{309}{24025} \left( \frac{24800 - 26195}{52390} \right)^2 + \frac{(23250 - 21855)^2}{43710} \\
 &= 0.012861602 \left( \frac{1946025}{52390} + \frac{1946025}{43710} \right) \\
 &= 0.012861602 (37.14497041 + 44.5212766) \\
 &= 0.012861602 (81.66624701) \\
 &= 1.050358766 \\
 X^2 &= \underline{\underline{1.05}}
 \end{aligned}$$

**APPENDIX F**

Calculations for the Results Indicated  
in Table 11 (ie Z test)

Assumption: it is assumed that the proportions of female and male respondents is equal. Then, using the formula:

$$Z = \frac{(p_1 - p_2) - (P_1 - P_2)}{\sqrt{PQ \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}}$$

$P = \frac{f_1 + f_2}{n_1 + n_2}$  i.e,  $f_1 = 124$  = female frequency  
 $f_2 = 163$  = male frequency  
 $n_1 = 200$  (female total)  
 $n_2 = 189$  (male total)

$$P = \frac{124 + 163}{200 + 189}$$

$$Q = 1 - P$$

$$Q = \frac{0.7378}{1 - 0.7378}$$

$$= 0.2622$$

$$SP_1 - P_2 = \frac{PQ \left( \frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}{}$$

$$= (0.7378) (.2622) \left( \frac{1}{200} + \frac{1}{189} \right)$$

$$SP_1 - P_2 = 0.0446, \text{ where } P_1 = \frac{124}{200} = 0.62$$

$$P_2 = \frac{163}{189} = 0.8624$$

$$Z = \frac{(0.62) - (0.8624) - 0}{0.0446}$$

$Z = -5.43$
-------------

APPENDIX G

Final Summary of the Regression on  
Dependent Variable: Aspiration

Source	DF	SS	MS	F	Prob. Level
Degree of Aspiration	6	14.44	2.402	1.383	0.224
Residual	172	298.815	1.737		
Total	178	313.229			

APPENDIX-H

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE FILLED BY FEMALE AND MALE TEACHERS  
GENERAL INSTRUCTION:

This study is devoted to investigate some of the major factors that may result in the underrepresentation of women in educational administration in Ethiopia

The information collected through this questionnaire will be used by the investigator for strictly academic purposes. You are kindly requested to complete the questionnaire carefully and honestly. Your responses will be kept confidential.

Please read the instructions, and each item in the questionnaire carefully before you give your response. If you want to change any of your responses, please make sure that you have cancelled the unwanted ones.

Please, do not write your name in any part of the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation!

N.B. In this questionnaire items under part I, IV, V and VI are to be filled **ONLY BY FEMALE TEACHERS**.

I-BASIC DATA:

**DIRECTION:** Please complete this part of the questionnaire by writing an "X" mark against your responses. For items that require open answers write down your responses briefly in the blank spaces corresponding to the items.

A. General Information:

1. The name of your school \_\_\_\_\_
2. The name of the administrative zone \_\_\_\_\_
3. The name of the town \_\_\_\_\_

B. Personal data

i. Age

- |                  |                   |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. 21-25 _____   | vi. 46-50 _____   |
| ii. 26-30 _____  | vii. 41-45 _____  |
| iii. 31-35 _____ | viii. 36-40 _____ |
| iv. 36-40 _____  |                   |

ii. Marital status

- i. Married \_\_\_\_\_
- ii. Unmarried \_\_\_\_\_

3. The work of your spouse (if you are married):

- i. Private \_\_\_\_\_
- ii. Public servant \_\_\_\_\_

4. Years of experience in teaching:

- |                  |                          |
|------------------|--------------------------|
| i. 1-5 _____     | vi. 16-20 _____          |
| ii. 6-10 _____   | vii. 21-25 _____         |
| iii. 11-15 _____ | viii. 26 and above _____ |

5. Educational level

- i. ITI certificate \_\_\_\_\_
- ii. Diploma (D.P.) \_\_\_\_\_
- iii. O.A/A.Ss \_\_\_\_\_
- iv. M.A/M.Ss \_\_\_\_\_
- v. Specify if other than the above \_\_\_\_\_

6. Have you had any training in your educational leadership?  
i. Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ii. No \_\_\_\_\_
7. What is your position in your school?  
i. A department head \_\_\_\_\_  
ii. A unit leader \_\_\_\_\_  
iii. Guidance officer \_\_\_\_\_  
iv. Specify if any other \_\_\_\_\_
8. Do you have additional (part time) paid work at present?  
i. Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ii. NO \_\_\_\_\_
9. Are you engaged with additional duties, such as caring for elderly or sick?  
i. Yes \_\_\_\_\_ ii. ~~NO~~ \_\_\_\_\_
10. Number of children raised  
i. None \_\_\_\_\_  
ii. 1-4 \_\_\_\_\_  
iii. More than four \_\_\_\_\_

## DECLARATION

The thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Abebeyehu Aemero

Signature: 

Date: June 5, 1995