



**Leadership Career Aspiration Among Female Postgraduate  
Students of Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia**

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Master of Art in Public Management and Policy (MPMP)

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**Declaration**

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis entitled “**Leadership Career Aspiration Among Female Postgraduate Students of Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia**” is my own original work and that all sources have been accurately reported and acknowledged, and that this document has not been submitted for a degree in any other universities.

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## Statement of Certificate

This is to certify that **Peteros Teferi** has completed her thesis entitled “**Leadership Career Aspiration Among Female Postgraduate Students of Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia**” is her original work and is submitted for examination with my approval as a thesis.

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This is to certify that the thesis entitled, **Leadership Career Aspiration Among Female Postgraduate Students of Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia)**” was carried out by Peteros Teferi under the supervision of Yohannes Workaferahu (Ph.D) submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Public Management and policy complies with the regulations of the University.

**Approved by the Examiners**

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## **Abstract**

The aim of this thesis is to assess the Leadership Career Aspiration among Female Postgraduate students in the case of Addis Ababa University. The study adopting quantitative research techniques answers two basic research questions, first how does self-esteem of females related to their leadership aspiration. Second, Does Organization identification of females' shape their career development .The Study was conducted with female graduate students of Addis Ababa University registered during the 2018/19 academic year in the regular program. Results of this study provided support for the reliability and validity of the Leadership Career Aspiration with postgraduate women. The results from confirmatory factor analyses indicated that the three-factor solution had good model fit, thus supporting a revised measure with three subscales assessing, Organization Identification, Self-esteem and leadership aspirations. To test this factor structure, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. The research also hypothesized that score on the Career Aspiration subscales would correlate positively with and self-esteem negatively with willingness to compromise career for Leadership. The target population comprised 367 and 338 samples collected. The study used questionnaires as a tool for data collection. In order to test the reliability of the instrument, the Crobach alpha test was used. Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression analysis were Leadership aspiration to estimate the causal relationships between Organization Identification and Self-esteem. Finally, the presented results depict an important step toward understanding how organizational identification and self-esteem interact and how they interact with women's leadership aspiration. The study recommends that Formal institutional change is important to counter gendered social norms and whether building their self-esteem and confidence or reframing their body image, recognize the social messages and cultural norms you are contesting.

**Keywords:** Leader Career Aspirations, Organizational Identification, Self Esteem

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## **Acronyms**

HSIU: Haile Sellassie I University

AAU: Addis Ababa University

PPS: Probability Proportion size

SPSS: Statistical Packages for Social Science

LA: Leadership Aspiration

OI: Organizational Identification

SE: Self Esteem

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Background of the Study

Leadership is critically important because it affects the current or future condition of an organization. Any organization requires effective leaders who can positively influence their followers by increasing employee performance and organizational commitment in order to achieve organizational performance. According to Kiue (2010), the behaviors of top-level leadership have significant impact on the organization. Studies on the leadership level have been independently investigated and have been shown to significantly influence employee behaviors (Cascio, Mariadoss, & Mouri, 2010; Kim, Kim, Han, Jackson, & Ployhart, 2017; Tate & Yang, 2015)

Leaders are vital ingredient in the success of organization. Leaders with a high commitment could be key to the development of an environment that provides organizational effectiveness (Cascio et al., 2010). Studies in the management literature suggest that top management commitment may have an even more powerful impact on organizational practices. Top management commitment has been shown to be the main driver behind employee behaviors in the areas of service quality (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003). Commitment in the workplace can take various forms and, arguably, have a potential to influence organizational effectiveness (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

As indicated above, there is a vast body of literature that shows the relationship among leadership commitment, employee engagement and organizational performance. Scholars have noted that, among the significant number of potential variables that are associated with leadership behavior, disparities of leadership behavior by gender pervades the leadership behavior literature (Acar, 2015; Adams, 2016; Appelbaum, Audet, & Miller, 2003; Berdahl, 1996; Dunn, Gerlach, & Hyle, 2014; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly & Heilman, 2016; Eklund, Barry, & Gruenberg, 2017; Hernandez Bark, Escartín, Schuh, & van Dick, 2016).

There are also reports from Western countries that indicate women lead as effective leadership or well above as opposed to their male counterparts. However, the level of participation of women in private and public managerial posts is low thus reducing their managerial aspirations and fostering withdrawal behaviors such as turnover (Hernandez Bark et al., 2016; Hoobler, Lemmon, & Wayne, 2014). Leadership is a subject that has long excited interest among people. The term connotes images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from top gleaming skyscrapers, or share the course of nations (Yukl, 2002, p. 1). Burns has written, “Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (Burns, 1978, p. 2). From the beginning of civilization, history has been concerned with the study of its leaders and leadership still an area of active inquiry. Indeed, leadership is often regarded as the single most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions (Bass, 1990a). The discussion of leadership as a process may have been originated by Machiavelli in the sixteenth century (Smith, et al, 1989). However, a more systematic analysis of leadership, add Smith et al, may have only been advanced by Max Weber in early last century. For Weber (1946) leadership rested in three possible sources („ideal-types“) of authority: charismatic authority, reflected personal characteristics; traditional authority, referred to compliance with norms and forms of conduct; and legal authority, which resulted from functional „duty of office“. Since Weber, research on leadership has developed more systematically giving way to an array of theoretical perspectives and conceptual definitions (Bass, 1990a; Yukl, 2002).

The study of leadership began in the twentieth century was initially concerned with leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). Researchers define leadership according to individual perspectives; Stodgill (1974) concluded that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. (Lok, 2001). Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behavior, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2002, p.2).

## **1.2. Background of the organization**

The University College of Addis Ababa (UCAA) was founded in 1950 under the auspices, and on the initiative, of the imperial government, and in collaboration with, Canadian Jesuit educators who were entrusted with the responsibility of administering it for almost a decade. In 1962 it was renamed the Haile Sellassie I University (HSIU) and then, unofficially, the National University (NU) during the brief period of transition between the collapse of the imperial regime and the consolidation of the military junta (1974-1975). Finally, it acquired its present designation, Addis Ababa University (AAU), in 1975-1976, twenty-five years after its establishment.

The University College of Addis Ababa first administrators were a Canadian Jesuit, Lucien Matte, and an American, Harold W. Bentley (1961-1962). Subsequently, a policy of Ethiopian led to the appointment of Lej (later Dajjazmach) Kasa Walda Maryam (1962-1969) (an Oromo of Wallagga and sometime provincial governor who later married a princess) as the first president. (The Chancellor was until 1974 the Emperor himself).

The presidency was successively held by Aklilu Habte (1969-1974), Tayye Gullilat (1974-1977), Duri Muhammad (who served for two terms: 1977-1985, 1991-1995), Abiy Kifla (1985-1991), Alamayyahu Taffara (the first-ever elected executive) (1992-1993), Mogase Ashannafi (1995-2000), Eshatu Wanchaqqo (also elected) (2001-2002), Andreas Esheté, (1997-2010) Dr. Adimasu Tsagahe and Professor Tasso W/Hanna the current incumbent. All were (except Alamayyahu and Eshatu) government appointees (and all from the University).

The University is led by a President who is assisted by four Vice Presidents and one Executive Director: Academic Vice President, Vice President for Research and Technology Transfer, Vice President for Administration and Student Services, Vice President for Institutional Development and Executive Director of College of Health Sciences (with the rank of Vice President). Since its establishment, AAU has been expanding its teaching, research and community services programs. Furthermore, the University has been undertaking various reform schemes in order to cope with and respond to the fast changing national and international educational landscape.

Throughout the 1970s (except 1974-1976), and especially in the 1980s, AAU expanded and diversified its academic programmers and the number of students rose dramatically despite the limited, and even stunted, growth in infrastructure, budgetary allocation and facilities. Beginning with an enrolling capacity of 33 students in 1950, AAU has now a total enrollment of 48,673 students (33,940 undergraduate, 13,000 graduate and 1733 PhD students) and 6043 staffs (2,408 academic and 3,635 supports). In its 14 campuses, the University runs 70 undergraduate and 293 graduate programs (72 PhD, 221 masters). Over 222,000 students have graduated from AAU since establishment. At present (following its recent restructuring of institutional setup and governance system), the University has 10 colleges, 4 institutes that run both teaching and research, and 6 research institutes that predominantly conduct research. Within these academic units there are 55 departments, 12 centers, 12 schools, and 2 teaching hospitals. (URL: <http://journals>).

### **1.3. Statement of the Problem**

Researches show that female managers face significant hurdles in the attainment of top level positions. Barriers such as absence of mentoring, work-family challenges, and overt discrimination are preventing women from rising above a certain level in corporations because of their gender (Acar, 2015; Adams, 2016; Brown, Mansour, & O'Connell, 2018). It was only when the company's performance was declining; the candidate's gender had a significant impact on leadership choice, with the female candidate being seen as more able and more suitable than the male candidate (Acar, 2015). Thus, the concern for understanding the political, economic, social, and psychological forces that contribute to gender inequality has grown over time as occupations and organizations have become less sex-segregated (Berdahl, 1996; Brown et al., 2018; Eagly & Heilman, 2016).

Gender disparities in labor force participation still prevent women from advancing as managers. Thus, considerable researches have examined factors contributing to women's unequal representation in leadership or management positions. Factors include gendered assumptions regarding divisions of labor and role prescriptions, institutional practices that lead to a lack of mentoring opportunities, and leadership aspiration (Evans, 2014; Place & Vardeman-Winter, 2018).

While there are extensive researches on participation of females in leadership role seen from different perspectives, there is lack of researches conducted on the drivers of the low participation of females in leadership. Women and men tend to have a different manifestation of certain gendered traits. Women are generally more communal than men due to their exposure to traditional roles of women within society that require a more communal behavior. Whereas men generally strive for differentiation and have the tendency to demonstrate leadership to differentiate themselves (Evans, 2014; Gibson, 1995). Evidences suggest that leadership aspiration has a close link and strong influence on leadership role achievement of women. Leadership aspiration is defined as the personal interest for reaching a leadership position and the will to accept the offer to take over such a position (Evans, 2014; Fritz & van Knippenberg, 2017).

Since leadership aspiration is an important precursor of career attainment, assessing factors stimulating female leadership aspiration is of importance to solve the lingering problem of female participation in leadership. Moreover, evidence regarding leadership aspiration of females is very limited in Ethiopia in general and particularly in the context of the Postgraduate female students. Thus, in the present study an attempt will be made to investigate the underlying individual and organizational behaviors that shape career aspiration of females among postgraduate students of Addis Ababa University.

## **1.4. Objective of the research**

### **1.4.1. General Objective**

The general objective of this study is to assess women's characteristics that are associated with leadership aspiration of graduate students of Addis Ababa University by exploring the extent to which it is adopted and comparing with documented practices on the theory or literature.

### **1.4.2. Specific Objectives**

Specifically, the study attempts to assess:

- The relationship between self-esteem and leadership aspiration of female graduate students of Addis Ababa University , and
- The association of organizational identification and leadership aspiration of female graduate Students.

## **1.5. Research Questions**

The following research questions were formulated after reviewing related literature. The study, therefore, attempts to answer the following questions.

1. How does self-esteem of females relate to their leadership aspiration?
2. Does organizational identification of females shape their career development or leadership aspiration?

## **1.6. Scope of the study**

This research will be carried out female graduate students of Addis Ababa University. But, this research is constrained by a number of barriers basically the lack of cooperation from many colleges to give detailed information about females graduate students. On the other hand the target population may not be perfectly accurate due to researchers' lack of data on the direct and indirect involving parties of the colleges. The research was forced to focus only on to what extent female graduate students of Addis Ababa University.

## **1.7. Significance of the study**

There has been an increasing trend of females assuming a leadership role over time; however, the degree of their participation in leadership is very limited. The findings of the present study will help complement the current efforts being made to empower females in every aspect of their life and fulfill their career aspiration. In addition, the findings will also help bridge a research gap in career aspiration and development of in the female graduate students.

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

This research paper consists five chapters. The first chapter includes background of the study, background of the organization, statement of the problem, research questions, objective of the study, significant of the study, scope of the study, and organization of the study. The second chapter covers the review of related literatures. The third chapter is all about research design and methodology of the study. Results and discussion are discussed under chapter four. The last chapter is about summary of major findings, conclusions and recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1. Introduction

Significant changes have occurred over the last decades that bring into focus the importance of understanding differences between genders and cultures. These changes include: (1) increasing diversity of the labor force; (2) a shift in scope of the work environment from local to international markets; (3) increasing numbers of mergers and acquisitions among corporations from different countries; (4) organizational restructuring across national boundaries; (5) emergence of high technology and telecommunication systems facilitating international communication; and (6) an increasing number of females entering the work force worldwide. Each of these changes will have a profound impact on the psychology of individuals in organizations. Cross-cultural gender research in organizations is also critical at this point in the development of the field because most organizational studies to date have tended to focus more on events that occur within the individual (e.g., attitudes, cognitions), rather than on events that occur between individuals (e.g., the influence of culture or societal roles on social behavior)(Gibson, 1995)

#### 2.2. Theoretical Review

##### 2.2. 1. Leadership and Management

Leadership is about influencing people to accomplish goals, and characterized with definitional traits such as self-confidence, enthusiasm, risk taker, future focus, and among others whereas management is about planning, organizing, budgeting, coordinating and monitoring activities which help an organization to predictably do what it knows how to do effectively and efficiently. (Algahtani, 2014; Kotter, 2013). Furthermore, management deals with issues as problem-solving, performance evaluation, productivity, system, control, and measurement. Management enables organizations to have control of its day-today delivery of services and budget related issues.

Kotter (2013) views leadership as coping with change whilst management is about coping with complexity. He regards leadership as the process of taking an organization into the future, finding opportunities and exploiting those opportunities. Leadership is therefore about vision, about people being in terms with the vision, about empowerment and Behaviour.

(Kotter, 2013). In as much as leadership copes with change, it also breeds change. Maccoby (2000) posits that leaders are change agents whereas managers are administrators.

Within the corporate world and research communities, management and leadership have been used and interpreted differently by different scholars and researchers. According to Kotter (2013), people make mistakes in interpreting these two concepts. He points out mistakes such as people regarding leadership and management as synonymous terms; confining leadership to the people at the very top of hierarchies, calling the people in the layers below them in the organization “management” and then referring all the rest as workers, specialists, and individual contributors; and the thought of “leadership” in terms of personality characteristics (i.e. charisma).

Mintzberg (2004) is one of the researchers that regard leadership and management as synonymous terms. He posits that it is irrelevant to discuss management and leadership separately. In contrast, others like Kotter (2013) view them as two completely different terms. According to Northouse (2016, 13), the process of leadership is similar to management process. He stresses that the leadership process of working with people, goal accomplishment, and other functions of leadership is consistent with that of management.

For instance, when leaders are involved in planning, organizing, budgeting, coordinating and monitoring activities for a group or organization, they are involved in management, and when managers are involved in influencing a group to achieve corporate targets, they are practicing leadership. (Northouse, 2016, 15). However, from a perspective of period of inception and purpose of these two concepts, he argues that they are distinctively different. From this perspective, he claims leadership was in existence before management was incepted, as a way to promote efficiency and effectiveness in organizations. Consistent with the view of Northouse but different in terms of period of inception, Grace (2003), argues that the root word of “leadership” dates back to 800 CE (Common Era), while the root word of “management” appeared in 1598 CE.

The concept of management had appeared in the spotlight in 1809, 30 years before the concept “leadership” (Grace, 2003). According to Grace, the root word of ‘leadership’ was derived from Greek and Latin, whereas ‘management’ was derived from French. Many researchers as well Northouse concede to the fact that there are some similarities and differences between leadership and management. Having similarities between the two concepts does not mean they are the same (Bass, 2010; Algahtani, 2014).

Some people see them different without any interconnectedness. They have the presumption that good leader can never be a good manager and the vice versa. (Algahtani, 2014). Amiss all these discrepancies, Algahtani (2014) conducted a theoretical review on these two concepts and discovered that they are distinct functions. This means that they serve different, yet essential, functions. (Kotter, 2013).

For instance, leadership had been found to be responsible in the determination of the future vision and destination of an organization, whereas management is responsible for the sustainability of quality service, innovation, and performance. (Toor and Ofori, 2008).

Leaders have the ability to forecast into the future in order to generate proactive measures to change existing status-quo. In contrast, managers act responsively by operating within existing systems and status-quo.

Indeed, there has been a long history of management and leadership but no clarity. The debate whether leadership is synonymous to management or not, continues. Some of the findings of those who argue for differences in functions between leadership and management are synthesized in table 1.

**Table 1: Differences in functions between leadership and management (adapted from Northouse (2016, 14)).**

<b>Process</b>	<b><i>Leadership</i></b>	<b>Management</b>
<b>Vision and Direction</b>	-Create vision -Set strategies  -Clarify the big picture	- Set agendas  - Set timetables -Allocate resources
<b>Organizing</b>	- Create structure	- Communicate goals
<b>Problem Solving,</b>	- Develop incentives	- Inspire and energies
<b>Motivating, and Inspiring</b>	- Take corrective action  - Generate creative solutions	- Empowerment  -Satisfaction of unmet needs

## **2.2. 2. Overview and Concept of Leadership**

In the beginning of the 20th century leadership was defined as a focus of group change, activity, and process: the leader was seen a central person who integrates the group and embodies the collective will of the group. On the grounds of his position a leader is able to

serve as a primary agent for the determination of group structure, atmosphere, goals, ideology, and activities. This emphasis on leader as the center of group activity directed attention to group structure and group processes in studying leadership (Bass 1990).

Many of the early theorists of leadership in the 1920's were interested in finding out why some persons seemed to be better able to exercise leadership than others. An extreme version of this conception were so called great man theories based on the belief that leaders can be distinguished from followers by their personality and character: Leaders are the heart of an organization (Colvard, 2009).

Theorists, who stressed the importance of inducing compliance defined leadership as personal social control and the art of inducing others to do what the leader wants. Leadership was about leaders directing the behavior of the followers according to the leaders' will. A leader can be anybody, who is more than ordinarily efficient in carrying psychosocial stimuli and is thus effective to condition collective actions. Leadership is a dynamic process; mobilize others to get extraordinary things done. To do so, leaders engage five practices: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. (Kouzes and Posner, 2007, p.14

The most common definition of leadership is influencing change or making people to cooperate towards some goal (Yukl 2000,). According to Chemers (2003,) in this process the leader enlists the talents and efforts of other group members to accomplish the group's chosen tasks. For Stogdill (1950) leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts towards goal-setting and goal achievement. Organizational leadership is “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directions of the organization” because human beings are in positions of authority and power. They distinguish leadership from managerial power. Influence is a reciprocal relationship between the leader and his/her followers, which is not necessarily dependent on domination, control or induction of compliment from the leader’s side or on the formal position or role of the leader. The relationship between the leader and her/his followers has also been depicted in terms of ethics: leadership is a moral relationship between people based on trust, obligation and a shared vision of the good (Ciulla, 2004,).

Leadership has also been used to refer to certain acts or behaviors’, which can be differentiated From other kinds of behaviors’ for example by the opinion of the experts of the

field or by specifying leadership behaviors' through referring to the results of the behavior: leadership behavior results to other people responding in a shared direction. Leadership behaviors' include acts, which are performed, when a leader directs and coordinates his group's work (Bass 1990,).

Barnard's (1997) views of leadership are examples of combinations of different leadership definitions. For Barnard (1948) leadership refers to the quality of the behavior of individuals guiding other people in organized efforts. Organized efforts, which take place in systems of cooperation, are the secondary aspect of leadership. Barnard states that "leadership appears to be a function of at least three complex variables the individual, the group of followers, and the conditions".

Kotter (1988,) addresses 'leadership' in two ways: 1) as the process of moving a group to some direction through (mostly) no coercive ways and 2) as people who are in roles where leadership (according to the first definition) is expected. Kotter uses the term 'leadership' in the first sense as a process and not as a group of people. Good leadership is about directing people according to their best long-term interests.

The definitions presented above have been the most common in leadership studies up till 1980s. Since then new conceptions of leadership have emerged (Bryman 1996,). Leadership as a distinct kind of social practice addresses the social interaction processes in which the leader identifies a sense of what is important and defines organizational reality for her/his subordinates a leader is a manager of meaning.

Leadership defined in terms of contextual, collective processes stresses the importance of context; Leadership cannot be understood apart from the social systems in which it is embedded. The contextual and collective nature of leadership is further emphasized in the definitions of leadership as an explanatory category in the sense making process of organizational activities and outcomes or as an alienating myth used to reinforce existing social structures and forms of domination (Pfeffer 1977).

Generally defining leadership in a uniform manner has been seen as not possible. It is rather difficult to claim that 'leadership' as a general term and object of study stands in clear relationship to a particular, distinct group of phenomena possible to conceptualize in a uniform manner, for example, through the signifier leadership. It seems that researchers

define leadership according to their own conceptions of it and according to what they perceive as important, interesting or useful (Gardner, 1990).

### **2.3. Leadership characteristics**

Number of writer on leadership state its characteristics include ability to ascertain external factors, fast action orientated, high gain risk taker, immersed in progressive change, inspirational and motivation, charismatic, passionate, and visionary leaders.

#### **2.3.1. Ability to ascertain external factors**

A service is an intangible product involving a deed, a performance or an effort that cannot be physically possessed (Zeithaml & Berry, 2003). Services are a form of product that consist of activities, benefits, or satisfactions offered for sale that are intangible and do not result in ownership of anything (Kotler & Armstrong, 2004).

Agbor (2008) inserted that the leadership must have the ability to convince the employees to participate in organizational activities and take ownership of what they do as long as is about innovation. This will ascertain external factors. And leadership themselves must be committed, passionate and enthusiastic about new developments that resemble creativity and innovation. Also in order to build a successful and sustainable innovation culture, leadership needs to accomplish two broad tasks: First leaders need to be intensely sensitive to their environment and extremely aware of the impact that they themselves have on those around them. The second factor is the ability of leaders to accept and deal with uncertainty. So he concluded that tolerance of uncertainty allows space for risk taking, and exploration of alternative solution spaces which do not always produce business results.

#### **2.3.2. Fast action orientated leadership**

Speed, responsiveness, and agility are everything to innovative leaders who analyze situations, make decisions and act on opportunities. It is in the blood of an innovative leader to want to use the available resources to bring positive changes and would rather make a wrong decision than ‘blow’ a potential opportunity by just sitting and hoping that something will happen. Furthermore, a knowledgeable industrial leader must be able to respond to any given situation with the bravery to solve problem of the day (Agbor & Diana Clement, 2008). 2008).

High gain risk taker Innovation culture does not just happen, but it requires traits such as pro-activeness, openness to ideas, openness to actions, and risk-taking propensity. Indeed, innovation is risky. This requires an innovative leader to be brave in facing various challenges within organizations. Sloane (2003) aptly describes the conducive environment for innovations: “If you give people freedom to innovate, the freedom to experiment, the freedom to succeed, then you must also give them the freedom to fail”. Thus, failures that arise from risk-taking should not be criticized, but the effort should be recognized and acknowledged.

### **2.3.3. Immersed in progressive change**

Innovative leaders build organizations and foster a culture of on-going, never-ending change. And the main objective of the innovative leader is to deal with turbulent change within the organization mainly that has to do with innovation activities, and then become master of that change. In the adaptation of progressive change an inquiry culture becomes second nature to everyone involved within the innovation activities (Sloane, 2006).innovative leader is also capable effortlessly unleashing hidden potentials within the followers by thoroughly observing them and giving them opportunities to bring new ideas. It has become a norm and the responsibility of leaders to stimulate their followers to be innovative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways (Bass, 2002).

### **2.3.4 Inspirational and motivational leadership**

Sloane (2006), believe that innovation minded leaders have the capability tap into the secret chambers of the minds, hearts, and souls of people and know to activate their staff’s pride, faith, hope, drive, and perseverance to commit into organizational activities to boost organizational performance. Leaders must be able inspire others with a purpose and a greater sense of mission. These leaders inspire and motivate others by “providing meaning and challenge to their followers’ work”. In return, workers take ownership and work without constant supervision since they are inspired by leaders. This enables leaders to build relationships with employees through interactive communication.

## **2.4. Charismatic leadership**

Charismatic leaders are perceived as trustworthy, highly competent and respectful to others, which enable employees to be equally open and contribute more to their organizations (Bass, 2002). Charismatic leadership quality is characterized by honesty and integrity, therefore without these qualities, leadership is undermined and seen as incompetent (Sloane, 2006). Since employees are inspired and motivated, they will be able to take high risk and generate more ideas in innovation. On the other hand, innovative leaders should have the ability to ascertain external factors, fast and action orientated in order to deal with various challenges.

### **2.4.1. Passionate leadership**

According to Bass (2002), passionate leaders have the tendency of expressing their emotions freely and shows case their excitement about new ideas and change. Consequently the spirit within them enthusiast everyone in the organization and get inspired to do more. Once the passion within these leaders, it will enforce them to become role models who are admired, respected, and emulated by followers. Furthermore, leaders should be able to inspire and motive employees take ownership within organizations.

### **2.4.2. Visionary leadership**

Organizational vision enables both the leaders and employees speak the same as language as they continue to work as a unit than to work as individuals (Bass, 2002). Leaders must communicate this vision to followers through inspirational speeches and written messages that appeals to shared values. Agbor (2008) commented that when leaders communicated their ideas in a vision, their vision tend to be rooted into a perspective that became appealing to the whole organization. In addressing why a leader's visionary behavior, Sloane, (2006) theorized that the vision has positive effects on followers' self-concepts; followers become motivated to achieve the vision because they find it meaning-full, identify with it, and believe in the vision and their ability to achieve it. Visionary leadership is said to have positive effects on follower outcomes, resulting in high trust in the leader, high commitment to the leader, high levels of performance among followers, and high overall organizational performance. Thus, leaders should have the ability to create a clear vision for their organizations.

## **2.5. Theories of leadership**

### **2.5.1. Trait Theory**

In the past, researchers and theorists in leadership focused on the features of leaders. This belief was probably due to the belief that leadership ability stemmed effective leadership. In turn this emanated from personality characteristics, which are either innate or acquired.

This reasoning method lost favor during the first part of this century. In fore front of explaining this reasoning is ‘‘great man’’ theory and personality theory. According to (Swanson & Holton, 2001; Germain, 2006). Great man’s theory was explained to be a theory supported by some people who were of the opinion that history should be explained by impacts of great men or heroes. It was believed that great men influence individuals through their charisma, virtues, intellect or political will. It was further explained that progress could be accounted for by individual efforts and that accomplishment of these great men who have some special personal trait makes them suitable as effective leaders. Studies in leadership were dominated by researches into traits studies between the end of World War I and after World War II. However, results produced by various researches in this area were inconsistent.

As early as 1948, Skogdill reviewed about 124 studies of leadership traits and found out that leaders are fluent, more popular and know how to fix their jobs. Other characteristics revealed that the results were not clear and uncertain. In light of this, six studies revealed that younger leaders supported trait theory. Skogdill concluded that it would be necessary to view leadership as a relationship between people in a social setting than as a set of characteristics possessed by the leader based on the extent to which traits differ Skogdill (1981). It was further stressed that the extent of the pattern of personal qualities of the leader should have some links to the characteristics, goals and activities of the followers. Leadership was also considered to have interactions of variables and changes.

In recent years, with the neglect of those discrediting trait theories, leadership theory and researches have changed to other framework and approaches. Though this may sound unfortunate, however, it may be said that universal leadership trait does not exist; some evidences suggest that different traits may lead to leadership effectiveness in different situations (Outcalt, etal, .2000).

### **2.5.2. Behavioral theory**

In direct contrast to the Great Man Theory, Behavioral Theories hypothesize that great leaders are made, not born. This theory focuses on the actions of leaders not on personalities or characteristics they possess. The belief is that the leader can become an effective leader through observation, teaching and experience. This theory focuses on how leaders behave in given situations with the thought that the leaders can be conditioned to respond appropriately when confronted with various situations. Theorists such as B.F. Skinner, John Watson and Kurt Lewin have been associated with behavioral theory. Lewin (1935) argued that there were three types of leaders: autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire.

The autocratic leader makes decisions without consulting subordinates. The democratic leader consults his subordinates then makes his decision (with or without using their input). The laissez-faire leader lets subordinates make the decision and therefore takes no real leadership role other than assuming the position. Lewin believed that all leaders could fit into one of these three categories.

### **2.5.3. Contingency (Situational) Theory**

The Contingency Theories hypothesize that no leadership style is correct as a standalone. The leadership style used is contingent on factors such as the situation, quality of the followers or a number of other variables. In this theory there is no one right way to lead because the internal and external factors of the environment require the leader to adapt to that particular situation. This could never be more prevalent in a situation where a leader is very successful in a given organization but when moved to a different organization the leader is a failure. The leader didn't change, the environment, dynamics and personnel within the organization did. In a general sense, contingency theories are a class of behavioral theory that contends there is no one best way of organizing / leading and that an organizational / leadership style that is effective in some situations may not be successful in others (Fiedler, 1967)

Quite a number of leadership theories were developed over time, most of them were in the late 1950's and 1960's. These theories emphasized the need for traits and behaviors of leaders to vary with situations if they are to be effective at work (Patchian, 1962). Patchian listed the following factors to affect leadership effectiveness:

- ✚ Personality of the leader
- ✚ Performance requirements of the tasks for leader and follower
- ✚ Attitudes, needs and expectations of his followers
- ✚ Organizational and physical environment of the leader and the group.

#### **2.5.4. Role of Leadership**

Principle centered leadership is the personal empowerment that creates empowerment in the organization. It's focusing in our circle of influence. It's blaming or accusing; it's acting with integrity to create the environment in which we and others can develop character and competence and synergy (Covey, 1994 p.238). Effective leaders need to develop appreciation for multiculturalism to build inclusiveness, collaboration, and common purpose (Kornives, 1998, p.143) Line managers take full responsibility for recruitment and selections although personal specialists, if they exist, may provide such services as advertising, filtering applications, testing and taking up reference, are responsible for training and developing their own staff on a ,, self-managed learning basis, accountable for dealing fairly with their staff and meeting goal requirements in this areas as equal opportunity, sexual, racial and disability discrimination, and sexual harassment, are fully responsible for controlling absenteeism and time keeping (Armstrong,2004,pp 13-14)

Leaders are important because they serve as anchors, provide guideline in times of change, and are responsible for effectiveness of the organization (Hoy and miskel, 1991, p468). According to Armstrong, leaders have two important roles. These are (1) achieve the task that is why their group exists. Leaders ensure the group's purpose is fulfilled. It is not, the result is frustration, disharmony, and criticism and eventually perhaps, disintegration of the group (2) maintains effective relationships-between themselves and the members of the group, and between the people within the group. These relationships are effective if they contribute to achieve the task (Armstrong, 2004, p32).

As a line manager one of your key tasks is to ensure that you have the right people to do work. You have to replace those who leave, are promoted or are transferred with people who are just as good, if not better. You have to find people who meet your specification for new roles (Armstrong, 2004, p 199).

In one sense, your roles as a line manager or team leader involves your continuously in the management of learning and development. New starters have to receive induction training to enable them to carry out their work. They will then need to learn new skills or increase and extend existing skills; as develop and are given new tasks, learning and development takes place at the following stages and in the various ways as set: induction training, learning on job, learning off job, (Armstrong, 2004, p-200).

## **2.5.5. Leadership Styles**

### **2.5.5.1 Transformational Leadership**

Under this type of leadership approach, individuals normally feel belongingness and sense of purpose. Both the leaders and subordinates have interdependence and share common interest and believe among themselves. They exceed their personal interest and anticipate in return compliments of the firm and group.

Involvement of norms values and believes of transformation into the teaching of leaders and followers in same culture are due to the personal requirement to assist new individuals understand and fit into their customs. From the wide range of behaviors, there are collective norms that is adjusted and to make an effect on the external amendments within the firm's environment (Bass, B and Avolio. H, 1990).

Bass et al. (2003) further explain that transformational leaders pay attention to building the capacity of their subordinates by encouraging and fostering cooperation among them. They also strengthen the moral values and attitude in them. Most often in organizations, the employees build up a high level of expectation and assurance in such a leader. Hence, the employees have the pride to be recognized with the leader and then establish a firm platform of loyalty to them.

Others argue that transformational leadership promotes potential improvement yielding personal dedication at a high rate among the subordinates to attain organizational objectives.

Transformational leadership takes place when the interest of followers are held in high esteem and enhanced by leaders and also create the responsiveness and approval of the aim and mission by making the followers to be foster ahead from personal motive for the betterment of the whole group. Collectively, the dedication and potential operates to pave the way for enhanced level of productivity and quality (Lok.P & Crawford.J, 1999).

Again Bass (1997) continue to state that the aim of transformational leadership is to ‘transform’ people and organizations in a literal sense – make change in their mentality and broaden vision, insight, and gain the understanding; spell out purposes; enable behavior fitting with beliefs or values; revealing changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building.

Generally, according to Bass (2003) transformational leadership approach exhibits the following attributes: which are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, and self-efficacy, trust in management, meaningful work and organizational and occupational identity. All these factors contribute to employee well-being and organizational performance.

### **2.5.6. Components of Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership is considered to be made of 5 sub-scales (Bass and Avolio, 1994). These sub-scales are regarded as separate dimensions and better leaders display each of the five behaviors to some degree.

#### **2.5.6.1. Idealized Behaviour**

This component refers to the charismatic actions of the leader that focuses on values, beliefs and a sense of mission (Avolio, 2003). These charismatic actions include talking about his/her important values and beliefs, emphasizing the collective mission and purpose as well as considering the ethical implications of his/her decisions. Avolio and Bass (1991) used the term charisma to refer to idealized influence or in other words being influential about ideals. At the highest level of morality, are selfless ideal causes to which leaders and followers may dedicate themselves.

### **2.5.6.2. Idealized Attributes**

This form of leadership is based on giving clear vision, values and how to make a mission successful while working in teams and inspiring the employees in order to motivate them for putting more efforts. Employees under this leadership are usually committed to their organization and work hard to meet the individual as well as organizational goals (Bernard M Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Bass and Avolio (2000) states that idealized attributes includes socialized charisma of the leader where the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect of the leader. Trust is earned by the willingness to take personal risks and consistency in deciding and behaving. It involves instilling pride in others, going beyond self-interest, displaying a sense power and respecting others. Making personal sacrifices and availing resources to others is also an integral part idealized influences.

Idealized Influence Idealized behavior and idealized attributes are normally combined and are referred to as idealized influence. Idealized influence is displayed when a leader envisions a desirable future, articulates how it can be reached, sets an example to be followed, sets high standard of performance and shows determination and confidence. Followers want to identify with such leadership. Avolio and Bass (1991) used the term charisma to refer to idealized influence, or in other words being influential about ideals. At the highest level of morality are selfless ideal causes to which leaders and followers may dedicate themselves. Idealized influence also refers to the socialized charisma of the leader, whereby the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for the leader (Bass and Avolio, 2000).

Idealized influence could also be defined as the capability to act as a role model whereby the leader becomes admired, respected and trusted. Trust is earned by the willingness to take personal risks and the consistency in deciding and behaving. Idealized influence is further divided into behavioral idealized influence and attributional idealized influence. This dimension of transformational leadership refers to those leaders who have a high personal regard and who engender loyalty from followers. Leaders who apply idealized influence set the tone for moral and ethical decision making and encourage followers to outperform their own expectations for the greater good (Avolio and Bass, 1994).

### **2.5.6.3. Intellectual Stimulation**

Transformational leaders frequently demonstrate innovative problem solving orientations. They accomplish this by challenging the status quo and encouraging their followers to create innovative solutions and alternatives to current practice. This dimension of transformational leadership thrives within a supportive climate where creativity and innovation are crucial for the leader's ability to arouse within followers an awareness of problems and recognition of their own beliefs and values (Bass and Avolio, 1995). Intellectual stimulation can also be said to be the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, takes risks and solicits followers' ideas. Leaders who have this trait stimulate and encourage creativity in their followers. Bass (1995) stated that the leaders, who apply this dimension of transformational leadership challenge organizational norms, encourage divergent thinking and also push followers to develop innovative strategies.

This helps in promoting intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving in followers, challenging followers to think creatively and to find solutions to difficult problems. Also intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question their own values, assumptions and beliefs and even of those of their leader. The leader welcomes the new ideas and solutions by the followers and this stimulates the followers to think about new ways for old problems. In this way, followers will be able to see and solve the unforeseen problems by the leader (Avolio and Bass 2004)

### **2.5.6.4. Inspirational Motivation**

Inspirational motivation refers to the ways leaders take to inspire the followers to achieve both personal and organizational goals. The leader may do that by looking at the future optimistically and enthusiastically by providing a realizable and acceptable vision with clear communication and by presenting followers ways to reach them. In return, leaders create meaning, challenge and motivation in the followers work (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Inspirational motivation describes the role of creating and communicating the purpose and the vision of an organization in order to energize and unify followers. Avolio, (2004) explored the concept of visionary leadership and concluded that truly inspirational motivation requires a leader to have keen insight into the deeply held hopes and values of her/his followers. In order to mobilize positive action, the leader's vision must resonate with the private earnings of others.

This refers to the way in which transformational leaders energize their followers by articulating a compelling vision of the future thus creating enthusiastic excitement, raising followers' expectations and communicating confidence that followers can achieve ambitious goals (Bass and Avolio, 2000). Inspirational Motivation pertains to the ability of the transformational leader to create an inspiring, motivating, convincing and attractive future vision. By the use of symbols and the display of optimism and power, leaders are able to encourage followers' belief in their ability to perform. This is achieved by using symbolic actions and persuasive language. It also refers to leaders with a strong vision for the future based on values and ideals.

#### **2.5.6.5. Individualized Consideration**

This dimension refers to treating followers as individuals and not just members of a group (Bass, 1990; 1997). The leaders satisfy their followers by advising, supporting and paying attention to their individual needs and motivate them to develop themselves. The goal of the leaders here is not only about recognizing and satisfying the needs of the followers, but also mentor and coach them to reach their full potential. To reach this goal, leaders also make sure that they redefine the organizational climate to a supportive one that promotes new learning opportunities for followers.

In addition to creating a vision and challenging others to think critically about their work, transformational leaders recognize each follower as an individual and provide recognition and support for the development of each person's full potential. A combination of mentoring and coaching helps individual employees to understand how their needs and goals relate to and support the organization's mission. As a result, followers of transformational leaders are often more satisfied and more willing to exert extra efforts in pursuit of agency goal (Bass, 1995;). Individualized consideration is displayed when leaders pay attention to the developmental needs of followers, support and coach them.

The leaders delegate assignments as opportunities for growth. According to Bass and Avolio (2000), individualized consideration could also refer to the leadership behavior that contributes to follower satisfaction by paying close attention to the individual needs of followers, acting as a mentor or coach and enabling them to develop and self-actualize. It is also a trait whereby the leader gives personal attention to his followers, taking into consideration their individual differences. The leader is continuously involved in a process of coaching and getting feedback linking the followers' needs to the organizational mission,

providing opportunities for self-actualization and personal growth. Thus, individualized consideration behaviors including developmental, supportive and nurturing elements which focus on each individual follower's needs and growth potential are likely to convey the leader's concern about the welfare of the subordinates. This may lead to the activation of followers' relational-self and is likely to be reciprocated by the subordinates, resulting in a high level of connection and personal identification with the leader.

### **2.5.7. Transactional Leadership**

Transactional leadership is centered greatly on "exchanges" as the subordinates is been appreciated with compliments for attaining certain targets or accomplishing a task which is between the leader and follower. (Trottier et al.2008). In a pragmatic way, the transactional leadership is a good style due to its significance in reaching specific goal or targets (James. k & Collins.J, 2008). A capable and effective transactional leader identifies and a reward subordinate's achievement accordingly.

Nevertheless, followers of transactional leaders are not mandatorily expected to be innovative as they could be supervised on the plan agreed based on structures or procedures. On the other hand, incapable transactional leaders could find it difficult to predetermine challenges and get involved before it gets worse, while suitable measures are put in place accordingly by effective transactional leaders (Bass et al., 2003).

Bass Model of transactional leadership consists of three dimensions:

### **2.5.8. Contingent Rewards**

In this dimension, leaders focus on the rewards which employees get after meeting the desired goals. In this dimension leader continuously try to motivate employees by positive promises and rewards. It is better for a leader to show continuous involvement and commitment towards his employees in order to make proper give and take relationship in a positive way (Hater & Bass, 1988).

#### **2.5.8.1. Management by exception (Active):**

In this dimension a leader clearly observes the level of performance by each subordinate and guides the workers throughout the process, make changes, improvements in order to get the desired results (Emery & Barker, 2007).

### **2.5.8.2. Management by exception (Passive):**

In this dimension leaders usually wait for the problems to rise and then they respond accordingly (Emery & Barker, 2007). Transactional Leadership is more on managerial style and based on the lower level needs. Whereas transformational leadership is more focused on the higher level needs.

By comparing transformational and transactional leadership approaches, transformational leadership creates the opportunity for followers to be more innovative whilst transactional approach is more into pragmatic levels in structure and not in every case. A transformational leadership approach develops and empowers followers to make every efforts to exceed targets while transactional emphasizes largely on external drives for the functioning and undertaking of their assigned duties.

Therefore, transformational leadership is about influencing behaviors by encouraging the recognition of innovation in the course of building trust and zeal with the readiness to absorb, while transactional leadership would direct to recognition of creativeness through strengthening and remuneration or compensation (Trottier et al., 2008).

Lastly, in order to develop an outstanding performance within an organization, there are the required behaviors of transformational leadership to supplement the behaviors of transactional leaders (Bass, B and Avolio, H, 1993). Hence, a paramount result is achieved when one utilizes both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors with followers.

### **2.5.9. Transactional Versus Transformational Leadership**

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) originally proposed ideas that distinguished between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. In transactional leadership, the leader-follower relationships are based on series of exchanges or bargains between the leaders and the followers. Those leaders can be effective to the extent that they clarify expectations and goals, but they generally neglect to focus on developing the long-term potential of followers. On the other hand, transformational leaders move beyond these simple exchange processes.

They set challenging expectations and enable their followers to achieve higher levels of performance both for the individual and the organization (Bass, 1985).

### **2.5.9.1. Comparison of Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

#### **Transformational leadership**

- Builds a man's need for meaning.
- Is pre-occupied with purposes and values, morals and ethic.
- Transcends daily affairs.
- Is oriented towards long-term goals without compromising human values and principles.
- Releases human potential-identifying and developing new talent.
- Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging.
- Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals. Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency and guarantee short-term profits.

#### **Transactional leadership**

- Builds on man's need to get a job done and make a living.
- Is pre-occupied with power and position, politics and perks
- Is short-term and hard data oriented Focused on tactical issues.
- Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions.
- Follows and fulfills role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems.
  
- Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency and guarantee short-term profits.

Based on Bass (1990; 1997) and Bass and Avolio (1994; 1995)

### **2.5.10. Laissez-Faire Leadership**

This can be describes as a non-authoritarian leadership approach which uses less obvious means to successfully complete tasks in reaching a control and offer the least assistant to its followers. Transactional and transformational leaders are referred to as leaders who enthusiastically intercede and make an effort to avoid problems, even though the two styles are different. Studying these two dynamic fields of leadership, it can be deduced that there are often difference with the third approach of leadership referred as laissez-faire (Bass. B, 1990).

It has been recorded by researchers several times that laissez-faire leadership is the least fulfilling and least effective approach of leadership approaches. Issues of less sense of collective unity, little sense of achievement, less transparency and as such subordinates do not have a lot of respect for their supervisors due to Laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Lok.P & Crawford.J, 1999).

## **2.6. Empirical review**

Among the forces that gear leadership aspiration of women, organizational identification and self-esteem take prominence. Organizational identification is a concept that captures the psychological relationship of individuals with their employing organization which is considered as a stimulating factor for leadership aspiration within the framework of an organization (Fedi & Rollero, 2016; Fritz & van Knippenberg, 2017; Mason, Mason, & Mathews, 2016).

Organizational identification is positively related to various beneficial outcomes, such as attachment to one's work group and occupation, job involvement, organizational commitment as well as job and organizational satisfaction. In addition, organizational identification is associated with the motivation to behave in a way beneficial for the organization. It is argued that because of its link with the motivation to pursue collective interests, organizational identification is positively related to leadership aspiration.

Because women tend to have a stronger communal orientation than men, women's leadership aspiration is more strongly influenced by organizational identification (Fritz & van Knippenberg, 2017). On the other hand, self-esteem has been linked to almost every aspect of people's lives including their leadership aspirations. Studies have found that women report lower levels of self-esteem than men. Moreover, research outputs indicate that self-esteem is an important factor in determining leadership aspirations (Mason et al., 2016)

## **2.7. Career Aspiration**

There are an increasing number of women who are preparing themselves for management and professional careers. Women achieved their goals by working hard, enrolling into and graduating from higher education institutions, obtaining additional professional qualifications, working long hours and acquiring the years of experience necessary for entering into higher ranks of corporate management (Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin & Frame, 2005).

Despite the increasing numbers of women who have advanced to top management levels worldwide, they are still women to remain at lower-ranking and lower paying jobs (Wahl & Blackhurst, 2000).

Generally women tend to have lower career aspirations to top management positions as compared to men (Melamed, 1995). Since career aspiration is a major driving force in women's career development, continued attention to women's career aspirations and career development is necessary to explain their occupational paths (Schon, 2001). Both sociologists and psychologists have developed various theories and models of career aspirations. Career aspiration has predictive value in identifying future occupational choice (Holland, Gottfredson & Baker, 1990), and researchers (Lent et al., 1996; Holland Gottfredson & Baker, 1990) have used the knowledge of career aspiration as a way to gain a better understanding of individuals' career development and their progress in making appropriate career decisions.

The model of career aspiration for women employees that describes the effects of antecedent factors pertaining to selected individual (self-efficacy, work-family conflict and gender role attitudes) and environmental (social support and role model) factors on career aspirations of women employees.

Career aspiration refers to an individual's desire for future employment (Powell & Butterfield, 2003). It represents dreams that an individual has about what an ideal occupation would be for them (Farmer & Chung, 1995). Farmer (1985) characterized that career aspirations can influence a person's achievement and persistence in a career. Career aspiration is a component of internal career dimensions. Internal career means how a person sees the development of their own career in terms of inner values, goals and aspiration. Based on Baruch's (2004) conceptualization of intelligent career, career aspiration falls under the 'know why' competency that relates to values, commitment, attitudes, and what motivates people to choose and remain in a certain career.

The importance of career aspiration to employees as it leads to strategies for employees to pursue passion and commitment without burning out. Career aspiration further determines one's ability to strike a balance between career and family. Since career aspiration is an inner value of an individual, it is therefore influenced by the social context, i.e. where the person is. Since the concept of individual or internal career was emerged earlier than the organizational

career, the traditional conceptualization of career aspiration was very much associated with the lives of the employees, as career aspiration is closely associated with one's value, norms and beliefs towards their work. This is because the traditional conceptualization of career views the individuals as the main 'owner' of the career process. Career aspiration can also be viewed as an objective measure of career success (Evetts, 1996; Baruch, 2004), which is similar to other items such as an individual inclination, interest and competencies. All these influence one's career choice other than factors such as family, education and social institutions. These factors that are most important for career development and that can be assessed through testing are: aptitudes, achievements, interests, values, and personality. Women and men tend to use different kinds of measurement to assess their own career success (Melamed, 1995).

Men measure their achievement based on objective measurements such as management level and salary. This explains the high level of career aspiration to top management among men. On the other hand, women measure their achievement more subjectively by various aspects of their work and family lives. They tend to lower their career aspirations to top management but work towards work-family balance. The term career is used to indicate a pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a women's life, and career aspiration refers to the degree to which a woman desires an advanced position in her career.

### **2.7.1. Women's Leadership Aspirations**

Women's leadership development has focused on building skills rather than identifying factors that influence women's career aspirations to leadership roles. Although the literature reflects the knowledge, skills and abilities of leadership, the psychological factor(s), (affective and cognitive), that inspire an individual to leadership are unclear (Boatwright & Egidio, 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer & Hogg, 2004). According to Boatwright and Egidio (2003), many college experiences provide the necessary skills for leadership skill development, but have not explicitly focused on the enlivening of leadership aspirations, a necessary element for many women.

The authors believe stimulation of women's leadership aspirations may be critical in the career advancement of women to leadership roles. Leadership aspiration is defined as the personal interest for reaching a leadership position and the will to accept the offer to take over such a position (Singer, 1991). Despite the fact that some studies have been conducted on female leadership aspiration (Boatwright and Egidio, 2003; Gregor and O'Brien, 2015;

Litzky and Greenhaus, 2007; Savery, 1990; Singer, 1991) or related constructs such as managerial (Hoobler et al., 2014) or career aspiration or ambition (Dikkers et al., 2010; Gbadamosi et al., 2015; Morrison et al., 1987; Pas et al., 2008; Pas et al., 2014), moderating influences are not well understood. Scholars have paid attention to both individual factors as well as to the requirements of the leadership role itself that may diminish female aspiration. Studying the former, scholars have looked at factors such as self-efficacy (Gbadamosi et al., 2015; Hoyt, 2012; Litzky and Greenhaus, 2007; Singer, 1991; van Vianen and Keizer, 1996) or automatic negative personal gender stereotyping (Davies et al., 2002; Davies et al., 2005; Rudman and Phelan, 2010).

Regarding the latter, scholars have assessed what individuals associated with being in a leadership role. Scholars have shown that women fear to not be able any longer to fulfill family demands (Cross, 2010; Ezzedeen et al., 2015) or to face relationship problems (Killeen et al., 2006; Lips, 2000, 2001). Not only internally, but also externally may women experience additional pressure in this regard because employed mothers, and particularly successful ones, are perceived as less capable as employees as well as less effective parents, whereas these negative perceptions do not occur for employed fathers (Heilman and Okimoto, 2008; Okimoto and Heilman, 2012; Vinkenburg et al., 2012). Yet, scholars seem to have neglected the psychological linkage between the individual and the employing organization and in particular how this linkage may stimulate rather than diminish female leadership aspiration.

### **2.7.2. Organizational Identification**

An early description of organizational identification was offered by Patchen (1970) who listed several important and interwoven phenomena as its constituent parts. These comprised a perception of shared characteristics with the members of the organization, a feeling of solidarity with the organization, and support of the organization. Basically, the foundations of organizational identification rest on a notion that members share a sense of similarity with each in terms of interests and goals.

Furthermore, the solidarity component Patchen described underscores the importance for members' sense of belongingness with the organization. Lastly, supportive component rests on a feeling of loyalty towards organizational goals and policies.

This included the will to defend organizational goals and policies, according to Patchen. Several definitions of OI have later been proposed. Many conceptualize OID in terms of cognitive constructs (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Shamir & Kark, 2004), others along the lines of organizational commitment involving an emotional and moral element, or affective component, (Harris & Cameron, 2005; Lopes, 2002; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

A combination of both these elements can be seen in definitions which herald from SIT Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; van Dick, 2001; van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher, Christ, & Tissington, 2005). In a relatively recent meta-analysis of research in OID (Riketta, 2005, p. 360-361), the key aspects of the various definitions of OID were presented and summarized as follows:

Despite their heterogeneity, all these definitions imply that the organizational member has linked his or her organizational membership to his or her self-concept, either cognitively (e.g., feeling a part of the organization; internalizing organizational values), emotionally (pride in membership), or both. There exists some confusion between the concepts of organizational identification and organizational commitment (OC), where some researchers employ the concepts interchangeably, and others view OID as a component of OC (See Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley., 2008).

For example, Edwards and Peccei (2007, p. 30) specifically stated that the conceptualization they employed explicitly sought to differentiate OID from “the wider notion of commitment”. Another problem highlighted by Haslam, Ellemers, van Knippenberg, and Platow (2003) was that the distinction between social identification and social identity has become somewhat muddled and ambiguous. According to the authors, the same term of social identification has been used to refer to both the process and state of being identified.

In other words, the tendency to consider oneself as a group member and that of the self-image a group member possesses is derived from the group membership. They further stated that in an organizational context “organizational identification (referring to the ties between the individual and the organization) should be differentiated from organizational identity (the content of the resulting identity)” (Haslam et al., 2003 p. 13).

### 2.7.3. Self-esteem

Self-esteem is a central construct in clinical, developmental, personality, and social psychology. Its role in psychological functioning has been studied for more than a century. Self-esteem construct has spawned a research literature of such magnitude and richness that it is impossible to summarize that the self-esteem definition, dimensionality, and components; its formation and development, and assessment; the positive and negative effects of both high and low self-esteem, the association between low self-esteem and psychopathology especially depression, the dark side of high self-esteem (e.g., narcissism); and the terror-management as an important theory of self-esteem.

Then, self-esteem and both culture and demographic variables associations were reviewed, and the stability of self-esteem. At last, a suggested solution to remedy the problem of social desirability in responding to the self-esteem scales was proposed.

Rosenberg (1965), one of the pioneers in this domain, stated that self-esteem refers to an individual overall positive evaluation to the self. He added that high self-esteem consists of an individual respecting himself and considering himself worthy. In a similar vein, Sedikides and Gress (2003) stated that self-esteem refers to individual's perception or subjective appraisal of one's own self-worth, one's feelings of self-respect and self-confidence and the extent to which the individual holds positive or negative views about self. Self-esteem is related to personal beliefs about skills, abilities, and social relationships.

Self-esteem is also defined as a global barometer of self-evaluation involving cognitive appraisals about general self-worth and affective experiences of the self that are linked to these global appraisals (Murphy, Stosny and Morrel, 2005). By the same token, Wang and Ollendick (2001) stated that self-esteem involves an evaluation of oneself followed by an emotional reaction towards oneself.

The evaluative and affective elements are present in all extant definitions and theories of self-esteem. Brown, Dutton, and Cook (2001) distinguished three ways in which the term "self-esteem" is used: (a) global or trait self-esteem to refer to the way people characteristically feel about themselves, i.e., feelings of affection for oneself; (b) self-evaluation to refer to the way people evaluate their various abilities and attributes, and (c) feelings of self-esteem to refer to momentary emotional states, e.g., a person might say her self-esteem was sky-high after getting a big promotion, or a person might say his self-esteem

plummeted after a divorce. Perhaps the simplest definition of self-esteem is found in Webster's dictionary, which says that "self-esteem is satisfaction with oneself". In another edition of the same dictionary, self-esteem means "one's good opinion of one's dignity or worth". Hewitt (2002) sought to transform our view of self-esteem from a universal psychological trait and motivating force to a socially constructed emotion grounded in mood.

This point of view was based on Smith – Lovin's (1995) definition of self-esteem as a reflexive emotion that has developed over time in social processes of invention that individuals learn to experience and to talk about, that arises in predictable social circumstances, and that is subject to social control. For the purpose of the present chapter, self-esteem could be defined as the self-evaluation and descriptive conceptualization that individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves.

#### **2.7.4. Leadership Career Aspiration in Ethiopia**

Women may be aspiring to leadership Positions, but systemic barriers can prevent them from acting upon these aspirations. Women being deficient in credentials and experience have often been cited as an influencing factor in women's underrepresentation in leadership position, even though, time and again, research illustrates what a fallacy this is. In the past, women slack of credentials may have been factor.

However, the number of women in graduate school implies an increase in confidence, motivation and credentials. More and more women are becoming better qualified for the job but, unfortunately, this is not necessarily securing them positions in the administrative field. Grady's (1992) article "Women and Administration: Certified, But Not Employed", cites studies that indicate the number of women in graduate programs in administration approaches or exceeds the number of male graduate students.

However, other data reveal that corresponding number of women do not hold administrative positions. In investigating why women with administration certification were not employed in an administrative position, Grady discovered in her study that a major impediment was women's unwillingness to apply for administrative positions. Further reasons cited were that they preferred their current positions and were not interested in administrative work. It appears that some well qualified women have psychologically accepted a secondary role in their profession because they are concerned about their family or because of lack of confidence (Lange, as cited by Grady, 1992).

Low self-esteem, lack of confidence, motivation or aspiration is often reasons given for women's low representation in positions of leadership. There is some evidence to indicate that women lack confidence in applying for promotion and that, in contrast to their male colleagues, they only apply for jobs for which they are fully qualified (Shakeshaft, 1989). Research reported by Shakeshaft (1987, 1993) supports the perception that females tend to receive less constructive criticism than males in carrying out their work. As a result, it is suggested that they are less able to deal with negative comments, in effect taking them too personally and allowing their confidence to be unnecessarily damaged. Some would suggest that these psychological, internal or intrinsic barriers, however, are seldom more prevalent for women than for men, and it is not usually the woman's psyche at fault, but the social structure of society that is the root cause of the inequities (Shakeshaft, 1989).

Family and home responsibilities, place bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments.

According to Shakeshaft (1985), a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility 1993 (Kamler and Shakeshaft, 1999) and the study documented family responsibilities as one reason why women were not choosing to enter administration.

Hewitt (1989) Personal and family impact 'included the complexities and tensions of the role, the size of the workload, and the need to attend large numbers of meetings out of hours. These factors intrude into, and reduce, physical and psychological time and space which principals wish to allocate to themselves and their families. It would appear that an increasing numbers of senior leaders are re-assessing the extent to which becoming a principal enables them to maintain a preferred balance across the different dimensions of their lives.

A major obstacle to women's access to leadership positions is the cultural and social structure that bifurcate the society into male and female arenas. Entrenched norms inscribed in the culture of many developing countries (such as, Turkey, China, Islamic countries) attribute certain tasks and spheres of responsibility to each gender, assuming that one must behave in accordance with the social expectations of one's gender (Celikten, 2005; Suet al.,

2000;Sidani, 2005). Leadership positions, in this sense, belong to male members of the society and women should refrain from attempting to attain this kind of position. Otherwise they are susceptible to various social sanctions, such as reduced chances to marry (Cubillo and Brown, 2003). In the traditional Chinese culture, for illustration, women have always been in the submissive roles both at home and in society (Suet al, 2000). The cultural and social assumption that women are less strong than men and therefore cannot hold managerial positions is common in many developing countries (Calvert and Calvert, 1996).

Schultz (1998) explains most case; women are in many cases still chained to the house, which is seen as the space where they may obtain ritual and spiritual purity. If a woman obtains this purity, which many still believe to a significant degree can only be achieved in the home, through domestic activities, then, she can evolve to the next spiritual plane, that is, can be reborn as a man.

The barriers to career advancement experienced by women in developing countries seem to be determined by specific cultural and religious beliefs and values that define femininity in terms of marriage, housekeeping and child-raising. Pakistani women principals 'lack of power illustrates this situation; in most of the non-government schools in this country the principals are women, but the power of the governing boards is predominantly in the hands of men (Kirk, 2004).

Women also participate in community management roles, which is usually voluntary and unpaid. In many cases, this is used as one of the reasons to justify that women do not have the time to participate in leadership outside of the home. These and many more are obstacles that limit women from developing their leadership potentials and take full advantage of the positive enabling environment created by the national women policy.

Women have typically been perceived as being weak, and generally not robust enough for the difficult, intensely political nature of educational administration. It is encouraging, if not ironic, to note that some of these very qualities once seen as deficiencies are now being spouse as qualities of effective administrators. In addition to socialization, society seems to use a double standard in describing female characteristics.

Men might be called absentminded, but women are scatterbrained; men might be described as intellectually curious, but women are nosy; men are planners, but women are schemers; men are sensitive, women are emotional; men are managerial, but women are manipulative. Faced

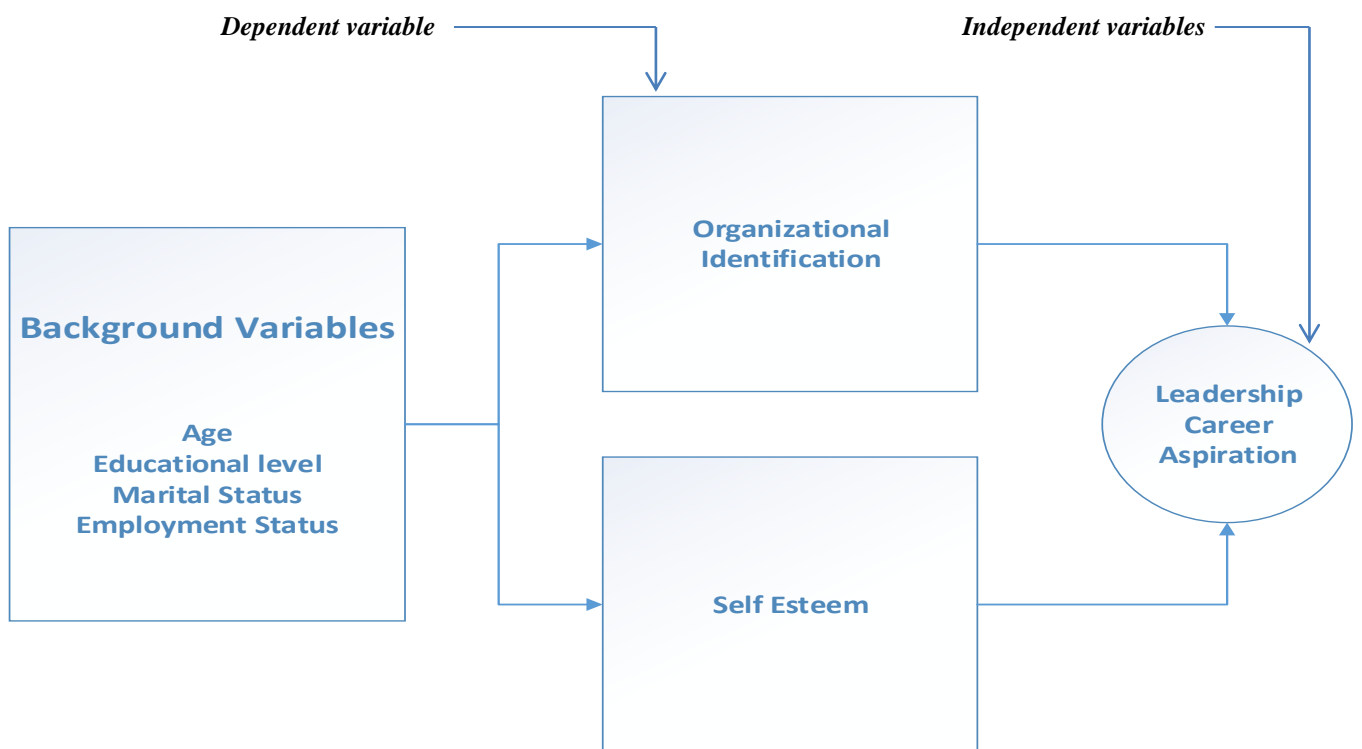
with attitudes such as these, it is no wonder it has been difficult for women to break through the glass ceiling into higher educational administrative positions. It is of critical importance that women be allowed to nurture the strengths they have (Write, 2001).

Female principals cannot be clones of their male counterparts. It is time to look at the strengths of both and detuning how those strengths can help both men and women become the instructional leaders our schools so desperately need. Culturally, the Ethiopian society is patriarchal. It portrays women as inferior to men and the division of labour is stereotypical.

Women who do not perform domestic roles are viewed as deviants making it difficult to assert themselves when it comes to seeking positions outside the home. In addition, women carry out almost all the reproductive roles of the households as well as many of the productive roles. The average Ethiopian woman puts in 15-18 hours of work per day, which has never been valued in economic terms (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 1998).

## 2.8. Conceptual framework

Based on theoretical and empirical review of literature, the following conceptual framework is identified. Leadership aspiration is believed to have been influenced by self-Esteem of women and their organizational identification. These concepts are considered as proximate determinants while background variable such as age, educational level and other characteristics of women are considered as having only indirect influence over leadership career aspiration. That is, their effect is mediated by organizational identification and self-esteem.



**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework**

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

In the previous chapter; the various literature reviews are reviewed. This chapter presents the detail methodology, research design, population and data type source, sampling design, and data collection method, data collection instruments, data analysis and presentation method and ethical consideration.

Research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem as well as understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically (Kotharie, 2004). Research methods may be understood as all those methods/techniques that are used for conducting of research.

#### **3.2. Study design and approach**

A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data. A choice of research design reflects decisions about the priority being given to the following; expressing causal connections between variables, generalizing to larger groups of individuals than those actually forming part of the investigation, understanding behavior and meaning of that behavior in its specific social context and having a temporal appreciation of social phenomena and their interconnections (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

The present study aims at investigating the nature of the relationship between individual characteristics of women and their leadership role aspiration. Thus, the study was conducted using a correlational study design in the period of March-April/2019 among female graduate students of Addis Ababa University. Moreover, a quantitative approach was used to answer the research questions of the present study.

#### **3.3. Study Population**

Target population is the population which the researcher wants to generalize the results of the Study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The study population of the present research was female graduate students of Addis Ababa University registered during the 2018/19 academic year in the regular program. Therefore, the unit of analysis was female graduate students of the University. The study covers a total 1982 female graduate students currently active in the various regular masters and PhD programs of Addis Ababa University.

### 3.4. Sampling techniques and Sample Size

#### 3.4.1. Sample Size

The study population size is very small; therefore, the following sample size determination formula was used to determine the sample size required for this study. The formula is a recommendation forwarded by Yemane for finite population (*cited in* Israel, 1992):

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} = \frac{1982}{1 + 1982(0.05^2)} \cong 333$$

Where **n**=the desired sample size,

**N**=the population size=1982 (*AAU Registrar, 2018/19*) and

**e**=degree of precision=5%

Finally, the calculated sample size for the present study was 367 after including a 10% contingency for non-response. A two stage cluster sampling technique was employed to select the study subjects. First, 4 colleges was selected using probability proportion to size (PPS) technique of the 13 colleges and institutes of the University. PPS ensures that colleges having large number of female students to have a larger probability of selection.

The sample size calculated above was distributed to the four selected colleges proportionally to the sizes of female graduate students of the selected colleges. Proportional allocation allows large number of samples to be selected from colleges having larger number of female graduate students. In the second stage of sampling, the female student was randomly selected using a lottery method or a table of random number using a list prepared for the selected colleges.

### 3.5. Measurement

Measurements of the concepts involved in the present study needs to be made appropriately in order to draw valid conclusions and forward a sound recommendation. In a recent study conducted by Kim and colleagues in attempt to validate a career aspiration scale, a three factor structure was identified of which leadership aspiration was found to be a subscale. There were 8 item involved with a 5 point lickerts scales ranging from 0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me) in the measurement of leadership aspiration.

The leadership aspirations subscale measures the degree to which women aspire to a leadership position within their career. (Kim, O'Brien, & Kim, 2016).

During the analysis, negatively worded items were reversing coded and the total score of the scale was obtained using the sum of values of these items. High scores, in this case, reflected higher leadership aspirations.

Self-esteem is most often measured using the Rosenberg self-esteem scale. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale has 10 items with a 5 point lickert scales ranging from 0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me) (Robins, Hendin, & Trzesniewski, 2001). Some of the items were negatively worded but was reverse coded during the analysis.

Thus, the final score of self-esteem of women was obtained by summing the items with high scores indicative of high self-esteem. Likewise, the measurement of organization was done using scales developed by previous researchers.

Organizational identification was measured using a six-item 5 point lickert scale (0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me)) (Fritz & van Knippenberg, 2017). There were no negatively worded items, thus sum of responses for the six items was used to compute the score of organizational identification of women. Higher scores on this scale indicate higher organizational identification and low scores indicate little attachment to the organization.

### **3.6. Data Collection and Analysis Methods**

Primary data sources were mainly used in conjunction with records including monthly and annual reports of the University. The primary data were gathered using a questionnaire prepared for the study (see Annex A). The questionnaire has mainly two components: a background section which gathers information on individual characteristics of women and questions on the self-esteem of women and leadership aspiration.

The questions were adopted from previous researches conducted on a similar topic (Gregor & O'Brien, 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Mason et al., 2016; Robins et al., 2001).

The data collection was carried out using a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed to female graduate students of Addis Ababa University registered during the 2018/19 academic year in the regular program that were randomly selected from the four sample colleges namely Institute of Technology, Natural Science, Social Science and Humanities Language and Journalism which are selected through a systematic random sampling method.

The tools were distributed to the selected female graduate students of Addis Ababa University after securing their consent to participate in the study. The collected data were coded and entered into a computer using SPSS 20 version. Then after, data were cleaned for inconsistencies by sorting extreme and unlikely values of variables. The data finally were used for analysis in order to answer the research questions.

In the present study, confirmatory factor analysis was employed to explore the type and strength of association between the proposed predictor variables and leadership aspiration of women. Standardized coefficients and average scores of items are reported. The result of analysis was finally displayed using path diagrams and tables.

### **3.7. Reliability and Validity of Data**

The leadership aspirations subscale measures the degree to which women aspire to a leadership position within their career (e.g., “I hope to become a leader in my career field.”) the achievement aspirations subscale measures the degree to which women aspire to significant achievements and recognition within their career (e.g., “I aspire to have my contributions at work recognized by my employer”). Participants indicated their degree of agreement with 16 items on a scale from 0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me).

To score the measure, negatively worded items were reverse coded, and the total score of each subscale was summed. High scores reflected strong career aspirations. In previous research, Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  coefficients ranged from .71 to .88 with graduate female students in the United States, and positive correlations were found among the subscales and measures of achievement motivation and career salience (Gregor & O’Brien, 2016).

The study was to assess the reliability test of the career Aspiration and to further investigate the psychometric properties of the instrument with postgraduate student’s women. Additionally, it was predicted that the career Aspiration scales would correlate positively with Organization Identification and self-esteem. The leadership aspiration reliability and validity were checked in the area and taken as a standardized questionnaire for the leadership career aspirations study.

**Table 3.1. Reliability Test**

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
Leader Aspiration	.859	7
Organization Identification	.712	6
Self- Esteem	.783	7

**Sources:** survey result, 2019

Reliability coefficients range from 0.00 to 1.00, with higher coefficients indicating higher levels of reliability (Carole, Almut, Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). From the table above Cronbach's Alpha of the variable were higher; indicating that respondents tended to rate their Leadership Aspiration consistently across the various questions on the instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

### **3.8. Ethical Consideration**

The study was conducted after having a clearance from College of Business and Economics of Addis Ababa University. Respondents were also asked for their consent to participate in the study using a written or verbal consent form. Names and other identifiers were not collected to help ensure confidentiality of the information the respondents are providing.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter includes the data presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings. The analysis starts with a description of the respondents demographic profiles. The total sample of the study was 367, out of the 367 questionnaires distributed, 341 were returned and 3 were rejected because of poor data quality 338 questionnaires were valid with sufficient amount of response rate of 92.1%.

#### 4.1. Background Characteristics of Respondents

Table 4.1 presents the demographic and other background profile of the respondents including education level, marital status and current employment status and age. Accordingly, the majority of the respondents are currently pursuing their master's degree and three in five (60.1%) are government employees. Nearly one in five (18.9%) of the sampled students are currently unemployed while studying at the University. More than half of the respondents (56.8%) are currently single and the remainder of them were ever married. The average age of respondents was 28.8 years (with a standard deviation of 0.30).

Table 4.1: Background characteristics of respondents, Addis Ababa University 2019

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Currently Studying:</b>		
Masters	281	83.1
PhD	57	16.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>338</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Current Marital Status</b>		
Single	192	56.8
Currently in Union	137	40.5
Dissolved	9	2.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>338</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Currently Employed</b>		
Government	203	60.1
Non-Government	28	8.3
Private	24	7.1
Self- Employed	19	5.6
Unemployed	64	18.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>338</b>	<b>100</b>
Age in years (Mean $\pm$ SE)		
	28.8 $\pm$ 0.30	

Source: Research Data (2019)

## 4.2. Self Esteem

Self-esteem (SE) is a concept that was planned to be measured using 10 likert scale items [see *Self-esteem questions*]. As is shown in the diagram below, it is only 7 of the ten items that really measured the concept having a significant factor loading. Items 1, 7, and 8 were removed from the measurement model of concept of self-esteem [Figure 1].

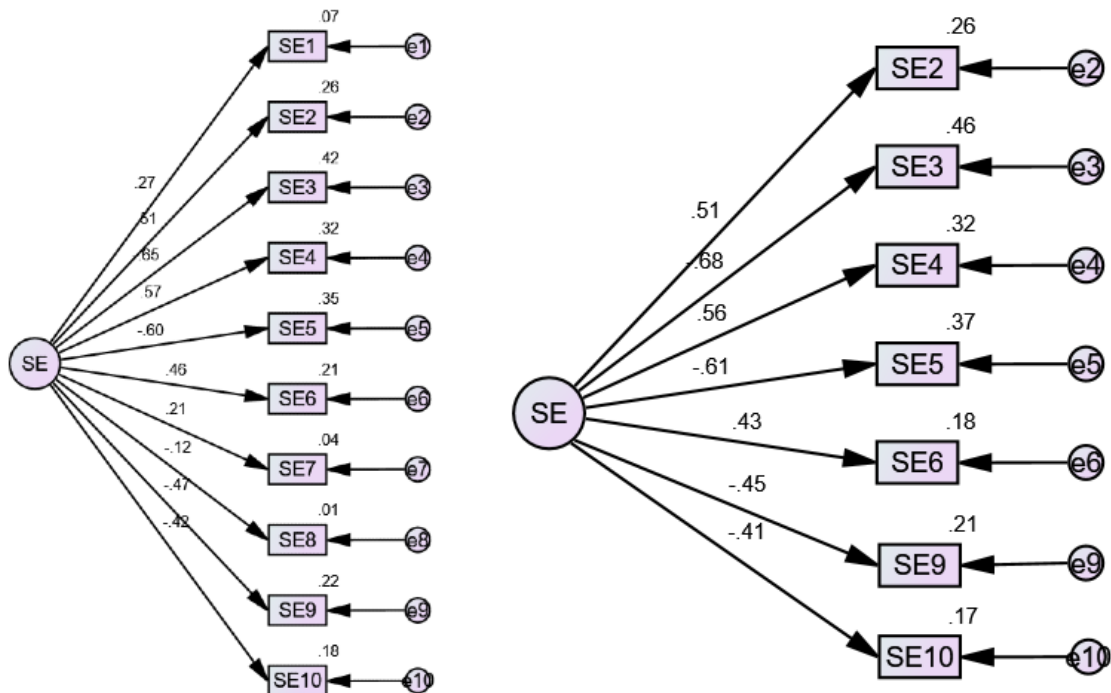


Figure 4.2: Exploratory factor analysis of Self-esteem Measurement Model

## 4.3. Organizational Identification

Organizational identification (OI) is another factor that is considered to have an influence over leadership aspiration of women. All the six likert scale items proposed to measure organizational identification were found to have been relevant in measuring organizational identification [see *Organizational identification questions*]. Thus, all items are retained in the measurement of organizational identification [Figure 2].

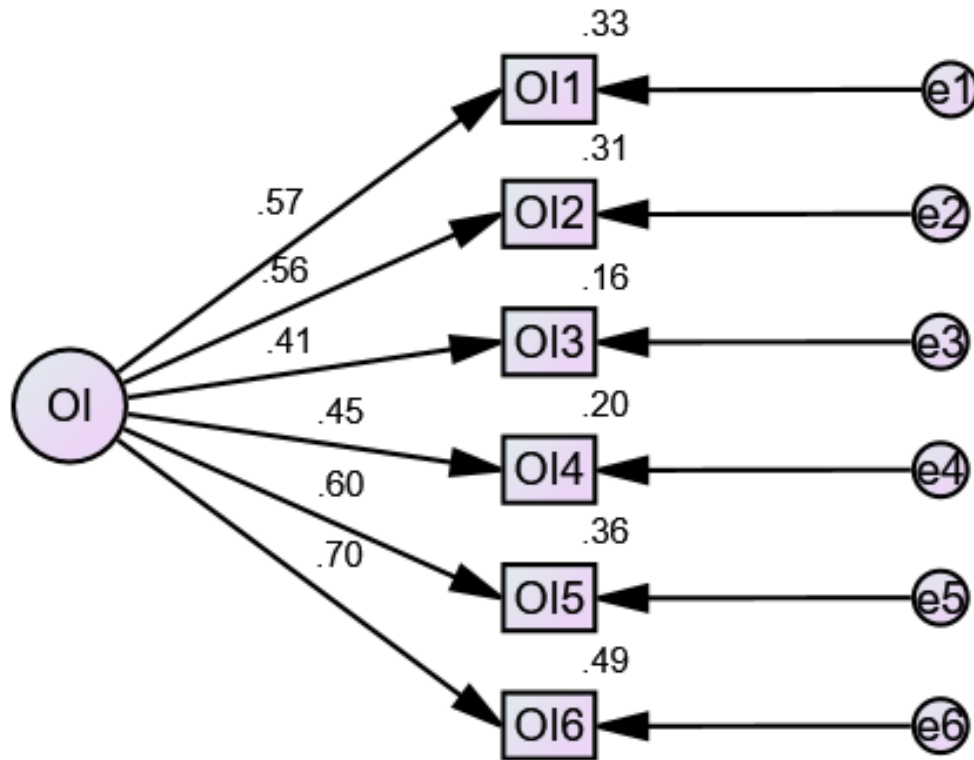


Figure 4.3: Exploratory factor analysis of Organizational Identification Measurement Model

#### 4.4. Leadership Aspiration

The outcome variable of the present study is leadership aspiration of female students (LA). This concept was proposed to be measured using an 8 likert scale question [see *Leadership aspiration questions*]. However, the confirmatory factor analysis indicated that one item (*item 6*) was irrelevant in the measurement model of leadership aspiration and was dropped from subsequent analysis [Figure 3].

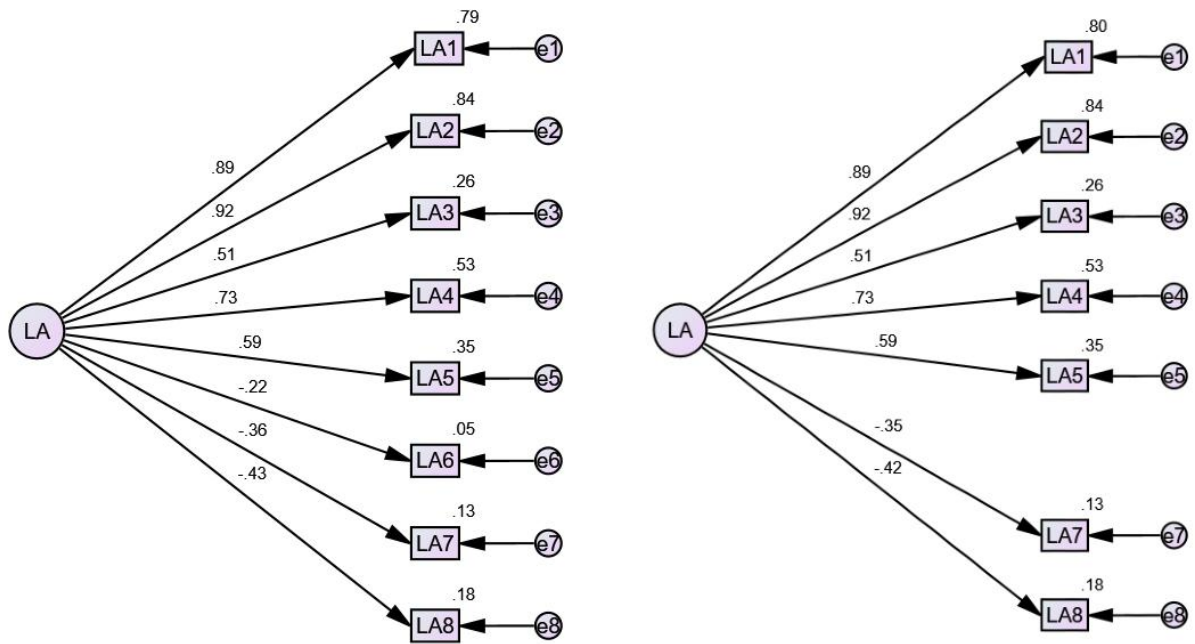


Figure 4.4: Exploratory factor analysis of Leadership Aspiration Measurement Model

#### 4.5. Result of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The final model was fit to evaluate the influence of self-esteem and organizational identification of female students on leadership aspiration. The final model considers the possibility of correlation between the predictors themselves. Thus, two models were fit and the result was described hereunder. Of note, the model is capable of explaining nearly a quarter of the total variability of leadership aspiration. In addition, this is an indicator of the fact that there are other factors that were not considered in the present study that potentially could explain the leadership aspiration of female students.

The relationship between self-esteem and leadership aspiration both in the absence and presence of covariance between self-esteem and organizational identification was non-existent as is shown in the coefficient leading from self-esteem to leadership aspiration. Thus, the result indicates that self-esteem is immaterial in enhancing the leadership aspiration of female students after controlling the influence of organizational identification [Figure 4 & 5].

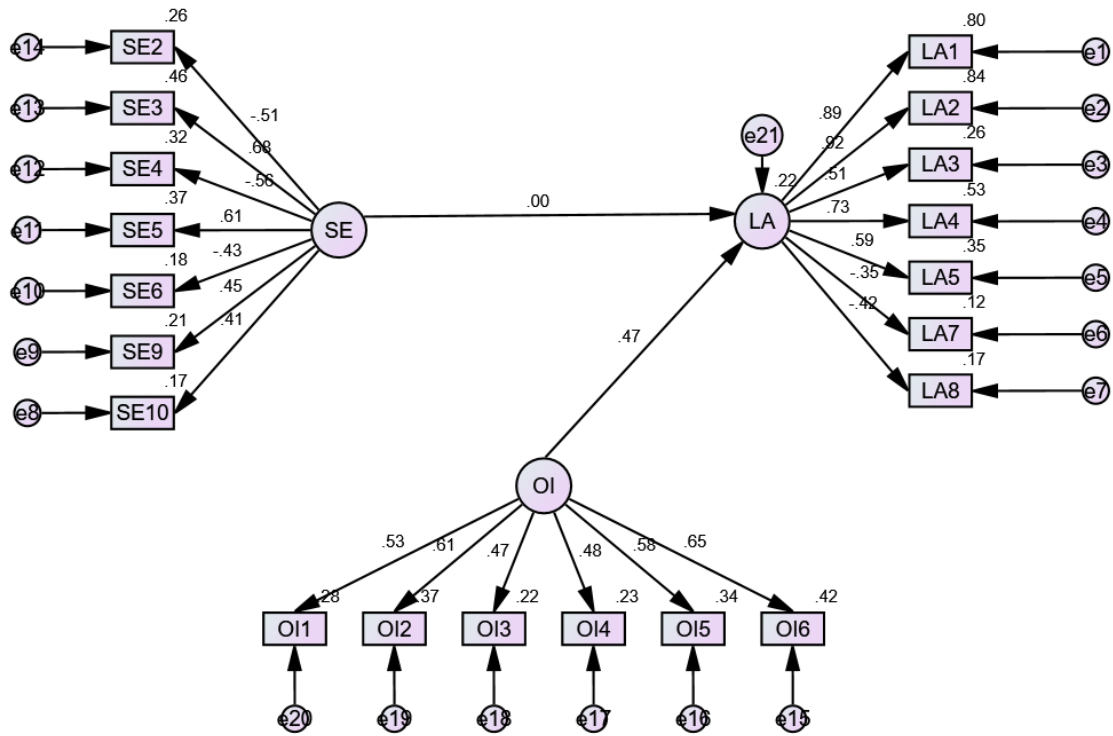


Figure 4.5: Confirmatory analysis of leadership aspiration using organizational identification and self-esteem in the absence of covariance.

Organizational identification of female students as is proposed in the present study had a positive influence on their leadership aspiration. A sense of belongingness to an organization makes female students to work hard to pursue a leadership role in their career in the future. This relationship is strong both in the absence of the correlation between the leadership aspiration and self-esteem and its presence making the estimated coefficient a stable estimate [Figure 4 & 5].

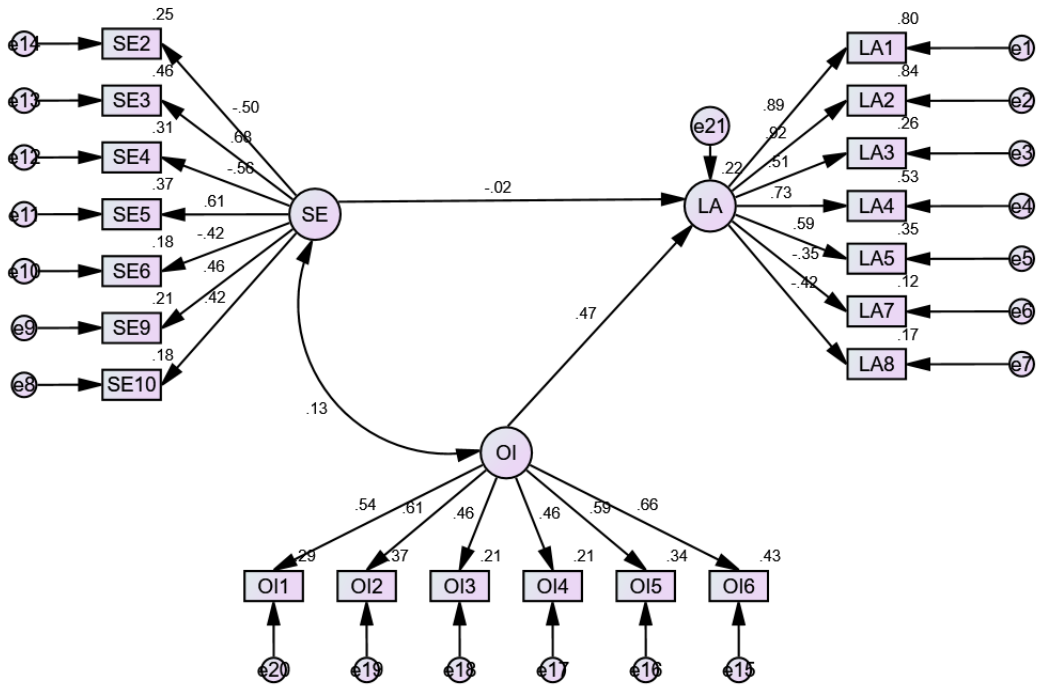


Figure 4.6: Confirmatory analysis of leadership aspiration using organizational identification and self-esteem in the presence of covariance.

## **4.6. Tests of Assumptions of multiple Regression Model**

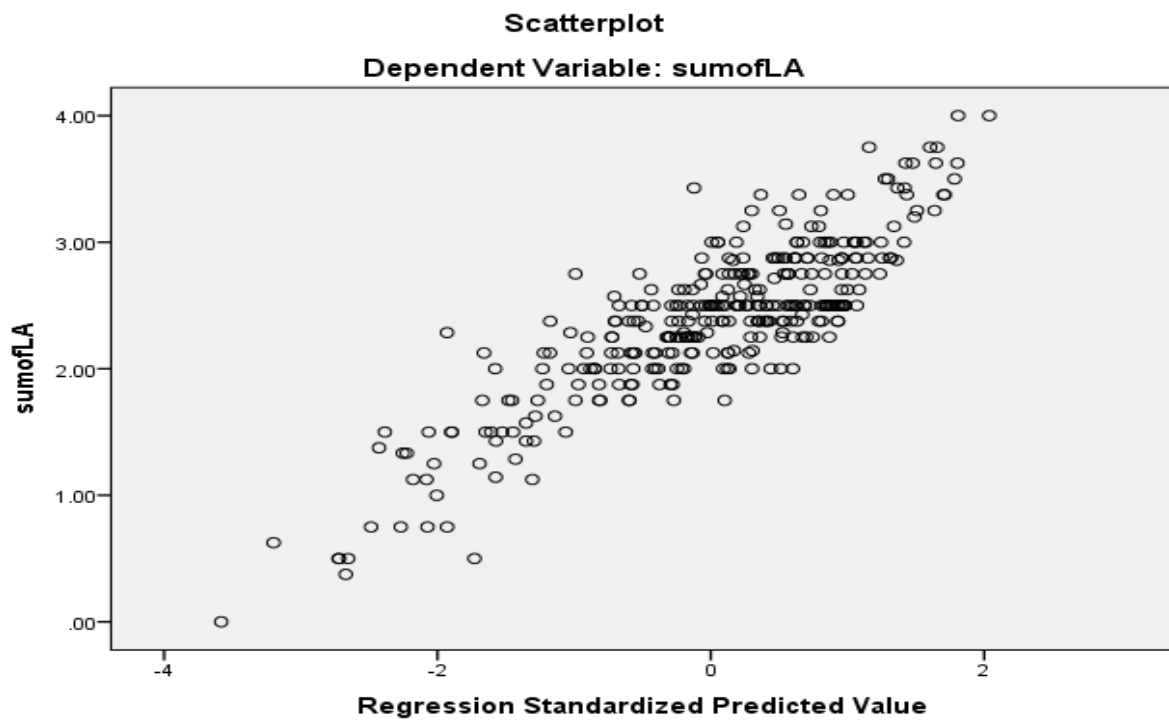
Most statistical tests rely on certain assumptions about the variables used within an analysis to ensure that the analysis is as accurate and true as possible, and therefore valid (Osborne & Waters, 2002; Stevens, 2009). Assumptions are critical in statistics because if the underlying assumptions are not valid, then the process is unreliable, unpredictable, and out of the researcher's control (Stevens, 2009). This could lead the researcher to draw conclusions that are not valid or scientifically unsupported by the data. A Multiple regression examines the relationship between a single outcome measure and several predictor or independent variables (Jaccard, Guilamo-Ramos, Johansson & Bouris, 2006). The assumptions of multiple regressions include the assumptions of linearity, normality, homoscedasticity and Multicollinearity (Collinearity) which will be discussed separately in the proceeding sections before a complete regression analysis can be performed.

### **4.6.1. Linearity Test**

Relationships between variables are considered linear when they are consistent and directly proportional to each other (Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Violations of this assumption may result in the estimates obtained from the analysis, such as R<sup>2</sup>, regression coefficients, standard errors, and statistical significance, being biased; therefore, not portraying the accurate or true population values (Osborne & Waters, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). According to Hox (1995), the results from the analysis will underestimate the true relationship between the independent variables (predictor variables) and dependent variable if the relationship is not linear.

The linearity assumption can be tested through the visual examination of residual plots (Kivilu, 2003; Osborne & Waters, 2002; Stevens, 2009). A residual scatter plot is a figure that depicts one axis for the standardized residuals and the other axis for the predicted values (Stevens, 2009). If the linearity assumption is met, the standardized residuals will scatter randomly around a horizontal line which represents the standardized residuals equaling zero (Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). As can be seen from the figure 4.1 the data in this research met linearity assumption.

*Figure 4.6: Residual vs. scatterplot*

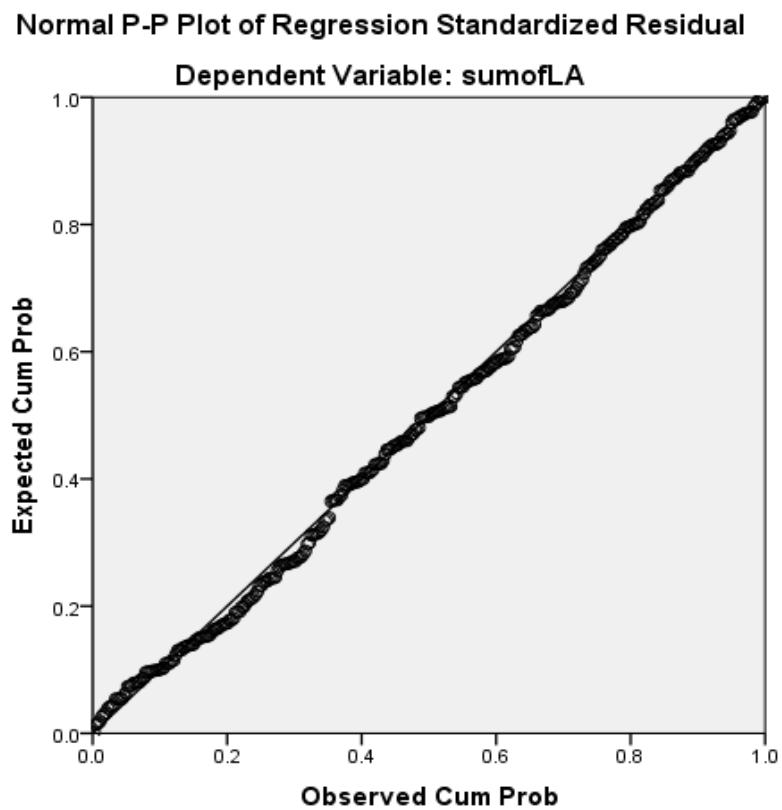


*Source: Own Survey, 2019*

#### **4.6.2. Normality Test**

Screening for normality is an important early step when conducting a multiple regression, as residuals are normally distributed is assumed (Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Non-normal distributions that are positively or negatively skewed, contain large kurtosis, or have extreme outliers can distort the obtained significance levels of the analysis, resulting in the standard errors becoming biased (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Though a multiple regression is generally considered to be quite robust to violations of normality, a small sample size can actually increase the seriousness of non-normality of a distribution (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Outliers may have stronger influence on normal distribution when the sample size is small, whereas standard errors for both skewness and kurtosis decrease with larger samples, as there will most likely be only minor deviations from normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006).

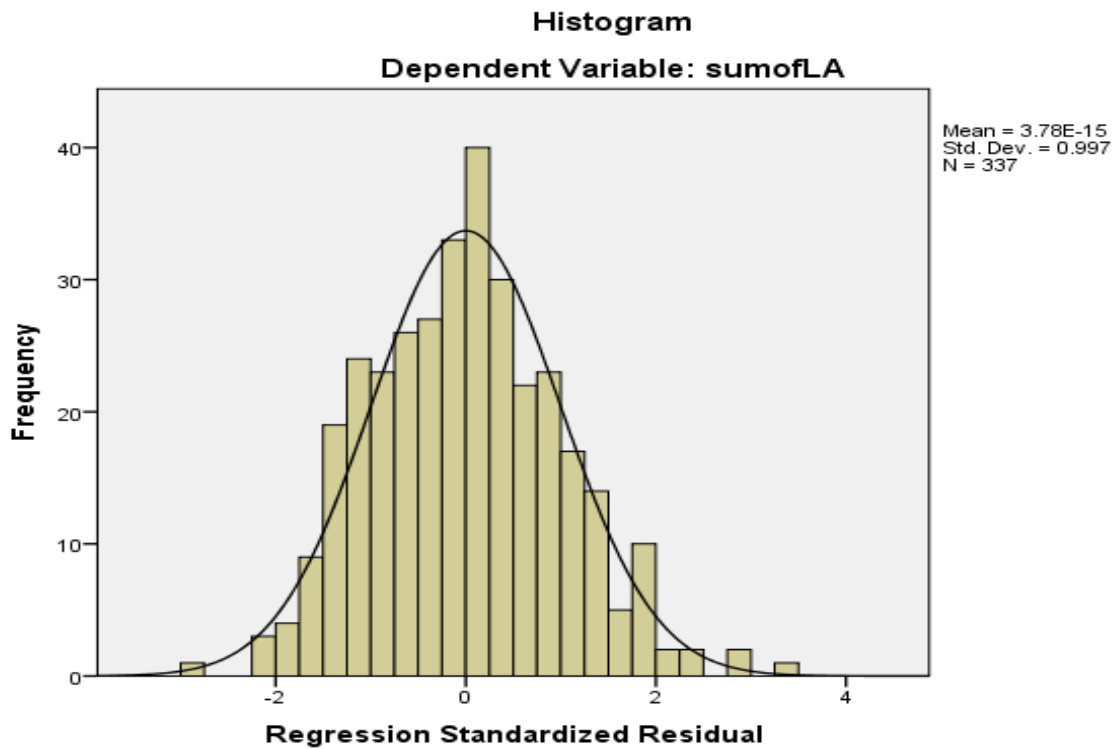
*Figure 4.7: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual*



*Source: Own Survey, 2019*

The normality assumption can be tested through the visual examination of normal probability plots (P-P plots) of the standardized residuals. In a P-P plot, the normal distribution is depicted by a random scatter of plots around a 45 degree line. Figure 4.7 showed the normality of data in this research.

**Figure 4.8: Histogram of Regression Standardized Residual**



*Source: Own Survey, 2019*

In addition to Normal Probability plots of residuals, the histogram was used to test the normality of data. Hence, Figure 4.8 revealed that the residuals are normally distributed around its mean of zero.

### **4.6.3. Homoscedasticity**

The assumption of homoscedasticity refers to equal variance of errors across all levels of the independent variables (Osborne & Waters, 2002). This means that researchers assume that errors are spread out consistently between the variables (Keith, 2006). This is evident when the variance around the regression line is the same for all values of the predictor variable. When heteroscedasticity is marked it can lead to distortion of the findings and weaken the overall analysis and statistical power of the analysis, which result in an increased possibility of Type I error, erratic and untrustworthy F-test results, and erroneous conclusions (Aguinis, Petersen, & Pierce, 1999; Osborne & Waters, 2002). Homoscedasticity can be checked by visual examination of a plot of the standardized residuals by the regression standardized predicted value (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Specifically, statistical software scatter plots of residuals with independent variables are the method for examining this assumption (Keith, 2006). Ideally, residuals are randomly scattered around zero (the horizontal line) providing

even distribution (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Heteroscedasticity is indicated when the scatter is not even; fan and butterfly shapes are common patterns of violations

#### **4.6.4. Multicollinearity Test**

Multicollinearity the assumption that the independent variables are uncorrelated (Darlington, 1968; Keith, 2006). Multicollinearity occurs when several independent variables correlate at high levels with one another, or when one independent variable is a near linear combination of other independent variables (Keith, 2006). The more variables overlap (correlate) the less able researchers can separate the effects of variables. Multicollinearity can result in misleading and unusual results, inflated standard errors, reduced power of the regression coefficients that create a need for larger sample sizes (Jaccard, Guilamo-Ramos, Johansson, & Bouris, 2006; Keith, 2006). One way to prevent multicollinearity is to combine overlapping variables in the analysis, and avoid including multiple measures of the same construct in a regression (Keith, 2006). Widely used procedures examine the correlation matrix of the predictor variables, computing the coefficients of determination,  $R^2$ , and measures of the eigenvalues of the data matrix including VIF (Mason & Perreault Jr, 1991). Tolerance measures the influence of one independent variable on all other independent variables. Tolerance levels for correlations range from zero (no independence) to one (completely independent) (Keith, 2006). When a predictor variable has a strong linear association with other predictor variables, the associated VIF is large and is evidence of multicollinearity (Shieh, 2010). According to Bryman and Cramer (2001), the Pearson's  $r$  between each pair of independent variables should not be exceed 0.80, otherwise independent variables that show a relationship at or in excess of 0.80 may be suspected of exhibiting multi-Collinearity. Table 4.9 exhibits the association between different dimensions of Leadership aspiration and the correlation was found below of 0.80 in each case so, the data in this research has no multicollinearity problem.

**Table 4.9: Collinearity Statistics for the Organization Identification and Self- Esteem**

	Correlations			Importance	Tolerance	
	Zero-Order	Partial	Part		After Transformation	Before Transformation
Sum of SE	.642	.591	.562	.980	.797	.863
Sum of OI	.310	.031	.023	.020	.797	.863

Dependent Variable: sum of LA

Source: Own Survey, 2019

#### **4.7. Correlation Analysis**

A correlation coefficient is a statistical tool used to summaries the relationship between two variables with a single number that falls between -1.00 and +1.00 (Welkowitz, Cohen, & Ewen, 2006). Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, and Barrett (2004) stated that: -1.0 indicates perfect negative correlation, 0.0 indicate no correlation, and + 1.00 shows perfect positive correlation. In order to observe the individual linear correlation of the sum of Organization identification, self-esteem with the sum of leadership aspiration is presented. For the correlation analysis, the mean scores for each dimension across the items were used. The sum of sum correlation of overall organizational identification and self-esteem. Self -esteem strongly correlated with leadership aspiration with a value of high correlation coefficient  $r = 0.824$ . In addition to this the relationship between self-esteem and leadership aspiration was positive and significant.

Table 4.10: Correlation Summary results of organization identification, Self-esteem and Leadership aspiration

		Sum of LA	Sum of Se	Sum of OI	Sum of sum
Sum of LA	Pearson Correlation	1	.551**	.319**	.752**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	338	338	337	338
Sum of SE	Pearson Correlation	.551**	1	.409**	.824**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	338	338	337	338
Sum of OI	Pearson Correlation	.319**	.409**	1	.776**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	337	337	337	337
Sum of sum	Pearson Correlation	.752**	.824**	.776**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	338	338	337	338

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

N=338

Source: survey data, 2019

#### 4.8. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Multiple linear regression analysis is a method which uses more than one independent variable to explain variance in a dependent variable. It is used to understand the relationship between variables and to predict the value of one variable based on another variable. This also indicated in the model summary below. The statistical relationship of the Organizational Identification and self-esteem used to determine the leadership aspiration.

Table 4.8.1: Model Summary between Organizational Identification and self-esteem

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.560 <sup>a</sup>	.313	.309	.52289
a. Predictors: (Constant), sum of OI, sum of SE				

**Source:** survey data, 2019

According to the table above the independent variables of organizational identification statistically predicted self-esteem. From this finding the R is equal to 0.560 which inferred that the presence of strong correlation between the independent variables and dependent variable and  $R^2$  Square is 0.313 which indicated that independent variables of organizational identification explain 56% of the variations on leadership aspiration of the dependent variable with unexplained factors of 44%.

Table 4.8.2 ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	41.654	2	20.827	76.174	.000 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	91.319	334	.273		
	Total	132.972	336			

a. Predictors: (Constant), sum of OI, sum of SE

b. Dependent Variable: sum of LA

**Source:** survey data, 2019

Analysis of variance indicated that the variance of the variables that the researcher established that the F ratio ( $F(2, 334) = 76.174, p = .000$ ) was statistically significant at  $p < .05$  level of significance. This shows that organization identification and self-esteem has statistically significant role on leadership aspiration which indicates the predictor variables is significant relationships of self-esteem and leadership aspiration.

**Table 4.8.3 Summary of Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.905	.128		7.090	.000
	Sum of SE	.429	.042	.504	10.148	.000
	Sum of OI	.084	.037	.112	2.255	.025

a. Dependent Variable: the sum of  
LA

**Source:** survey data, 2019

The above table shows that, independent variables have statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable since their p-value is below the alpha level which is 0.05. Considering the standardized beta coefficients, the predictors of the dependent variable (Leadership aspiration) were self-esteem with 0.504 and Organizational Identification with a beta value of 0.112. The independent variables had positive effect on the dependent variable.

#### 4.9. Discussion

Leadership Career aspiration is a 16-item measure developed by (Gregor & O’Brien, 2016) to measure leadership career aspiration as well as ideas about women’s (see Appendix A). Participants were asked to rate items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me). Sample items included, “I plan on developing as an expert in my career field” and “I would be satisfied just doing my job in a career I am interested in.” when assessing the items of the Leadership Aspirations subscale, the measure appeared to adequately capture desire to become a leader, however lacked in its ability to assess the level of achievement to which an individual strives.

Particularly, the subscale appeared to be missing the ability to measure the desire to be one of the very best in their field or to be recognized for one’s accomplishments. This desire to achieve in one’s career may be understood using the concept of “achievement motivation.” The importance of measuring women’s achievement aspirations is supported by Achievement Motivation Theory (1961) and was the theoretical basis underlying adding an additional subscale to more fully capture career aspirations.

Achievement Motivation Theory built on the work of Murray (1938) and posited the salient role of need for achievement in career-related decision making (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). McClelland (1961) and Atkinson (1958) defined achievement motivation as the desire to accomplish something of value or importance through one's efforts to meet standards of excellence (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953).

This construct has been linked to the development of goals, effort expended, and success in chosen vocational activities (McClelland, 1961; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). Additional research supports that for women, the need for achievement predicted obtaining middle management positions and success in management, thus contributing to our understanding of career aspirations (Jacobs & McClelland, 1994).

Importantly, however, the present study shows that Organizational Identification and self-esteem itself does not discourage leadership aspiration. Indeed, with higher organizational identification it may stimulate leadership aspiration, and thus increase the leadership aspiration of women more than of men due to women's greater.

The moderated mediation evidence that women show higher leader aspiration than men, mediated by Organizational identification, when they highly identify with the organization, speaks to how the psychological linkage with the organization may inspire leadership aspiration. The validity of the leadership career aspiration as supported by relatively strong associations among the self-esteem and organizational Identification, leadership aspiration. Women with high aspirations were more likely to have motivation to master a task and outperform their peers, which is consistent with prior research indicating that women with high career aspirations had high confidence in academic tasks (H. J. Lee, 2014).

In terms of organization identifications, women postgraduate students high career aspirations tended to prioritize their careers. Additionally, women with high career aspirations were likely to engage in activities to pursue their careers and to have positive perceptions regarding their ability to achieve their career goals. Exploration of factors that facilitate women's success in their careers can further the research in vocational psychology, given that previous study regarding women's career development mostly focused on barriers and difficulties in their career choices (e.g., S. Lee & Yu, 2009; E. R. Son & Kim, 2002).

The translated measure exhibited good psychometric properties when used with 367 graduate Addis Ababa University women. The three-factor structure was replicated, suggesting that

this measure consists of items assessing Self Esteem, leadership Aspiration, and Organizational Identification. Reliability tests estimates supported the reliability of the measure, and relationships in the hypothesized direction with career-related variables supported the convergent validity of the women. Barriers to women achieving leadership positions are well-documented (Carli and Eagly, 2016; Eagly and Carli, 2007; Rudman and Glick, 2001) and such barriers may presumably also discourage women's leadership aspiration.

The evidence generally also suggests that women indeed are more communal than men – a factor also argued to invite biases in others' leadership perceptions in favor of male leadership (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001; Lyness and Heilman, 2006). Importantly, however, the present study shows that organizational identification does not discourage leadership aspiration. Indeed, with higher organizational identification it may stimulate leadership aspiration, and thus increase the leadership aspiration of women more than of men due to women's greater self-esteem. The moderated mediation evidence that women show higher leadership aspiration than men, mediated by organizational identification, when they highly identify with the organization, speaks to how the psychological linkage with the organization may inspire leadership aspiration.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study. The chapter gives the study summary, the study conclusions that have been derived from the study findings. The chapter also proposes recommendations for improvement and for additional studies.

#### 5.1. Summary of Findings

The demographic profile the majority of the respondents are currently pursuing their master's degree and three in five (60.1%) are government employees. Nearly one in five (18.9%) of the sampled students are currently unemployed while studying at the University. More than half of the respondents (56.8%) are currently single and the remainder of them were ever married. The average age of respondents was 28.8 years (with a standard deviation of 0.30).

The relationship between self-esteem and leadership aspiration both in the absence and presence of covariance between self-esteem and organizational identification was non-existent as is shown in the coefficient leading from self-esteem to leadership aspiration. Thus, the result indicates that self-esteem is immaterial in enhancing the leadership aspiration of female students after controlling the influence of organizational identification [Figure 4 & 5].

Organizational identification of female students as is proposed in the present study had a positive influence on their leadership aspiration. A sense of belongingness to an organization makes female students to work hard to pursue a leadership role in their career in the future. This relationship is strong both in the absence of the correlation between the leadership aspiration and self-esteem and its presence making the estimated coefficient a stable estimate [Figure 4 & 5].

Analysis of variance indicated that the variance of the variables that the researcher established that the F ratio ( $F(2, 334) = 76.174$ ,  $p = .000$ ) was statistically significant at  $p < .05$  level of significance. This shows that organization identification and self-esteem has statistically significant role on leadership aspiration which indicates the predictor variables is significant relationships of self-esteem and leadership aspiration.

## 5.2. Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to assess women's characteristics that are associated with leadership aspiration of graduate students of Addis Ababa University by exploring the extent to which it is adopted and comparing with documented practices on the theory or literature.

The result presented depicts an important step toward understanding how organizational identification and self-esteem interact and how they interact with women's career leadership aspiration. Women express higher leadership aspiration, mediated by organizational identification, when they highly identify with the organization identification they work for. This speaks to the notion how the psychological linkage with the organization identification may in fact inspire leadership aspiration.

The findings to emphasize interesting avenues for future research in terms of studying for instance the interplay between self-esteem and organizational identification as well as different foci of identification and their respective impact on leadership aspiration. On the other hand, if there is a curvilinear relationship between career aspirations and positive career outcomes, women with extremely high career aspirations might be more depressed when their career aspirations cannot be fully achieved due to career barriers or family responsibilities.

Women also participate in community management roles, which is usually voluntary and unpaid. In many cases, this is used as one of the reasons to justify that women do not have the time to participate in leadership outside of the home. These and many more are obstacles that limit women from developing their leadership potentials and take full advantage of the positive enabling environment created by the national women policy.

Family and home responsibilities, place bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments.

### **5.3. Recommendation**

According to the results and conclusion made, the following recommendations are given that strength and improve the women's leadership career aspiration.

- ❖ Formal institutional change is important to counter gendered social norms ...
- ❖ But informal institutions and spaces are also critical for women to be effective leaders
- ❖ Challenge organization to view its work in the larger context of cultural change, as work with women's, whether building their self-esteem and confidence or reframing their body image, recognize the social messages and cultural norms you are contesting.
- ❖ There does still need to be a great focus on educating families to influence the quality of outcomes.
- ❖ To examine how women's career aspirations change over time and are associated with diverse career outcomes (e.g., wages, promotions, job satisfaction, or termination/resigning employment).
- ❖ To understand how career aspirations influence the career choices that women make when they face conflict between work and family further; it would also be interesting for future research to also examine more objective outcomes such as leadership attainment.
- ❖ To examine which other factors help to translate leadership aspirations into attainment.

### **5.4. Recommendation for further studies**

In this research convenience sampling method was used. In future research, researcher used other sampling technique like random sampling.

- ❖ This research conducted although the women in the samples were representative of the populations in general for post graduate students but for the future researches you used both graduate and undergraduate students; they were mostly White heterosexual women.
- ❖ Thus, generalizability to other groups of women and to men is limited. Moreover, our research did not administer the measure to individuals who were in different stages of career development, particularly those who are employed.

- ❖ Also, a potential strength of the research was including postgraduate women; however this also could be a limitation because the factor structure was established with postgraduate women but confirmed with graduate women.
- ❖ While the factor structure of the Career aspiration was consistent among undergraduate and graduate students, further research is necessary to replicate these findings.
- ❖ Moreover, the three subscales were moderately to highly correlate which may indicate that they are measuring a single underlying construct of general career aspiration.
- ❖ Future research on the leadership career aspiration should consider the use of a single factor scale.
- ❖ Additionally, future research should aim to elucidate the relationship between the subscales of the Career aspiration and other measures of career attitudes, given the somewhat mixed results of convergent validity across the women's in post graduate students in different university to better generalize the results.

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**APPENDIX A**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**

**COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS**

**DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT**

**MAM PROGRAM**

*Dear respondent!*

*First of all, would like to express my gratitude for your willingness to commit your valuable time by responding to this questionnaire. This questionnaire is designed to request information for purely academic purposes. The objective of the research is to assess the determinants of leadership aspiration among female graduate students of Addis Ababa University. The information you provide will be kept in strict confidentiality. Moreover, you don't need to put any identifier information on this questionnaire. The enclosed survey should take only ten to fifteen minutes to complete. Please make responses directly on the questionnaire. Should you have any queries, do not hesitate to contact me on the under mentioned address:*

*Name: Petros Teferi                      Tel; +251-913093058*

Please respond to each of the following questions and place a “√” mark in the boxes for your answers.

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Questions</i>	<i>Codes &amp; Categories</i>
<i>Part I: Background Information of Respondents</i>		
<b>101</b>	Age of the respondent	_____ (in years)
<b>102</b>	Highest level of educational currently studying	1. Masters 2. PhD
<b>103</b>	Marital status	1. Single 2. Currently in union 3. Divorced/Widowed
<b>104</b>	Current employment status	1. Employed, Government 2. Employed, Non-Government 3. Employed, Private 4. Employed, Self 5. Unemployed

**Part II: Please read each of the following items and rate your experience on a scale of 0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me). Please place a “√” mark in the boxes for your answers.**

S.No.	Items	0	1	2	3	4
LA1	I hope to move up to a leadership position in my organization or business.	0	1	2	3	4
LA2	I plan to rise to the top leadership position of my organization or business.	0	1	2	3	4
LA3	I want to have responsibility for the future direction of my organization or business.	0	1	2	3	4
LA4	I hope to become a leader in my career field.	0	1	2	3	4
LA5	When I am established in my career, I would like to manage other employees.	0	1	2	3	4
LA6	I do not plan to devote energy to getting promoted to a leadership position in the organization or business in which I am working.	0	1	2	3	4
LA7	Becoming a leader in my job is not at all important to me.	0	1	2	3	4
LA8	Attaining leadership status in my career is not that important to me.	0	1	2	3	4
SE1	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	0	1	2	3	4
SE2	I feel that I have a number of good qualities	0	1	2	3	4
SE3	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	0	1	2	3	4
SE4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	0	1	2	3	4
SE5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	0	1	2	3	4
SE6	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	0	1	2	3	4
SE7	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	0	1	2	3	4
SE8	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	0	1	2	3	4
SE9	I certainly feel useless at times.	0	1	2	3	4
SE10	At times I think I am no good at all.	0	1	2	3	4
OI1	When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult	0	1	2	3	4
OI2	I am very interested in what others think about my organization	0	1	2	3	4
OI3	When I talk about this organization, I usually say “we” rather than “they”	0	1	2	3	4
OI4	This organization’s successes are my successes.	0	1	2	3	4
OI5	When someone praises this organization, it feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
OI6	If a story in the media criticized the organization, I would feel embarrassed	0	1	2	3	4

LA=Leadership Aspiration, SE=Self-Esteem, and OI=Organizational

Identification

**Thank you!!!**