

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**PROBLEMS FACING RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOL WOMEN  
TEACHERS IN OROMIA**

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**JUNE, 2001  
ADDIS ABABA**

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SCHOOL WOMEN TEACHERS IN OROMIA**

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**BY  
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## ACRONYMS

The following abbreviations appear in the text as stated hereunder.

<b>AAU</b>	Addis Ababa University
<b>CSA</b>	Central Statistical Authority
<b>ESDP</b>	Education Sector Development Program
<b>ETA</b>	Ethiopian Teachers Association
<b>IDS</b>	Institute of Development Studies
<b>ILO</b>	International Labor Organization
<b>MOE</b>	Ministry of Education
<b>OEB</b>	Oromia Education Bureau
<b>OECD</b>	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
<b>TGE</b>	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
<b>TTI</b>	Teachers' Training Institute
<b>UD</b>	Undated
<b>UNECA</b>	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
<b>UNESCO</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children's Fund

## ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to identify the problems facing rural primary school women teachers in Oromia. A descriptive survey method was employed to achieve this objective. The data needed were obtained by administering questionnaire to 229 women and 240 men teachers. Furthermore, 6 Woreda Education Officers, 3 Primary School Experts of Zonal Education Departments and 3 Women's Affairs (2 from Zonal Education Departments and 1 from Oromia Education Bureau) were included in providing information through unstructured interview. In addition, percentages, chi-square, t-tests, Spearman's rank order correlation and coefficient correlation were used to analyze the data obtained. The results indicated that factors related to utilization of women teachers were barriers related to lack of safety and living conditions, multiple demands on women, masculine nature of schooling and schools, devaluation of the teaching profession and sexual harassment. There were also barriers identified related to administrative practices and regulations, social and cultural factors and family responsibilities related to career development and promotion of women teachers. With regard to possible interventions to the problems facing rural primary school women teachers both women and men teachers had suggested as priority such as assigning both spouses of working in different departments in the same place, giving opportunity for education and training and giving incentives and providing adequate living facilities in rural schools are first, second and third respectively. Moreover, to deal with sexual harassment and to consider the time given to rearing children in career structure of women teachers were suggested fourth and fifth respectively. Hence, there were barriers identified related to the deployment and career development and promotion of women teachers which would be intervened, as suggested. Therefore, it is recommended that educational policy makers and planners ought to pay more attention to deployment and career development and promotion of women teachers in rural areas.

## CHAPTER ONE

### THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

This chapter deals with the background of the topic, statements of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, definition of key terms and organization of the study.

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

As women represent half of a population of a country (UNESCO, 1975:75) and play a vital role in the full dimension of development of a country, they have to have access to the economic, political and social resources and decision-making at various levels. In light with this, UNESCO (1995:26) and Abebe(UD: 2) wrote that the basic aspects of population such as growth of economic, social and cultural changes cannot be complete unless much attention is given to the position of women in a society. They are also vital in contributing to the perpetuation of a society by giving birth to new members, nurturing and socializing very young children (Newman, 1995:408).

Consequently, education of women plays a significant role in the full dimensions of development of a country (UNESCO, 1975:75). Thus, widening the access of female students to education has been a major goal in the world. This is why many countries, including developed and developing countries, have promulgated major policies to increase the number of girl students to education. For instance, in the Education and Training Policy of Ethiopia (TGE, 1994:95), the importance of the education of girls is underlined. According to this policy, the objective of educating girls is “to gear education towards re-orienting society’s attitude, value pertaining to the role and contribution of women in development” In this policy, it is further stated that one of the mechanisms of increasing women’s contribution in

development is to encourage females to join the teaching profession and make curriculum gender sensitive, and protect females from any kind of sex segregation and sexual harassment. Similarly, MOE (1999:2) stated in ESDP that one of the reasons that girls are less likely to be enrolled than boys, particularly in rural areas, is the limited number of role models of women teachers in the schools. To overcome this gender gap, it is necessary to increase the number of female teachers in rural areas (Fiske, 1998:35; Abebe, UD: 7 and UNESCO, 1975:95), which would be a necessary step for increasing the contribution of women in development.

In line with this, Sales (1999:410) stated the importance of female teachers that the provision of education for girls depends on women teachers and is major provider of formal sector employment for women. The presence of women teachers is vital to encourage families to send girls to school. Sales further explained that women teachers provide evidence for the social and financial value of the schooling for girls, through the status and income they can attain. They are thus key figures in the social and economic development of the areas (UNICEF, 1992:33).

Furthermore, Gaynor (1997:1) wrote that female teachers are important category among categories of teachers. According to ILO (1991:39), women presently constitute a large, or even majority, share of the teaching profession in many parts of the world while some developing countries continue to face a shortage of female teachers, particularly in rural areas. According to these authors, in most cases, however, the specific needs and conditions of women teachers have not been taken sufficiently in to account in educational management. Gaynor (1997:27-45) further described that there are barriers to the deployment

and career development and promotion of women teachers in rural areas of developing countries.

Gorton, et. al (1988:233) also explained that gender inequalities and gender-based division of labour often give low status position for women. Moreover, some cultures do not allow women to travel or to live away from family home, particularly for women teachers in rural areas (World Bank Cited in Gaynor, 1997:27 and Sales, 1999:411). Living condition is also a major factor that affects the deployment of women teachers in rural areas of certain countries (Gaynor, 1997:27). Family responsibility, male dominated nature of schools, low status of teaching profession, sexual harassment, administrative practices and regulations (Gaynor, 1997 and ILO, 1991) are barriers that contribute to problems facing women teachers in developing countries.

Although Ethiopia has engaged in increasing access to, and the quality of education through the greater participation of women in the teaching force that could have a positive effect on the enrollment and achievement of girl learners in rural primary schools, the efforts being made to identify the major barriers are very limited. Few studies were made in connection with women teachers in general, that of rural primary schools in particular. In order to arrive at a correct solution of problems facing rural primary school women teachers, the thing to be done is to identify the barriers to the deployment and career development and promotion of women teachers. The present study was, thus, planned in line with this framework to make a preliminary investigation about some problems facing rural primary school women teachers.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

In Ethiopia, complete study has not been made on rural primary school female teachers. Although not specific to rural primary school female teachers, Almaz and Barbara (1990) conducted a study on female teachers and girls' education at all levels (at primary, secondary and Teachers' Training Institutes). They recommended that female teachers must be considered separately from male teachers. Added to that, to realize the later academic performance of girls at secondary and tertiary levels, female teachers must be assigned early in primary schools.

It is evident that increasing the number of female teachers, particularly in rural and remote areas, encourages the local communities to send their daughters to schools. Sales (1999:410) and Aggarwal (1996:346) underscored the importance of female teachers, specifically in a system that gives special attention to the segregation of the sexes. Teitjen (1991:74) rightly stated "while staffing school with trained teacher is important to student achievement, staffing schools with trained female teachers may be critical to girls' enrollment and achievement." This is to mean that female teachers are more important than male teachers for encouraging the enrollment and achievement of girls in rural primary schools.

In this regard, Ethiopia has been undertaking to promote girls and women's education through increasing the number of female teachers, particularly in rural primary schools. However, although the number of primary school female teachers has been increasing since 1994/95-1998/99, the proportion is less than 28% in all the five years under consideration (MOE, 1999:24). It is thus doubtless to estimate that the proportion would be further less in rural primary schools.

On top of the low number of female teachers in rural primary schools, the already assigned ones suffer from poor living condition (Siebold, 1996:5-6). Almaz and Barbara (1990:20) also reported on their study of rural schools that female teachers are more likely to suffer from traditional values on the inferior status of females. According to these researchers, friendliness is misinterpreted as flirtation; unwanted pregnancy and unwanted marriage are the fate; and marriage is the frequent result if single male and female teachers are assigned in the same rural primary schools. In general, there are impediments to the deployment and career development and promotion of women teachers in rural areas.

Therefore, the main objective of this study is to identify, through an extensive review of literature and field investigation, factors or variables that contribute to the problems facing rural primary school women teachers. In addition, the specific objectives of the study are: -

1. to identify impediments to the deployment, career development and promotion of women teachers.
2. to suggest possible interventions on the basis of the experiences of practitioners and opinions of experts.

Thus, the study was designed to answer the following basic questions regarding problems facing rural primary school women teachers:

1. What impedes the deployment of women teachers in rural primary schools?
2. What factors determine the career development and promotion of rural primary school women teachers?
3. What are the possible measures to be taken to solve the problems?

### **1.3 Significance of the Study**

Full dimensions of development of a country are incomplete without active participation of women in the process. This requires as much as possible the equal opportunity of education for both sexes. As mentioned by many writers (ILO, 1991:41 and Shelly and Whaley in Singh, 1994:140), one of the problems of increasing access to women education is the shortage of role model of women teachers, particularly in rural areas, which is also true in our case. A number of problems encountered women teachers who have already assigned in rural areas.

Thus, it was felt that the study is important for the following reasons:

1. It may indicate the major problems facing rural primary school women teachers.
2. It may have great practical significance in providing vital information about the magnitude of the problems facing rural primary school women teachers for educational managers, planners, decision makers and others in the area.
3. It also suggests solutions to the problems facing rural primary school women teachers.
4. Finally, it helps as a springboard for others who want to conduct further research in the study.

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

Although the problems facing rural primary school women teachers can be studied in all regions of Ethiopia, the study was limited to the investigation of some major factors that hinder the deployment and career development and promotion of rural primary school women teachers in four zones of Oromia. These zones are Bale, Arsi, Western Shoa and

Jimma. On top of roughly representing the region, these zones are the first five zones in consisting of the largest number of rural primary school women teachers in the region. Thus, so as to make the study representative and manageable, 24 schools were purposively selected from the four zones of the region.

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

The long process taken by the graduate school of AAU to give the final decision on the proposal and untimely release of the fund allowed for the study have created time pressure to gather the necessary information and organize the study as it was planned.

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

### **1.6. Definition of Key Terms**

**Gender**: refers to the socially and culturally determined differences between males and females (IDS, 1996:3).

**Rural Areas**: refers to all localities that are inhabited by less than 2000 people and are not accorded an urban status by the Ministry of Urban Development and Housing (CSA, 1988:16).

**Primary Schools**: Maintained schools for students from grade 1 to 8 in Ethiopian context.

**Rural Primary Schools**: Primary schools in a village fewer than 2000 population (CSA, 1988:16).

**Rural Primary School Women Teachers**: Women who instruct in school located in a village fewer then 2000 population (CSA, 1988: 16).

### **1.7. Organization of the Study**

The study is organized into five major parts. Chapter one deals with the problem and its approach. Chapter two treats review of related literature. Chapter three and four deal with the methodology, presentation and analysis of data respectively. The final chapter discusses the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

In order to have a brief background on the concept of an overview of women teachers and career development and promotion of women teachers in the rural areas, this chapter will provide the major works done by different authorities in the areas of the problem under study.

#### **2.1 An Overview of Women Teachers**

##### **2.1.1 Education of Girls and Women**

From time immemorial, condition for women seem to have been such that, with rare exceptions, they have been excluded from economic, as well as from political and social power (Bisilliat and Fieloux, 1987; Coombs, 1985:224 and Gorton, et.al, 1988:233). Coombs (1985:224) traced back the sex disparities in education particularly, like geographic disparities to the time of biblical Judea, classical Athens, and Colonial New England, which otherwise placed a high value on learning, except some women who attained educations equal to the very best men which was generally resulted from the private instruction of girls and young women by learned fathers or private tutors. This is also true both in developed and developing countries although it is recent phenomenon in developing countries.

In line with this, much has been written about the early promotion of women's education in the nineteenth century and their fragment battles to overcome prejudice and ill-informed opinion in their struggles to formal schools and colleges and established foothold in key professions such as medicine and law rather than teaching profession (Gordon, et.al, 1992:123). Although the agitation began earlier, the nineteenth century movement was the first to involve women in feminist issues. One of the issues was that women should be

educated, admitted to the profession, in order to increase opportunities for employment outside the home, and receive higher wages (Hess and Sussman cited in Carden, 1984: 7-8 and Gordon, et.al, 1992:23).

After dying since late nineteenth century, women's movement revived in 1960s from which the role of education in the process began to be investigated (Gordon, et. al, 1992: 123 and Hess and Sussman 1984:8) which was previously regarded more often as a place of constraint and control than of emancipation and liberation. At present, it is viewed that schools and the educational system are vehicles for profound change, as ideal environments in which to develop, promote, and reward new attitudes and behavior (Conway and Bourgue, 1996:1). Thus, education is seen as a means to improve women's social and economic status.

On the other hand, developing countries, for instance South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa are lagging in girls' participation in school (UNICEF, 1996:3 and Seyoum, 1986:6). In 1986 -89, the gender gap in primary school enrollment was approximately 29 per cent in South Asia, 20 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa and 18 per cent in the Middle East (UNICEF, 1992:4). Specifically, the African Continent contains twenty of the world's poorest countries and exhibits the world's lowest rates of literacy (Bourgue and Conway, 1996:7). Moreover, illiteracy among Africa stands at more than 70 per cent on the average and more than 90 per cent in rural areas; the dropout rate for girls is higher than it is for boys, especially at secondary level; and girls are underrepresented in crucial fields of studies.

In Africa, like many other developing countries a number of factors influence female education. According to Odago and Heneveld (1995:4), Graham- Brown (1996:193) and MOE (2000:33-34), some of these factors are related to institutional policies and practices;

others are associated with society's customs, beliefs and attitudes about women's roles, responsibilities and capabilities which also holds true for Ethiopia (Seyoum, 1986:7-8; Konjit, 1995: 7-8 and Asmaru, 1996:5-6). It is also associated with socio-economic and socio-cultural factors; school related factors and political and institutional factors.

Consequently, tremendous strides have been made in educating women and girls in Africa, especially since the 1960s (Njeuma, 1996:124). Some countries of the continent realized that development could only come about through the education of their citizens, both male and female. Although the overall enrollment of girls in primary school increased from time to time in Africa with considerable cost, there are differentials perpetuated overtime, which result in gender inequalities and limit the role-played by women (Njeuma, 1996: 124-125). Very low literacy among women, especially in rural areas; the under representation of women at all stages; greater attrition rates among girls; specialization of girls and women in certain areas of study; and very low representation of women and girls in "hard" sciences contribute to these differentials. Furthermore, in spite of education for women in the present century clearly present in terms of wide opportunities, it has remained a battleground. It has, as noted else where, been an arena in which the role of women in society has been strongly contested.

### **2.1.2. Female Participation in the Teaching Profession**

Women in professional work dominate schools, particularly at primary levels, and thus teaching can be described as a feminized profession in the world (Basten, 1997:55;Sales, 1999:412; Gaynor, 1997:11; Rousmaniere, 1997; Lightbody, et.al, 1997:26; Blackmore, 1993:30; Elgqvist – Saltzman, 1994:120; ILO, 1991:115 and ILO, 1991:39). According to

Rousmaniere (1997:35) and Foster (1997:160), teaching first became identified as “Women’s work” in the mid-nineteenth century as part of the common school movement to institutionalize local public school systems because women demanded, or could be presented with, lower salaries than men, thereby keeping the costs of local school systems down. They elaborated that overtime, the image of the moral and ever-patient women teachers grew to be central to the cultural identity of the occupation and counterpoised the increasing impersonality of expanding urban school bureaucracies. Moreover, ILO (1991:39) stated that, in many countries women have long outnumbered men in the teaching profession although it might be going too far to assume that teaching, as a whole is a feminized occupation. ILO (1991:115) made explicit that although less striking than in the industrialized countries where it nevertheless seems to have been marking time for the past few years, this phenomenon has become general and is still growing in importance in the developing countries (45% in 1970 and 48% in 1985) of primary school women teachers. Gaynor (1997:11-17) also wrote that although teaching is a profession, which gives employment to many women and men worldwide, including developing countries, the percentage of female teachers at primary and secondary levels of education is the lowest in Africa, excluding the Arab States, and the highest are found in Latin America (See Table 1). Accordingly, regional figures mask wide variations between countries, and within countries there is significant geographical disparities in the proportion of women teachers. For instance, the two highly “feminization” of teaching profession in the developing countries are Uruguay 93 per cent and Philippines 95 per cent (ILO, 1991:116) among developing countries.

Table 1: Percentage of World Female Teachers at Primary Levels by Region, 1993

Region	Primary
Africa (Sub-Saharan)*	42
Arab States	52
Latin America and the Caribbean	57
Southern Asia	31
Eastern Asia and Oceania	49
All Developing Countries	51
The World	57

Source: Gaynor, Catherine (1997) The Supply, Condition and

Professional Development of Women Teachers. Paris: IIEP.

- All of Sub-Saharan Africa except Sudan, Somalia, and Dibouti.

The situation of most of the African countries, unlike with the one prevailing in many Latin American and European industrialized countries, women's participation in teaching tends to be low (Gaynor, 1997: 15). Generally, Gaynor summarized a number of aspects about current status and trends related to male and female teachers in developing countries.

- Overall, worldwide, teaching is a profession, which increasingly attracts a substantial proportion of women. This may indicate that men as positive do not regard the so-called feminization of the teaching profession, since men are generally better placed to demand higher pay, improved conditions and status.
- Some countries, the least developed and those where competition for employment opportunity is greatest, have minority participation of women, in teaching.

- Those countries with the lowest enrollment rates for females in the past now have a lower proportion of female teachers than those countries that had higher female enrollment rates.
- Women in almost all countries are concentrated in the lower levels of the system.

On the other hand, various authors have written that the feminization of teaching profession is relative; not absolute. For instance, Basten (1997: 56-57); Gaynor (1997:17-18); ILO (1991:39); and Almaz and Barbara (1990:1) elaborated this case that the higher the position of responsibility, the fewer women employed and it is, therefore, not useful to refer to this as complete feminization. A common argument put forward for this is that caring for younger children is that natural extension of the nurturing role of women (Gaynor, 1997:17 and Rousmaniere, 1997:41). Thus, it is very difficult for women to advance in the profession and to influence educational management and decision making from the position of junior-level teacher due to this level generally attracts lower levels of pay and lower status, which the trend needs to be challenged (Gaynor, 1997:18).

## **2.2. Barriers to the Deployment of Women Teachers**

### **2.2.1. Safety and Living Conditions**

According to Gaynor (1997:27), physical safety is important since women are at greater risk than men particularly in contexts of civil unrest. In line with this, Sales (1999:412) put that those women who travel without a male family members are liable to suspicion of moral as well as literal wandering although teaching is seen 'safe and suitable' through its compatibility with traditional norms and life styles. Thus all questions, like questions of reputations, home commitment and barriers to mobility come to the fore (Sales, 1999:412).

Consequently, the lack of adequate accommodation which is a major factor affecting the deployment of women teachers in certain countries (Gaynor, 1997:27). This discourages placement of women teachers in rural primary schools not within commuting distance of towns; it is feared and resisted by female teachers (Almaz and Barbara, 1990:28). It is also noted in Siebold (1996:3-4) that lack of water and sanitation facilities, poor condition of teachers residence, isolation of schools and the difficulty of travel are critical to the living condition of female teachers although it regards male teachers, too.

In a number of countries, to overcome these barriers, the posting of women teachers are encouraged to be assigned or transferred to locations to which their spouses are placed or transferred (Gaynor, 1997:34). She also suggested that special provisions, like hardship allowances, housing and other measures are useful incentives for teachers in rural and remote areas to ensure their safety and professional updating and to compensate for geographic disadvantages. Furthermore, some countries, like India and Bangladesh use other mechanisms to reduce the problems (Gaynor, 1997:27 and Aggarwal, 1996:346). For instance, in Bangladesh reaching appropriate agreement with families to allow women teachers to work in locations distant from their families increase the retention of women teachers. In India also it has been suggested to provide a large number of quarters for women teachers, particularly in rural areas.

### **2.2.2. Multiple Demands on Women**

According to Sales (1999:411), in any culture, the definition of women and men's domains of work and social activity is determined by a complex and dynamic range of factors. In connection with this, Betz and Fitzgerald (1987:36) and Oppong and Abu

(1987:31) stressed the importance of culture in determining the role of women. They wrote that young women and girls learn not only that their appropriate adult roles are those of wife and another but also that if they do work, there is a set of female-appropriate occupations from which they should choose. Thus social and cultural pressures determine for women's domestic, conjugal and maternal role activities in addition to their work outside their home.

Moreover, besides women's productive activities, reproductive responsibilities are generally elaborate and demanding (UNECA, 1996:56; Hunder College Women's Studies Collective, 1983:510-511 and United Nations, 1995:105). Taking care of the children, preparing family meals and fetching water and fuelwood are the role of women. Thus, the women do contribute substantially to the well being of families, communities and nations although it is inadequately measured, and this subverts policies for the credit, income and security of women and their families. In line with this, Hunder College Women's Studies Collective (1983:510) underlined the importance to be given to women equally with men by saying, "Women and men have special relationship. As daughters, sisters, wives, and mothers of men, we are not simply competitors with them for resources, and we cannot entirely separate our own interests from those of the men to whom we are in some way related."

In teaching, like other careers, women's participation continues to be impeded until women and men have equal opportunity to combine employment and family life (Gaynor, 1997:27). She wrote that the burden of responsibility for the family still falls mainly on women and the only official recognition of this fact is in provision of maternity leave for those teachers in full-time employment. Male teachers in developing countries are generally

not entitled to paternal leave and this places the burden of family responsibility squarely on women.

According to Gaynor (1997:28), in many countries, traditional family support systems are not available to a large number of women teachers with children. Thus, many women teachers have to rely on domestic workers who are unskilled, underpaid and not motivated for child minding. This puts considerable practical, financial and emotional burden on teachers with children and may contribute to the inaccessibility of a teaching career for those women who wish to have children (Martin and Gaynor, cited in Gaynor, 1997:28).

### **2.2.3. Masculine Nature of Schooling and Schools**

In a society, females are limited in their opportunities or achievements, because of the views either they or others hold about their potential based strictly on their gender; sex – role stereotyping is negative (Gorton, et.al, 1988:235 and Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987:111). UNECA (1996:57-60) also explained that unequal access to education and training might be the causes for the choices of discipline that would determine the women on their occupation. Accordingly, women have often been oriented into the humanities, social sciences and education or what are commonly known as feminine subjects with fewer inroads into technology, engineering or other physical sciences. Moreover, although the numbers of women have increased significantly in demanding professions, barriers still restrict their mobility in the professional world (Kaufman, 1989:329 and Lightbody, 1997:26). Thus, in professions that are male-dominated, women are still likely to be over represented in low-paid, low prestige subspecialties, low productivity, and low prospects for advancement (Armstrong and Armstrong cited in Living, 1987:139).

Teaching is also a profession that has been dominated and shaped by men and it is mostly male values, which are reflected, in organizational patterns and practices (Gaynor, 1997:28). This male ethos and behavior does not make the profession welcoming to women. Eventhough women are participated in social and economic development, their value of input and perspective in shaping education is generally are not recognized within the school system (Gaynor, 1997:28). Accordingly, educational policy and management rarely specifically address the concrete steps required in order to make school more appropriate for women as students and as teachers, and to enable them to play a full role in society as equal citizens.

In addition to male- dominated role, there are additional barriers that impede women who decide to study and teach the so-called, masculine subjects such as carpentry, mechanical drawing, etc (Gaynor, 1997:28). Such mould-breakers need to be able to accept the social isolation that often ensues for women teachers in a mostly male environment. According to Gaynor, on the other hand, the devaluation of 'female' subjects such as home economics or secretarial studies, make these less attractive career choices for young women as well as for men (Lynch cited in Gaynor, 1997:28).

Furthermore, various studies (Gaynor, 1997:38) show that women teachers are regularly assigned to non-teaching responsibilities, which are considered 'supportive' and often subordinate to those assigned to men. These assigning women to pastoral, extra curricular activities perpetuate the stereotype of women as nurturers' careers and men as decision - makers and managers. Almaz and Barbara also (1990:22) underlined the assignment of women teachers to non-academic, such as immunization day, parents, cleaning the compound, decorating the hall, etc.; they are given the background preparatory work to do. While women still hold most classroom positions, men hold most of the administrative

position in public schools (McNergeny and Herbert, 1995; 15-16 and Shelly and Whaley in Singh, 1994:140). It has been also shown that women teachers are more concerned with collegiality and enjoy working with fellow teachers rather than managing them or being over them (Gaynor, 1997:38 and Almaz and Barbara, 1990:20).

#### **2.2.4. Devaluation of the Teaching Profession**

Teachers generally tend to leave and be absent due to they are not satisfied with teaching profession (Gaynor, 1997:36-37). Studies from some African countries suggest that the status of teaching profession is declining due to poor conditions and lack of incentive and that many of teachers are focused on meeting their basic needs rather than delivering quality education (Gaynor, 1997:29). Moreover, the low status of teaching profession, most of the times, has to do with the low salary, poor teachers' conditions of service, absence of remuneration, discipline problems, lack of administrative support, lack of parental and community support, work load in general (Gaynor, 1997:29-38; McNergeny and Herbert, 1995:12-13 and ILO, 1991:41).

Different studies, however, show that reasons for leaving the profession could be different for men and women teachers in a given country (Gaynor, 1997:37). Accordingly, low income, length of the working day, little chance of promotion and falling social status of profession are respectively the reason for leaving the profession. In relation to this, absenteeism is high among women teachers in Ethiopia due to their family responsibilities, long commutes from the town or the village, difficulties in covering syllabus due to absence and lack of in-service training (Almaz and Barbara, 1990:20). It is argued that salary may be more critical to job decision though discipline may be also an issue for others (Dilworth

Cited in McNergeny and Herbert, 1995:12-13). OECD (Cited in ILO, 1991:41) also underlined the material status of the teaching profession; particularly the level of teachers' pay offers a further possible explanation for a high ratio of women teachers in a given country.

In line with this, teachers conditions of service and remuneration's are also to be mentioned because if they are inferior to those in the private sector and in other parts of the public sector, there would be a shift away from teaching, as more and different job opportunities emerge (USAID/ Ethiopia and Meena cited in Gaynor, 1997:29). Accordingly, in a number of developing countries, this trend, together with the extensive recruitment of unqualified teachers, has led to a significant increase of the share of female teachers with no or low qualifications, especially at primary level.

Consequently, the extent of job satisfaction could be the causes for the retention or attrition of women teachers where the causes of job satisfaction are noted elsewhere. Women's staying power (retention rate) or attrition rate, however, seems to be the result of combination of both lack of alternatives for them in the labor market and job satisfaction although it is required to determine whether women's staying power is a result of either the two or both (Gaynor, 1997:37). On the other hand, it has been argued that women tend to get satisfaction from classroom activities and being in contact with pupils rather than management duties, which require more research and understanding (Davies and Gunawardena cited in Gaynor, 1997:37).

### 2.2.6. Sexual Harassment

Discussion of women and work would be incomplete without an analysis of that complex and pervasive set of behaviors that have come to be known as sexual harassment (Hunder College Women's Studies Collective, 1983: 230 and Martin, 1989:57). The studies showed that sexual harassment of women's workers has been a problem for as long as women have worked outside the home although public and scholarly awareness has only been recently reached. Sexual harassment disrupts women's drive for autonomy outside of the home and family by sexualizing women's work role and by making sexuality a condition of economic survival (Studd, 1996: 54 and Martin, 1989:73). Thus the issue of sexual harassment has been found to be significant to discuss in connection with female teachers in rural areas.

Although many authors raise the issue of differences in defining sexual harassment due to differences in harassing behavior from one culture to another culture, most of them agree that sexual harassment:

*“... is any uninvited, unreciprocated and unwelcome physical contact, comment suggestion, joke or attention which is offensive to the person involved, and causes that person to feel humiliated, patronized or embarrassed. It may create a threatening or intimidating working environment, adversely affect school work or job performance and, in extreme cases, may cause a person to seek to leave the school” (Cited in Gaynor, 1997:41).*

Martin (1989:58) identified three common characteristics in some definitions of sexual harassment:

- 1) is physical or verbal behavior that is sexual in nature (i.e., it makes the victim's sex salient over her occupational or other statuses);
- 2) is unwanted; and

- 3) implicitly or explicitly is experienced as a threat to the woman's job or ability to perform her work or educational activities.

According to Gaynor (1997:41), sexual harassment can take many forms that are generally directed by males (in the teaching context both by teachers and pupils), at women and tends to reflect the state of gender relations within the society.

Two primary types of sexual harassment have been identified and subsequently by the courts: (1) Quid Pro Quo harassment (2) Hostile Environment Harassment (Brandenburg, 1997:2-3; Hunder College Women's Studies Collective, 1983:232; and Martin, 1989:58).

**2.2.5.1 Quid Pro Quo Harassment:** Quid pro quo harassment involves a more or less explicit exchange (Martin, 1989:58 and Brandenburg, 1997:2). In this case, "a woman must comply sexuality or forfeit an employment or educational benefit." Martin elaborated that the harasser tends to be an employer, supervisor, or teacher because his power to punish or reward rests on his occupational status. She further mentioned that male coworkers, classmates, and clients, however, might use informal authority in the work or academic setting or the power to give or withhold business or sales in order to harass.

Quid pro quo harassment situations involve three elements: an advance, a response, and a consequence (Brandenburg, 1997:58). She also identified that four different outcomes are possible: (1) the woman declines and she is punished if an employer or instructor makes an advance; (2) the woman complies and she does not receive the promised benefit if the employer or the instructor makes an advance; (3) the woman complies and she gains the benefit if the employer or instructor makes an advance; and (4) the woman declines and she

receives no subsequent harassment or reprisal if the employer or instructor makes an advance.

**2.2.5.2. Hostile Environment Harassment:** Hostile environment harassment applies when unwelcome sexual conduct causes the environment to become hostile, intimidating, or offensive, and unreasonably interferes with an employee or student's work (Brandenburg, 1997:3 and Martin, 1989:59). Accordingly, a variety of behaviors are involved in such harassment like touching, teasing, and making comments about a woman's appearance or sexuality which requires no response but make the woman's work environment unpleasant. Often such harassing behavior is less blatant or threatening than quid pro quo harassment, is forgiven by management, and is regarded "normal" male behavior or as an extension of the male prerogative of initiation in male-female interaction. For these reasons, women often do not define such behavior as sexual harassment and, when they do, they tend to be more reluctant to make formal complaints about it than about quid pro quo harassment (Martin, 1989:59).

### **2.2.5.3. Effects of Sexual Harassment on Victims**

Sexual harassment has psychological, social, and physical effects on its victims (Martin, 1997:62 and Hunder College Women's Studies Collective, 1983:233-234). Thus, sexually harassed women feel humiliated, ashamed, and angry. Various studies revealed that harassed women show the behavior, like feeling angry, upset, frightens, alienation, aloneness, helplessness, guilt or some other negative emotions. Some harassed women tended to have strained relations with men including their husbands. Others reported that development of physical symptoms and attitude changes, including loss of ambition and self-confidence and

a negative view of their work (cited in Martin, 1989:62) are the effects of sexual harassment. Thus, it is evident that sexual harassment in teaching profession in general, in rural primary schools in particular may adversely affect the deployment of women teachers.

### **2.3. Barriers to Career Development and Promotion of Women Teachers**

The representation of women in posts with responsibility is, on average, very low in pre-primary and primary education where the majority of them are in teaching profession (ILO, 1991:44 and Pounder, 1988:8). As underlined by Pigford (1993:5), teaching has been viewed as a “Woman’s natural profession” which prepare women to be subordinate although the prevailing attitude is the “natural order” dictated that men lead and women follow. Accordingly, Pigford suggested women that they must be skilled at preventing internal and external barriers. She described that internal barriers refer to women’s feeling about herself and her roles while external barriers are institutional structures and practices that restrict women’s access to administrative positions. Furthermore, ILO (1991:44), Gaynor (1997:42-45) and Sales (1999:415-422) discussed the following three types of barriers to career development and promotion of women teachers.

#### **2.3.1 Administrative practices and regulations**

All countries reported that equality of opportunity and treatment exists for men and women teachers regarding promotion; they stated that there is no legislative or administrative regulations specifically contained discriminatory provisions (ILO, 1991:46 and Sales, 1999:415-416). In reality, however, various provisions may indirectly discriminate against women. As noted by Pounder (1988:8); Gaynor (1997:46); Adler (1993:25); ILO (1991:46);

and Sales (1999:416), the main factors considered for promotion are job experience and job qualification.

According to the foregoing authors, one obstacle to women teachers' promotion is the criterion "job experience," often just term for seniority. Women teachers often lack seniority, because either they may have interrupted their career to give birth to children and to bring them up, or else may have marked part time at some stage of their working life for these or other (ILO, 1991:46). On the other hand, in several countries, additional regulations have been adopted according to which a person working part time cannot be promoted or cannot hold a post of responsibility. As a rule, women teachers are, therefore, not eligible for promotion to the same extent as male teachers since they hold by far the majorities of part-time posts, and hence are often automatically excluded from promotion (ILO, 1991:46). Academic qualification is also another obstacle to women teachers' promotion since women are often in an underprivileged position with regard to access to education and attained qualification (Gaynor, 1997:42).

In line with this, it is important to see the more influential factor of the seniority and qualifications. Thus if several applicants for a particular promotion have equal qualifications, seniority determines the matter of promotion and the absence of seniority results in obstacle for women teachers pursuing a satisfactory career path (ILO, 1991:46). ILO suggested that a different assessment of seniority as a prerequisite for promotion might lead to a better balance in the distribution of position of responsibility as between men and women teachers.

### **2.3.2 Family responsibility**

In addition to legislative barriers, motherhood and family responsibilities (Oppong and Abu, 1987:25), a woman teacher tends, in the performance of her duties, to be faced with problems associated with the woman's biological role as mother and with the special burden of responsibilities although sexual discrimination in employment is condemned by law and national practice (ILO, 1991:121 and ILO, 1991:46). Some assumptions identified in connection with the promotion of women teachers are under qualified; are not interested in furthering their careers; take career breaks and lose impetus; are tied to take a spouse's career; cannot give time outside the school day due to family commitments take priority; and only single women progress well (Adler, 1993:25). Moreover, it is feared that the figure of a woman in a position of authority, particularly of authority over men, is threatening to existing power structures have been changed a little in some countries, men have increasingly taken a greater share in family responsibilities although there is still a long way to go which gives women a better chance to stay in the job and to pursue a professional career (ILO, 1991:47).

Nevertheless, the translation of theory into practice and day-to-day living has varied considerably both in tempo and degree, and child-rearing is still a woman's responsibility in developing countries although it is stated to be a legal right (ILO, 1991:12 and Basten, 1997:60). It was mainly for this reason that these countries introduced regulations concerning maternity leave and measures designed to help persons with family responsibilities to carry out both their obligations in the home and their professional duties.

Consequently, due to the lack of support system in many countries, i.e., Creches, Kindergartens, full-time infant schools, etc., women teachers, more or less, give up their

professional careers for the sake of bringing up their children. Such a system is all too often either not available, too expensive or of poor quality, which means that one of the parents has to stay at home to bring up the children where, the continuing value systems usually place the burden on women (ILO, 1991:47). If their job cannot be adapted to the family responsibilities, in cases where they have to take leave on very short notice, they have little choice but to take long-term leave or quit the job.

### **2.3.3 Cultural and Social Barriers**

Equal opportunities and equal treatment are guaranteed by the constitution or by law in many countries. According to established culture, however, gender inequalities and gender-based division of labor often give low status position for women (Gorton, et. Al, 1988:233), particularly, women's role is ascribed to a domestic and non-public role in society although they spend a considerable amount of time and energy working on such productive and reproductive activities which are vital to the well-being of households and to the country (Gaynor, 1997:26; Asmaru, 1996:3; UNECA, 1996:62; Duncan, 1994:113-115; Oppong and Abu, 1987:25; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987:36 and Pigford and Tonnsen, 1993:23 and Nieuma, 1996:128). Furthermore, the situation is not quite clear when it comes to reality and discriminatory practices that are widespread in such areas as recruitment, access to posts of responsibility and conditions of employment (ILO, 1991:116; Gaynor, 1997:44 and Sales, 1999:416).

There has been a model for a long line that cultural traditions and all major religions have supported the male dominated societies (ILO, 1991: 47 and Sales,

1999: 416). These institutional factors are perhaps most amenable to influence, being grounded in the culture of the education system itself (Sales, 1999:416). It is difficult for women to be involved in teaching profession due to socio-cultural attitudes in many countries (Gaynor, 1997:26). ILO (1991:41) also explained that women teachers are low due to cultural background and religion that seem to play a significant role, given that in more traditional societies, like those in some Asian and Arab countries. In the same vein, ILO (1991:48) expressed its concerns by saying, “equality in professional life cannot be achieved as long as equality in education has still not been achieved and, given continuing educational inequalities, women in general do not get the same start in a professional career as men.” It has been, thus, recommended that ensuring universal access to girls to the educational system and to offer them the same chances as boys, especially in rural areas would be the remedy for this shortcoming. Thus, “in the absence of such action; the initial gender discrimination facing girls is likely to translate into gender discrimination at later stages, including discrimination against women teachers” (Cited by Hertz in ILO, 1991:48).

In general, even though teaching is acceptable profession for women, there may be barriers to acceptance of women in position of power and responsibility (Gaynor, 1997:27) by other male teachers and community. Almaz and Barbara (1990:21) elaborate this situation that generally due to the traditionally low status of women, they may be seen as less effective, less knowledgeable and generally inferior to male teachers in rural schools. They also suffer from less faith of the parents and

community regarding their capacity, and not many of them needed in a school, and their status is deteriorated.

## **2.4. Possible Interventions**

As it has been mentioned, a lot of sex discrimination against women in education and in employment has been unintentional; the result of traditional practices impact more adversely on women than on men (Gorton, 1988:233). This issue also holds true for female teachers since they are part and parcel of women in employment who have suffered from sex discrimination due to various reasons noted earlier. Although possible measures used obviously differ depending on the particular context, there are general interventions promised for improving the deployment, condition and career development of women teachers (Goynor, 1997: 46).

### **2.4.1 Enhancing the Deployment of Women Teachers**

Promoting equality of opportunity has been officially taken place in many countries, in collaboration with international donors, to reduce the gender gaps in education (Gaynor, 1997:46). Gaynor explained that many countries have been involved in increasing the supply of women teachers, which is taken as part of the strategy. Gaynor critically wrote that this kind of interventions, however, fail due to a set of factors, including conflicting priorities, insufficient understanding of gender aspects, lack of political will, shortage of funds and inadequate staffing levels. In one or another way, writers such as Gaynor (1997:49), Almaz and Barbara (1990:24), Aggarwal (1996:347) and UNESCO (1975:47) suggested the following summary of possible interventions.

- Upgrading the teaching profession as a whole to increase teachers and teacher education and ensure that there is gender awareness.
- Adopting family- friendly initiatives: consider the provision of on-site childcare and investigate innovations such as job-sharing/ flexible working hours.
- Supporting an improved incentives package of salary and fringe benefits, including rewards for achievements in teaching, which are linked to gender-positive and transformative teaching and which ensure that wages and all benefits are provided equally to men and women, regardless of material status. Providing incentives and special allowances that will attract and retain women and men teachers in rural and remote areas.
- Providing adequate hostel facilities in sufficient.
- Providing specific incentives in the form of scholarships, fellowships and prizes are given to women primary teachers to encourage them to work-increased enrollment of girls.
- Giving allowance for women teachers in rural areas.
- Posting husbands and wives in the same place even if they work in different departments of the government (whenever possible).
- Assigning women teachers near towns is very important to encourage more women to enter the profession.

#### **2.4.2 Improving the Status, Condition and Career Development of Women Teachers**

In promoting equality of opportunity in reducing the gender gap in education, besides enhancing the deployment of women teachers, it improves the status, condition and career development of women teachers. These efforts of improving the condition and career

development of women teachers have been practiced mostly based on human resource development approach (Gaynor, 1997:50). Accordingly, this, however, has not completely participated women in professions of “hard” sciences and the male-dominated positions rather than the low status at various levels. It has been discussed throughout this paper that female teachers, particularly at primary schools in rural areas, have severely underrepresented in relation to the men numbers within the professions and career development, and importantly have continued to suffer from unacceptable levels of sexual harassment (De Lyon, et.al cited in Gaynor, 1997:50).

Based on the previous paragraph that various authorities have forwarded possible interventions in order to alleviate the impediments of status, condition and career development of women teaches. Hence, the following are the summary of different writers (Gaynor, 1997:51-52; ILO, 1991:50-51; Almaz and Barbara, 1990:24; Abebe, UD: 13; and Adler, 1993:134-135).

- Reviewing legislation and administration on posting, transfers and promotions for possible gender bias; particularly connected with childcare, maternity and paternity rights.
- Improving the status of the profession would attract women to teaching.
- Placing female teachers near towns is very important to encourage more women to enter the promotion.
- Setting up of joint promotion panels to reduce the conscious or unconscious discrimination against women with regard to promotion.

- Introducing quotas for women seeking promotion, and/or the rule that, all other things being equal, women applicants should receive priority; promoting mentoring and networking for female teachers and another gender-sensitive action for this purpose.
- Initiating special training programs for women to upgrade their capacity and qualifications in order to improve their chances of gaining promotion; particularly providing scholarships in science and mathematics.
- Reviewing career structure to ensure that it describes the patterns of women's lives, as well as those of men, and that it rewards and retains good teachers in the classroom, where many women opt to remain.
- Dealing seriously and swiftly with all sexual harassment.
- Providing guidance and counseling to women teachers to include assertiveness training and personal development.
- Raising women's awareness about structural realities in the profession and about the socialization process in general.

## **2.5. An Overview of Women Teachers in Ethiopia**

Even though some religious institutions (Orthodox Church and Mosque) contributed to the development of the nation's education, they neglected the participation of women in education except for few ladies from royal and aristocracy (Seyoum, 1986:7). A striking feature of both Christianity and Muslim was their exclusion of women in the secular and ecclesiastical life of the society (Konjit, 1995:7). Accordingly, the basic traditional education teaching was to limit women education to the domestic sphere of denying their right to participate in the public sphere (Asmaru 1997:3-4 and Teferi, 1996:1). Culture and tradition in Ethiopia belittle women education and emphasize her role in the domestic domain.

Consequently, this made them lag behind men in all fields of self-advancement that results in reduction of a country's resources and handicap of its development (FAWE, 1994:4).

The under representation of women's education is also reflected in the low number of women teachers at all levels of education sector. According to Asmaru (1997:4-5), when the number of women teachers' of 1968 compared to that of 1995, it has slightly increased although, yet it was generally very low and the number decreases as the level of education increases. Similarly, it is indicated in the consecutive five years of annual abstracts (1995/96 –1999/2000) of Ministry of Education that percentage of women teachers has slightly increased with more changes in rural schools (See Table 2). It is also indicated in Table 2 of 1999/ 2000 abstract that the number of women teachers in general, in rural areas in particular increased in higher rate than of the previous. This shows the better improvement in supply of women teachers than the previous years. The low percentage of female teachers is, of course, closely related to the low participation and persistence of female students. This implies that the stagnation in proportion of female teachers at primary level and decline at secondary and higher levels may partly be a consequence of rising admission standards at post secondary and tertiary level education that fewer and fewer females meet.

Table2: The Percentages of Five Years of Primary School Women Teachers (1995/96-1999/00)

<b>Years</b>	<b>1995/96</b>	<b>1996/97</b>	<b>1997/98</b>	<b>1998/99</b>	<b>1999/2000</b>
In general	25.7	26.2	27.2	27.8	36.92
Rural	21.10	21.80	22.90	23.77	31.60

Moreover, the number of women teachers in Ethiopia has been increasing from time to time as various strides, like other African countries, have been done to enhance the supply of women teachers (See Table 3). The share of female primary school teachers has been increasing since 1994/95 although it is at slower rate. However, the share of primary school women teachers was less than 28 per cent in all five years under consideration.

Table 3: The Proportion of Teachers by Sex at Primary Schools (1994/95-1998/99).

<b>Year</b>	<b>1994/95</b>	<b>1995/96</b>	<b>1996/97</b>	<b>1997/98</b>	<b>1998/99</b>
Male	74.6	74.3	73.8	72.8	72.2
Female	25.7	25.7	26.2	27.2	27.8

*Source:* MOE (1999) Indicators at Primary Schools (1994/95-1998/99) of the Ethiopian Education Systems. Addis Ababa: Artistic Printing Enterprise.

In line with this, it is also important to note that women teachers in Ethiopia are concentrated at first cycle of primary schools (See Table 4). In Table 4, for equal qualification (for example TTI), about 91% of women teachers and 70 % of men teachers have taught the first cycle of primary schools. This shows that more women than men teachers have been found in the cycle.

Table 4: The Proportion of Teachers by Sex at Primary Schools (1999/2000).

Year	Sex	Qualification															
		BSC/BA and MSC/MA		Diploma		12+3		12+2		12+1		TTI		12 and below		Others	
		1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8	1-4	5-8
1999/2000	Male	37.5	62.5	2.08	97.92	21.43	78.57	12	88	19.06	80.94	69.6	30.4	90.53	9.47	86.21	13.79
	Female	85.71	14.29	95.43	4.57	30.77	69.23	-	100	59.09	40.91	90.84	9.16	97.2	2.8	100	-

Source: MOE (2000) *Education Statistics Annual Abstract (1999-2000)*. Addis Ababa: Berhanena Selam Printing

Enterprise.

On the other hand, a study made on women teachers in Ethiopia by Almaz and Barbara(1990) that they are encountered with various problems. These writers elaborated that women and men teachers in urban schools are equal and harmonious while those in rural schools are more likely to suffer from oppression by male teachers due to they still hold traditional values on the inferior status of females. For instance, accordingly, friendliness was misinterpreted as flirtation, unwanted pregnancy and unwanted marriage is their fate and marriage is frequent result if a single male and female teachers are assigned in the same rural schools.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

Since the purpose of this study was to identify the problems facing rural primary school women teachers with the intent of suggesting ways of improving them, the descriptive survey research method was selected. The sample and the sampling technique, the instrument and procedures of data collection and the methods of data analysis are briefly described below.

#### **3.1. The Sample and the Sampling Technique**

According to a statistical report of the Education Bureau of Oromia, there were 3602 rural primary schools with a total of 5962 women and 19441 men teachers in 1998/1999 academic year (OEB, 1999).

In order to obtain a correct and representative sample from the population, the region was stratified into four zones, namely, South, Southern central, Central and West. This was done for the purpose of minimizing the effect of any socio-cultural differences that may exist in the different 'Zones' of the region. Following this, six schools were selected using purposive sampling from among schools in each of the four zones, thus making the total sample of schools studied the region twenty-four.

Table 5: Names of the Sample Schools, their Woredas, Zones and the Corresponding Number of Respondents.

<i>S. No</i>	<i>Name of Sample Zones</i>	<i>Name of Sample Woredas</i>	<i>Name of Sample Schools</i>	<i>Numberr of Respondents</i>	
				<i>Female</i>	<i>Male</i>
<b>1</b>	<b>Arsi</b>	Tiyo	Gonde	8	9
			Bilalo	11	12
		Hitosa	Gonde	11	24
			Hate Handode	10	22
		Dodota	Argiti Danaba	14	10
			Gasala Shashe	10	21
<b>2</b>	<b>Bale</b>	Dodola	Barisa	14	8
			Chare	9	2
		Goba	Burqitu	13	14
			Gama Taja	12	3
		Sinana	Basaso	12	2
			Shalo	9	8
<b>3</b>	<b>West Shoa</b>	Ambo	Sankale	12	3
			Mutulu	7	10
		Weliso	Obbi	17	27
			Gurura Addis Alem	8	3
		Bako	Gobu Walda	7	10
			Boree	4	8
<b>4</b>	<b>Jimma</b>	Gomma	Bulbulo	10	9
			Yachi	6	7
		Saka Chokorsa	Bore	7	5
			Chokorsa	6	13
		Sokoru	Dobi	6	6
			Mulata Cheka	6	4
<b>Total (distributed)</b>				<b>229</b>	<b>240</b>
<b>Total (Returned)</b>				<b>198=86.5%</b>	<b>204=85%</b>

The study was planned to be conducted on a sample of 469 women and men teachers together (i.e., 229 women and 240 men teachers). Male teachers were also included in the sample in assuming that they would provide adequate information as equal as female teachers because it was assumed that they have sympathy with many views of each other in as well as out of schools. For the purpose of enriching the study by obtaining additional information, 6 Woreda Education Officers, 3 Primary School Experts of Zonal Education Departments and 3 Women's Affairs (2 at Zonal Education Departments and 1 at Education Bureau) were included. Purposive sampling technique was employed to select 24 schools so as to ensure the representation of high number of rural women staff. All available women teachers were taken to be the sample of the study. Purposive sampling was also used for selecting Primary School Experts from Zonal Education Departments, Women's Affairs and Woreda Education Officers. Male teachers, however, were selected using simple random sampling technique.

### **3.2. Instruments and Procedure**

The main data gathering methods used for this study were questionnaire and unstructured interviews since they are more appropriate to secure factual information, opinions and attitudes.

The questionnaire was set originally in English, which later translated into "Afaan Oromo," the medium of instruction and communication of the Region. It was prepared for both female and male teachers, which has five parts. The first part was concerned with general remark. The second dealt with characteristics of respondents. The third was prepared in the form of Likert-type scale, which was indicated on five rating scales: very high, high, medium, low and very low. This helped to get information on the level of female teachers'

perception of barriers related to deployment, career development and promotion of women teachers in rural areas. Part four was also concerned with the role types as perceived by female and male teachers. Both groups were assumed to be appropriate to collect information related to stereotyped gender roles in the schools. Part five involved possible interventions to be ranked in their order of priorities by the same respondents. Part six was set to obtain additional information if the respondents had other comments, rather than mentioned, regarding the problems facing rural primary school women teachers and its possible interventions.

In addition to the questionnaire, the study employed unstructured interview questions. The unstructured interview was made with some Woreda Education Officers, Primary School Experts and Women's Affairs in Zonal Education Departments. An official of Women's Affairs in Oromia Education Bureau was also involved in the interview. Furthermore, in order to ensure the appropriateness of the items, a pilot study was carried out in three schools of Woliso Woreda by 35 teachers (i.e. 16 women and 19 men teachers). After filled by these teachers, each questionnaire was examined item by item and those assumed ambiguous and unclear statements were detected.

### **3.3. Methods of Data Analysis**

Based on the nature of the research question, and consequently on the type of measurement scales used in gathering the data, the following statistical techniques were considered appropriate for

Percentage was used to explain the personality characteristics of the respondents.

The t-test for comparing the means of observed samples was employed to determine the major factors that affect the deployment and the career development and promotion of rural primary school women teachers.

Chi-square was used to associate women teachers' respondents to men teachers so as to determine the traditionally stereotyped gender roles in the rural areas of primary schools.

The rank ordering of the assumed possible interventions was analyzed using spearman's rank order correlation. Pearson's correlation was used to see the strength of the relationship between the perception of women and men teachers with respect to the assumed possible interventions to be taken. The differences and relationships in the findings of the study were all tested at 0.05 level of significance.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **PRESENTATION, DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **OF THE RESULTS**

This chapter is divided into two major parts. In part one, characteristics of the sample populations are analyzed in terms of age, marital status, years of experience, educational level, positions in school, number of children and level of career structure.

The second major part deals with the presentation and analysis of the data gathered through questionnaire for women and men teachers. Of the total questionnaire distributed to female and male teachers, 198(86.5%) and 204 (85%) were returned and used, respectively, for analysis. Also the data obtained through the interview with 6 Woreda Education Officers, 3 Experts of Zonal Education Departments and 3 Women's Affairs (2 from Zonal Education Departments and 1 from Oromia Education Bureau) were used in the analysis of the data and interpreted from the perspectives of the following variables.

1. The impediments to the deployment of rural primary school women teachers.
2. The barriers to the career development and promotion of rural primary school women teachers.
3. Possible interventions to be taken.

### 4.1 Characteristics of the Study Populations

Table 6: Respondents' Characteristics

Item No.	Items	Items' Choices	Respondents			
			Female		Male	
			No	%	No	%
1	Age	21-25	48	24.24	8	3.92
		26-30	75	37.87	38	18.63
		31-35	45	22.73	56	27.45
		36-40	15	7.58	61	29.90
		41-45	10	5.05	33	16.18
		46-50	5	2.53	8	8.92
		Total	198	92.42	204	100
2	Marital Status	Married	183	92.42	172	84.31
		Unmarried	15	7.58	32	15.69
		Total	198	100	204	100
3	Years of Experience	1-5	38	19.19	6	2.94
		6-10	80	40.40	31	15.20
		11-15	41	20.70	45	22.06
		16-20	30	15.16	93	45.59
		21-25	7	3.54	29	14.21
		26 and above	2	1.01	-	-
		Total	198	100	204	100
4	Educational Level	TTI certificate	179	90.40	175	85.78
		Diploma	19	9.60	29	14.22
		Others	-	-	-	-
		Total	198	100	204	100
5	Your Position in school	Director	4	2.02	18	8.82
		Vice-director	-	-	16	7.84
		Unit-leader	43	21.72	63	30.88
		Department head	26	13.13	28	13.73
		Others	125	63.13	79	38.73
		Total	198	100	204	100
6	Number of your children	None	4	2.02	16	7.84
		1-4	166	83.84	64	31.37
		More than 4	17	8.59	18	8.82
		Total	187	94.45	98	48.03
7	Your level of career structure	Beginning teacher	17	8.59	3	1.47
		Junior teacher	45	22.73	7	3.44
		Teacher	78	39.39	54	26.47
		Higher Teacher	52	26.26	118	57.84
		Deputy Head teacher	6	3.03	22	10.78
		Head teacher	-	-	-	-
		Total	198	100	204	100

About 85 per cent of females and 50 per cent of males were reported to be in the same age bracket of 21 to 35 years. Table 6 also indicated that about 15 per cent of female and 55 per cent of male teachers were reported to have age ranging from 36 and above. Thus, the majority of female teachers studied were younger than males.

As depicted in Table 6, about 92 per cent of females and 84 per cent of males are married while about 8 per cent and 16 per cent were found to be unmarried, respectively. According to Table 6, more females are married than males. This would mean that there are conditions, like unwanted marriage and the fear of being alone that force women teachers to be married which was also written by Almaz and Barbara(1990).

Regarding years of service about 80 per cent of females and 40 per cent of males were reported to have 1 to 15 years of service in teaching whereas about 20 percent of females and 60 per cent of males served from 16 years and above. Those less experienced women teachers are assigned in rural primary schools than men teachers possibly explain the disparity that exists with respect to seniority. In this regard ILO(1991:46) wrote that women teachers often lack seniority due to either they may have interrupted their career to give birth to children and to bring them up. In our case, however, attention has been given recently in increasing the supply of women teachers in rural schools (MOE,2000).

In terms of educational level of respondents, about 90 per cent of females and 86 per cent of males were reported to have TTI certificate while about 10 per cent of females and 14 per cent of males have diploma. The slight difference in qualification may indicate that women teachers do not give emphasis to further education due to family responsibility that could unable them to compete equally with men teachers.

With respect to their position in the school, about 34 per cent of females and about 61 per cent of males were reported to be school administrators (directors, vice-directors, unit leaders and department heads). This disparity in the position of school leadership may possibly be explained by the under representation of women teachers regarding the management of rural schools due to various obstacles encountered them. As depicted in Table 6, about 92 per cent of females and 40 per cent of males were reported to have 1 and above children. This may indicate that while men teachers are likely not to have children, women teachers tends to have children due to forced marriage and pregnancy.

Regarding level of career structure, about 71 per cent of females and 31 per cent of males were reported to be in the range between beginning teacher to teachers whereas about 29 per cent and 69 per cent, respectively, were reported to be in the range between higher teachers to deputy head teacher. These differences in the level of career structure of both sexes may probably be explained by that lack of service years and burden of family responsibility. This would contribute to increase the number of women more than men teachers at first three of career structure. This was explained by Gaynor(1997) and ILO(1991) that lack of seniority and burden of family responsibility are barriers to career development of women teachers.

## **4.2 DATA ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY**

### **4.2.1 Problems Facing Rural Primary school Women Teachers**

In this part, respondents' perception of the impediments to the deployment, career development and promotion of rural primary school women teachers and possible interventions were analyzed.

Table 7. Barriers Related to Safety and Living Conditions

<i>Item No</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Respondents</i>				<i>T -test</i>	
		<i>Female (N=198)</i>		<i>Male (N=204)</i>		<i>T-value</i>	<i>P-value</i>
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>S.D</i>		
1.	Having the acceptance of working away from family (like husband, parents)	2.12	1.31	2.26	1.22	1.14	.256
2.	The presence of incentive far in rural areas	2.65	1.58	2.83	1.38	1.23	.221
3.	The provision of the following facilities						
3.1	Accommodation	2.19	1.39	2.63	1.36	3.21*	.001
3.2	Health facilities	1.86	1.14	2.01	1.19	1.26	.209
3.3	Water	2.09	1.37	2.38	1.41	2.07*	.039
3.4	Working condition	2.03	1.23	2.50	1.27	3.76*	.000
3.5	Transport	1.80	1.14	1.98	1.21	1.51	.131

\*Significant at an alpha level < 0.05

As it can be seen from Table 7, out of the seven items assumed to be barriers to rural primary school women teachers' living conditions, the t-values show that the mean scores of the study groups are not statistically significant at an alpha level greater than 0.05 for item number 1, 2, 3.2 and 3.5. The t-values of item number 3.1, 3.3 and 3.4, however, show that they are statistically significant.

As shown in Table7, the mean values of females (mean=2.12) and males (mean = 2.26) indicate there is no significant mean difference for item number 1. Moreover, since

mean results of both respondents are below the average score, it is fair to say that working away from family is not accepted. Item number 2 also indicates, there is no significance mean difference between females (mean = 2.65) and males (mean = 2.83) and the mean scores of the two groups are below average. Hence, the mean results of the two groups show that there is the lack of incentive in spite of the assignment of women teachers far in rural schools.

As it can be seen from Table 7, item number 3 includes five sub-items. In the case of item number 3.1, there is significance mean difference between mean scores of females (mean = 2.19) and males (mean = 2.63) although it is indicated that the mean result of both groups are much below the average score. Thus, it is possible to say that the provision of accommodation for female teachers far in rural primary schools is very low. Item number 3.2 show that there is no a significance mean difference between females (mean = 1.86) and males (mean = 2.01) in which the mean results of both groups is very much below the average score. This implies that the provision of health facilities for rural primary school women teachers is found at severe condition.

As the mean results of item number 3.3 in Table 7 shows, there is a significant mean difference between the two groups. The mean scores of females (mean = 2.09) and males (mean = 2.38), however, indicate that the scores are below the average. Thus, this may imply that the provision of water facilities is very low. It is also indicated that there is significant mean difference between females (mean = 2.03) and males (mean = 2.50) regarding item number 3.4. But the mean scores of the two groups is much below the average score. Thus, it is possible to say that there is no favourable working condition for women teachers in rural areas. Item number 3.5, on the other hand, indicates that there is no significant mean

difference between females (mean = 1.80) and males (mean = 1.98) in which the two groups poorly rated the availability of the transport. Therefore, as it can be seen from Table7, lack of transport facilities is one of the major impediments to the deployment of women teachers in the rural areas of Oromia. In line with problems related to safety and living conditions of women teachers, discussion was made with relevant authorities of education. They responded that absence of incentives and living facilities, like accommodation and transport, are the major barriers to the utilization of women teachers in rural areas.

In general, as Table7 shows, women teachers are encountered with problems related to safety and living conditions. Accordingly, the majority of the two groups responded that women teachers are not accepted by their family in working away from them. This finding seems to be consistent with the findings of Sales (1999); that is traveling without a male family members are liable to suspicion of moral as well as literal wandering. It is also shown that there is low incentive in far rural schools and shortage of living facilities, such as accommodation, health facilities, water, working condition and transport. In the same vein, Siebold (1996) and Gaynor (1997) indicated that there is lack of adequate accommodation, lack of water and sanitation facilities and poor condition of residence and the difficulty of travel.

Table 8 below shows similarities between the mean scores of the study groups, which is not significant at an alpha level ( $P < 0.05$ ) for items number 1, 2, and 4. Items number 3, 5, and 6 however show significant differences between the two groups in rating the items.

As it can be seen from Table 8, the presence of the childcare center (item number2) is rated very low for both females (mean = 1.53) and males (mean = 1.64) and the t-value

shows no significant differences in the means of the two groups. This shows that the childcare center is not present in the rural areas. Similarly, the responsibility that women

Table 8: Multiple Demands on Women Teachers

Item No	Item	Respondents				T-test	
		Female (N=198)		Male (N=204)		T-value	P-value
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1	The presence of the child care	1.53	0.98	1.64	1.03	1.17	.244
2	Having the responsibility for taking care of children in comparing to husbands	4.15	1.31	4.02	1.19	1.02	.310
3	Getting the support in preparing family meal	3.94	1.31	3.07	1.25	6.82*	.000
4	Availability of adequate time in preparing for school work	2.90	1.58	3.01	1.32	0.73	.468
5	The non-burden of family responsibility on school work	2.51	1.46	2.84	1.39	2.35*	.020
6	The adequacy of the maternity leave	3.50	1.52	4.02	1.26	3.74*	.000

\*Significant at an alpha level < 0.05

teachers have for taking care of children in comparing to husbands (item number2), females (mean = 4.15) and males (mean = 4.02) rated above average score, which does not show significant differences. Therefore, as it can be seen from Table 8, women teachers in rural

areas are more responsible for taking care of children than husbands. This implies that taking care of children is one of the major impediments of women teachers' entitlements.

Item number 3, however, was rated that there is significant mean difference between mean scores of females (mean = 3.94) and males (mean = 3.07) and the scores of the two groups are above average. This shows that women teachers have support in preparing family meal. Thus, this may not be considered as one of the obstacles related to multiple demands on women teachers in rural areas.

The t-value for item number 4 of Table 8 shows the significant mean similarity between the two groups: females (mean = 2.90) and males (mean = 3.01). The mean score of females is slightly below average and the mean score of male is slightly above average. Thus, it is fair to say that rural primary school women teachers suffer from shortage of time in preparing for schoolwork. On the other hand, the results of the t-value for item number 5, shows significant mean difference between values of females (mean = 2.51) and males (mean = 2.84) that were rated below average. This shows that there is the burden of family responsibility on schoolwork.

In the case of item number 6, significant difference is shown between females (mean = 3.50) and males (mean = 4.02), which were rated highly above average. Thus, since the majority of respondents rated above average, it is implied that the maternity leave given for rural primary school women teachers is adequate.

To sum up, as the data from Table 8 indicated, the shortage of the childcare center was found to be major impediments to the deployment of women teachers in rural schools. This finding is consistent with Gaynor (1997) in which she wrote that family support system are not available to a large number of women teachers in developing countries. Moreover, the

responsibility of taking care of children regards more women teachers than men teachers. Consequently, Table 8 shows that women teachers in rural areas have lack of adequate time in preparing for schoolwork and are burdened due to taking care of children. On the other hand, it was indicated that female teachers have the support in preparing family meal and adequate maternity leave. It was also responded by the interviewees that, most of the time, women teachers in rural schools, shoulder school as well as family responsibilities that would share their time of preparing for schoolwork.

Table 9: Devaluation of the Teaching Profession

Item No.	Item	Respondents				T-test	
		Female (N=198)		Male (N=204)		T-value	P-value
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1	The encouragement obtained from salary	2.39	1.09	2.50	1.18	0.93	.351
2	The need to leave the job	3.47	1.64	3.50	1.45	0.20	.845
3	The satisfaction obtained from teaching profession	3.39	1.41	2.79	1.14	4.63*	.000
4	Women absenteeism in comparing to men teachers	3.18	1.39	3.50	1.07	2.61*	.009
5	Women absenteeism from school due to sickness	2.07	1.24	3.40	1.10	11.37*	.000

\*Significant at alpha-level < 0.05

As it can be seen from Table 9, the scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level ( $p < 0.05$ ) for three items (item number 3, 4, and 5). Item number 1 and 2, on the other hand, shows no significant mean differences. Item number 1 in Table 9 (the encouragement obtained from salary) was rated similarly by females (mean = 2.39) and

males (mean = 2.50). Moreover, since the mean scores of this item show below average for the two groups, it is the major impediment to deployment of women teachers in rural areas.

As the item number 2 in Table 9 indicates, the t-value shows that there is significant difference between females (mean = 3.47) and males (mean = 3.50) and the mean values of the two groups are above average. It is implied that the need to leave the job by rural primary school women teachers is high. On the other hand, regarding item number 3, there is significant difference between females (mean = 3.39) and males (mean = 2.79) in which females rated above average while men rated below average. This is consistent with the Davies and Gunawardena cited in Gaynor (1997:37) women tend to get satisfaction from classroom activities and being in contact with pupils rather than management duties. This implies that women teachers might be generally satisfied by teaching profession although they need other alternatives.

As it can be seen from Table 9, there is the significant difference for item number 4 between females (mean = 3.18) and males (mean = 3.50). However, the average scores of the two groups were rated above average. Thus, women absenteeism in comparing to men teachers is high. According to item number 5 in Table 9 (the reason for women absenteeism) is significantly different between females (mean = 2.07) and males (mean = 3.40). Moreover, the mean value of the females rated below average whereas that of males rated above average. Although it is revealed in item number 4 that women teachers' absenteeism is high comparing to men teachers, it would be different reasons for their absenteeism rather than sickness. Thus, Table 9 indicates that low encouragement of salary, low need for the profession, and more women absenteeism than men teachers contribute to the low status of the teaching profession.

Table 10: Sexual Harassment

Item No.	Item	Respondents				T-test	
		Female (N=198)		Male (N=204)		T-value	P-value
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1	The occurrence of sexual harassment (abduction and rapping) in rural primary schools	3.42	1.62	3.00	1.48	2.77*	.006
2	The fear to report the sexual harassment faced on women teachers to the concerning authority	3.66	1.47	3.64	1.23	0.14	.886
3	The fear to teach far in rural schools due to rapping and abduction	3.96	1.33	3.38	1.27	4.46*	.000
4	The frequency of the response given to the sexual harassment by the concerning authority	2.55	1.41	3.24	1.32	5.08*	.000
5	The warning /punishment given by the concerning authority for the reported sexual harassment	3.52	1.43	2.78	1.24	5.58*	.000
6	The confidence women teachers have in teaching far rural primary schools	2.83	1.46	2.82	1.10	0.04*	.971

\*Significant at an alpha level < 0.05

Table 10 shows significant mean differences for item number 1, 3, 4, and 5. Item number 2 and 6 shows no significant mean differences.

As can be indicated in item number 1 of Table 10, the t-value shows that there is the significant mean difference between females (mean = 3.42) and males (mean = 3.00). The mean scores of the two groups, however, were rated above average for females and average for males. Hence, it is fair to say that the occurrence of sexual harassment (abduction and rapping) on rural primary school women teachers is high. Item number 2, however, shows no significance difference between females (mean = 3.66) and males (mean = 3.64) and the mean scores of the two groups also rated are above average. This implies that rural primary school women teachers fear to report the sexual harassment faced on them to the concerning authority.

In case of item number 3, there is significant mean difference between females (mean=3.96) and males (mean = 3.38) although both groups scored above average. This may imply that there is fear to teach far in rural school due to rapping and abduction. Regarding item number 4 of Table 10, there is significant mean difference between females (mean = 2.55) and males (mean = 3.24) and the item rated by females is below average and that of males is above average. In case of item number 5 also there is the significant difference between females (mean = 3.52) and males (mean = 2.78) where females rate it is above average and that of males is below average.

With respect to item number 4 and 5, discussion was carried out with the interviewees. Women's Affairs from both Zonal Education Departments and Oromia Education Bureau agreed that frequent responses are not given by the concerning authority. They responded that even warning/punishment is the consequence for some victims if they

venture on to report the incidence. Some of the Woreda Education Officers and Primary School Experts in Zonal Education Departments also supported this idea. Thus, it is fair to infer from the females and interviewees' opinions that emphasis is not given to the sexual harassment and if they do so, it is punishment/ warning. The t-value of item number 6 shows no significant mean difference between females (mean = 2.83) and males (mean = 2.82). Moreover, the mean values of the two groups are below average. This implies that the confidence women teachers have in teaching far rural primary school is low probably due to abduction and rapping.

Therefore, as Table 10 and data obtained through interview show, sexual harassment (abduction and rapping) occurs on rural areas of women teachers. They fear to report this incidence to the concerning authority probably due to abduction and rapping (sexual harassment) is considered as one of the aspects of culture in rural areas which is consistent with Almaz and Barbara (1990), that is, women teachers' fate in rural schools is to be forced to marry and pregnancy is frequent. The concerning authorities are not also cooperative in avoiding the incidence. They rather attempt to reconcile the victims with the harasser. In addition to this, women teachers have low confidence in teaching far rural primary schools due to rapping and abduction.

As it can be seen from Table 11 below, all four items assumed to be the barriers to career development and promotion of women teachers in rural areas are significantly different at alpha level ( $<0.05$ ).

As it is seen in Table 11, the t-value of item number 1 shows there is a significant mean difference between females (mean = 2.59) and males (mean = 3.28). Furthermore, female teachers rated the item below average and male teachers rated it above average.

Table 11: Social and Cultural Barriers

Item No	Item	Respondents				T- test	
		Female (N=198)		Male (N=204)		T- value	P- value
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1	Having acceptance equally with men teachers in school	2.59	1.39	3.28	1.15	5.46*	.000
2	Being effective and competent equally with men teachers	4.18	1.31	3.81	1.10	3.06*	.002
3	The preference of promotion for men teachers in the school	3.28	1.55	4.07	1.13	5.88*	.000
4	Getting the support from the community	1.98	1.11	2.43	1.05	4.14*	.000

\*Significant at an alpha level <0.05.

In this case, since the questionnaire is self-report, females could explain themselves more than males. Almaz and Barbara (1990) also reported in their research the unacceptability of women equally with men teachers in school. Similarly, as to item number 2, there is significant difference between females (mean = 4.18) and males (mean = 3.81). Both groups, however, rated the item above average score. Therefore, women teachers may be effective and competent equally with men teachers.

According to item number 3 of Table 11, there is the significant difference between females (mean = 3.28) and males (mean = 4.07). Yet, the mean values of the two groups are

above average. This implies that promotion is preferred more for men teachers than women teachers in the schools. Beside this, item number 4 shows that there is significant difference between females (mean = 1.98) and males (mean = 2.43) that are highly below average. This tells us that the community in rural schools may not give adequate support for women teachers.

In short, Table 11 indicates that there is equal, effectiveness and competency of women teachers in the school although the support they get from the community and the promotion and acceptance they get in the school is low. In connection with this, according to the interviewees, some of the women teachers themselves are the actors in contributing to social and cultural barriers. For instance, many of them responded that many women teachers prefer to teach rather than participating in school management.

Table 12: Administrative Regulations and Practices

Item No	Item	Respondents				T-test	
		Female (N=198)		Male (N=204)		T-value	P-value
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1.	The favor given for the promotion of women teachers	2.42	1.43	3.65	1.17	9.37*	.000
2.	The favor given for the transfer of women teachers to towns	1.46	0.84	2.89	1.45	12.24*	.000
3.	The support given by the concerning authority	1.77	0.96	2.43	1.16	6.21*	.000
4.	The opportunity given on-job training	2.14	1.38	2.95	1.18	6.30*	.000

\*Significant at an alpha level < 0.05

As it can be seen from Table 12, all item numbers is significantly different at alpha level ( $0 < 0.05$ ).

The mean result of item number 1 indicates the significant mean difference between females (mean = 2.42) and males (mean = 3.65). It is also indicated that female rated below average whereas male rated above. Although in this item, majority of males responded that females are favored for promotion, according to females' response and interviewees, however, their promotion is not favored. Item number 2 also indicates that there is significant difference between females (mean = 1.46) and males (mean = 2.89). Yet, the mean result of the two groups is below average. This may tell us that female teachers are not supported in transferring to towns, i.e., there is no special case for women teachers apart from men teachers.

In the case of item number 3, there is significant mean difference of the two groups that have the mean result of females (mean = 1.77) and males (mean = 2.43). Since the mean scores of the two groups are also below average, it is probably implied that the concerning authority pay less attention to rural primary school women teachers. The opportunity given on-job training (item number 4) also shows the significant mean difference between females (mean = 2.14) and males (mean = 2.95). The item rated is, however, below average for the two groups. This shows that the opportunity given on-job training is low; no attention is paid for the training of women teachers.

To sum up, Table 12 indicates that all items, probably contribute to the barriers to promotion of women teachers regarding administrative barriers. Accordingly, the transfer of women teachers to towns and favor for their promotion is not given special attention. In addition, the support given by the concerning authority and the opportunity given on-job training for women teachers in rural schools is very low.

Table 13: Family Responsibility

Item No	Item	Respondents				T-test	
		Female (N=198)		Male (N=204)		T-value	P-value
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1.	Having opportunity in pursuing the career	2.47	1.15	2.90	1.03	4.01*	.000
2.	Having alternatives for additional income (like farming and trading)	1.30	0.75	1.91	1.15	6.39*	.000
3.	The presence of burden by family responsibility	4.52	0.97	4.18	1.07	3.29*	.001
4.	The need to depend on spouse's income	3.32	1.40	3.56	1.15	1.88	.061
5.	The non-hindrance of women teachers' promotion by family responsibility	2.59	1.44	2.88	1.25	2.20*	.028

\*Significant at an alpha level  $< 0.05$

As it can be seen from Table 13, out of the five items assumed to be barriers of rural primary school women teachers related to family responsibility, item number 1,2,3 and 5 are significantly different at an alpha level ( $< 0.05$ ). Item number 4, however, is not significantly different.

Item number 1 indicates significant difference between the mean result of females (mean = 2.47) and males (mean = 2.90). The mean values of the two groups, however, are rated below average. This implies that the opportunity the women teachers have in pursuing their career is low. In the case of item number 2, t-value shows that there is a significant

mean difference between the mean result of females (mean = 1.30) and males (mean = 1.91). These scores are much below average. This shows that women teachers, particularly in rural areas have very low alternatives for additional income.

As shown in Table13, the mean result of item number 3 shows significant differences between females (mean = 4.52) and males (mean = 4.18). However, the presence of burden by family responsibility (item number 3) is rated above average by the two groups. This would mean women teachers in rural areas are burdened by family responsibility.

Item number 4 indicates that there is no significant difference between females (mean = 3.32) and males (mean = 3.56) and the two groups rated the item above average. Thus, the need to depend on spouse's income is one of the barriers related to family responsibility. Item number 5, however, indicates the significant difference between females (mean = 2.59) and males (mean = 2.88). Since the mean results of the two groups of the item are below average, women teachers' promotion may be hindered by family responsibility.

In summary, the five items probably be related to the barriers to career development and promotion of women teachers regarding family responsibility. Consequently, the low availability of alternatives for additional income of rural primary school women teachers may make them to depend on spouse's income because it is believed that most of the time males have alternatives for additional income. This is because women teachers are burdened by family responsibility that may result in low opportunity of pursuing their career and their hindrance from promotion.

The interview made with education authorities also supported the idea of family responsibility is the major barrier to the career development and promotion of women teachers. The Women's Affairs further made explicit that since the teachers' career structure

does not regard the burden women teachers have, many of them are usually the least in performance efficiency.

Table 14: A2x2 Contingency Table Showing Frequency of Responses of Female and Male Teachers by Role Type and Corresponding Chi-square Values

Item No	Role Type	Role Assignment	Respondents' Frequency			Chi-square
			Female	Male	Total	
1.	Teaching 5-8 <sup>th</sup> Grade	Masculine	170	188	358	.78
		Feminine	11	8	19	
2.	Teaching easy subjects	Masculine	22	14	36	3.29
		Feminine	152	184	336	
3.	Teaching difficult subjects	Masculine	157	182	339	6.97*
		Feminine	32	16	48	
4.	Teaching 1-4 <sup>th</sup> grade	Masculine	15	20	35	.44
		Feminine	172	181	353	
5.	Managing teachers	Masculine	170	192	362	12.44*
		Feminine	28	8	36	
6.	Participating in disciplinary committee	Masculine	80	118	198	8.94*
		Feminine	103	82	185	
7.	Hospitality	Masculine	155	192	347	27.96*
		Feminine	8	43	51	
8.	Working in treasury positions	Masculine	96	90	186	.17
		Feminine	108	106	214	
9.	Home/ school links	Masculine	168	171	339	.23
		Feminine	22	26	48	
10.	Time tabling	Masculine	183	196	379	3.13
		Feminine	2	8	10	
11.	Participating in curriculum and exam	Masculine	140	186	326	21.20*
		Feminine	47	16	63	
12.	Decorating the hall, classroom, etc.,	Masculine	106	149	255	15.07*
		Feminine	84	51	135	
13.	Organizing special events	Masculine	125	164	289	13.86*
		Feminine	58	30	88	
14.	Chairing of meetings	Masculine	196	198	394	3.92*
		Feminine	0	4	4	

**N.B.** 1. Teaching ‘difficult’ subjects refer to teaching mathematics and physical sciences whereas teaching ‘easy’ subjects refer teaching non-mathematics and physical sciences.

2. \*Statistically significant at 0.05 levels.

The result of the computation of Chi-square in Table 14 indicates that, for the most part, both female and male teachers are consistent with traditional teachers' roles by gender.

Consequently, teaching 5-8<sup>th</sup> grade, home with school links and timetabling are likely to be accepted without controversy that they are masculine roles.

Similarly, teaching difficult subjects ( $X^2 = 6.97$ ), managing teachers ( $X^2 = 12.44$ ), participating in curriculum and examination ( $X^2 = 21.20$ ), organizing special events ( $X^2 = 13.86$ ) and chairing of meetings ( $X^2 = 3.92$ ) have been assigned as a masculine job by both groups of teachers although they show a significant variation ( $P < 0.05$ ) between female and male teachers with high scores.

The association of these jobs with masculine role, the agreement reached between female and male teachers, may indicate that these jobs are traditionally assigned to men teachers. Furthermore, these masculine agreements by both groups of academic issues (teaching 5-8<sup>th</sup> grade, teaching difficulty subjects and curriculum and examination), in one hand, and school management issues (home/school links, time tabling, managing teachers, organizing special events and chairing of meetings), on the other hand, show the masculine nature of schooling and schools. Teaching 5-8<sup>th</sup> grade and difficulty subjects traditionally preferred for men teachers. As was also interviewed with concerning authorities, most of the time, female teachers want to refrain themselves from participating in school management and teaching 'difficult' subjects and teaching upper primary cycle so as to get adequate time for looking after their children.

These findings seem to be consistent with masculine role reported by Armstrong and Armstrong cited in Jane (1987), that is women are still likely to be over represented in low paid, low prestige sub-specialties, low productivity, and low prospects for advancement. Thus, this male ethos and behavior does not make the profession welcoming to women teachers in far rural primary schools. On the other hand, hospitality ( $X^2 = 27.97$ ) and

decorating the hall, classroom, etc, ( $X^2=15.07$ ) also revealed that they are masculine roles with significance variation ( $P<0.05$ ) between females and males with high scores. This finding is inconsistent with Almaz and Barbara (1990) that indicated women teachers are assigned to non-academic subjects, such as immunization day, parents' day, decorating the hall.

Teaching easy subjects ( $X^2 = 3.29$ ), teaching 1-4<sup>th</sup> grade ( $X^2 = .44$ ) and working in treasury positions ( $X^2 = .17$ ) do not show a significant variation ( $P<0.05$ ) between female and male teachers. Feminine role of teaching easy subjects (non-physical science subjects) coincide with Gaynor (1997) that she indicated women teachers are regularly assigned to supportive subjects. Furthermore, teaching 1-4<sup>th</sup> grade agreed with the data of MOE (2000) indicated that about 91 per cent of women and about 70 per cent of men teachers of TTI (the same qualification) were teaching in first cycle of primary schools in Ethiopia. This is because, according to the interviewees, besides the interests of some women teachers, there is sometimes a push from school administrators that they should be assigned to first cycle of primary schools so as to treat the young children motherly.

As indicated in Table 14, the two groups of respondents (males and females), however, have showed a significant difference regarding the assignment of the role of participating in disciplinary committee ( $X^2 = 8.94$ ,  $P<0.05$ ). Females considered participating in disciplinary committee a feminine job, males associated them with masculine gender role. According to the prevailing stereotype, which tends to emphasize men's superiority to women participating in disciplinary committee (Almaz and Barbara, 1990 and Mc Nergeny and Herbert, 1995), this study does not provide any conclusive evidence for or against the existing stereotype.

In general, while assigning teaching upper cycle of primary schools, home with school links and time tabling are uniformly accepted as masculine role by male and female teachers, teaching 'difficult' subjects, managing teachers, participating in curriculum and examination, organizing special events, chairing of meetings, hospitality and decorating the hall, classrooms, etc, are accepted as masculine role with significant variation ( $P < 0.05$ ) between male and female teachers. Teaching 'easy' subjects, teaching lower cycle of primary schools, working in treasury positions, however, are uniformly accepted as feminine roles.

## 4.2.2 Possible Interventions for problems Facing Rural Primary School Women

### Teachers

Table15: Respondents Views Concerning Possible Interventions for Problems Facing Rural Primary School Women Teachers.

<i>Item No.</i>	<i>Assumed Interventions</i>	<i>Female</i>		<i>Male</i>	
		<i>Average Ranking</i>	<i>Rank Order</i>	<i>Average Ranking</i>	<i>Rank Order</i>
1	Upgrading and improving teaching profession in general	6.53	9	6.10	8
2	Promoting the job sharing of husband and wife and making flexible working hours.	5.97	8	4.93	4
3	Giving incentives and providing adequate living facilities for women teachers in rural schools.	4.73	3	4.45	2
4	Giving the opportunity of education and training in the form of scholarships, fellow-ships and prizes	3.69	2	4.53	3
5	Assigning both spouses of working in different departments in the same place (if possible)	2.66	1	3.97	1
6	Giving them immediate transfer to towns	5.96	7	6.92	10
7	Considering the time given to maternity leave and rearing children in career structure of women teachers.	5.83	5	5.56	6
8	Introducing quotas for promotion of women teachers	6.68	10	6.86	9
9	Reviewing career structure to ensure that it describes the patterns of women lives	5.89	6	6.08	7
10	Dealing seriously and swiftly with all sexual harassment.	4.78	4	5.10	5

The average ranking for female and male teachers was computed and compared using the Spearman correlation and the result appears in the following Table 16.

Table 16: Coefficient of Correlation Between Women and Men Teachers' Ranking of the Possible Interventions for Problems Facing Rural Primary School Women Teachers.

(N = 10)

	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>
<b>Female</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>0.97*</b>
<b>Male</b>	<b>0.97*</b>	<b>1.00</b>

\* P<0.05

In this study, possible intervention items with values of higher average ratings in Table15 (2.66 and 3.97 for female and male teachers, respectively), for example, were taken for the best possible intervention as opposed to items with values of lower average ratings, for instance, 6.68 for females and 6.92 for males, which were taken as the least preferred interventions (higher numbers in the average rankings represent lower mean values).

As can be seen in Table 16, the coefficient of correlation of females and males' perception in prioritizing the possible interventions was 0.97. The statistic indicated a strong positive relationship between the two sex study groups.

One possible explanation for this similar point of view between the two groups is that they have common understanding in majority of the problems facing rural primary school

women teachers in rural areas. Consequently, the two groups of respondents have highly close perception in demonstrated rank ordering of the possible interventions for the problems.

In general, the fact that studied groups have close relationships in school as well as out of school daily activities and some of them are spouses that would influence them to have sympathy with views of each other. Thus, these could contribute to the perception of similar views of the two groups.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to examine the problems facing rural primary school women teachers. In order to conduct the study, basic questions related to the impediments to the deployment and career development and promotion of rural primary school women teachers and possible interventions to these problems were raised.

The study was conducted in twenty-four government primary schools of both lower and upper cycles. The subjects of the study were 229 women teachers, 240 men teachers, 6 Woreda Education Officers, 3 Primary School Experts of Zonal Education Departments and 3 Women's Affairs (2 from Zonal Education Departments and 1 from Oromia Education Bureau). Information was obtained from the women and men teachers through questionnaire. Unstructured interview was also employed to obtain information so as to enrich the data obtained from teachers. Thus, the study was planned to be conducted on 469 teachers and 12 education officers and Women's Affairs, altogether on 481 education personnel.

With the objective of making the data-gathering instrument reliable, a pilot test of the drafted questionnaire was administered to 16 women and 19 men teachers in three primary schools and returned. After having made some modifications and incorporated some feedback points into the draft questionnaire, the final questionnaire format was prepared and distributed to the targeted study groups from which a usable return of men teachers was made ready for processing the data.

The data obtained were analyzed using various statistical tools such as percentages, t-test, chi-square test, Spearman Brown's rank correlation and coefficient of correlation. The analysis made warrant the following major findings.

## **5.1. Summary**

### **5.1.1. Demographic Characteristics and Bio-Data of the Respondents**

- About 85 per cent of women and 50 per cent of men teachers were reported to be in the same age bracket of 21 to 35 years.
- About 92 per cent of women and 84 per cent of men teachers are married.
- While about 80 per cent of women teachers comprised 1 to 15 years of service, only 40 per cent of men teachers were reported to have similar service.
- About 90 per cent of women and 86 per cent of men teachers were reported to have TTI certificate.
- About 34 per cent of women and 61 per cent of men teachers were found to be school administrators.
- About 92 per cent of women and 40 per cent of men teachers have number of children 1 and above.
- About 71 per cent of women and 31 per cent of men teachers were reported to reach at the first three career structure while about 29 per cent of women and 69 per cent of men teachers are in the second three cycles of career structure.

### **5.1.2. Results of the Study**

1. The followings were identified to be the major impediments to the deployment of women teachers in rural primary schools.

#### **1.1. Barriers related to safety and living condition:**

- Lack of acceptance working away from family.

- Lack of incentive.
- Lack of provision of living facilities.

1.2. Barriers related to multiple demand on women:

- Lack of childcare center.
- Taking care of children.
- Shortage of time in preparing for schoolwork.
- Burden of family responsibility on schoolwork.

1.3. Barriers related to assignment of roles by gender:

- Male dominated roles, such as teaching upper cycle of primary schools, home with school links, timetabling, teaching 'difficult' subjects, managing teachers, participating in curriculum and examination, organizing special events, chairing of meetings, hospitality and decorating the hall, classroom, etc.
- Female dominated roles, such as teaching 'easy' subjects, teaching lower cycle of primary schools and working in treasury positions.

1.4. Barriers related to devaluation of teaching profession:

- Low encouragement obtained from salary.
- Low need for teaching profession.
- High women absenteeism from the school.

1.5. Barriers related to sexual harassment:

- The occurrence of sexual harassment.
- The fear to report the sexual harassment due to its adverse consequence.
- The fear to teach far in rural schools due to rapping and abduction.

- Low confidence teaching in far rural schools.
2. The followings were identified to be the major impediments to the career development and promotion of women teachers in rural primary schools.
- 2.1. Social and cultural barriers:
- Unequal acceptance with men teachers.
  - The preference of promotion for men teachers in the school.
  - Lack of support given by the community.
- 2.2. Barriers related to administrative practices and regulations:
- Lack of emphasis for the promotion of women teachers.
  - Lack of special attention in their transference to towns.
  - Lack of support given by the concerning authority.
  - Low opportunity given on-job training.
- 2.3. Barriers related to family responsibility:
- Low opportunity in pursuing their career.
  - Lack of alternatives for additional income.
  - The burden of family responsibility.
  - Dependency on spouse's income.
3. The study also had to suggest possible interventions for dealing with problems facing rural primary school women teachers. In their suggestions, the respondents gave priority to those types of interventions that are not unusual to the rules and regulations of the Ministry of Education. Both groups suggested assigning both spouses of working in different departments in the same place as number one intervention. Number two and three were interchangeably proposed by both groups. Thus, giving

opportunity for education and training and giving incentives and providing adequate living facilities in rural schools are the next suggestions. Both women and men teachers almost gave the least consideration for introducing quotas for promotion of women teachers.

## **5.2. Conclusions**

Depending on the major findings of the study, the following main conclusions were drawn.

As the result of this study disclosed, various factors are related to the problems facing women teachers in rural schools. Consequently, safety and living condition, multiple demands on women, masculine nature of schooling and schools, devaluation of the teaching profession and sexual harassment are the major impediments to the deployment of women teachers in rural schools of Oromia.

Furthermore, besides the impediments to the deployment of women teachers, there are also other barriers, which are related to the career development and promotion of women teachers. Thus, as the finding shows, the major barriers are administrative barriers, social and cultural barriers and family responsibilities.

Consequently, assigning both spouses of working in different departments in the same place, giving opportunity and training, giving incentives and providing adequate living facilities, dealing with sexual harassment swiftly and seriously, and considering the time given to maternity leave and rearing children in career structure of women teachers first, second, third, fourth and fifth, respectively, are to be given priorities to intervene problems facing rural primary school women teachers.

Despite the fact that men teachers are not directly concerned with the items they responded, which directly concerns women teachers, the findings of the study show much similarity of perception with regard to problems facing rural primary school women teachers.

### **5.3. Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn, the following measures are suggested to be taken by Woreda Education Officers, Zonal Education Departments, Oromia Education Bureau, Women Affairs (at different levels) and other relevant organizations.

1. As the finding of this study revealed, lack of acceptance working away from family was found to be the major obstacle to assign women teachers in rural schools. Thus, the Oromia Education Bureau should revise the rules and regulations of assigning both spouses of working in different places and offices in the same place for the married women teachers. Others, as much as possible, ought to be assigned nearer to their home village in order to minimize the suspicion of their parents.
2. One of the findings of this study is the low opportunity on-job training of women teachers. It is also evident that upgrading teachers on their job is one of the objectives of the New Education and Training Policy. Thus, Oromia Education Bureau ought to give priority for education and training of rural primary school women teachers so as to encourage them. Beside this, short training (refreshing courses), at woreda and school levels, should be frequent activities.
3. In the remote areas, shortage of accommodation and difficulty of traveling are the major obstacles for effective utilization of women teachers. Thus,

- 3.1. Allowing them hardship allowances would encourage them to stay in the area despite of the shortage of living facilities. This would be more encouraging if the allowance is given based on the principle, 'the far the assignment away from towns, the more the allowance is given.'
- 3.2. Providing adequate living facilities, particularly accommodation prior to the assignment of women teachers should be one of the priorities of Woreda Education Officers, because it is the first demand of women teachers in the rural areas.
4. One of the major findings of this study was found to be the low confidence of women teachers in teaching far rural schools due to fear of rapping and abduction. It was reported that, for instance, forced marriage and pregnancy is the fate of many of rural primary school women teachers. This would adversely affect the enrolment of girls in the community when the community infers this incidence to the isolated girls. Thus,
  - 4.1. The concerning bodies should deal seriously and swiftly with all kinds of sexual harassment by taking immediate action when it is occurred.
  - 4.2. Women teachers should be free to report the incidence to the concerning authorities.
  - 4.3. Frequent workshops, at woreda and school level, should be given to the community, teachers and others about the adverse effect of abduction and rapping.
  - 4.4. Women teachers in rural areas should be frequently visited (four times a year) and made to discuss about their problems by concerning bodies, like Woreda Women's Affairs.
5. One of the major findings of barriers to the career development and promotion of women teachers in rural schools is that they are burdened by family responsibility. They may not get adequate time to prepare them-selves for schoolwork. In evaluating the performance

of teachers, there is no special attention given to women teachers. Due to this, they may hardly move from one career to the other career structure. Hence, it is fair to suggest that Oromia Education Bureau should revise the career structure, in collaboration with Ministry of Education, so as to consider the women teachers when evaluating them. This would ensure that it describes the patterns of women teachers.

6. Office of Woreda Women's Affairs should be open in Woreda Education Office that follows every problem facing women teachers, particularly those of rural schools.
7. Since, this study is a beginning but not an end in the areas of rural primary school women teachers, further study should be carried out to identify problems facing rural primary school women teachers.

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# APPENDICES

**APPENDIX - I**  
**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**SCHOOL OF GRAGUATE STUDIES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION**

**QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE FILLED BY WOMEN AND MEN TEACHERS ON PROBLEMS FACING  
RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOL WOMEN TEACHERS**

**PART I: General Remark**

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to identify problems facing rural primary school women teachers. The information obtained will also help to recommend plausible intervention measures to resolve problems related with rural primary school women teachers.

So, to identify problems facing rural primary school women teachers your frank and sincere response is highly appreciated, for it will contribute to the validity of the data obtained. The data to be obtained will be used for further research activity. There is no right or wrong answer and what it is required is to show the level of your personal opinion to each item.

Your responses will be kept confidential and no will know how you will answer the question. Writing your name and school is not also needed.

Thank you for your cooperation in advance.

**PART II: Characteristics of Responses**

Please give the exact figure or indicate your response by putting "X" in the space provided regarding your profile.

1. Age:        a) 21-25 \_\_\_\_        c) 31-35 \_\_\_\_        e) 41- 45 \_\_\_\_        g) 51 – 50 \_\_\_\_  
                  b) 26 – 30 \_\_\_\_ d) 36 – 40 \_\_\_\_ f) 46 – 50 \_\_\_\_
2. Marital status:    a) Married \_\_\_\_        b) Unmarried \_\_\_\_
3. Years of experience:  
    a) 1-5 \_\_\_\_        c) 11-15 \_\_\_\_        e) 21-25 \_\_\_\_  
    b) 6-10 \_\_\_\_        d) 16 –20 \_\_\_\_        f) 26 and above

4. Educational Level:  
 a) TTI certificate \_\_\_ b) Diploma \_\_ c) Specify if others. \_\_\_\_
5. Your position in your school:  
 a) Director \_\_\_ c) Unit leader\_\_ e) Specify if others \_\_\_  
 b) Vice – director \_\_ d) Department head \_\_\_\_\_
6. Number of your children: a) None \_\_\_ b) 1-4 \_\_\_ c) More than 4 \_\_\_
7. Your level in teachers' career structure  
 a) Beginning teacher \_\_\_\_\_ d) Higher teacher\_\_\_  
 b) Junior teacher \_\_\_ e) Deputy head teacher \_\_\_  
 c) Teacher \_\_\_ f) Head teacher \_\_\_\_\_

**PART III:** Please indicate the extent to which the following items (1-33) are problems facing rural primary school women teachers in Oromia. Mark “x” in box which indicate your choice by using the following five rating scales: **very high = 5, High = 4, Medium = 3, Low = 2 and very Low = 1**

No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	Having acceptance of working away from family (like husband, parents)					
2	The presence of incentive far in rural areas					
3	The provision of the following facilities					
3.1	Accommodation					
3.2	Health facilities					
3.3	Water					
3.4	Working condition					
3.5	Transport					
4	The presence of the child care center					
5	Having the responsibility for taking care of children					
6	Having the support in preparing family meal in comparing to husbands					
7	Availability of adequate time in preparing family meal					
8	The non-burden of family responsibility on school work					
9	The adequacy of the maternity leave					
10	The encouragement obtained from salary					
11	The need to leave the job					
12	The satisfaction obtained from teaching profession					
13	Women absenteeism in comparing to men teachers					
14	Women absenteeism from school due to sickness					

No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
15	The occurrence of sexual harassment (rapping and abduction) in rural primary schools.					
16	The fear to report the sexual harassment faced on women teachers to the concerning authority					
17	The fear to teach far in rural school due to rapping and abduction					
18	The frequency of the response given to the reported sexual harassment by the concerning authority					
19	The warning/punishment given by the concerning authority for the reported sexual harassment					
20	The confidence women teachers have in teaching far rural primary schools.					
21	Having acceptance equally with men teachers in school					
22	Being effective and competent equally with men teachers					
23	The preference of promotion for men teachers in the school					
24	Getting the support from the community					
25	The favor given for the promotion of women teachers					
26	The favor given for the transfer of women teachers to towns					
27	The support given by the concerning authority					
28	The opportunity given to on-job training					
29	Having opportunity in pursuing the career					
30	Having alternatives for additional income (like farming and trading)					
31	The presence of burden by family responsibility					
32	The need to depend on spouse's income					
33	The non-hindrance of women teachers' promotion by family responsibility					

**PART IV:** Categorize the following activities (1-14) as masculine or feminine. Write “X” against each category corresponding to the role type.

No	Activities	Men	Women	No opinion
1. 1	Teaching 5-8 <sup>th</sup> grade			
2. 2	Teaching easy subjects			
3. 3	Teaching difficulty subjects			
4. 4	Teaching 1-4 <sup>th</sup> grade			
5. 5	Managing teachers			
6. 6	Participating in disciplinary committee			
7. 7	Hospitality			
8. 8	Treasury Positions			
9.	Home/school links			
10.	Time tabling			
11.	Curriculum and examination			
12.	Decorating the hall, classroom, etc			
13.	Organizing of special events			
14.	Chairing of meeting			

**PART V:** The following items (A-J) are supposed to minimize problems falling rural primary school women teachers and increase their participation. With this conception in mind, write “1” against the intervention that you recommend as the best of all, “2” against the second best, “3” against the third best and so on. It means you write “10” against the intervention that you consider the least recommendable of all.

- A. Upgrading and improving teaching profession in general. \_\_\_\_\_
- B. Promoting the job sharing of husband and wife making flexible working hours. \_\_\_\_\_
- C. Giving incentives and providing adequate hostel facilities for women teachers in rural schools. \_\_\_\_\_
- D. Giving the opportunity of education and training in the form of scholarship, fellowships and prizes. \_\_\_\_\_
- E. Assigning both spouses of working in different departments in the same place (if possible). \_\_\_\_\_
- F. Giving them immediate transfer to towns. \_\_\_\_\_
- G. Considering the time given to maternity leave and rearing children in career structure of women teachers. \_\_\_\_\_
- H. Introducing quotas for promotion of women teachers. \_\_\_\_\_
- I. Reviewing career structure to ensure that it describes the patters of women lives. \_\_\_\_\_
- J. Dealing seriously and swiftly with all sexual harassment. \_\_\_\_\_

**PART VI:** Please answer the following three questions.

1. Write on the space provided below the problems that you think they are barriers to rural primary school women teachers.

- 1.1 \_\_\_\_\_
- 1.2 \_\_\_\_\_
- 1.3 \_\_\_\_\_

2. What other solution do you have for the problems of women teachers in rural areas of Oromia

- 2.1 \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.2 \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.3 \_\_\_\_\_

3. What other comments do you have about rural primary school women teachers?

- 3.1 \_\_\_\_\_
- 3.2 \_\_\_\_\_
- 3.3 \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX –2

### Leading Questions

1. What the major problems do you think face rural primary school women teachers?
2. In which cycles of primary school women teachers are assigned in large number? Why?
3. Is sexual harassment (abduction and rapping) occurred in rural areas? If so to what extent it affect the deployment of women teachers? How do the concerning authorities react to it?
4. Is there any support given for the effective utilization of women teachers in rural areas?
5. Are women teachers benefited from career structures?
6. Are women teachers encouraged to participate in school management?
7. What do you suggest for the possible interventions of rural primary school women teachers?

### APPENDIX-3

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

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

Example = A 2x2 contingency table showing frequency of responses of female and male teachers: Teaching 5-8<sup>th</sup> Grade.

Role assigned to	Respondents' frequency		Total
	Female	Male	
<b>Masculine</b>	170	188	358
<b>Feminine</b>	11	8	19
<b>Total</b>	181	196	377

Calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} X^2 &= \frac{377 (170 \times 8 - 188 \times 11)^2}{(170+188) (170+11)(188+8) (11+8)} \\ &= \frac{377(501264)}{241307752} \\ &= \frac{188976528}{241307752} \\ \therefore &= 0.78, P < 0.05; df = 1 \end{aligned}$$

## DECLARATION

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

Name: Kitessa Cemedda

Signature: 

Date: 19/06/2001

Place and Date of Submission: Addis Ababa University  
June 2001.