

**A SURVEY STUDY OF FACTORS AFFECTING  
WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL  
LEADERSHIP IN ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA**

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# ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<b>AAU</b>	Addis Ababa University
<b>ANOVA</b>	Analysis of Variance
<b>CSA</b>	Central Statistics Authority
<b>DF</b>	Degree of Freedom
<b>EC</b>	Ethiopian Calendar
<b>EFA</b>	Education For All
<b>ETP</b>	Education and Training Policy
<b>FDRE</b>	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
<b>MOE</b>	Ministry of Education
<b>NPW</b>	National Policy of Women
<b>PMOWAS</b>	The Prime Minister's Office Women's Affair Section
<b>PTA</b>	Parents Teachers Association
<b>SIDA</b>	Sweden International Development Agency
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package For Social Science
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>UNDP</b>	United Nations Development Program
<b>UNESCO</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children's Fund

## Abstract

*This study is aimed at identifying factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration. To achieve the objective of the study, basic questions were asked in relation to the extent of women's participation in leadership positions; societies' perception towards women leaders; current selection criteria used; problems and constraints encountered that hinder women's participation in leadership and possible solutions to improve and increase their participation.*

*The research method employed was descriptive and the sampling techniques were purposive and simple random. Questionnaires were distributed to 53 Educational Officials, 66 School Principals and Vice Principals as well as 234 Teachers in both primary and secondary Schools of which a total of 328 (93%) usable questionnaires were returned. Interviews and document analysis were conducted. Furthermore, focus group discussions were held with 80 secondary students at 4 schools selected randomly in each sub-city. The data obtained was then analyzed using appropriate statistical tools such as percentages, mean, weighted mean, one-way ANOVA and Post Hoc Comparison of means.*

*The study has revealed that society's negative perception concerning women's capability and competence to hold positions of leadership have changed, where women are perceived to be highly competent in most skills; however, despite their competency, they are still non-prevalent and underrepresented at administrative levels, especially at secondary school and central office positions. Moreover, it was discovered that the unfamiliarity and lack of transparency of the selection criteria, used for selection and placement of educational leaders, led to misconceptions and possibly discouraged prospective candidates from applying. It was further identified that the major causes that hinder women's participation in educational leadership were: fear of balancing professional and family life; societies' perception regarding women's role, skill and gender role socialization; lack of transparent selection, hiring and promoting policies and inadequate professional development and training. In addition, lack of commitment from higher officials, insufficient communication as well as monitoring and evaluations, and lastly, lack of transparency and clarity of policy for easy implementation was also noted to have contributed greatly for their limited participation.*

*Thus, it is recommended that measures be taken such as: - Women themselves having to change their outlook by believing in themselves, pursuing higher education, and by developing a strong women's network and mentoring system within the organization, understanding and fighting 'Horizontal Violence' and eliminating the notion of the "Queen Bee" syndrome. Organizations on the other hand, should provide professional development and broaden educational opportunities for career advancement, and have well-organized, transparent selection criteria and recruitment procedures. Furthermore, successful women leaders, organizations, governments and other non-government organizations should create massive gender-sensitizing training to all school communities and society. Finally, for easy implementation of the women's policy, the government needs to address these obstacles through advocacy and training, ensure clarity and transparency of policy, instill effective monitoring and evaluation systems and communicate effectively with implementers at grass root levels.*

*As has been revealed, a number of factors seem to affect women's participation, but once appointed, they have proved their competence regardless of societies' negative stereotypical attitudes. Therefore, it is recommended that additional studies be undertaken to investigate the leadership practices of women educational leaders towards a better understanding of women's work lives and their leadership qualities which might help provide important role models for any woman aspiring to the position.*

# CHAPTER 1

## 1. The Problem And Its Approaches

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

### 1.1 Background of the Study

Women make invaluable contributions to the reproduction of society by giving birth to new members, by socializing young children and by providing affection and nurturance (Newman, 1995). They play a very important role in providing child bearing and child rearing, which is the basis for the continuous existence of the human race. They also provide love, affection, security, and companionship, teach and pass on social values to their young. They are dedicated, persistent, energetic and hard workers.

In Ethiopia, women constitute more than half of the population and a large part of the labor force (PMOWAS, 1983; CSA, 1994). In addition, they carry out the majority of the work in the household, which is not remunerated (SIDA, 1992). Traditionally, women in Ethiopia were socialized for the domestic life of child rearing, home management and the care of the sick and the elderly. Males on the other hand, were prepared for the public arena. The decision-making capacities of women were expected to exercise their roles as elder wives, mothers, mothers-in-law, midwives and nurses (Atsede and Kebede, 1988).

According to a study conducted by the UNDP (1993), although women constitute half of the adult population and contribute more than their share towards society, in and outside of the house, they are frequently excluded from positions of power. Many old values and prejudices persist regardless of changes in law from time to time, and even when working women prove themselves better in the work force, they are not given equal treatment.

In order to improve a country's development, both men and women's contributions are essential. It is therefore important to improve women's participation in the social, economic and political life. Atsede and Kebede (1988) further stated that,

*“Women in Ethiopia have played a significant role in their contributions to the socio-economic development of the country. They have played multiple roles in different important activities in various contributions. They are committed and devoted housewives and mothers, contributed greatly during the battles for independence and unity of the country, played an active role in the teaching and health professions, involved in commercial undertakings, and played a significant role in the agricultural and industrial production activities...”*

Education is generally viewed as crucial to the development of the individual, family, nation and the world at large. It is an acknowledged fact that education is an empowering experience for both men and women. UNESCO (2003) further confirmed in its report that education is a powerful means that significantly changes the life of an individual and empowers him/her to contribute to national development. Moreover it is a fundamental human right, which is the key to sustainable development, peace and stability among countries. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, Article 26, states that every child has the right to education regardless of family background, sex, religion or geographic locations (Chabaud, 1970).

Governments and the international community at large have made a considerable effort to make the dream of creating a literate world come true. A historical moment viewed as a landmark (turning point) in this long-standing global effort, was the international education conference held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. One hundred fifty five countries and many international organizations were represented in the conference. At the end of the conference, the participants issued the historical declaration, referred to as the “The Jomtien World Declaration of Education For All”, in which they expressed their collective commitment to universalize basic (primary) education at the global level by the year 2000 (MOE, 2002).

World Declaration: Education For All (1990), Article I state,

*“Basic education is the acquisition of the fundamental knowledge, skill, values and attitudes required by every person-child, youth or adult to be able to survive to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informal decision and to continue learning.”(Haggis: 1991)*

In general, children, youth and adults are expected to read, write, orally express, articulate and solve problems. Both formal and non-formal educations are expected to equip the participants (citizens) with the above listed skills.

Ethiopia first introduced modern education in 1908; however, the majority of the people especially the rural populations of girls and women in particular, have not been served well. One of the major challenges Ethiopia faces today is rapid population growth. The annual population

growth rate is 2.4%, with a high illiteracy rate of 48% for women and 37% for men respectively, within the age range of 15 to 24 years of age (UN, 2006). A large segment of the population is situated in the rural area with high poverty rate and very limited access to a formal school system. As a result, a large number of school-age children are out of school, especially girls. Proportionately, girls and women make up the largest illiterate population in the country. The denial of the right to education hurts people's capacity to work productively, to sustain and protect themselves and their families (UNICEF, 1999).

One cannot overestimate the importance of education in career development and achievement. One of the most important influences on women's career development is the educational system. It serves as an extremely powerful instrument ranging from very negative, if they serve to perpetuate traditional sex role stereotypes and sex biases, to very positive when they are used in ways facilitative of sexual fairness and the maximization of individual potentials (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987).

Sexist biases of women and men are being taught to children at a young age from first school readers. Best (1983) states from one children's book entitled, "I'm glad I'm a boy! I'm glad I'm a girl! Taught differences as such "Boys eat, girls cook: boys invent things, girls use what boys invent: boys build houses, girls keep houses." Researchers have found the hidden curriculum at work in the early stages where these books teach children particular lessons about gender.

Best (1983) further pointed out that the findings of one researcher who asked a group of second and third graders what they wanted to be when they grow up. The typical responses were from boys, "A pro-footballer because I would make a lot of money", "A motorcycle racer, it's fun", "A pilot because I want to fly and it's fun": In contrast, the girls replied, "I want to have a baby because it's fun"; I want to be a nurse so I can help people when they are sick"; and "I want to be a teacher, since I just like it."

At a very basic level, early schooling serves as a major source of learning and socialization and conveys values regarding work and career that are influential throughout one's life. The nature and level of education obtained are important in relation to subsequent career achievements and adult's socio-economic status and life style. Appropriate education preparation is a major "gate" for occupational entrance. Undergraduate degrees are now becoming a necessary requirement for the pursuit of many occupations. Education creates options, while lack of education closes them, without options, the concept of "choice" itself has no real meaning (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987).

With the expansion, of educational opportunities, support and encouragement from various quarters, women have managed to achieve higher academic levels. Thus, it is clear that women were underrepresented in terms of the high academic qualifications necessary for service in leadership positions (Otunga & Owing, 2004).

Much of the language of leadership is strongly linked with the current dominant images of masculinity - tough, competitive, confident, logical, rational, decisive, with the emphasis on control rather than negotiation and collaboration. Many women may resist moving into management to distance themselves from traditional leadership models, which they perceive as 'repugnant' and dysfunctional (Court, 1994).

According to Edson (1988), women who enter the field of school leadership do so because they wish to meet the challenges inherent in leadership roles and believe that they can provide children with more positive educational experiences than they see being provided now. Although the literature regarding female leaders in education reveals that more women than ever before are entering administrative roles, Gupton and Slick (1996) found that female administrators, new to their jobs, not only experienced varying types of resistance to their leadership from men but were confronted with "Horizontal Violence" where many women were not supportive of other women and created battle lines instead of forming alliances. Benton (1980) reported a related phenomenon and named it the "Queen Bee" syndrome. According to Benton, a queen bee is a woman in a position of power and authority who works at keeping other women out of leadership in order to protect her queenly status.

Like other fields of management, Educational Management is also dominated by men and most of them resist the entrance of women into the field. "The school business is still a man's world in administration. Most superintendents in America are men who do not feel comfortable working with women who are quick, smart or have higher academic degrees than them" (Gupton and Slick, 1996). Women who try to achieve success in upward mobility are said to "threaten" men and may be subject to ostracism by their fellow workers. Men will view integration of the work force as a threat to their jobs and self esteem.

Women continue to be under-represented in educational leadership in proportion to their actual numbers in teaching. Various explanations are offered such as in internal barriers, structural and

systemic barriers and societal barriers such as lack of role models, gender differences in expectations, and stereotypical thinking (Bank and Hall, 1997).

Most women in educational administration have had both internal and external barriers, that have made their obtaining administrative positions more difficult than for men. Schmuck (1986) found that 70% of female school administrators reported that they experienced obstacles to their careers simply because they were women, and 74% of these women reported having negative role models-half of whom were women. 57% said they were not part of a network of professional support, and only 17% declared that they did not need or want such support.

The obstacle that women face is no exception to Ethiopian women. In light of this, the FDRE issued out a National Policy of Women that preserves the rights of women, eliminates prejudices and other practices that are based on the idea of male supremacy and enable women to hold public office and participate in the decision making process at all levels (PMOWAS, 1993). The strategies set out by the FDRE in order to implement the NPW was for the government to facilitate conditions conducive to the participation of women in both the elaboration and decision making process and take appropriate measures including legislation, to ensure that the right of women to equal pay for equal work and to perform public functions including decision making in both their local communities and at the national level, be respected (PMOWAS, 1993).

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

As noted earlier, in Ethiopia, girls and women make up the largest illiterate population in the country, which shows the inequitable distribution of education. In light of this, the FDRE has strongly emphasized the importance of education of women and in its new policy- ETP, MOE (1994), Article 3.9.5 states in regards to supporting women, "The government will give financial support to raise the participation of women." Also in MOE (2002), it quotes, "**Educating a mother is educating a whole family,**" therefore, the education of women and their involvement in all aspects of development is imperative and the equitability of the overall social order and system can be assured if women and men participate equally in the educational process.

The role of women in development particularly in developing countries is usually ignored, underestimated and overlooked. They are often in a disadvantaged position in terms of participation, prestige, promotion, pay levels etc. They are constrained by certain dominant attitudes that prevail in their societies, which regard them as inferior and being suited only to housekeeping, child caring, cooking, sewing and serving their husbands. If given any

employment opportunity, women face a narrow choice of occupations compared to men. Women are usually engaged in certain low-skilled, low-productive and low-status occupations. With respect to this, Newman (1995) stressed that despite the entrance of women in the paid force in unprecedented numbers, they tend to occupy low-status jobs that are typically considered “females.” Men tend to hold occupational positions that confer more wealth and power than those typically held by women.

Women have been victims of tradition and culture for many centuries and sex biases have prevented them from fully participating in the fields of leadership and decision-making. It is believed that to ignore female participation in all aspects of social, political and economic activities is to lose half of the potential of the world’s population. Chabaud (1970) states that, “To maintain women in a state of cultural inferiority is to keep dormant half the brains of humanity.”

There is no study known to the researcher that was ever done exclusively in Addis Ababa City Administration, especially in the area where this study is conducted that reveal several factors that affect Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership and the extent to which their participation is limited. In 1995, a research was conducted on problems of the under representation of Women in the Educational Administration in Ethiopia-the first of its kind by Abebayehu (1995). The study showed effects of stereotypes on women and men’s aspiration for leadership positions, which indicated that women had a low level of aspiration to these positions. However, the reasons for women’s low aspiration to leadership were not clear. The study suggested further research.

Another study conducted by Yalew (1997) attempted to investigate sex role stereotype attitudes of the society as a major contributing and crucial factor that could make the number of female leaders minimal. Findings indicated that the attitudes of society towards females as leaders are traditional. Society viewed females as “Incapable to lead, intolerant, fearful, suspicious and ineffective leaders” and irrespective of differences in age, educational levels, sex and religion; the society had traditional stereotypic attitudes to women leading and their decision-making abilities.

The researcher felt further research was warranted in order to answer the current status of the extent to which women are participating in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa; to investigate whether the policy of women set out by FDRE is indeed being practiced in the work

place; to see if the attitudes towards women leaders by society, especially students, teachers as well as other educational leaders within the educational institutions have changed, and finally, to come up with different measures that have to take place in order to improve the involvement and participation of Women in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa.

### **1.2.1 Objectives of the Study**

The overall objective of this study was to assess the extent of women's participation and identify factors that affect their participation in educational leadership in the metropolitan city, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and to come up with remedial solutions in order to improve their involvement and participation.

The study specially attempted to:

- Identify the extent in which women participate in educational leadership systems within the metropolitan city
- Assess the attitudes of students, teachers and educational leaders towards women's leadership competence
- Identify the problems and constraints that prevent women from participating in the leadership role in educational management
- Evaluate administration mechanisms
- Assess the view of female leaders as compared to their male counterparts

### **1.2.2 Basic Questions**

To meet the objectives of the study, the following basic research questions were designed.

1. To what extent do women participate in educational leadership in Addis Ababa?
2. What are the major selection criteria currently used in the selection and placement of educational leaders in Addis Ababa?
3. What are the major factors that prevent women's participation in educational leadership in Addis Ababa?
4. What are the attitudes of students, teachers and educational leaders towards women's ability, skill and leadership competence as educational leaders in Addis Ababa?
5. How can women's role in educational leadership be improved in Addis Ababa?

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

Leadership is said to be successful if an individual leader has the ability to influence others to accomplish specific goals and objectives of the organization. Leadership positions are usually male dominated and women's involvement is very low and decreases as they go up the ladder of managerial hierarchy. There is no exception to the rule when it comes to the less participation of leadership role of women in educational management. It is therefore essential to know the major factors that affect their participation as well as the leadership role they play in this field. It also attempts to identify the quality and qualifications, which women in educational management possess.

Therefore, the study of factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership would give an overall picture and any information generated by this study will have a multi-dimensional use and purpose. It will help to plan appropriate interventions.

The significance of the study is based on the following rationales:

1. The study will help to investigate, make critical assessment and analyze some of the problems women face in their participation, leadership performance and other related issues
2. The study will point out factors and help provide insights to promote women's participation in their leadership role in educational management
3. The study will try to provide valuable ideas and information to motivate women so as to increase their interest in participating in the leadership role as well as to bring about change of attitudes in the society
4. The study will add some contributions to the literature of educational management in general, to the Education Sector and to Ethiopian School Leaders in particular
5. This research can help provide pertinent information so as to help take corrective measures on factors that have been operating against women's participation in the leadership role in the education sector
6. The study conducted may come up with valuable findings and the recommendations given might possibly initiate and stimulate concerned individuals, institutions or concerned officials into taking constructive measures towards the prevailing problems
7. The study will have great practical significance in providing vital information about the magnitude of the problem to Governments, Non-Profit Organizations, Policy

Makers, Education Bureau Heads, Training Institutions, Social Workers, Employment Agencies, Research Organizations and individuals interested in this area

8. Lastly, it is envisioned that the descriptive survey study will contribute a lot to increase the scope of knowledge for further study in this area of concern.

#### **1.4 Delimitations of the Study**

The emphasis of this study is limited to investigate factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration. The scope of the study was therefore delimited to four sub cities in Addis Ababa City Administration. (Bole, Gullelie, Kirkos and Yeka). The study analyzed Women's Participation in Educational Leadership, the policy of women with regard to decision-making roles; their support system; students, teachers, and educational leaders attitudes towards women educational leaders and other related issues. The study is only focused on government schools, primary and secondary schools in the four sub-cities as well as the City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau and Education offices located in the four sub cities, so as to make it manageable.

Addis Ababa being the capital city of Ethiopia is a chartered city (both a political and cultural center of Ethiopia) that has a status of both a city and a state. According to the Bureau of African Affairs, April 2006, Addis Ababa has an estimated population of 5 million with as many as 80 nationalities speaking 80 languages. Almost all ethnic groups are represented in the city due to its position as capital of the country.

Addis Ababa encompasses many institutions; government, non-government organizations, private organization, international organizations, etc. which has an advantage of having a relatively high exposure to culture, health, religion, education, politics and awareness regarding women's issues and concerns. With high literacy rate compared to other cities and rural areas, there is a tremendous support, encouragement, gender sensitivity and awareness of women's equality in all forms of works. Therefore, the chances of becoming an educational leader are relatively high for women here in the capital. The researcher felt this would set the stage for the rest of the region. Another factor considered was the fact that female students, upon completion of their higher education tend to stay in the capital due to increased employment opportunities. Thus, the prospect for career advancement and promotion is moderately great in Addis Ababa.

Due to the concern of women's development, the Ethiopian Government in its national policy on women indicated "The rights of women to work in position of authority, and the right to involve them in the decision making process at all levels." (PMOWAS, 1993) Therefore, it is with this emphasis that the researcher set out to examine and delimit the study to only government based institutions and schools. Since the government assigns employment positions in the education sector especially upon student's completion of school, this study was aimed at investigating how well women are represented in leadership positions.

The findings of the study would have been more comprehensive, reliable and beneficial to all, had the study been conducted at national and regional level involving all educational institutions; however due to the above reason, time constraint and manageability, it was delimited to Addis Ababa.

### **1.5 Limitations of the Study**

One of the major problems during the study was the reluctance of some principals and teachers to fill out the questionnaires. Some refused to return the questionnaires while some filled the questionnaire improperly and carelessly. This could be due to several reasons such as overburden of work; not believing in the study itself and simply being bored or fed up with filling out questionnaires. Another factor was difficulty in getting the necessary information in time from Educational Officials because some were reassigned to other organizations while some were not willing enough to provide the information genuinely. Hence, the researcher agreed to devote more time and effort.

Another problem the researcher encountered, was shortage of reference materials related to the study in Addis Ababa, as well as acquiring recently published books. Foreign sources through journals, books, publications and the Internet were used for the study. A third factor was time constraints, whereby the draft questionnaire distributed was not as big as it ought to have been. This would have helped the study to get more opinions, suggestions and make the necessary corrections to rectify ambiguity.

Therefore, because of these limitations, the study by no means claims to be conclusive. It would rather serve as a springboard to study the problems of the under representativeness of Women in Educational Leadership and provide valuable recommendations.

## **1.6 Research Designs and Procedures**

### **1.6.1 Research Designs**

A descriptive survey study with both quantitative and qualitative research approach was employed in this study. This method is particularly important for this study since it is intended to make a detailed description and analysis of the existing factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership.

This method was chosen for its appropriateness to the nature of the topic, which needed wider description and investigation of facts and opinions related to the current status of the problem as well as to collect and analyze data so as to find possible solutions or to forward recommendations. Furthermore, the relevance of this descriptive method for such purposes has been emphasized by Seyoum and Ayalew (1989): Kane (1995), and Kelinger (1986).

### **1.6.2 Sources of Data**

This study used both primary and secondary data sources to gather information on the Participation of Women in Educational Leadership in the Addis Ababa region.

The major source of primary data were: - Official documents, officials and experts from Regional Government Bureaus, Sub-City Education Bureaus and personnels at selected primary and secondary schools i.e. Directors, Deputy Directors, Unit Leaders, Department Heads, Team Leaders, Teachers, Students etc. The secondary data source was gathered from publications, journals, textbooks, documents, and reports written on Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. Related literature and previous research findings were also reviewed to meet the objective of the study.

### **1.6.3 Sample Population and Sampling Technique**

#### **Population**

The determination of the population and sample schools bases the 2004/05 Annual Statistical Report of MOE. Table 1 shows data of all government primary as well as secondary schools. There are ten sub-cities in the metropolitan area each consisting of Education Offices, eighty-four primary schools, eleven first cycle secondary schools (grades 9-10) and eleven second cycle secondary schools (Grades 11-12).

**Table 1: NUMBER OF GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS BY SUB-CITY IN 1997 E.C. IN ADDIS ABABA REGION**

S/N	Name of Sub-Cities	Primary Schools	Total Secondary Schools	Secondary Schools (9-10)	Secondary Schools (11-12)
1	Addis Ketema	5	2	1	1
2	Akaki-Kaliti	11	1	1	0
3	Arada	8	3	1	2
4	Bole	8	3	2	1
5	Gullelie	8	3	2	1
6	Kirkos	9	2	1	1
7	Kolfe-Keranio	10	2	0	2
8	Lideta	6	1	1	0
9	Nefas-Silk: Lafto	7	2	1	1
10	Yeka	12	3	1	2
	<b>Total</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>11</b>

**\*Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract 1997E.C./2004/05**

Table 2 below shows the total population of the study selected by types of respondents. The first type of respondents selected were 89 Educational Officials of which 17 were City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau; 27 Sub city Education Offices and 45 Kebele Education Desks. The second type of respondent's chosen were 66 school leaders of which 32 and 34 were primary and secondary school leaders respectively. The third types of respondent's were 2,338 teachers of which 1,013 and 1,325 were primary and secondary school teachers respectively. Finally, the fourth respondents were students, which consisted a total population of 44,872.

**Table 2: TOTAL POPULATION AND SAMPLE SIZE BY TYPES OF RESPONDENTS**

Types of Respondents	Total Population			Sample			% Used	Sampling Technique
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total		
<b>Educational Officials</b>								
City Gov't of Addis Ababa Education Bureau	14	3	17	14	3	17	100%	Purposive Purposive Simple Random
Sub city Education Offices	23	4	27	23	4	27	100%	
Kebele Education Desks	20	25	45	4	5	9	20%	
<b>Total</b>	57	32	89	41	12	53		
<b>School Leaders</b>								
Primary School	19	13	32	19	13	32	100%	Purposive Purposive
Secondary School	31	3	34	31	3	34	100%	
<b>Total</b>	50	16	66	50	16	66	100%	
<b>Teachers</b>								
Primary School	463	550	1013	46	55	101	10%	Simple Random Simple Random
Secondary School	1108	217	1325	111	22	133	10%	
<b>Total</b>	1571	767	2338	157	77	234	10%	
<b>Student Population</b>	21,988	22,884	44,872	40	40	80		Simple Random

## **Sample Population**

To ensure a fair representation of all administration parts of Addis Ababa, out of ten sub-cities, four (40%) sub-cities were selected through simple random sampling technique, so as to give equal chance of selection. The four sub-cities selected and included in this study were Bole, Gullelie, Kirkos and Yeka as seen in Table 1 above. From the four sample sub-cities, eleven (100%) of all government secondary schools (both first and second cycle) were included in the study. Out of 37 government primary schools, twelve (30%) schools were also selected in the four sample sub-cities using simple random sampling technique. Out of the twelve primary schools selected, five schools were chosen using purposive sampling technique in order to ensure the representation of schools with relatively high proportion of female school leaders (See Appendix IV).

As can be seen on Table 2, 17 (100%) educational officers in the City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau and 27 (100%) Education offices in each sample sub-cities were selected using purposive sampling technique. The selection was done purposely to involve the appropriate authorities that hold leadership positions so as to secure reliable and adequate information. The Kebele Education desks in each sample sub cities were 45 of which 9 (20%) were randomly selected so as to make the study manageable.

In addition, all 66 (100%) School Principals and Vice Principals for both primary and secondary schools in the four sample sub-cities were included. Purposive sampling technique was applied by virtue of their influential positions. Furthermore, out of 2,338 teachers in both primary and secondary schools, 234 (10% from each sample schools) were randomly chosen so as to make the study manageable. Care was taken to include teachers of both genders (See Appendix IV).

Finally, due to the large size of the student population (44,872 in the four sample sub city schools), the researcher decided it was best to conduct focused group discussions. Four secondary schools, one from each sample schools located in the four sub cities was randomly chosen. A total of 80 students, (including both genders) of which, 20 (10 male and 10 female students) from each sample school located in the four sub-cities were randomly selected. With regards to the selection of the students, the upper level of secondary schools (Grades 9 to 12) were purposefully taken as students at this stage are relatively mature in age and have awareness and knowledge related to the cultural, ethical, social, political and economical aspects of their environment. Two separate discussion groups were formulated in each of the four secondary

schools, one for female students and one for male students, so both sides could give their unreserved opinions, suggestions and recommendations.

## **1.6.4 Procedures, Data Gathering Instruments and Pilot Test**

### **1.6.4.1 Procedures**

The following procedures were carried out to find out factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration.

1. To develop a thorough understanding and gain insight on the research topic, relevant literature was assessed and reviewed
2. Statistical data from various documents under sources of the data were secured and analyzed
3. Appropriate statistical tools were prepared and pilot tested
4. After pilot testing and approval, the administration of the instruments followed
5. The data collected timely were analyzed and interpreted
6. Finally, a report on the research study was prepared.

### **1.6.4.2 Data Gathering Instruments**

There are different data gathering instruments that were employed for this study. It was felt essential to adopt both a quantitative and qualitative data collection approach, which are survey instruments that help reveal the nature and strength of women education leaders as well as pinpoint problems that hamper Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. The quantitative data was obtained from questionnaires whilst the qualitative approach took the form of in-depth interviews, focused group discussions, observations and document analysis used to acquire relevant data. According to Patton (1987) cited in Teshome (1998) employing multiple methods of data collection helps the researcher to combine the strengths and amend some of the inadequacies of any one source of data.

#### **Questionnaires**

The first instrument employed was the questionnaire, which is convenient, reliable, and adequate information can be received from a large number of respondents within a short span of time. Two kinds of questionnaires were prepared originally in English, which was later translated into Amharic to prevent misunderstanding and misinterpretations on the parts of the respondents. Secondary school leaders and teachers filled out the English version while officials, primary school leaders and teachers filled out the Amharic version. It consisted of close-ended questions

so as to exhaust all possible questions pertaining to the issues at hand as well as open ended questions with the intentions to disclose free opinions of respondents. Overall, the questionnaire consisted of eight parts prepared and designed for all males and females: - officials, secondary and primary school leaders and teachers (See Appendix I).

Section one was designed to collect data on the background characteristics of the target groups that pertain to the demographic features, education level, years of service, occupation and current salary. The second section was prepared in the form of a Likert Scale attitude scale and the level of agreement was indicated on five-point scale ranging from very good to very poor. This helped to get information concerning the attitudes towards women leaders ability, skill and leadership competence. The third section of the questionnaire examined the extent of women's participation in school leadership positions. Various school leadership positions were listed and a five-point scale ranging from very high to very low was prepared and used so that it could help measure the level of conformity of the respondents.

Section four was designed to collect information on the selection criteria and placement of educational leaders. The educational leaders, referred to here, were the Education Sub-City Office officials and the school principals chosen simply by their virtue of their influencing positions. Lists of different selection criteria were presented and respondents were asked to respond from the five alternatives given (i.e. Very High, High, Average, Low and Very Low).

Section five, six and seven are lists of some factors (human, organizational and policy factors) that are believed to affect/ hinder Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. These parts were also prepared and designed in the form of a Likert- Type Scale and the level of agreement was indicated on a five-point scale ranging from Very High to Very Low. This helped to get information on the level of all the male and female officials, school leaders and teachers' agreement and disagreement on major factors that prevent Women's Participation in Educational Leadership.

### **Interviews**

In addition to the questionnaire, the study employed both structured and unstructured interview questions as the second instrument for data collection to complement and obtain relevant data that were not handled by the questionnaire. It is also essential to counter-check the information already obtained. Structured questions were designed and administered for male and female officials and school leaders. The interview was aimed at eliciting information on the critical factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership (See Appendix II).

Moreover, unstructured interviews were made with some female officials (Education Bureau, Sub City Education Offices and Kebele) as well as female school leaders (Principals and Vice-Principals). These groups addressed unique problems that they encountered as educational female leaders on and off the job. In order to handle the discussions, a tape recorder was utilized for voluntary respondents who were voluntary and field notes were used for others.

### **Focus Discussion Group**

This technique was employed to acquire the necessary data from Government Secondary School students grade 9 –12 (Both from cycle 1 and 2) regarding the overall attitude concerning the ability, skills and leadership competence of women leaders in education. Hence, 20 groups of students (ten male and ten female students), a total of 80 students were organized separately for focused group discussions. Government Secondary Schools were randomly selected, one from each sample sub city, with a total of 4 schools. In this respect, a tape recorder was used to collect all the information.

The fourth and fifth instruments used were personal observations and document analysis that helped to assess existing facilities as well as analyze relevant and available documents for use of the data collection.

### **1.6.4.3 Pilot Testing**

In order to undertake some necessary corrections and modifications on the questionnaire, pilot testing was conducted prior to the final distribution to respondents. Out of ten sub cities, one sub city (Arada) was selected, in which two different types of government schools were included. i.e. One from primary school and one from secondary school, second cycle (11-12 grade). Draft questionnaires were dispatched to both school leaders and teachers. After the questionnaire had been filled and returned, each of the items in the questionnaire was thoroughly examined. Ambiguous and unclear statements were corrected and the final questionnaire was redistributed to each of the entire sample population.

### **1.6.5 Methods of Data Analysis**

#### **Quantitative Data**

After collection of questionnaires and getting back the adequate number of respondents, the raw data was tallied, structured and tabulated under their respective categories so as to make it manageable, readable and most of all, understandable. The items were classified into different

tables according to similarities of issues raised in the questionnaires. After being classified, each of the issues was analyzed and interpreted. Depending on the rationale of the basic questions and the gathered data, the data was analyzed by using different statistical tools with the aid of computer assisted MS SPSS-13 program.

The appropriate statistical procedures were identified in line with the purpose of the study. Accordingly, the following statistical tools have been put into use to analyze and interpret the data collected.

1. Percentage and Frequency counts were employed to analyze characteristics of the sample. This statistical tool helps to determine the relative standing characteristic such as: sex, age, educational levels and work experience.
2. Measures of Central Tendency and Percentiles like mean, weighted mean was computed to find out average values against each item score by including all the number of observations in the categorized items (Groups).
3. One –way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was employed for the data. This statistical stool was used to quantify, explore and describe the difference and similarities between different groups of respondents.
4. The ANOVA method assumes independence and randomness of each sample, normal distribution of data and equal variance for samples. To test whether the equality of variance holds true, Levene Statistics was used. In cases where the homogeneity of variances did not hold, further testing was conducted using Welch Statistics (Asymptotically F distributed), and a Post Hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test was used for multiple comparisons of mean differences between the three occupational group respondents (Educational officials, school leaders and teachers).

## **Qualitative Data**

The data drawn from the open-ended questionnaire, interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis were first transcribed into separate topics. Then each expression and view obtained was categorized and combined to describe the items both as expressed by the respondents and as understood by the researcher. The data was analyzed using narration. Based on both quantitative and qualitative data analysis, interpretations were made to reach certain findings. Finally, a conclusion and possible solutions were recommended.

## 1.7 DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL KEY TERMS

- Education: -** The aggregate of all the processes by means of which a person develops abilities, attitudes and other forms of behaviors of positive values in the society in which he/she lives. It is a social process by which people are subjected to the influence of a selected and controlled environment e.g. school, so that they may attain social competence and optimum development (Good, 1973).
- Educational Management: -** The internal operation of educational institutions and also their relationships with their environment that is, the communities in which they are set, and with the governing bodies to which they are formally responsible. (Glatter, 1979)
- Formal Education: -** Education in which roles of teachers and pupils can be defined and in which one party accepts responsibility for educating the other. It is an education one receives in school as opposed to that received independently or on-the-job.(Good, 1973)
- Glass Ceiling: -** A term coined in the 1970's to describe the invisible barriers created by attitudinal and organizational prejudices that block women from senior leadership positions (Wirth, 2001)
- Horizontal Violence: -**A term used here to describe the harm that some women do to other women in the educational workplace. It is a harmful behavior, via attitudes, words and other behaviors that are directed by another colleague. It controls, humiliates, denigrates or injures the dignity of another as well as indicates a lack of mutual respect and value for the worth of the individual and denies another's fundamental human rights. (Funk, 2000)
- Leadership: -** The art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals (Koontz et al. (1984)
- Management: -** A common set of activities that are designed to promote and direct purposeful work (Atchison and Hill (1978)
- Non-Formal Education: -** "Out-of-school education". Education received outside school or outside the statutory laid down school years. (Page, G. Terry and others, 1978)

**Occupational Segregation :-**

Is gender based workplace segregation, where women's work can be clearly distinguished from men's occupation and when concentration of men and women appear at different levels in the workplace hierarchies (Dunn, 1997)

**Participant: -**

Student who takes part in education or management training. (Page, G. Terry and others, 1978)

**Professional: -**

One who has acquired a learned skill and conforms to ethical standards of the profession in which he practices the skill. (Good, 1973)

**Queen Bee**

**Syndrome: -**

is a woman in a position of power and authority who works at keeping other women out of leadership in order to protect her queenly status (Benton 1980).

**Secondary School: -**

Refers to a school system following primary schools solely established to offer general and vocational education courses to students from grade 9 to grade 12 (MOE, 1994)

**Sexual Harassment: -**

unwelcome sexually related behavior that creates an intimidating, hostile and offensive environment. This is not limited to coercing someone into sexual act but includes the existence of hostile work environment (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001).

**School Leader: -**

In this study, school leader refers to Principals and Assistant Principals of Primary and Secondary Schools. They are used interchangeably.

## **1.8 Organization of the Study**

One of the important components of any research is its organization. Hence, this research study is organized in a way that it can be understood and used by anyone who wants to make use of it. The study contains four chapters. Chapter one as mentioned above deals with the introduction of the study, which includes the background of the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study, the research design and methodology and definition of organizational key terms. The second chapter deals with the review of the related literature, which discusses important topics that are related to factors affecting Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. The third chapter deals with presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data and finally in the last chapter, summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations are presented.

# Chapter 2

## 2. Review of The Related Literature

This chapter presents some important topics, which are related to factors affecting Women's participation in Educational Leadership. Books, journals and other material sources were used to review the topic. The major topics discussed include: Overview of Leadership, Women and Educational Leadership and Barriers that prevent Women's participation in Educational leadership. The strategies and actions that promote their participation in Educational Leadership are also presented in this chapter.

### 2.1 The Meaning and Essence of Leadership

People have been interested in leadership since the beginning of recorded history and have been studied as a scientific discipline for over half a century (Yukl, 1981). The study of leadership has moved from an analysis of the so-called "Great Man" to the exploration of traits, styles, behaviors, situations and a variety of other related concerns (Mbua, 2003).

Leadership is a complex concept and an ageless topic. There have been numerous writings on the topics, studies conducted and yet there is not a single universally accepted definition of leadership. Stogdill (1974) in his survey of leadership theories and researches points out that, there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.

Leadership has been defined in terms of behavior, influence over other people, interaction patterns, role relationships, individual traits, perception of others regarding legitimacy of influence and occupation of an administration position (Yukl, 1981). Furthermore, in discussing leadership, Burns (1978) stated that, a recent study turned up one hundred and thirty definitions of the word. To sum it up, Bennis (1989) concluded that, leadership is like beauty; it is hard to define, but you know it when you see it.

To demonstrate the above fact as have stated many theorists, writers and researchers have come up with many definitions of leadership over a quarter of a century. Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massaink (1961) defined leadership as, "an interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals". Stogdill's (1950) version of leadership is, "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goals setting and goal achievement". Another writer, Kotter (1990)

points out that leadership is, “the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations”. Similarly, two other writers, Hodgetts and Altman (1979) went on to define leadership as “the process of influencing people to direct their efforts towards the achievement of some particular goals”. Finally, Morphet, Johns and Reller (1982) explain that, the top leader in any sub-system, and supra-system is the actor who most often influences in critical matters the actions, behaviors, beliefs, and feelings of the greatest number of other actors in that system with the willing cooperation of the actors being influenced. Under this concept, there are many leaders with different levels and kinds of influence in a social system, and a leader may or may not hold a position in the hierarchy of the formal organizations.

Although the definitions of leadership are diverse, a look at some of them will indicate that the concept of *influence* is often emphasized. The student researcher therefore chooses the definition given by Stogdill’s and Kotter since both indicate that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group towards goal achievement as well as being an art in mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspirations.

### **2.1.1 The Purpose and Importance of Leadership**

Today’s organization can no longer afford merely to be managed; they must be lead and people must be inspired to new levels of innovation, creativity and achievement (Oakley and Krug, 1991). Kotter (1990) went on to state that some people have the capacity to become excellent managers, but not very strong leaders while others have great leadership potential, but for a variety of reason have difficulty becoming strong managers. However, he continued on to say that smart organizations value both kinds of individual and work hard to make them a part of the overall team.

Ash (1984) stressed the importance of leadership where, people in positions of authority can get other people to do something because of the power they exert, but leaders mobile others ‘to want to’ act because of the creditability they have. It is also important to note that there is a monumental difference between entity support and giving orders, between gaining commitment and commanding obedience. Furthermore Kotter (1990) goes on to say, “Excellence rises from within; it can’t be imposed from without and that people don’t get extraordinary things done unless they have the will to do so”.

#### **2.1.1.1 Leadership in Education**

Leadership is of particular importance in educational administration because of its far-reaching

efforts on the accomplishments of school programs, objectives and the attainment of educational goals (Mbua, 2003). Furthermore, Morphet, Johns and Reller (1982) emphasize that the examining of the leadership phenomena of educational organization and administration is “with concepts and theories of leadership that are applicable to those who hold decision making positions such as principals, school inspectors, department heads in the various hierarchies of the educational organizations.”

Weber and Weber (1955) defined Educational Leadership as:

*“The process in a school which yields control of pupils, teachers, parents, administrators and others upon principles which should govern administration, operation and management of schools, which yields agreement among these same group concerning policies, which should be adopted by the school member and brings about plan of action for dealing with school problems.”*

Educational Leadership is essential to aspire change, to indicate and involve in activities, which lead to change and innovation. In addition to this, Thurston and Lotto (1990) pointed out that, “Educational Leadership is pivotal for the accomplishment of some highly important issues in the school setting.” The prime motive of the educational leader is achieving a high level of student progress in knowledge and skill, which is the ultimate goal of a school and that of a community in general.

#### **2.1.1.2 Educational Leadership as a Distributed Concept**

Leadership was thought of wholly in terms of the head teacher or principal. This is not so nowadays, with the prevailing view that leadership is a permeable process that is widely distributed throughout in the educational institutions. It is also known as the empowering process enabling others in school to exercise leadership (Brundrett, Burton and Smith, 2003). They further noted that the rationale behind it is that, in order for any high performing organizations or institutions to attain their objectives and goals, all sections and departments within the organization should be ‘full on’ and eradicate any underperformance or slack within the job itself.

Leadership is therefore seen as a distributed concept where it is seen as ‘an influence process’ and a ‘set of tasks connected to a particular position.’ In reality, incumbents of different positions also need to apply the influence processes to particular spheres of responsibilities, and those are often, and likely to be different.

### **2.1.2 Leadership Behaviors and Styles**

The search for effective leader behaviors and styles constituted the second historic approach to the study of leadership. Unlike the trait theory, which attempts to describe leadership on the basis of what leaders are, leadership behavioral approach seeks to explain leadership in terms of what they do and the relationships that exist between behavioral and work group performance.

All leaders develop a style of leading or motivating subordinates. Different authorities have different approaches in classifying leadership style. Sisk (1977) defines leadership style as “the consistency of goals or needs over different situations”. Furthermore, Flippo (1976) defines leadership styles as “a pattern of behavior designed to integrate organizational and personnel interests in pursuit of some objectives”.

Fiedler (1967) makes a clear and careful distinction between the terms ‘Leadership Styles’ and ‘Leadership Behaviors’. He defines Leadership Styles as “the underlying need structure of the leader that motivates behavior in various interpersonal situations” and he goes on to define Leadership Behavior as “the specific acts of a leader in directing and coordinating the work of group members”. This means that a leader can make helpful suggestions, can direct, commend and show considerations for the well being of group members. Leadership Style however, is the manner and approach of providing, directing, implementing plans and motivating people.

The Leadership Styles is the most determining factor for the success and failure of the designated goals of any organization. It has been classified on the basis of how leaders use their authority. Based on these criteria, leaders are normally classified into three Leadership Styles, which has been generally accepted by most writers. They are Authoritarian (Autocratic), Participative (Democratic) and Delegative (Free Reign or Laissez Faire) Leadership Styles.

Mbua (2003) points out that the democratic leadership is the most popular and successful type in educational settings; however, a combination of all styles should be used in some cases, depending on the circumstances and the goals to be achieved. Besides, both Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) maintain that, “leaders should not choose a strict ‘autocratic’, ‘democratic’ or ‘laissez-faire’ style. They should be flexible enough to cope with different situations”. To confirm to this thought, Burrup (1962) argues, “School administrators being either principals or other administrators have been referred to as autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire.”

This indicates the fact that no one person can be found who administrators his/her school solely in any one of these generalized patterns of leadership styles in its total connotations at all times. It is therefore safe to assume that there is no one best style of leadership. It all depends on the situation.

### **2.1.3 Effective Leadership**

What constitutes good leadership has been a subject of debate for centuries. In general, we usually label leadership as 'good' or 'effective' when it moves people to a place in which both they and those who depend upon them are genuinely better off, and when it does so without trampling on the rights of others. Yukl (1994) points out that it has become clearer that effective leadership at all levels of society and in all our organization is essential for coping with the growing social and economic problems confronting the world. Coping with these problems better is not a luxury but a necessity.

Effective Leadership, according to Principled-Centered Leadership sums it up as, "Give a man a fish, and you can feed him for a day, teach him how to fish, and you can feed him for a lifetime" (Covey, 1999). Furthermore, Fiedler (1967) defines leadership effectiveness as "the extent to which the group accomplishes its primary task". He goes on to say that although the group's output is not entirely a function of the leaders skills, the leader's effectiveness is judged on how well the group achieves its task. Mbua (2003) states that in all cases, leader effectiveness is "determined by the degree to which the task is or judged to be achieved". For example, if the academic performance of a Secondary School is high in external examination, then this shows the degree of leader effectiveness.

In today's world, in order to be successful and become an effective leader, Klan (2004) underlined three important things that leaders must perform simultaneously. They are to achieve the desired results, develop and care for their employees as well as conduct themselves in an ethical manner i.e. community, social and environmental consciousness. Furthermore, Larson and La Fasto (1989) maintained that "effective leaders give team members the self-confidence to act, to take charge of their responsibilities and made changes occur rather than merely perform assigned tasks". In short, they concluded, "Leaders create leaders".

In schools, Baltzell and Dentler (1983) stressed that outstanding schools have outstanding principals and what characteristics make a principal or in-school administrator outstanding,

effective and efficient are open to discussion; however, good principals appear to require highly professional and personal skills. Professional skills include planning of curriculum, instruction, evaluation, organization, financial management and political processes whilst personal skills include leadership, communication and group processes (Gorton et al: 1988).

To elaborate further, to be an effective leader, one must have the ability to develop and communicate a vision, to be persistent and maintain consistency, to stay focused and be able to give empowerment to subordinates, because in the long run, leaders do create leaders.

## **2.2 Women and Educational Leadership**

### **2.2.1 Women and Education of Women**

Improving the quality of women's education largely depends on the support from the family and community in encouraging young women and providing them with the same educational and training opportunities as young men. In Japan for instance, women's enrollment in four-year colleges and universities has been gradually increasing since 1975 from 21.6 per cent to 27.9 in 1990. In Mexico, it was noted that 82 per cent of all students who enrolled in higher education in 1994-95 were women. Similarly, in the US, women were awarded more degrees than in previous years. In fact, it was noted that the number of master's degrees awarded to women since 1986 exceeded those of men (Wirth, 2001). In Ethiopia, according to the Annual Abstract of Educational Statistics (MOE, 2005), the enrollment of female students increased by 4 per cent and 5.9 per cent in diploma and undergraduate level from 1999/00 to 2003/04 academic years respectively; however, only an increment of 0.2% was seen in the postgraduate studies program.

Progress in the levels and educational qualification achieved by young women clearly demonstrated their intellectual capacity to perform as well as young men. Wirth (2001) stresses on to say that women's educational, training and life experience are increasingly equipping them with the necessary qualification and skills to aspire to and be selected for top positions. Some see high-level education as a practical and potent means of gaining access to the highest echelons in the organizations. According to the 2000 Catalyst study conducted on "Women and the MBA: Gateway of Opportunities", it revealed that certain companies would not even look at applications unless one acquires a higher level of education (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001).

Women have gradually found their voice in their families, communities and even in public circles. They have become catalysts of social transformation not more important than men, but rather with the same dignity and nature. Yet, there is still a great amount to be done to establish

gender equality. The idea of women as educators should permeate society. Therefore, the widely accepted importance of educating women is a pre-requisite for social transformation and national development.

### **2.2.2. Women and their role in Educational Leadership**

Over the past three decades, Women in Leadership have been viewed as anomalies, as deficient, with respect to the traditional male models of leadership (Jones and Montenegro, 1983; Paddock, 1981). Helgeson (1990) has described female Leadership as web-like, dynamic, continuously expanding and contracting. He claims that it is highly connective, deriving its strength from empowering others. Therefore, female leadership then takes on different appearances, different shapes, and different directions as a web in constant redesign.

The term 'Women Leaders' embraces a heterogeneous rather than a homogeneous group. It is composed not only of women who have risen to senior positions and held these posts for many years, but also women who have risen from fairly subordinate positions to obtain a post of some responsibility, but will never make it to the top, plus the new generation of young graduate high flyers who have set their sights upon the most senior jobs. There is also a further group known as 'aspiring or potential' women managers who have not yet achieved a position of responsibility but would like to do so (Langrish-Clyne in Coopers and Davidson, 1984).

In the past, the subject of leadership in women has been confined to anecdotal figures that are remarkable for their small numbers. It is readily apparent, when we examine the education job market as a whole that the rate of participation of women diminishes the higher up the occupational hierarchy we move. Proportionately, fewer women stand on the top rungs on the managerial ladder than on the bottom (Zanville, 2001). She further on states that large concentration of women, to the almost virtual exclusion of men, are found in job types that are traditionally described as 'feminine' such as clerical, aides, and elementary teachers of which 80 per cent, 93 per cent and 80 per cent are women respectively. In contrast, men occupy, in far greater proportions, work categories historically classified as 'men's work' such as that of leadership and management, of which, 86 per cent of all school superintendents, 65 per cent of the Assistant Superintendent, 72 per cent of the Principals and 63 per cent of Vice Principals in Secondary School are positions men hold.

According to Norton, Webb, Dlugosh and Sybouts (1996), education is a field dominated by women, whereby 70 per cent of teachers are women and the superintendency is a position

heavily dominated by men. This clearly indicates that more males than females are currently employed as superintendents. Shakeshaft (1999) also proclaimed that women represent the majority of the teaching profession and in school administration graduate programs, but are persistently absent from the highest and most powerful administrative positions in public school education. The top three administrative posts held in public school education (Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent and High School Principalship) remain overwhelmingly filled by males (Keller, 1999).

Bell (1995) supported the causes of this cultural dilemma, stating that women in school administration are in the unusual position of having one foot in each camp, being members of a majority (women in education) as well as members of the few (women school leaders). She also revealed that the positions that females hold in Educational Leadership places them on the fringes of groups of teachers and administrators implying that they do not belong to either, or to both. Based on her research, Bell concluded that experiences of females in school administration encompass both authority and influence as leaders in isolation as women in male dominated occupation.

Women who have achieved success in Educational Leadership possess characteristics, and demonstrate behavior, that are essential for needed educational reform and the creation of a truly humanistic educational community (Dunlap and Schmuck, 1995). They emphasize further that in order to be successful in the male dominated public sphere, women in educational leadership have had to effectively integrate the best of what is stereotypically feminine (Private) with the best of what is stereotypically masculine (Public).

This type of integration results in a female organizational culture and women's ways of leading and creating both a worldview that is holistic, inclusive and empowering, which in turn allows both women and men to escape the trap of their stereotypes and can potentially lead the way in bridging the gap between theory and practice in education and serve as a model for educational change.

### **2.2.3 The Characteristics and Styles of Women Leaders**

The characteristics of women leaders have been of interest to researchers for a number of years and a number of studies have been carried out. Women have been brought up to be helpful, patient, accommodating, understanding and people-minded. They are generally more aware of the human factor, which is considered important. In this regard, Ndongko (1999)

pointed out that women by nature are accommodating, patient, gentle, have better human relation skills as well as communication techniques, which are qualities that are indispensable if the objectives of any given organization are to be achieved. This indicates that women are assets and should be appointed to leadership positions in the education industry.

The traditional-historical stereotypic characteristic of men and women were pointed out by Hart (1980) showing men as “aggressive, independent, objective, rational and maintain self-control” which was more valued than those of women. The women’s characteristics was shown as “emotional, subjective, passive, talkative and gentle.” Another writer, Wirth (2001) states some typical characteristics of the genders. Males were seen as ‘manipulative, independent, forceful, competitive, logical, resilient and decisive,’ whereas the females were seen as ‘flexible, emotional, spontaneous, intuitive, caring, cooperative and thorough.’

### **Is There a Female Management Style?**

There is no one ‘definite’ female management style. Some say women are better leaders and managers by nature of their ‘female’ management style, their superior team building skill, their ability to nurture and groom other employees, and even perhaps their feminine intuition; however, there are also nurturing male managers, which don’t prove the rule (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001). How one manager emerges from one’s personality, certain approaches work for some women and other approaches work for others. In a study of the relationship between sex role stereotype and management characteristics conducted by Schein (1993) revealed that male respondents pointed out that women as a group have brought a degree of sensitivity to the management style that allows a broader perspective in determining the course of action and decision-making.

While it is true that Traditional Leadership Theory is based on male models of competition, Sergiovanni (1999) strongly believes there are significant indications that change is underway. As Society changes, female values of inclusion and connection are emerging as valuable leadership qualities. The female view that one strengthens oneself by strengthening others is finding greater acceptance (Helgeson, 1990). In advocating for new dimensions of leadership through moral leadership, Sergiovanni (1999) recognized the accomplishments of women’s style of leadership when he wrote, “My reading of the literature on successful schools show that while women are underrepresented in principalship, they are over represented in successful principalship, so there must be something to it” which meant that women’s concern for community and caring was responsible for effective leadership.

Without drawing distinct gender lines, it is possible to point out a set of leadership styles and preferences often associated with the feminine. They include the preference for democratic rather than autocratic organizations and cultures that are inclusive and collaborative (Irby and Brown, 1995; Eagly, Karau and Johnson, 1992). Likewise, Blackmore (1999) claims that women stated preference for more democratic styles of management and collegiality.

### **Women Leaders breaking out of generally accepted caring 'feminine' leadership style**

There is sufficient evidence that a number of women leaders tend to adopt an Authoritarian model of Leadership. A study was conducted on female principals in Kenya that showed that they were products of and players in the patriarchal social world and survival was at stake for women in the leadership game. The powerful andocentric standards in Kenya provided a rationale for female principals' attraction to authoritarianism (Mungai, 2002).

Thompson (2003) notes that patriarchal relations of power may allow a small percentage of women to enjoy positions of power or privilege, but they do so on men's terms and as exceptions to the rule. He laments that women adopting this type of leadership now risk being seen as unfeminine and earn labels such as 'social males', 'queen bees', and 'isolates'. In this regard, Wirth (2001) points out that the characteristics considered to be 'masculine' rather than 'feminine' are generally regarded, as the traits required for management. As a result, women often try to adapt themselves to work environment and expectation created by men; however, management styles are evolving towards valuing a certain mix of the so-called 'masculine' and 'feminine' characteristics (Wirth 2001).

It would be seen that, as women's leadership qualities come to play a more dominant role in the public sphere, their particular aptitudes for long-term negotiating, analysis, listening, and creating an ambience in which people work with zest and spirit will help reconcile the split between the ideals of being efficient and being humane. This integration of female value is already producing a more collaborating kind of leadership, and changing the very ideal of what strong leadership actually is.

### **2.3 Barriers to Women's Participation in Educational Leadership**

The current under-representation of women in top leadership positions is reflected in several research studies conducted on women in educational administration, which reveal many critical problems facing women when they try to enter or advance in administrative careers (Gardiner, Enomoto, and Grogan, 2000; Gupton and Slick, 1996; Shakeshaft, 1989).

The problems which women face in educational leadership are many and they range from the areas of getting into jobs to getting on in jobs. The sources of these problems are many and varied. This section of the paper tries to address issues and reasons for the limited participation of women as well as indicate the major obstacles and barriers women face in obtaining educational leadership positions in the so-called male dominated field.

### **2.3.1 Women, Men and Society Attitudes towards Women Educational Leaders**

#### **2.3.1.1 Obstacles Attributable to Women Themselves**

One of the barriers women face in attaining leadership positions is influenced by barriers created within the women themselves, their perception of the ideal world and their self-concept. Through the earlier socialization process, women themselves acknowledge the world as masculine and perceive themselves as compliant, submissive, passive, less skillful than their male counterparts (Ouston, 1993). She further goes on to state that women prefer to evade competitions and appreciate collaboration in lieu of their perception that they are not suited to the educational leadership positions. Horner (1989) pointed out that females fear that success in competitive achievement situation will lead to negative consequences, such as loss of femininity and unpopularity. This 'failure/success dilemma' is the self-image women have regarding their lack of acceptance by male and female peers, superiors and subordinates.

Every woman lives with a list of 'shoulds', 'oughts' and 'musts' in her head. These internal voices represent what one thinks one must or should do. Often, they serve as guides to good destination but not always. In the Nibble Theory and Kind of Power, Jamison (1984) argues that these voices eat away at us, blocking genuine growth and subtly preventing us from growing into our true selves. This allows women to lose sight of what matters the most. He continues to stress the fact that these internal voices contradict themselves, whereby, many women find that societal norms suggest one course of behavior, organizational norms suggest a second and familial norms a third.

Women themselves exhibit forms of behavior that prevents them from attaining leadership positions or getting appointed to management positions in the educational system. This statement was confirmed strongly by Ndongko (1994) who stressed several factors attributing to their disadvantage.

*“Women tend to turn down opportunities if they feel they are not absolutely certain of the outcome; they tend to exhibit poor risk taking skills; their careers are focused primarily on small function specializations that are close ended; fear of success and failure on their performance of their job; lack of prior planning strategically to accommodate the problems of combining work and family commitments and obligations; involving in activities that do not promote or increase their visibility; lack of awareness and knowledge of the organizational culture....”*

Coopers and Davidson (1984) further confirmed that women tend to think that by working very hard and doing a good job (often 120 per cent then what's necessary), they will be noticed and promoted. In practice, they are left behind due to 'politics' and 'masculine organizational game', where men put more effort into getting along with the boss and preparing for the next job. Similarly, Ruderman and Ohlott (2002) sum it up by saying that one must know the unwritten policies and procedures of an organization and it is very important and imperative to understand where and how decisions are made within the organization.

The multiple roles women play causes role conflict, which poses difficulties especially for female leaders. This conflict occurs when a woman who occupies a position of leadership is enacting both a sex role woman and an organizational role leader (Biddle and Thomas, 1996). One type of role conflict is the attitudes held by the leader herself. This is when the woman in a position of leadership has one set of expectations for herself as a woman and another conflicting set of expectations for herself as a leader (O'Leary: 1974). Another form is expectations of other women's behavior. This is another type of role conflict that exists when female leaders, co-workers (superiors, sub-ordinates and peers) have conflicting expectations of how a woman should behave and how a leader should behave. This conflict will be communicated to the leader creating a lack of clarity as to how she is expected to behave in her leadership positions (Heller, 1982).

In the work place, Corner (1997) emphasizes that women are often judged by two quite different and conflicting standards, as women and as workers, placing them in a classic 'no-win' situation. For example, in most cultures, women as 'women' are expected to be submissive, passive and demure. Thus, a woman who displays the characteristics of a good manager (as being decisive, articulate, assertive and clear about goals and objectives) may find that their superiors are not appreciative because they are actually and probably unconsciously judging her as a woman and not as an effective woman leader.

Psychological stress is also created by the need to conform to socially induced images of

femininity and be the perfect wife, mother and homemaker. This produces many conflicts and burdens of guilt that inhibit career ambitions and performance (Cooper and Davidson, 1984). Women commonly feel a constant pressure to perform and prove themselves at the workplace and simultaneously, a persistent feeling of guilt in coping up with the expectations of the family at home. Although several women have been successful in striking a balance between home and work, not many have managed to assume leadership positions that are still considered a man's domain (Parikh, 2003).

In one of the surveys Catalyst conducted, one respondent, July Sprieser, a CEO at Transora Company was quoted as saying, "You can't have a career-life balance every day. It's a day-by-day decision. You do first things first". Some studies however, have shown women progressing at the same speed as men when they don't have breaks or leaves, but women with families often must take leaves or use flexible work schedules (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001).

Similarly, statistics show that it is easier for men to have both family and a career. Indeed, many women forgo marriage and children to devote themselves to a career. A 1997 survey of managers aged 35- 54 in the UK found that 88 per cent of male managers were married compared to 69 per cent of their female colleagues. 43 per cent of men managers had children less than 16 years of age, compared to 21 per cent of women (Charles worth, 1997). Studies indicate also that although it is possible for women to assume managerial roles, it is difficult for them to 'shed' family roles (Heller, 1982).

In summary, for women with family responsibilities, upward mobility may be further hampered as they struggle to satisfy the needs of both career and family. Only when all the issues which face women are confronted, like the exhausting demands of practically supporting a home, a partner, the caring of children and resisting the worry for not giving the best to them all, will women begin to develop their full potential in the workplace.

Women can be destructive to each other in the same organization (even in the same division) and end up sabotaging their own chances of success. Not every one likes women at the top and there can be strong feelings of jealousy and resentment. Women are concerned with their own survival; often their excuse of not helping or mentoring women (due to their insecurity) is that they do not want their supervisors to think that they give preference to females (Collins, 1983). Gupton and Slick (1996) also found that female administrators, new to their jobs, expected varying types of resistance to their leadership from men, but appeared blindsided by the

antagonistic behavior of the other women towards them.

Professional women in Australia have an interesting term for what happens to talented and outspoken females who rise quickly in their fields. They call it the 'Tall Poppy Syndrome' because a poppy that grows higher than the rest often gets its head chopped off (Polley, 1996). Such a phenomenon also occurs with women who achieve success in the field of educational administration, 'the blue flammers' (Funk, 2000), who rise quickly through the ranks but are often not supported and even sabotaged by other women who work with them. There are varying types of behavior women portray that show violence towards other women. They include the term 'Horizontal Violence' and 'Queen Bee Syndrome', which will be discussed below.

Many females in educational leadership positions in the United States experience a spectrum of types of negative treatment from female teachers to female superintendents (Funk, 2000) that can be defined as horizontal violence. The origin of the term 'Horizontal Violence' is credited by Freire (1970), a champion of the poor and disenfranchised in South America, who explored the effects of oppression on minorities in his book, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*.

Using Freire's concept of horizontal violence, minorities and other oppressed groups (women who live in a male-dominated society) rage internally because of their lack of power but take out their anger and violence on their oppressed peers (other women). According to Freire, the causal factor for this behavior is the powerlessness and impotence of the oppressed that would be severely punished if they attacked the powerful individuals who actually control their lives. Similarly, Kanter (1993) agrees by stating that horizontal violence appears to exist when female teachers realize that they have little or no power, except that given to them by men, and they appear powerful by 'lording it over' other females.

Therefore, the term "horizontal violence" (a type of psychological displacement) used here will be applied to instances of female school leaders who lash out at other females rather than vent their internal anger toward the men who in effect have been their oppressors.

"I went there by myself and by George, I am not going to help anyone!" (Collins, 1983) This saying reflects what Benton (1980) reported as a related phenomenon and named it the 'Queen Bee Syndrome', one that adds insult to injury in the plight of female administrators who seek support systems from within their own ranks. Supporting the relationship of the queen bee to the concept of horizontal violence, Ginn (1989) concluded that the queen bee phenomenon was

about power and noted that there was not enough of this precious commodity to go around. She indicated that the concept of shared power seemed difficult to grasp for those not usually included in the power loop, resulting in this counterproductive attitudes among many underrepresented female administrators. Ginn's conclusion is parallel to those posed by Freire concerning the lack of power as an underlying cause for horizontal violence.

In addition, Edson (1988) pointed out in her study, that the main concern among many of her respondents was the failure of female educators to support other female administrative applicants. The results of Edson's study revealed that, in spite of many women who were supportive of other women within her study, female aspirants were still concerned with the jealousy, competition, and lack of support shown to them by other female educators. Because of these "worst detractors," a serious distrust of women in the field was reported.

In a related vein, Shakeshaft (1995) reported that when she travels around the country and speaks with female administrative groups, a common theme that has emerged from her audiences is the belief that "women are their own worst enemies". She further notes that there is considerable and strong evidence that shows that it is other women who keep women from advancing. As one female educator noted: "I'm concerned about the harm that successful women do to other women in this district. The men are supportive; the women are jealous and sabotaging. Now that a few women have made it to higher levels, they seem to relish the opportunity to 'do in' other women" (Edson, 1988).

The curse of horizontal violence remains a hidden issue for females in educational leadership who lack sufficient power because of their lack of genuine status in their organizations. It provides an explanation of research results regarding the harm that some women do to others, hereby indicating that many female educational leaders dissociate to some degree in order to survive in often tenuous positions within the organizations where men are still the providers of the power.

### **2.3.1.2 Societal Factors: Attitudes and Perceptions**

Assuming that all other external obstacles have been removed and that all the difficulties in the past by the pioneers of the women liberation movement have been solved, there will still be women who cannot dare or do not want to take advantages of the opportunities open to them due to social conditioning.

Women are marginalized in decision-making and leadership by a variety of processes that begin in infancy (Corner, 1997). The newborn baby girl in the cot is the centre of attention of her parents and family. Through the years (as time progresses), through playing games with her friends, through the example of her parents and later through the official learning at school, the child would have learned all the appropriate behavior expected of her, other girls as well as women in society in general and will begin to regard this behavior as perfectly natural (Moore, 1996).

Girls' earliest education makes them into 'second class individuals'. Both parents and teachers subconsciously play a harmful role of making distinction between their children and their pupils on the basis on whether they are boys or girls (Borcelle, 1985). This socialization process in the society determines and shapes the personality, roles and identifies the individual in the society. During this process, individuals acquire skills, knowledge and dispositions that enable them to actively participate in the society. In other words, girls and boys are socialized differently to assume different roles and expectations in the society (Almaz; Genet, 1991).

In agreement to this, Borcelle (1985) stressed that this type of mentality and attitude is all-pervasive and is reflected in the most trivial acts. "The little girl is given the toy so she can play 'mother'- a doll, crib, a miniature stove with pots and pans whilst the boy gets a cowboy suit, a toy rifle, a lorry and a fire engine". In addition to this, the same mentality is found naturally in the attitudes of schoolteachers who continue to apply the same criteria to the assignment of manual work as the family world. For example, if a school girl prefers to engage in rough games, she is likely to be called a 'tomboy', while a school boy who shows interest in knitting, is labeled 'a sissy'. This type of sex role socialization and differential treatment will eventually inhibit women's aspirations, visibility and competitiveness in leadership positions.

Gender choices of study contribute to different outcomes in the professional profiles of men and women. Even if the quality of education is high across all the disciplines, the fact that men and women graduate in different areas already set the stage for dividing occupation with typically; 'male' or 'female' jobs. Wirth (2001) indicated that prior studies have shown families and societies usually base such gender choices on sex-role socialization; in other words, humans learn the behavior that is expected of males and females within their society from an early age. Wirth went on to state that employers are also influenced by views that tend to classify jobs as being more 'suitable' for women and men. Accordingly, young people readily perceive such differential treatment in the labor market and adapt their choices of profession and the subjects

they study. In this way, occupational segregation is perpetuated.

The concept of patriarchal has been used to draw attention to the fact that the preservation of public and private division of male and female characteristics and roles are necessary for the preservation of male supremacy (Ozga, 1993). She goes on to say that patriarchal thinking ensures the decision making power of men which in turn has imparted them with greater opportunities for power and status over women. Giddens (1993) further elaborates because of their roles as mothers and caretakers, women are primarily absorbed in domestic activities. Men are not dominant over women as a result of superior physical strength or any special intellectual powers, but because, before the development of techniques of birth control, women were at the mercy of their biological constitutions. Frequent pregnancy and continuous caring for infants made them dependant on males for material provision (Firestone, 1971; Mitchell 1973). Women become what the French Novelist and social critic Simone de Beauvoir called the 'second-sex', because they are excluded from the more 'public' activities in which males are free to engage (Beauvoir, 1972).

Therefore, once patriarchy was established, it became institutionalized and incorporated in institutions and it got embedded in subtle and not-so-subtle networks which eventually deterred women from taking up status and leadership positions.

### **2.3.1.3 Men's Behavior and Attitudes towards Women's Leadership**

In a male dominated society, men head almost all important organizations and establishments. In fact, men assume that men should run all organizations because they feel they are capable, competent and efficient in providing the type of leadership needed for the achievement of desired organizational goals.

Shakeshaft (1987) cited evidence from anthropological, psychological, sociological, biological, and political literature that supports a theory of the world in which men, in most cultures, occupy the most prestigious positions. She went on to assert that while there are differences among societies and cultures, in all cultures men and women divide labor on the basis of sex, and male tasks are more valued than female tasks. This male worldview, called androcentrism, elevates masculine pursuits to an ideal. This tradition reinforces the belief in male superiority and a masculine value system in which female values, experiences, and behaviors are viewed as inferior.

Langrish-Clyne (1984) pointed out that in many important respects, men managers hold the key to the entry of women managers to positions of increased responsibilities and seniority due to their feelings of discomfort and uneasiness, especially when they are expected to work with women at equal level. In fact, women who try to achieve are said to 'threaten' men and may be subjected to ostracism by fellow workers. The psychological impact of men will view integration of the work place as a threat to their jobs and self esteem. There will be considerable opposition from male workers if women are moved into men's turf (Smith, 1979).

In this regard, Ndongko (1994) emphasized the fact that men due to their uneasy feelings in working with women at equal level, one female manager interviewed, disclosed that men overlooked women in promotion, often did not offer or provide openings for women and even if they did, they offered them less opportunities and unchallenging work assignments, sometimes excluding them from important informal discussions as well as avoided telling their women subordinates how they were doing, what they are doing well, what they should improve and what directions they should take.

The sources of male leaders bias against women leaders may lie in the sex stereotyping of management as an occupation which requires 'masculine' characteristics which women are not thought to possess (Langrish-Clyne, 1984). In this regard, O'Leary (1974) confirms that it is the male, not the female sex role stereotype that coincides with 'male management model' that was established by a number of investigators, which is one of independence, objectivity, task orientation and aggressiveness.

One of the surveys Catalyst conducted revealed that when men, who were at the top of the ladder, were asked what women needed to do to succeed and have upward mobility, one summed it up by saying, "Acquire skill and credibility; take charge and do the same things as men do". Women are caught in a man's choreography in a workplace created by men. Even if women did what men did, men would still see women differently. For example, if one is assertive, they would often be called 'unfeminine' or 'bitchy' and if one is less in their face, they're often ignored. No matter how well one performs, it's all looked upon differently (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001).

If management is typically seen as a male role, this is still the most difficult aspect for women to cope with, since they are still primarily stereotyped into, at least partial, family/domestic role, even if their interest in that aspect of their life is considerably less than that of many men managers. Those women who even seek covertly or overtly, to achieve an appropriate

balance of responsibility are criticized for 'wanting it both ways' and 'lacking commitment'. In conclusion, many researches have indicated that the biggest barriers to women's participation and advancement in the organization hierarchy included men's negative attitudes towards women; sex stereotyping by their male managers and being excluded from informal networks, the so-called the 'old buddy system'.

### **2.3.2 Organizational Barriers to Women's Educational Leadership Roles**

While it appears easy for women to gain employment at the lower levels of the organization, it is proving very difficult for them to reach, upper, middle and senior management positions. Competent, committed, talented and qualified women look up through the glass ceiling and can see what they are capable of achieving, but invisible barriers prevent them from breaking through. This is institutional resistance to women that is present in all areas of the work world, which is a reflection of social and economic gender inequality.

Therefore, with more women entering managerial positions, as a minority group subjected to male-dominated policy making, research findings indicate that female managers are subjected to a greater number of work related problems and pressures compared to male executives (Coopers and Davidson, 1980). The specific problems and pressure which have been isolated as being unique to female managers include: the institutional structure and climate; strains of coping with perceptions and sex stereotyping; occupational segregation and discrimination, burdens of coping with the role of the 'token women'; lack of leadership models and support systems and unequal opportunity of education, training and promotion (Henning and Jardim, 1979, Coopers and Davidson, 1982).

#### **2.3.2.1 Perception and Stereotypes of Women in the Workforce**

The workforce is experiencing a slow evolution, not a revolution towards gender blindness that will take a long time to overcome because previously men designed the workplace to fit their own needs, which has worked for a long time. Over and over again, women's talent, commitment, ambitions have run into barriers that are apparently invisible to many men. Rapoport et al (2002) argued persuasively that organizations rely on male standards and experiences from earlier decades. These masculine norms inhibit experience and contributions of women.

Like men, women managers work in an environment that emphasizes achievement and goal accomplishment; however, organizations send different messages to men and women, giving

men much more latitude. Men can use a variety of command and control, persuasive and risk taking techniques whereas gender stereotypes hold women to a more limited range. Many behaviors admired in men evoked criticism-too aggressive, too strong, and too macho – in woman. But if women act too feminine, they are seen as too “soft” for the job. In breaking the glass ceiling, Morrison et al (1992) describe this phenomenon as a narrow band of acceptable behavior that hampers women ability to lead effectively.

No matter how competent, strong, talented or smart women may be in the work force, the myths about women can cloud their future when they least expect them. The myths about women in the workplace can lurk everywhere and one cannot hide from others’ perception except when women themselves debunk them with reality. Wellington and Catalyst (2001) stated the most common myths women encounter in the workplace are: - Women are less committed to their jobs than men are; women cannot or would not put in the hours that are required to get the job done; they are not qualified or prepared for the job; women are not aggressive enough, do not take risks and are not rainmakers; if they become pregnant then they are bound to stay home for a very long time; women would not relocate or travel for work and they do not need to work, because men support them.

#### **2.3.2.2 Occupational Segregation and Discrimination**

Occupational segregation by gender constitutes a major social problem for working women. It sets the stage for in-built gender bias in prospecting, recruiting and hiring patterns even if discrimination is formally prohibited. While men and women may have similar qualifications and the possibilities to apply for all jobs, the selection process often favors men or women for certain jobs. Wirth (2001) points out that in job interviews, certain questions are asked of women and not of men, such as, whether or not they plan to marry or have children, which in essence bears no relation to the job to be performed.

A survey was conducted in Singapore which identified common reservations about hiring women where many respondents felt that married women were unsuitable for jobs requiring frequent travel; there were also doubts that women did not take their work seriously nor willing to work long hours to succeed; the perception that women are temporary workers and finally there were seen as reluctant to hire women to head departments staffed with men (Chan and Lee, 1994).

Interestingly, Goldin (1990) stressed that even though participation in the workplace by women has steadily increased along with a history of political and legislative action designed to eliminate (or at least ease), such inequities and discrimination, gender differences in occupations remain constant. Today, about 46 per cent of the labor force is made up of women, yet only 10 per cent of all women workers are in management. Many of these are in mid-level positions from which there is little chance of promotion (Kelly, 1991; Dunn, 1997).

Similarly, Wirth (2001) agrees that in the United States, although the percentage of women participating in the labor force has increased dramatically, women have remained concentrated in a narrow range of occupations. Even in occupations dominated by women, men usually occupy the 'more skilled', 'responsible' and 'better paid' positions. For example, in the teaching profession, the majority of teachers are often women but yet the top administrators are men. Likewise, it is readily apparent that the education job market seen as a whole shows that the rate of participation of women diminishes the higher up the occupational hierarchy we move.

One outcome of occupational segregation is significant pay differences between men and women worker. Even though the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value has been incorporated into the labor legislation in many countries, pay differentials continue to be one of the most persistent forms of gender inequalities (Wirth, 2001). In this regard, Smith (1979) confirmed that women are rarely paid in positions of authority. The assignment of male supervisors to be predominately female workforce limits women's upward mobility, even in female dominated occupations. For example, in elementary /secondary schools, two thirds of the teachers are women, but a third of the principals and other school administrators are men.

More women are refused employment, fired, forced to quit salaried jobs as a result of sexual demands. Sexual harassment of women on the job may come from peers as well as superiors (Heller, 1982). Other authors, (Mackinnon, 1979; Curio and Milford, 1993) cited sexual harassment as having more to do with power than sex, which aligns with violence against women. In the workplace, it is a form of economic coercion that pressures unequal power and weakens competition coming from the growing work experience of women. Sexual harassment can occur within the school system because women generally play subordinate roles and male supervisors control their economic fate. It is therefore, organizations full responsibility to have 'zero balance tolerance' for sexual harassment in the workplace. (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001)

### 2.3.2.3 Lack of Leadership Mentors and Support Systems

If women want to succeed, they need to be mentored into these positions traditionally held by men and with a suitable mentor, they would have a much greater chance of understanding the game called 'working'. Collins (1983) strengthens this idea by stating that mentors are very important to women since they give lots of encouragement; share their aspirations; have absolute faith in women's ability; boost self-esteem; give vision to think 'big' so as to see the big picture; shape personal philosophy and formulate one's support; teach by example; impart valuable information; introduce themselves to the organizational structure (its politics and the players) and give feedback on one's progress.

In a catalyst study, four out of five senior women emphasized the importance of a mentor to their success. In fact a catalyst study on women of color in corporate management, emphasized that women listed 'not having an influential mentor or sponsor' as a major barrier to their career advancement (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001). Lacking a mentor often meant that women leaders experienced limited career advancement. To help a women's career, it is frequently mentioned to have a sponsor, support system or mentor in the context of succeeding as managers. As Fenn (1980) says:

*“ Progress in a career requires access to inner circles of association that are different to attain. Elite positions in organizations have traditionally been reserved for men. If women are to function efficiently and effectively as organizational members, they need access to inner circle support. Women who are serious about a career are beginning to discover that it is possible to enhance credibility through sponsorship”.*

Exclusion from informal networks stands as one of the top barriers to success reported by women at or near the top in the Catalyst survey 'Women in Corporate Leadership' as well as in the Catalyst study of 'Corporate and Professional Women in Canada' (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001). Similarly, in a study of thirty-eight African-American female school administrators, lack of professional network was perceived as more of a barrier to their career advancement. Along with that perception, more African-American female administrators also felt that they were excluded from the informal socialization process into the profession known as the 'Good Old Boy Network' (Allen et al, 1995).

Networking is a means of making long term contract, which serves as an insurance for one's professional longevity. The 'Old Boy Network' is within which men in business operate, the informal buddy system connects them with jobs, new business and other opportunities. Men are

always building their life long contact base that evolves from people men know through the years, from going to school, through working, changing jobs, making new connections through those connection and so on. Women on the other hand, have not thought of it in terms of connecting in ways that will help them professionally and are busy getting the job done at the office and at home and missing out from the insights, help connections that come from networking (Wellington and Catalyst, 2001).

Coopers and Davidson (1984) stressed the importance of support groups. The encouragement of women to form their own networks at different levels of the hierarchy or outside the organization is likely to be useful way of building confidence and expertise. Discussion with other women can help improve feelings of powerlessness, obtain insights into organization politics and enable them to identify common problems faced by woman leaders, which are not necessarily their own ' faults' or ' weaknesses', but an aspect of the situation to be dealt with.

Women's networks can powerfully impact the culture and policy of organizations and professions. They provide women avenues to develop talents, build relationships, and support job equity. Women leaders need support, encouragement, and a sense of connection with others who understand the world in which they live.

#### **2.3.2.4 Lack of or Unequal Opportunity of Education, Training and Promotion**

Significant gender differences continue to exist in the nature and quality of education and training. These represent real obstacles for many women, both at the recruitment stage and later in their careers. Improving the quality of women's education largely depends on the support from family and community in encouraging young women and providing them with the same educational and training opportunities as young men. Wirth (2001) confirms that despite growing gender equality in the number of enrollments undertaken and degrees awarded, women are still concentrated in the lower levels of tertiary education. One of the main reasons women forgo investing in education is the fear that further education will not result in the career opportunities they expect to get or have.

Equal access for young women to education, vocational training and on-the-job training is an essential pre-requisite for women to obtain more highly skilled and better paying jobs. Until a sufficient number of women have the qualifications and skills required for moving into "men's" jobs, they cannot constitute the critical mass in organizations needed to ensure that all women, not just the exceptional few, have the chance to advance (Wirth, 2001).

In Kenyan schools, young female teachers find themselves taking longer to become heads of departments than their males counter parts due to gender oppression in the promotion system, as well as experience disrespect from boy students in communities where females have low social status compared to males (Mungai, 2002). The reason for lack of promotion argued by Wellington and Catalyst (2001) was the fact that managers don't like reporting to women where men have a difficult time being supervised by women. Likewise, in most organizations, managers deciding who gets an assignment naturally choose someone they know and trust. If they hang out at lunch or after work or on the golf course with the guys, who work for them, it's these faces they'll think of when opportunities arise. The informal methods many organizations use for giving out assignments or promotion leave a lot of room for ingrained bias.

Even when women succeed in gaining education and enter the decision making mainstream, they are often marginalized by an institutional setting that reflect men's needs and situations and ignores women's different needs and experiences. Corner (1997) argues that modern work patterns and practices are designed for men to fit their needs and expectations, hence providing a work environment that is not family friendly. The hours and inflexibility of the working day, overtime, the location of work and commuting times make it difficult for working women to meet the dual expectations of their family and work roles, giving rise to role conflict.

Accordingly, some organizations are restructuring into smaller units, tending to become more narrow, autocratic and formalized as they concentrate on the cost cutting necessary for survival. This meant shorten management hierarchies, which reduces opportunities for promotion for women who have narrow specialist expertise (Coopers and Davidson, 1984).

#### **2.3.2.5 Appointments without Consideration**

The appointments of women to such management positions are often not guided by any objective criteria. This implies that in such appointments, due consideration is often given to personal relationships and recommendations made by well-placed personalities or friends. Due to these selection procedures, it is however, important to point out that appointments in some countries in general are usually politicized.

A study conducted by UNESCO in Cameroon, (Ndongko, 1994), showed that it was obvious that those women appointed were neither competent, experienced nor did their background meet the requirements for the positions. Thus many of the qualified, competent, professionally better

trained and equipped with requisite skills and with more experience, women may never have the opportunity of being appointed to decision-making positions. They are consequently, discouraged and cannot contribute effectively to the development of the country.

Another point to consider is that, women who were appointed without any consideration for qualifications and professional expertise, may realize that among their staff, are other women who are better qualified, and this may lead to a feeling of insecurity. Such insecurity will certainly lead them to make many mistakes and perhaps develop dictatorial tendencies, which will most likely prevent them from functioning effectively (Ndongko, 1999).

## **2.4 Strategies and Actions that Promote Women's Participation in Educational Leadership**

The current under-representation of women in top leadership positions is reflected in several research studies conducted on women in educational administration, which reveal many critical problems facing women when they try to enter or advance in administrative careers (Gardiner, Enomoto, and Grogan, 2000; Gupton & Slick, 1996; Shakeshaft, 1989). In spite of these difficulties regarding entry into leadership in education, the continuing discrimination in hiring and promotion, and other external and internal barriers, these women persistently pursue roles in leadership (Edson, 1988).

Leadership development as a process is assuming even greater importance of the growing complexity of education and with its increased tendency towards specialization, there is greater need for women leaders to have coping strategies as well as develop actions to be taken in order to overcome barriers women face in the participation of educational leadership. In this regard, Albino (1992) suggests that female leaders must learn to develop and use work strategies to help them cope and achieve success in leadership positions.

### **2.4.1 Preparation of Positive Action Program in an Organization**

Administratively, one of the reasons for women's under representativeness in the leadership positions is that many educational organizations are hierarchically structured with the majority of women visible at the base of the pyramid and a very negligible number visible at the apex. In order to reverse and increase women's participation, organizations have to take a good usage of appropriate selection and promotion criteria (Ruderman and Ohlott, 2002). They further stressed that these decisions are influenced by the visibility of various candidates, where the visibility leads to greater opportunity, which in turn leads to rewards.

Wellington and Catalyst (2001) also agree that visibility is very important for advancement and leads to advancement. Women need to showcase their talent and accomplishment that people with power to make decisions, know about them and think of them for opportunities; however, women can be vulnerable and be subject to jealousy causing a serious loss of support from colleagues. Therefore, women need to set up a strategy for advancement that requires technique and savvy.

Organizations need to address the climate of gender equity that refers to the extent to which an organization values both masculine and feminine norms. By doing so, it results in enhanced organizational performance by creating a safe environment at the work group level, making it a place where employees can discuss challenges in balancing life's different domains, strengthen women's feelings of connection by creating, developing both formal and informal networks, take a good look at women's performance evaluation systems as well as usage of appropriate selection and promotion criteria and norms of work groups and interpersonal relationships need to change to create a performance culture inclusive of women (Ruderman and Ohlott, 2002).

Langrish-Clyne (1984) claimed that if women are to be given careers which make unusual demands on their time and energy and which at some point may conflict with their personal life, then it seems sensible for an organization to continue its investment in this person by encouraging to stay, with the offer of extended maternity leave. Women especially need help when they have babies. "The government won't help them, so companies must".

Institutions need to reexamine their organizational culture and work practices so as to create a more women-family-friendly institution. This meant issues like introducing flexible time, career structure for promoting workers and parental leave and emergency leave for caregivers.

#### **2.4.2 Women's Own Action Skills for Success in Educational Leadership**

Women appointed to leadership positions are more than just professional employees. Very often, these women are also mothers, wives and housekeepers. Each of these roles, if done well require full time effort. The demanding pace of their days and the contemporary pattern they face requires women to develop personal skills and learn strategies to help cope and access success in their leadership positions.

#### **2.4.2.1. Leadership Development**

In order for women to succeed and excel the organizational ladder, they need to be effective leaders so as to inspire workers into higher levels of teamwork and follow the eleven basic principals of leadership (US Army, 1973 as cited in Clark, 2005). There are certain things women must know, be, and do in order to effectively lead. These principles do not come naturally but are acquired through continual work and study. Women leaders, therefore should continually work and study to improve their leadership skills and not rest on their laurels. To be successful, they have to convince their followers, not themselves or their superiors, that they are worthy of being followed.

Clark (2005) stated the eleven principles of Military Leadership in US Army handbook 1973 as:  
-Know yourself and seek self-improvement; be technically proficient; seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions; make sound and timely decisions; set the example; know your people and look out for their well-being; keep your workers informed; develop a sense of responsibility in your workers; ensure that tasks are understood, supervised, and accomplished; train as a team and use the full capabilities of your organization.

Oakley and Krug (1991) stated in their book entitled “Enlightened Leadership-Getting to the heart of change”, that leaders need not have vision themselves, but need only possess the willingness and the ability to draw vision from their subordinates, inspire and empower them to do what it takes to bring vision into reality. Therefore, women who do empower others would have revealed a stage of self-development where they no longer feel threatened by someone else having power. They will be comfortable enough and secure in themselves and their positions, which lead to a very high level of self-confidence, and self esteem. Block (1988) sums it up by concluding “empowered leaders also know that giving away power is like lighting many candles from a single one, where one does not subtract from their power, but adds to it.”

Women are experienced in managing one of the most complex organizations imaginable – ‘the household,’ and therefore can apply their skills and experience in terms of hard work and sensitivity in managing relationships, at the workplace. Ruderman and Ohlott (2002) stressed that experience outside of work are rich in opportunities for learning practical management and leadership skills. Sometimes these opportunities come without warning, as in hardship. More often than not, women through these experiences build and develop specific leadership skills.

In organizations, it is widely accepted that experience gained from job assignments and formal

training helps managers/leaders develop their skill in such areas as implementing agenda; working through relationships; creating change and increasing personal awareness. However, it is important to note that managers/leaders discount what can be learned from experiences from outside of work. Interest, roles and responsibilities outside of work can also serve as creative and supportive sources for learning how to be a more effective manager/leader.

#### **2.4.2.2. Survival in the Working World of Men**

As stated earlier, in a male dominated society, men head most institutions and the workforces are designed by them in order to fit their needs. Women leaders, in order to survive in the face of the realities of the working world of men, have to learn the organizations culture that is, how it is set up and how it functions. This does not mean that women must assume the behaviors defined by that culture, but they must be aware of the organizational environment in order to work in or around it and maximize their effectiveness (Smith, 1979).

Effective communication is a must for all leaders at all organizational levels. Communication is at the core of each interpersonal experience, at the same time, it is often the major stumbling block to meaningful interactions. Working effectively with others is a fundamental skill woman leaders should possess. The fact that the individual is a focal point of human relations, each individual is unique in his/her beliefs, values and attitudes. Women leaders should therefore learn as much as possible about their followers particular pattern of behavior so as to maintain good relationship among followers, develop positive feelings about the work and members of the work group as well as successfully and punctually accomplish the organizational given task (Hart, 1980)

Similarly, to be effective and to survive, women need to develop and apply their leadership skills appropriate to their positions in the organizations. They need to cope with the problems that arise as they reach higher levels in the organizations, where they will be increasingly prevalent in the numerical minority (Heller, 1982). This requires hard work, dedication, support, careful planning as well as time to themselves.

Women leaders need not feel pressured to conform to the ideal stereotypical characteristics of men in the workplace as tough, aggressive and hard nosed, as well as sacrifice who and what they are, to be effective leaders. They must reconfirm their strengths and make a personal commitment. One must be "true to the self", getting in touch with personal values, beliefs, goals and strengths.

### **2.4.2.3 Develop Support Systems**

Some women leaders, because they work in a male dominated field, are reluctant to join networks of women and consequently have few means to develop a strong identity of leadership. Women need to build multiple support networks, where some should be for business, counsel and contact including those that will help measure women's progress towards their goals. Other networks can help manage their personal and family responsibilities and provides emotional support to enable them to balance their lives in good and bad time. (Hadary, 2003)

Once a woman makes a commitment to have a professional life, she needs to make an advocate who is senior. This person will counsel, support and assist her in her climb upwards as well as validate their experience and feelings, make her feel part of the community as well as introduce and give her vision (Collins, 1983). Moreover, for advancement, women need to connect with and help each other on a one to one basis. Besides that, Kram (1985) stressed that women in senior positions should be able to act as role models or be supportive peers for young women more so than men because they understand the women's struggle, the many responsibilities which most of women have and the handicap that they are under in an organization by just being a woman. Both can admire each other, discuss all options and possibilities that are out there, have open relationships that brings them closer which reinforces courage and builds confidence.

In summary, for advancement, women need to connect with and help each other on a one to one basis. By networking, it creates power that leads to a richer, fuller personal and professional life. Power in this sense is the spirit of giving and sharing.

### **2.4.2.4 Awareness and Attitudinal Change**

Attitudes are formed at an early age and are reinforced by prevailing traditions and societal process. Influencing attitudes are the most important activity that can be undertaken. In the final analysis, no amount of policy statement, directions to management and monitoring of statistics will afford any benefits for women if the attitudes of both men and women are not changed. At the same time, attitudes of managers and people in top senior positions themselves need to be influenced so that any consciously or unconsciously held beliefs which can act as barriers to equal opportunity are gradually removed.

In her study of the attitudes towards women leaders, Lougheed (2000) pointed out that women and men need to be aware of the attitudes held towards women leaders and the extent to which

gender bias, that set attitudes which creates a set of expectations of another's ability by sex and occupations influence attitudes. Problems of gender bias exist in the classroom, in the curriculum and throughout various levels of the educational system. In addition, Coopers and Davidson (1982) stated that changing of attitudes applies to senior management and the organization climate as a whole- openness and receptivity to change is what organizational development and career development is really about. In order to accomplish this, it needs the power, resources and commitment of those at the top to make it happen. They conclude by saying, " if there is a will, the ways are not difficult to find".

Another essential step towards a more equal participation of women in decision-making and leadership is the awareness rising for men. Institutional culture, Corner (1997) stressed that men need to become aware of the ways in which their assumptions, attitudes and behaviors are gendered to reflect their own situation, exclude a woman's perspective and thus obstruct women's equal participation. Women and men together must them negotiate a new institutional settings that provide space for both groups.

### **2.4.3 Professional Training and Policy Interventions**

#### **2.4.3.1 Child Rearing and Socialization Process**

In terms of their family background, Almquist (1974) found that women who chose non-traditional careers such as management were raised in families where the mother worked full time. Henning and Jardim (1977) showed that it was important for successful women leaders to have a close relationship with a father who encouraged non-female stereotypical behavior and self-concepts. Place (1979), in a study of senior female managers of New Zealand, found that although most of their mothers were employed outside the home, they had successful fathers and both parents were considered to be supportive of their career choice.

#### **2.4.3.2 Strategy for Female Schooling and Professional Development of Women**

Recent research and concrete calculations show that educating females yields far-reaching benefits for girls and women themselves, their families and the society in which they live. And once the benefits are recognized, investment in the education of girls may well be the highest return investment available in the developing world (King and Hall, 1993). In order to attain that, some strategies were proposed which include, increasing access of education to girls, raise educational levels of mothers, increase female teachers for raising achievement and attainment, improve the quality of education by changing teaching practices, provide culturally appropriate facilities, reduce direct cost by offering scholarships, provision for counseling and

guidance at the secondary level to allow students to make the best career decision and increase the awareness of teachers by eliminating the negative attitudes of teachers towards the ability of girls. Wondimagenu and Tiku (1988) reported that eighteen out of thirty one teachers interviewed felt that boys were better than girls in all academic subjects.

There is a general consensus that since women are underrepresented at administrative level especially at secondary and central office positions, professional development can be one of the strategies used to help promote women in leadership roles by giving them added skills for understanding the complexities and difficulties they may face as leaders.

Manuah (1998) in her paper entitled “Women in Africa’s Development-overcoming obstacles and pushing for progress” wrote that training programs were needed to help women develop their technical competence, strengthen their capacities and skills, expand their opportunities as well as help them gain the maximum competence and means.

Similarly, Coopers and Davidson (1984) have argued that the use of training and giving courses whether internal or external is still seen as a major technique for change in both the individual and the organization. Organizations should not only think of providing training to women in similar ways to men, but due consideration should be made in the appropriateness of timing, contents and organization of these courses. Course methods, literature and case studies may still need revisions, since most have traditionally been based on a concept of management as a masculine profession. The subject of ‘women only’ training courses remains a controversial one. The use of women only courses is in no way substitute, but women have found them extremely helpful even though initially had resisted to the idea (Coopers and Davidson, 1982).

Women’s access to such training is critical for their own advancement and for the organizations to maximize women’s contributions. For women moving up the ladder in managerial jobs, access to formal management training programs offered by employers is critical.

#### **2.4.3.3 Eliminate Sex Role Stereotyping in Educational Curricula**

The educational materials have often presented images of traditional, social, domestic and occupational roles for both men and women. From an early age, children thus develop notions of male and female roles, which are outdated and old fashioned. Wirth (2001) stressed that since social roles constantly evolve as societies change, school texts should reflect the latest developments and that governments should implement equality policies and laws so as to

systematically reduce sex role stereotyping at all levels in the curricula of educational institutions.

#### **2.4.3.4 Policy Interventions**

For governments, education policy makers and development specialists are faced with the challenge as to identify, which barriers are the prime ones in specific setting and which policy measures are appropriate. Usually policy and programs choices are not always rational or based on cost-benefit calculations by government. Choices are often made in the ground of social and community pressures.

In order for policy interventions to be successful, there has to be a clear and transparent policy along with a strong central leadership. King and Hall (1993) suggested three broad guidelines needed to be imported to policy makers who want to address the problem of improving women's education in developing countries. In order for the policy to be sustainable, programs must be administratively feasible, cost effective and be consistent with other objectives in the education sector, sound research and information to underpin policy prescriptions are solely needed and raising women's education should be the concern of national education policy, not just of special projects and must be influenced by other policies as well.

In summary, to strive to advance women's education often means proceeding with best guesses, guided by what has worked well under similar circumstances or by what theoretically is essential; however, as King and Hall (1993) concluded, "No simple or uniform prescriptions are possible".

## **2.5 Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in Ethiopian Context**

### **2.5.1 The Current Status of Ethiopian Women Educational Leaders**

Ethiopian women have demonstrated considerable leadership in community and informal organizations, as well as in public office; however, socialization and negative stereotyping of women have reinforced the tendency for leadership and decision-making to remain the domain of men. In Ethiopia, there are many sayings (proverbs) that reflect the inability of females to play leadership roles or to exercise other decision-making situations.

Below are some of the Ethiopian proverbs: -

- “Set bittawk, bewend yalk”- translated by Dr. Seyoum (1986), However “knowledgeable a woman may be, the final decision rests on a man”.
- “Set lij bemajet, wend lij bechilot”- translated as “Women’s place is in the kitchen, while that of a man’s is in the court of law”.

These culture-based stereotypes might have compelled women to evade high status career, particularly that of leadership, and their number happened to be marginal in such activity (Yalew, 1997). Currently, the participation rate of Ethiopian Women in Educational Leadership is still seen as low. For instance, the participation in higher post of educational administration indicates a small number where data obtained from the personnel office of the Ministry of Education reveal, out of 313 administrative and managerial workers currently employed in the head office, women occupied only 5 postpositions. Similarly, the participation rate of Ethiopian Women in school educational leadership is also seen as low. Data obtained from Addis Ababa Education Bureau reveals that out of ten sub-cities, in Government Primary Schools, only 15 women out of 84 were principals while only one female principal out of 21 were reported in Government Secondary Schools. Thus, the above facts indicate the under representation of Women in Educational Leadership positions in Addis Ababa.

### **2.5.2 Promulgation of the New Constitution**

Many governments have realized that without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women’s perspective at all levels of decision making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved. It is with this light, to address the issue of achieving the goals of equal participation of women and men, the Ethiopian Government (FDRE) in Article 25 of the new constitution guarantees all persons equality before the law and prohibits any discrimination on the grounds of gender. With the announcement of the National Policy of Women in 1993 (referred to as the Women’s Policy) and promulgation of the new constitution in 1995, the FDRE declared its unequivocal commitment to the equitable socio-economic development of women. Women’s policy aims to institutionalize the political, economic and social rights of women by creating appropriate structure in government offices and institutions so that public policies and interventions are gender sensitive and can ensure equitable development for all Ethiopians.

Article 35 on the other hand addresses the issue of the “Right of Women” that was effective the 21<sup>st</sup> day of August 1995. The sub-article 3 reads as,

*“The historical legacy of inequality and discrimination suffered by women in Ethiopia is taken into account. Women, in order to remedy this legacy, are entitled to affirmative measures. The purpose of such measures shall be to provide special attention to women so as to enable them to compete and participate on the basis of equality with men in political, social and economic life as well as public and private institutions”. (P.93)*

The above constitutional right of women is a reflection of international and national efforts to narrow the gap of gender discrimination in different sectors of development. These impressive central level pronouncements however generated high expectations, but implementations of the women’s policy are proving to be more challenging and a formidable task. World Bank (1998) pointed out that the difficulty was attributable to the process of regionalization, which transferred responsibility for the implementation of policies to regional government. The power, duties and responsibilities to entities were not adequately prepared for the tasks which meant that the policy of women were implemented slowly and the variation of the regional contexts increased the complexity of designing and implementing gender sensitive development interventions.

### **2.5.3 Educational Policy Regarding Women**

The low participation of females in education affects developing countries not only from fully benefiting from role females play in development, but also from attaining international and national declarations and goals of education. To address this problem, many countries including Ethiopia formulated legislations that address specially equity issues.

The main policy response is the declaration of Universal Primary Education. In MOE (1999), it was stated that apart from ascribing in 1964 to the universal declaration of right which declares that everyone is entitled to the basic rights of literacy, Ethiopia in 1990 participated in the worlds conference on “Education For All” and along with other signatories pledged to devote renewed efforts to providing education for all with particular attention to promote the participation of females in education. The policy presents that by providing administrative, financial and material support, the Ethiopian education will promote the participation of women in education and education will be an instrument to aware societies and change their attitude about the role of women in development (MOE, 1994).

Despite the continuing effort that has been made by the government of Ethiopia to enhance the enrollment ratio of female students to higher education institutions by “Affirmative

Actions”, data obtained from AAU registrars office (AAU, 2006) reveals that a very high number of them were dismissed or dropped out before completion of their studies. The under representation of females in higher rank positions and qualification levels is particularly the consequence of their participation in higher level of education.

The government has also established the Women’s Affairs department in MOE and some regions have also formulated the Women’s Affairs department and units to address gender issues in education, to create awareness and initiate attitudinal change. In addition, a number of awareness creation programs, training at different levels were conducted by MOE, government and non-government organizations. Many researches were also conducted to identify the problems that hinder the participation of females in education. Due attention was also given to promote the participation of Women in Educational Administration as stated in Article 3.83, “Educational Management will be democratic, professional, co-coordinated, efficient and effective and will encourage the participation of women” (MOE, 1994); however, in the above directive, due consideration was not given to females participation. Attention was only given to their performance, service years and experience etc. To promote or advance the participation of females, it is necessary to give them due attention during selection, setting special quotas in the directives and facilitating other strategies.

#### **2.5.4 The Problems in the Implementation of the Policy**

In spite of its effort however, many disparities still continue to exist between women’s legal right, economic status, educational opportunity and success. From operational perspective, the implementations of these policies have not been a straightforward process. The reasons could be affected by a number of factors, which are problems in formulation and launching of the strategies such as inappropriateness of strategies, problems in designing the way to put the strategies into action; lack of communicating the strategies; structural and administrative problems; resource constraint especially financial; lack of commitment of leaders and other staff members and lack of understanding and knowledge about gender issues. Therefore, in order for women to take advantage and participate in education as well fully benefit in development by participating in educational leadership positions, the Ethiopian Government needs to address these barriers for effective implementation.

# Chapter 3

## 3. Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of data that are categorized into two major parts. Part one presents the characteristics of respondents. The second part deals with the analysis and interpretation of factors that affect Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership in four sub sections.

### 3.1 Characteristics of the Study Population

The data were collected from Educational Officials, School Leaders and Teachers including both genders. The total questionnaire distributed for the study constituted 353, of which 53 was distributed to the Educational Officials in the City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, Sub City Education Offices and the Kebele Education Desks; 66 to Primary and Secondary School Leaders and 234 to Primary and Secondary School Teachers. A total of 328 (93%) questionnaires were returned of which 48(91%) were returned from the Educational Officials, 60(91%) from School Leaders and 220 (94%) from Teachers. (See Appendix V)

Data obtained through interviews was also incorporated in the analysis. The interview was administered to 6 Educational Officials and 6 School Leaders of both genders. Focus group discussion held in 4 secondary schools (one from each sub city) with 80 students of both genders was also included in the study.

**Table 3: Respondents By Sex and Responsibility**

Responsibility	Sex				Total	
	Male		Female			
	N	%	No	%	No	%
<b>Educational Officials</b>	36	75	12	25	48	100
<b>School Leaders</b>	44	73	16	27	60	100
<b>Teachers</b>	145	66	75	34	220	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>225</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>328</b>	<b>100</b>

As presented in Table 3, regarding sex, a very large proportion of educational leaders were male 80(74%) of which 36 (75%) were educational officials and 44(73%) were school leaders. The remaining 28 (26%) were females that accounted for 12 educational officials and 16 school leaders respectively. This statistical data indicates the low number of females working in the educational institution both in the City of Addis Ababa Administration as well as in Government Primary and Secondary Schools. Gender imbalance or inequality clearly is shown here where Woman's Participation in Educational Leadership is less compared to their male counter parts. In the same table, out of a total of 220 teacher respondents, 145(66%) were males and 75(34%) were females.

**Table 4: Respondents By Educational Level**

Educational Level	Educational Officials (N48)				School Leaders (N=60)				Teachers (N=220)			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
12+TTI	0	0	2	16.67	1	2.27	0	0	16	11.03	17	22.67
12+1	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0	1	0.69	3	4.00
12+2	3	8.33	2	16.67	12	27.27	10	62.5	33	22.76	29	38.67
12+3	2	5.56	0	0.00	5	11.36	3	18.75	11	7.59	8	10.67
BA/B.SC	29	80.56	7	58.33	25	56.82	3	18.75	79	54.48	18	24.00
MA/M.SC	2	5.56	1	8.33	1	2.27	0	0	5	3.45	0	0.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>100</b>

In relation to educational qualifications as noted in Table 4 above, the majority 57 (71.3%) of the men leaders possessed a first degree and above as compared to only 11(39.2%) of the women leaders. As noted in the school leadership, the majority of the women 10(62.5%) have 12+2 qualification whilst only 7(58.33%) of the women educational officials have earned their first degree. This data indicates that women have less educational qualifications as compared to the men that could possibly have an impact on their promotion to senior positions.

Teachers educational attainment as portrayed in Table 4, the majority of the male teachers 95(65.5%) have diploma and above while the female teachers have only 26(34.7%). This clearly indicates that women have lower educational attainment than their male counterparts. Note: The same trend was seen in the female educational leaders. One of the main reasons women forgo investing in education is the fear that further education will not result in the career opportunities they expect to get or have.

**Table 5: Respondents By Age and Service Years**

Age and Service Years	Educational Officials (N48)				School Leaders (N=60)				Teachers (N=220)			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
<b>1. Age</b>												
<20	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.69	4	5.33
20-30	2	5.56	1	8.33	3	6.82	3	18.75	56	38.62	29	38.67
31-40	8	22.22	1	8.33	7	15.91	1	6.25	25	17.24	5	6.67
41-50	18	50.00	9	75.00	23	52.27	7	43.75	34	23.45	23	30.67
51-60	8	22.22	1	8.33	11	25.00	5	31.25	29	20.00	14	18.67
>60	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>2. Service Years</b>												
<3	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	2.27	1	6.25	25	17.24	12	16.00
3-5	0	0.00	0	0.00	2	4.55	1	6.25	17	11.72	12	16.00
6-10	5	13.89	1	8.33	0	0.00	0	0	27	18.62	10	13.33
11-15	3	8.33	0	0.00	8	18.18	1	6.25	17	11.72	2	2.67
16-20	9	25.00	4	33.33	5	11.36	2	12.5	4	2.76	5	6.67
>20	19	52.78	7	58.33	28	63.64	11	68.75	55	37.93	34	45.33
<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>100</b>

As indicated in Table 5, the age distribution of the respondents reveals that the educational leaders 82(76%) including both male and female lie between the ages of 41 and 60 years, whilst the remaining 26(24%) lie between the ages 20 to 40 years. Out of the total 220 teacher respondents, 90(41%) were less than 30 years of age, 87(39.5%) were between 31-50 and 43(19.5%) were over 50 years of age.

With regards to the service years, the majority of the educational leaders, 61(76.25%) men and 24(85.71%) women have served for over 16 years and the remaining 19(23.75%) and 4(14.29%) respectively have served between 3 - 15 years. When we compare the service years of the teachers, it shows that 69(48%) of male teachers and 34(45%) of female teachers have service years below 10 years, and 76(52%) and 41(55%) of both male and female teachers respectively have served for more than 10 years.

From these findings, it is possible to suggest that most respondents are well experienced. Therefore, taking into consideration their maturity age and their long time work experience in the educational sector, it can be assumed that they have a better understanding about various issues and problems related to the topic under study and any responses obtained from this group of

respondents will assist in getting a more reliable information that would help the study to come up with reliable and concrete conclusions.

### **3.2 Data Analysis and Interpretation on Factors Affecting Women's Participation in Educational Leadership**

This part of the thesis presents the analysis of the data obtained through the questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. The analysis focuses on the responses towards the ability, skill and leadership competence of women educational leaders; the extent of participation of women in school leadership positions as well as in the higher administrative levels of the educational system; the selection criteria used for the selection and placement of educational officials at sub city level and school principals, and lastly possible factors affecting Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in terms of human, organizational and policy factors.

#### **3.2.1 Women Leadership Abilities, Skills and Competences**

Competence plays a great role in achieving the desired goal of any organization that includes both professional and personal skills. People's attitudes are commonly viewed as summary evaluations of opinions and beliefs that range from positive to negative or vice versa based on personal experiences. In this section, the intention of the researcher is to assess the perception of students, teachers, school leaders and educational officials towards the ability, skill and leadership competence of educational women leaders. The analysis of perceptual data was split between genders.

Different factors that could describe the ability, skills and leadership competence of women leaders were identified and presented to the respondents to be rated on a five point Likert Scale: - Very Good=5, Good=4, Medium=3, Poor=2, and Very Poor=1. For purposes of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as <3.50=Highly Competent, 2.50-3.50=Moderate Competence and <2.50= Poor Competence. Five factors that describe the leadership ability, skill and competence distilled from literature were grouped into the overall administrative skills; communications and coordination skills; leadership skills; human relations skills and conflict management skills competence. These factors were assessed individually using some indicators. A One-way ANOVA was used to check the existence of statistically significant differences in the mean values of the respondents by genders.

### 3.2.1.1 Women's Administrative Skill Competence

To assess respondents view on the overall women's administrative skill, four major indicators were included in the study. These include implementing rules and regulations; promoting optimum use of material, financial and human resource; effectively plan and coordinate activities to achieve organizational goals and lastly delegating duties and responsibilities effectively to subordinates. Accordingly, the responses by male and female educational officials, school leaders and teachers were rated and the summary of the findings is presented below on Table 6.

**Table 6: Respondents' Perception on Women's Administrative Skill**

S / N	Indicators	Respondents Response							
		Mean Values				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
1	Implement Rules and regulations efficiently and effectively	4.20	0.847	4.61	0.783	4.33	17.12*	.000*	2
2	Promote Optimum use of material, financial human resource.	4.62	0.710	4.74	0.559	4.66	2.13	.146	1
3	Effectively plan and coordinate activities towards the achievement of educational goals	3.99	0.940	4.45	0.926	4.13	16.74*	.000*	3
4	Delegate duties and responsibilities effectively to subordinates	2.44	1.362	2.17	1.373	2.36	2.96	.086	4
Average Mean		3.81		3.99					

NB: \* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.84$   
 Level of Competence: (" $< 2.50$ ='Poor Competence';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Competence';  $> 3.50$ ='Highly Competent')

Item 1 and 2 on Table 6 regarding women's ability to effectively and efficiently implement rules and regulations as well as the ability to promote optimum use of material, financial and human resources had a weighted mean values of 4.33 and 4.66, rating their competence as "High". Both respondents rated the indicators as "Highly Competent", with individual mean scores of 4.20 and 4.62 for males and 4.61 and 4.74 for females respectively. These findings indicate that both genders strongly agree on women's competence in these skills.

With regards to indicator 3 on the same table, respondents view on women's capability to effectively plan and coordinate desired activities in the work place was ranked third with weighted mean values of 4.13. Both respondents rated the indicator as "Highly Competent", with individual mean values of 3.99 for males and 4.45 respectively for females. From the results obtained, it is clear to understand that both genders have a uniform level of agreement.

As can be seen on Table 6, item 4 ranked the fourth with the weighted mean value of 2.36, rating their competence as "Poor Competent". Women's ability to delegate duties and responsibilities was also rated as "Poor competence" according to the individual mean values of both

respondents groups, 2.44 and 2.17 respectively. Both genders unanimously agree that women's ability to delegate is well below average.

According to the information secured from interviews, it was also found that women are very much competent with regards to adhering strictly to the rules and regulations and maintaining definite standards of performance in order to accomplish the organizational goals, if given the opportunity to lead. Female leaders felt this might be because women are solely concerned with getting the job done, paying less attention to informal networks as well as strongly avoiding or resisting corruption.

In this regard, the focus group discussions held with students pointed out that women strictly obey and follow the rules and regulation set out, quoting them as "strictly sticking by the books", while males were seen as flexible. A great majority of the students attest that women were far better and competent with regards to planning and coordinating activities as well as optimizing resources. They stressed the reason behind this was because for centuries, women have been known to manage their households with the ability of optimizing resources effectively and efficiently.

One can infer from the above findings that the overall administrative skills of women were found to be highly competent. To test whether there was a significant difference between the two genders, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. Consequently, the results for one-way ANOVA revealed that there was statistically significant difference between the two respondents as shown in item 1 and 3. The obtained F values of 17.12 and 16.74 respectively were far greater than the tabulated F value ( $F_{critical} = 3.84$ ). This difference in perception was probably due to male stereotypical attitude, that management is still a masculine trait. As far as delegation is concerned, men argue that women delegate with reservations because they are still immature in the field of leadership, they are not quite self-confident of themselves and are always at a position of proving their leadership effectiveness.

### **3.2.1.2 Women's Communication and Coordination Skill Competence**

Research findings suggest that communication is the lifeblood of any organization. For any organization to achieve the desired performance, the desired information needs to be communicated through the organized channel. So a manager is likely to be successful in his/her efforts if he/she has good communication skills in addition to other required skills. In this

regards, three factors were presented to the respondents to be rated by the five-point Likert Scale. Below is the summary of the findings.

**Table 7: Respondents' Perception on Women's Communication and Coordination Skill Competence**

S / N	Indicators	Respondent's Response							
		Mean Values				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
1	Are able to develop and communicate a vision	4.18	0.933	4.54	0.738	4.29	12.31*	.000*	2
2	Clarity and instruction of staff on how to apply rules and regulations	4.21	0.767	4.62	0.941	4.34	17.28*	.000*	1
3	Are able to read the organizations informal systems	2.15	1.408	2.68	1.658	2.31	9.03*	.003*	3
<b>Average Mean</b>		<b>3.51</b>		<b>3.95</b>					

NB: \* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{\text{Critical}} = 3.84$   
 Level of Competence: (" $< 2.50$ ='Poor Competence';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Competence';  $> 3.50$ ='Highly Competent')

As can be seen from the table above, the ability to develop and communicate a vision as well as the ability to clearly instruct staff on how to apply the rules and regulations within the organizations, the weighted mean values were 4.29 and 4.34 respectively, rating the competence level of women leaders by both respondent's as "Highly Competent." Both male and female respondents had individual mean values well above four, rating the presented two indicators as "Highly Competent".

On the other hand on Table 7, Item 3 had the lowest rank with a weighted mean value of 2.31. Both respondent groups rated women's ability to read the organizations informal systems in the work place as "Poor Competence." The individual mean value for men of 2.15, rated as "Poor Competence" was much lower than the females mean value of 2.68, which was rated slightly above average as "Moderate Competence".

Moreover, the interview discussion held with male educational leaders further supported the fact that women were unable to read the organizational informal systems. Despite the fact that the first two indicators were rated as "Highly Competent", they stressed that women still lack the know how of hierarchical communications within the organizational structure especially with regards to informal communication where crucial information is conveyed and another way to take advantage for professional growth. i.e. getting inside information of job openings, terminations, previews of organizational problems etc.

The majority of the students agreed that women have the ability to express themselves

clearly, speak persuasively and command the attention of others. They believe that they've come across women leaders who accurately communicate the organizational rules, regulations, policies and procedures.

Even though women leader's overall communication skill was rated as "Highly Competent", with average mean value of 3.51 and 3.95 respectively, the result of one-way ANOVA test revealed that the obtained value for the three indicators 12.31, 17.28 and 9.03 respectively were greater than the corresponding tabulated value ( $F_{critical} = 3.84$ ). Besides, the associated P value for the same variables was less at 0.05 level of significance, which indicate that the obtained results revealed that there is a statistically significant difference of perception between the responses of the two genders.

### **3.2.1.3 Women's Leadership Skill Competence**

Empirical research findings indicate that good leaders use all types of leadership style depending on the situation and the people involved so as to be able to influence others in order to attain the organizational goals and objectives. The most widely used leadership style is the participatory approach in the educational institutions.

In this regard, among other factors that could be considered in the leadership skills, the major ones were presented to the respondents. Accordingly, Table 7 below depicts the summary of the results obtained in the findings.

Item 1 on Table 8 below depicts the respondents view regarding women's ability to be articulate and consistent in decision-making. This indicator ranked fourth with a weighted mean value of 3.39, rating the skill as "Moderate Competence". Despite the fact that both genders rated the indicator as "Moderate Competence", the female individual mean value 4.01 showed a rating of "High Competence" as compared to the male mean value of 3.11, rating it slightly above average.

As can be seen from Table 8, the respondents perception on women's leadership behavior, if it was indeed accommodating, patient and gentle noted on item 2 and their ability to mobilize and motivate people on item 3 were ranked second and third with a weighted mean values of 4.44 and 4.02 respectively. The weighted mean as well as their individual mean value of 4.40 and 3.87 for males and 4.52 and 4.37 for females respectively shows a rating of "Highly Competent". Accordingly, both respondents strongly agree on their competence with respect to the two indicators under discussion.

**Table 8: Respondents' Views on Women's Leadership Skill Competence**

S / N	Indicators	Respondent's Response							
		Mean Values				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev.	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev.				
1	Are articulate and consistent in decision making	3.11	1.498	4.01	1.431	3.39	26.44*	.000*	4
2	Are accommodating, patient and gentle	4.40	0.801	4.52	0.873	4.44	1.72	.190	2
3	Possess the ability to mobilize and motivate people	3.87	1.048	4.37	1.048	4.02	16.23*	.000*	3
4	Make criticism and reprimand subordinates whenever deemed necessary	2.20	1.189	2.99	1.562	2.45	25.15*	.000*	6
5	Develop positive attitude towards changes and encourages to improve their efficiency	2.75	1.356	2.90	1.695	2.80	0.75	.386	.5
6	Allow subordinates to participate in decision making	4.57	0.821	4.71	0.620	4.62	2.22	.137	1
7	Are risk takers	2.39	1.298	2.25	1.363	2.35	0.78	.377	7
<b>Average Mean</b>		<b>3.33</b>		<b>3.68</b>					

NB: \* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.84$   
 Level of Competence: (" $< 2.50$ ='Poor Competence';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Competence';  $> 3.50$ ='Highly Competent'")

With regards to item 4 on Table 8, making criticism and reprimanding subordinate whenever the situation arises in the workplace ranked sixth in women's leadership competence with a weighted mean value of 2.45, a rating of "Poor Competence". The mean value of males had a similar rating with a low mean value of 2.20 as compared to the female's mean value of 2.99, showing slightly above average as "Moderate Competence".

As indicated in item 6 on Table 8, the respondents were asked to rate their views on women's ability to allow subordinates to participate in decision-making. Accordingly, both respondents ranked the issue first with a weighted mean value of 4.62, rating their competence as "High". Both genders share the same perception and rating with individual mean values of 4.57 and 4.71 respectively. As confirmed by empirical studies, Mbua (2003) remarked that democratic leadership was the most popular and successful type in the educational setting.

The last ranked item 7 on the same table, regarding the perception of women's ability to take risks in the work place, a weighted mean value of 2.35 showed a rating of slightly "Poor Competence". Individual mean values of 2.39 and 2.25 respectively had similar rating of "Poor Competence". Both respondents agreed that women do exhibit poor risk taking skills. In this regard, academic literatures confirmed that women tend to turn down opportunities unless they are absolutely sure of the outcome (Ndongko, 1994).

According to the interview conducted with female leaders, they strongly expressed the fact that women have been socialized to attend to the need for others that involve caring, understanding, supportive and the like and have always involved people in decision making, seeking support and approval from others. On the other hand, male leaders emphasized that women go to great lengths to avoid giving negative feedback or cushion it through generalities and indirectness. In addition they claim they are incapable of taking risks and making decisions due to fear of accountability and failure.

Furthermore, from the focus group discussions, students strongly agree that women are indeed soft hearted, agreeable and flexible when it comes to helping others and have witnessed their stern decision making skills in the school environment when applying strict rules and regulations.

The above statistical data reveals that the overall leadership competence of women leaders was rated slightly below average (3.33) for male respondents while women viewed their competence slightly above average (3.68). One-way ANOVA test was employed to see whether there was significant difference in perception between the two respondent groups. The test revealed that there was indeed a statistically significant difference across both genders. The obtained values 26.44, 16.23 and 25.15 for items 1, 3 and 4 respectively were much higher than the tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{Critical}}=3.84$ ).

#### **3.2.1.4 Women's Human Relation Skill Competence**

When leaders have good relations with co-workers and the community at large, leaders will have the power, which in turn will enable the tasks to be simple and clear as well as help the tasks to be carried out more efficiently and effectively.

To assess the human relation skill competence of women, five indicators were presented to the respondents to be rated by the five-point Likert Scale. Accordingly, Table 9 below portrays the summary responses as perceived by both genders.

As can be seen on Table 9, item 1 which states the ability for women leaders to create a warm team spirit, and establish a better working atmosphere had a weighted mean value of 4.02, showing a rating of "High Competence". The individual mean values indicate 3.90 for males and 4.30, a slightly higher mean value for females. Despite the difference in their means, both agree that women do provide a good, conducive and amicable working environment with and among

staff members. It was affirmed by Sergiovanni (1999) that women were successful in principalship, making them effective leaders due to their concern and care for community.

**Table 9: Respondents' Views on Women's Human Relations Skills**

S/ N	Indicators	Respondent's Response							
		Mean Values				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
1	Create warm team spirit and better working atmosphere	3.90	1.127	4.30	0.958	4.02	9.89*	.002*	2
2	Treat all staffs/students on equal grounds	2.96	1.472	2.83	1.574	2.91	0.53	.467	3
3	Involve and coordinate extra curricular activities e.g. Sports, HIV/AIDS, Red Cross Clubs	2.32	1.297	2.48	1.371	2.37	0.98	.322	4
4	Provide professional counseling to concerned staff/students/ parents whenever deemed necessary	4.45	0.863	4.60	0.784	4.50	2.37	.124	1
5	Encourage and support other women (acts as mentors/role models)	2.36	1.550	2.12	1.617	2.29	1.76	.186	5
Average Mean		3.20		3.27					

NB: \* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{\text{Critical}} = 3.84$   
 Level of Competence: (" $< 2.50$ ='Poor Competence';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Competence';  $> 3.50$ ='Highly Competent')

From the same table, item 2 had a weighted mean value of 2.91 ranking it third. Since this value is much closer to three than two, it indicates that both respondents were found to have a "Moderate" level of agreement that women treat all staff and students on equal grounds. However, females' individual mean value of 2.83 shows a slightly lower mean value than their male counter parts (2.96).

As depicted on Table 9, the item having the fourth highest rank with a weighted mean value of 2.37 is item 3. The mean value of males and females were 2.32 and 2.48 respectively showing a value slightly below 2.50, rating it as "Poor Competence". Both genders were found to have a uniform level of agreement in their human relation skill competency with regards to women's ability to get involved and coordinate extra curricular activities within the school compound.

With regards to item 4 of the same table, the ability for women leaders to provide professional counseling and instructions to concerned staff, students and parents whenever deemed necessary ranked first with a weighted mean score of 4.50 rating it as "Highly Competent". Both respondents had similar rating with individual mean values of 4.45 and 4.60 respectively. Across the genders, they both had a uniform level of agreement.

Finally, item 5 that ranked last, were views respondents were asked to rate regarding whether senior women leaders provide encouragement and support to other women within the same educational institutions by acting as mentors and role models. Accordingly, the individual mean values of the two respondent groups were 2.36 and 2.12 respectively, with a weighted mean score of 2.29 showing a rate of “Poor Competence” because the value was well below average (close to 2 than 2.5).

In support to this, the interviews conducted with men educational and school leaders, revealed that women at senior posts were not fully supportive and give the special care and attention required and needed to their women subordinates. Benton (1980) pointed out the ‘Queen Bee’ syndrome where women of power and authority work at keeping other women out of leadership positions in order to protect their queenly status. Moreover, male leaders assert women leader’s lack of participation in extra curricular activities that are activities carried out after normal school hours. By its very nature, it is voluntary, requiring devotion, interest, effort and above all time, which women don’t seem to have enough of.

The students in the focus group discussions did support the above findings. They allege that women leaders were more people oriented touching base with people around them due to their nature of being kind, tolerant, helpful and treating every one equally. Sadler (1986) validated that women did tend to be more relationship oriented as oppose to task oriented. With respect to extra curricular activities, even though women participate moderately, students claim women leaders are not seen actively involved which could be due to time constraints between juggling work and family.

From the overall results obtained regarding human relation skill competence, both respondents had an average mean value of 3.20 and 3.27 respectively, rating the competence as “Moderate”. To check if there were any statistical significant difference between the two respondent groups, a one-way ANOVA test was carried out. A statistically significant difference in perception was seen between the two genders with respect to item 1. ( $F(1,326)=9.89 > 3.84$ )

### **3.2.1.5 Women’s Conflict Management Skill Competence**

In any work setting, leaders are constantly confronted with conflicts between staff members. In order to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization, tasks among staff have to be coordinated and performed efficiently and effectively. However, when conflict arise,

performance is seen to be affected and so leaders must use their skills as well as have knowledge of the people involved to seek the best resolutions. Three factors regarding conflict management were presented to the respondents and the results are summarized in the table below.

**Table 10: Respondents' Perception on Women's Conflict Management Skill Competence**

S / N	Indicators	Respondent's Response							
		Mean Values				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
1	Have the Ability to minimize conflicts that occur within the work environment	4.35	0.799	4.51	0.765	4.40	3.20	.074	1
2	Have the ability to manage conflicts	4.12	0.812	4.28	1.115	4.17	2.19	.140	2
3	Have ability to solve conflicts	2.27	1.310	2.68	1.658	2.40	5.78*	.017*	3
Average Mean		<b>3.58</b>		<b>3.82</b>					

**NB: \*** Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{\text{Critical}} = 3.84$   
**Level of Competence:** (" $< 2.50$ ='Poor Competence';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Competence';  $> 3.50$ ='Highly Competent")

As depicted on Table 10, the ability of women leaders to minimize and manage conflicts that occur within the work environment were rated as "Highly Competent" by both respondents, with a weighted mean value of 4.40 and 4.17 respectively. The two respondent groups had an equivalent level of agreement rating it similar to the weighted mean. The individual mean values show 4.35 and 4.12 for men and 4.51 and 4.28 for females respectively.

The last item 3 of the same table, respondents were asked to rate women's ability to solve conflicts that arise in the work place. The weighted mean value for both group of respondents was 2.40, indicating a slightly below average rating of "Poor Competence" level of agreement in women's competence in solving problems. However, the individual mean values of males, 2.27 revealed a much lower mean value as compared to the female mean value of 2.68, slightly above average, rating women's competence as "Moderate".

Furthermore, from the interview, both male and female leaders maintained that women are hesitant and avoid confrontation as much as possible and lean towards collaboration. They possess the ability to calm things down by patiently handling situations through first analyzing and examining the situation. By strictly adhering to rules and regulations, communicating effectively to staff and using participatory approach, women tend to minimize and manage conflict as much as possible. However, men leaders were skeptical of women's ability to solve conflicts amicably and timely. They believe that women are more opt to collaboration and

hesitant to decide, and are only capable of solving problems momentarily, “putting a temporary bandage on the infection” as oppose to seeking a permanent solution for the treatment. They are more on the preventive than the solution side.

In the focus group discussions, students further confirmed that women leaders have the tendency to calm things down by patiently handling situations through analyzing and examining first before reaching a hasty decision. This helps to manage the conflict at hand and avoid confusion and unrest.

From the above findings, it is possible to understand that women’s competence in conflict management was seen as “Highly Competent’ with respondents average mean values of 3.58 and 3.82 respectively. A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to see if there were any significant differences in opinion between the two genders. Only item 3, the ability to solve conflict revealed a statistically significant difference, whereby the obtained value 5.78 was greater than the tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{Critical}}=3.84$ ) with df (1,326) at 0.05 level of significance.

### **3.2.2 The Extent of Women Participation in School Leadership**

In this section, an attempt is made to find out the perception of respondents with regards to the degree of representation of women in school leadership positions. The school leadership positions found in schools were thought to consist of School Principals, Vice Principals, Unit Leaders, Department Heads, PTA’s, and the School Girls Club. Each of these positions was analyzed as indicated below. The respondents were asked to rate the participation level of women in school leadership positions using a five-point Likert Type Scale: Very High=5, High=4, Average=3, Low=2 and Very Low=1. For ease of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as  $>3.50$ =High Participation,  $2.50-3.50$ =Moderate Participation and  $<2.50$ = Low Participation. The summary of the findings is depicted in Table 11 below.

On Table 11, item 1, respondents were requested to rate the level of participation of women in school principalship. The weighted mean value of all occupational groups was 2.44, indicating a rating of “Low Participation”. The individual mean values for educational officials and school actors were 2.31 and 2.46 respectively with similar rating as the weighted mean. These findings indicate that people’s overall perception of women’s participation of school principalship is still low in spite of the affirmative action designed by the Ethiopian Government to increase their participation rate.

**Table 11: Frequency and Mean Distribution of Response on the Perception of Level of Participation of Women in School Leadership Positions**

S/ N	Leadership Positions	Respondent's Ratings														Weight Mean	F. Ratio
		Educational Officials (N=48)						School Actors * (N= 280)									
		Frequency Scores					Mean Values	Std. Dev.	Frequency Scores					Mean Value	Std. Dev.		
		1	2	3	4	5			1	2	3	4	5				
1	Principals	12	20	8	5	3	2.31	1.151	72	88	57	42	21	2.46	1.232	2.44	.60
2	V. Principals	5	16	14	7	6	2.85	1.185	37	79	81	57	26	2.83	1.172	2.84	.01
3	Unit Leader	19	16	6	2	5	2.13	1.444	135	77	37	20	11	1.91	1.084	1.94	1.79
4	Department Head	4	11	20	6	7	3.02	1.139	27	68	75	58	52	3.14	1.251	3.12	.36
5	PTA	4	13	18	7	6	2.96	1.129	24	65	96	58	37	3.06	1.140	3.05	.36
6	Schoolgirls Club	2	6	10	15	15	3.73	1.162	8	40	41	78	113	3.87	1.173	3.85	.58
	Average Mean						2.83							2.88			

NB: \* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.84$

\*School Actors are School Leaders and Teachers

Level of Participation: (“< 2.50=‘Low Participation’; 2.50-3.50=‘Moderate Participation’; > 3.50=‘High Participation’”)

In support of the above finding, from the document analysis obtained from the study, it was discovered that out of 55 secondary and primary government schools, only 9(16%) were female school principals while the majority, 46(84%) of school principals consisted of males. Only one female principal out of eleven was found to head a newly opened secondary school division in the sample population, while the majority, ten were male principals. The other eight female principals were found to head primary schools (See Appendix VI). This data therefore, reveals that the traditional and gendered nature of management in general, especially school principalship holds true. Shakeshaft (1999) stated that women are persistently absent from the highest and most powerful administrative positions in public school education even though in reality they represent the majority of the teaching profession.

Concerning the participation of women in vice principalship position, item 2 on Table 11 revealed that the weighted mean value of 2.84 rated their participation as “Moderate”. All the occupational groups revealed similar rating of “Moderate Participation” with individual mean values of 2.85 and 2.83 respectively. In the document analysis obtained from the study, only 18(22%) were reported as female vice principals, whilst great majorities 63(78%) were male vice

principals. Similar to the principalship, most positions held by females are seen in government primary schools as oppose to government secondary schools (See Appendix VI).

The third item on Table 11 shows the participation rate of women in unit leadership positions, which the majority of the respondents rated the participation as “Low”. The weighted mean value and the individual mean values of 1.94, 2.13 and 1.91 respectively for all three occupational respondent groups showed a rating of “ Low Participation”. This finding indicates that all respondent groups had a uniform level of agreement.

This result is further supported from the interviews conducted with school leaders. They emphasize the fact that women are reluctant and hesitate to hold this position in particular due to fear of the challenges encountered from youths in the senior grades or there is the assumption that females are physically less strong to control students in school compounds. This leads to the fact that many people perceive the role of school unit leadership as a gendered (masculine) nature. To confirm that perception, the document analysis from the study revealed that only 4(7%) out of 59 unit leadership positions in secondary high schools and 9(22%) out of 40 unit leadership positions in primary schools were found to be females (See Appendix IV).

As can be seen in item 4 on Table 11, the participation rate of women as a department head was seen as a “Moderate Participation” with a weighted mean value of 3.12 slightly above average. The respondents had similar individual mean values of 3.02 and 3.14 respectively, rating it as “Moderate Participation” too. This indicates that the chances of being selected as a department head is high because the position is either chosen by teachers themselves based on knowledge of the subject matter, recommendation by other teacher colleagues or simply on a voluntary basis.

Based on the document analysis in most senior schools, women teaching staff are very few in number and their number is minimal 213(16%) out of 1,325 total teaching staff or non-existent in the science departments, and to the contrary, in primary schools, female teachers population is high, 541(53%) out of 1,013 total teaching staff and are more likely to take up on those positions (See Appendix IV). Moreover, per interview conducted with school leaders, most have maintained belief that being head for subject department is gender free role in schools, but the non-existence of female teachers seem to have caused their current under representation in that position.

On items 5 on the same table, respondents were asked of their perception with regards to the

extent of participation of women in the Parents Teachers Association (known as PTA). The weighted mean value reveal 3.05, rating the participation as “Moderate”. The individual mean values show 2.96 for educational officials and 3.06 for school actors, rating women’s participation as “Moderate.” It is safe to conclude that all respondents’ perception of women’s participation in PTA is medium.

Based on the interview secured by school leaders, it was pointed that male teachers resisted female teachers entry because they doubted their female counter parts capability of representing all the teaching staff members. They believed women lack confidence in their ability to strongly address problems of concern and exert influence over important and hard pressing issues.

Regarding the participation level of women in the Schoolgirls Club, all the occupational group respondents rated the participation level as “High Participation”, with a weighted mean value of 3.85. In most cases, girls clubs are run by female teachers that engage students in many extra curricular activities as awareness workshop, seminars and setting up debates and discussion forums with high emphasis pertaining to women’s different issues. The results indicate that the participation of women should have been very high, as close to the mean value of 5, which leads us to think that either the clubs are not as active as it ought to be or teachers have less awareness as to what is actually going on with the clubs putting little emphasis on the issue at hand.

From the above study, one can infer that women’s participation in school leadership positions were rated as “Moderate Participation” with an average mean value of 2.83 for educational officials and 2.88 for school leaders and teachers respectively. A one-way ANOVA test employed further confirmed there were no statistical significant differences between the respondent groups. This clearly indicates that even though education is a field dominated by women, the rate of participation diminishes the higher up the hierarchical ladder. Zanville (2001) further emphasized that proportionately; fewer women stand on the top rung on the managerial ladder than on the bottom.

### **3.2.3 The Selection Criteria for Educational Officials and School Principals**

The principalship position developed from classroom teacher to teacher with few administrative duties to principal teacher and then to supervisory principal. School Principals today play a very important role in the day-to-day administration of the school. Since the highest echelon within the school system is the principalship, where his/her role is regarded as a professional

educational leader, the researcher thought of its utmost importance in finding out the current practice of the selection criteria and placement of school principals. Similarly, the next highest echelon in the education sector outside the school setting and acting as administrators is the Education Sub-City Offices located throughout the City of Addis Ababa Administration. This too was felt of importance to know the selection criteria of educational officials. Shakeshaft (1999) proclaimed that the top three administrative posts held in public schools was superintendent, vice superintendent and high school principalship.

Questionnaire was designed and presented to all three occupational group respondents to find out the selection criteria used for the selection and placement of both educational officials as well as school principals. Five possible and major variables was considered in the study and respondents were asked to rate the consideration level by a five point scale: - Very High=5, High=4, Average=3, Low=2, and Very Low=1. For the purpose of analysis, these obtained mean scores were interpreted as follows: >3.5=High Consideration, 2.50-3.50=Moderate Consideration and <2.50 Low Consideration. Moreover, to further test if there was a statistically significant difference in perception in the selection criteria and placement for both educational officials and school principals, a one-way ANOVA was employed. Accordingly, Table 12 portrays the summary of the results observed in the findings.

**Table 12: Respondents’ Rating on the Use of Selection Criteria for Educational Officials and School Principals**

No	Consideration Factors	Responses on Educational Officials Selection					Responses on School Principals				
		Levels of Consideration					Levels of Consideration				
		Respondents Mean Value					Respondents Mean Value				
		EO (N=48)	SL (N=60)	T (N=220)	Weighted Mean	F Ratio	EO (N=48)	SL (N=60)	T (N=220)	Weighted Mean	F Ratio
1	Political Affiliation	1.85	1.97	3.15	2.75	27.47*	1.88	1.80	3.08	2.67	31.17*
2	Professional Qualification	4.42	3.77	3.12	3.43	24.48*	3.94	4.03	3.03	3.35	17.20*
3	Work/Leadership Experience	4.46	4.07	3.21	3.55	24.42*	3.83	4.20	3.11	3.41	21.37*
4	Performance Appraisal	3.27	3.12	2.95	3.03	1.38	3.81	3.90	3.57	3.66	1.84
5	Professional Training	2.60	2.48	2.31	2.38	1.89	2.52	2.65	2.43	2.48	0.83
<b>Average Mean</b>		<b>3.32</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>2.95</b>			<b>3.20</b>	<b>3.32</b>	<b>3.04</b>		

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (2,325) and  $F_{\text{Critical}} = 3.00$   
 EO=Educational Officials, SL = School Leaders and T=Teachers  
 Level of Consideration: (“< 2.50=‘Low Consideration’; 2.50-3.50=‘Moderate Consideration’; > 3.5=‘High Consideration’”)

As indicated in item 1 on Table 12, all occupational respondent groups were asked to point out their views regarding political affiliation as being one of the selection criteria used for the selection and placement of both educational officials and school principals. The weighted mean scores for both positions show 2.75 and 2.67 indicating a rating of “Moderate” level of consideration. The responses of educational officials and school leaders on the first item show individual mean scores of 1.85 and 1.97 respectively, indicating a “Low” level of consideration, while the teachers score indicate slightly higher than average of 3.15, rating it as “Moderate” level of consideration.

Similarly, the same holds true with regards to the school principals. Results revealed that both educational officials and school leaders show a “Low” level of consideration with an individual mean score of 1.88 and 1.80 respectively, while teachers on the other hand, had a greater individual mean score of 3.08, again a value slightly above average, rating it as “Moderate” level of consideration.

A one-way ANOVA was computed to see if whether there was a significant difference of opinion between the three occupational groups existed. The test revealed a statistical significant difference between the respondents showing a much greater obtained value of 27.47 and 31.17 respectively with df (2,325) at 0.05 level of significance than the tabulated F value of ( $F_{critical} = 3.00$ ). Further test of Post Hoc Comparison using Tukey HSC statistic test was conducted to identify which groups of respondents show significant difference in perception. In both cases, the difference of perception lies between educational officials and teachers, and between school leaders and teachers.

The overall findings indicate that teachers strongly feel that one of the most widely used selection criteria for selecting and placing both educational officials and school leaders were through political affiliation in line with the country’s traditional practice of selecting without the teachers or school community being involved and consulted. It is also interesting to note that a number of female respondents comment on the current method of placement involves official appointee rather than teachers’ involvement in choosing candidates for school principalship positions. To the contrary, educational and school leaders disagree of that notion and claim that even though political officials were once appointed in the earlier years, currently the new practice states the least minimum selection criteria requirement for candidates is to possess a first degree and have a certain duration of work experience depending on the job applied for.

The point maintained by educational and school leaders was further confirmed by an interview held with head of personnel at the Civil Service Department. Prior to 1995, E.C., most positions held were political appointees but henceforth, a new civil servant code was issued, stating that all civil servants (public or government employees) from the Sub City Education Office downwards were to abide by the new set selection criteria. The minimum requirements as stated above are: - professional qualification, a minimum of first degree and above; work experience of at least two years and + years of teaching; leadership experience is an added plus to the selection criteria; for internal promotions, performance appraisal results along with letter of recommendation from immediate bosses is required and affirmative action is also part of the selection criteria, encouraging women candidates to apply for jobs posted internally or through public announcement via advertisements. Priority is also given to civil servants working within the same sub city and lastly, if all fails and candidates are absent from applying for the vacant posts, as a last resort, through recommendation, candidates would be appointed based on their performance appraisal results as shown in their personnel records.

The document analysis obtained from the Civil Service Department regarding the selection criteria for primary school leaders revealed that, even though professional qualifications and work experience was mandatory, nothing was noted to encourage women applicants. This strongly indicates that, only candidates that possess the stated criteria were selected regardless of gender. Quota system or any affirmative action for women was not seen as being practiced.

As seen in item 2 on Table 12, the perception of the three occupational groups with regards to professional qualification as being one of the selection criteria's were asked to rate the consideration level. The weighted mean scores for both positions were 3.43 and 3.35 respectively, rating possessing professional qualification as "Moderate Consideration". However, the selection criteria used for educational officials show "High Consideration" by educational officials and school leaders with individual mean score of 4.42 and 3.77, whilst teachers individual mean score of 3.12 indicates a "Moderate Consideration". Similarly, teachers, with individual mean score of 3.03 had a rating of "Moderate Consideration" for the selection criteria used for school principalship, and a rating of "High Consideration" was noted by educational official and school leaders with their individual mean score of 3.94 and 4.03 respectively.

A one-way ANOVA test was employed, and the test revealed that there was a statistically

significant difference between the three respondents groups. Showing an obtained F value of 24.48 and 17.20 respectively, a value far greater than the tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{critical}} = 3.00$ ). The Post Hoc Comparisons revealed that as in Item 1 on the same table, the difference lie between educational officials and teachers, and between school leaders and teachers.

Findings indicate that teachers in secondary school believe and know for a fact that considerable number of graduates in school administration and pedagogy field of studies are found working as teachers. This means that the selection criteria of school principals in particular would de-professionalize the principalship positions. However, educational officials and school leaders attest to the fact professional qualifications is the minimum requirement as per the civil service code and currently personnel hired prior to 1995 E.C. are required to upgrade their qualification especially with regards to principalship positions. In the demographic characteristics of educational officials further established that over 81% had a first degree and above. Wellington and Catalyst (2001) confirmed also that certain companies would not even look at applications unless one acquires a higher level of education.

Regarding item 3 on Table 12, work experience along with leadership experience as one of the major selection criteria used in the selection of both positions revealed a mean score of 3.55 and 3.41 respectively rating “High Consideration” for educational officials and “Moderate Consideration” for school principalship. One-way analysis of variance was computed to see if there was significant difference in perception among the three occupational groups. The results discovered that the tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{critical}} = 3.00$ ) was much lower that the obtained values of 24.42 and 21.37 respectively, which meant that there was a statistically significant difference between the three respondent groups. A Post Hoc Comparison statistic test further revealed that the difference lie between educational officials and teachers, and between school leaders and teachers.

The findings indicate that teachers individual mean score for both positions were 3.21 and 3.11 respectively showing a slightly above average, “Moderate Consideration” as oppose to individual mean scores of 4.46 and 3.83 respectively for educational officials and 4.07 and 4.20 respectively for the perception of school leaders, showing a rating of “High Consideration”. Teachers low perception as compared to the other two occupational group respondents could be the fact that they felt it did not favor candidates that have leadership experiences and served as department heads, unit leader and head teachers. Per their personal experience,

majority of principals were picked from the teaching pool with little or no experience of school management.

On the contrary, however, the information secured from both educational officials and school leaders expressed that work experience in the education sector as well as leadership experience was highly considered as part of the selection criteria and placement of educational leaders. Wirth (2001) further argues that education, on the job training, qualification and skill is an essential pre-requisite for women to obtain more highly skilled and better paying jobs.

On Table 12, item 4, respondents were requested to rate the level of consideration of performance appraisal results used mostly for internal promotions. A rating of “Moderate Consideration”, a value slightly above average was revealed for the selection criteria for educational officials positions. In looking at their individual mean scores, all respondents had similar individual mean score of 3.27, 3.12 and 2.95 respectively, rating it also as “Moderate Participation”

On the other hand, the selection criteria for school principals on the same item revealed a weighted mean score of 3.66, rating it as “High” consideration across all the occupational groups. The individual mean scores were 3.81, 3.90 and 3.57 respectively, showing all above average. A one-way ANOVA was employed to test the same variables for the two positions if there was a significant difference. The test showed no statistical significant difference amongst the three occupational groups. According to the interview conducted with educational officials, candidates past records and performance appraisals were additional inputs with the required criteria under use as a selection tool.

The last item 5 on the same table also depicted the respondents view regarding adequate and relevant professional training to be considered in the selection criteria for both positions. In both positions, the selection criteria for educational officials and school leaders show a similar weighted mean score of 2.38 and 2.48 respectively, rating their views as slightly below average as “Low Consideration”. Again, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, and the results showed no statistical significant difference among the opinions of all three echelons (educational officials, school leaders and teachers). The finding obviously indicates that all respondents fall within the same categories as “Low Consideration” because it is usual practice to engage candidates once hired in professional training as well as on the job training. Unlike other fields, the education

sector does not require highly technical and specialized field of studies whereby certification of attendance of professional training is required.

From the overall findings, one can infer that the most widely and frequently considered selection criteria method in the selection of educational officials is seen as work experience which ranked first with a weighted mean score of 3.55 whilst school principals selection criteria is seen as possessing performance appraisal, which ranked first with a weighted mean of 3.66. Even though the selection criteria all fall into “Moderate Consideration”, per the interview conducted with female school leaders, it is emphasized that there is no consistency with what was required in order to be selected and decisions were left to the selectors/appraisals discretion, which left room for nepotism and favoritism.

Furthermore, from the interview conducted, it was confirmed that the current trend of selection was that each Education Office Sub-City informs the Civil Service Department of the vacancy, who in turn posts the vacancy for the position and invites interested candidates to apply. A selection committee is set up amongst them and one representative from the perspective Education Sub-City Office is sent to observe the selection. The burden of selecting suitable personnel for principalship position rests with the appraiser/selector, and his/her competency in this matter is a factor of utmost importance. Morgan (1983) state that, the responsibility for selection is determined in most countries by Education Board and or by the Ministry of Education policy, which in turn is conditioned by the nature of the school organization.

### **3.2.4 Factors Affecting Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership**

The following subsections of this paper is aimed at investigating the possible different factors that affect Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership and to check if indeed the factors/problems stated prevail and contribute to women’s absence from educational leadership roles. These factors were divided into three major categories: - human, organizational and policy factors. In analyzing the extent to which human factors affect Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership, the factors were classified into three categories. These were the attitude of women themselves, societal attitudes towards women and lastly attitudes of men, where all categories were discussed further in separate tables. Organizational factors were also divided into two categories: - organizational culture and organizational rules and regulation, also discussed later in separate tables and finally the effect of policy intervention was discussed separately hereunder.

The major factors that could affect the overall Women's Participation in Educational Leadership were presented to respondents to be rated by five point Likert Scale. The items were prepared in such a way to determine respondent's level of agreement on stated view. Accordingly, the respondents were asked to rate the items based on what they believe, rather than what they think they should believe and to avoid self-selection biases as well. The scales presented were Very High=5, High=4, Medium=3, Low=2 and Very Low=1. For the purpose of analysis, the obtained results were interpreted as >3.50=Major Cause; 2.50-3.50= Moderate Cause and <2.50=Minor Cause. Besides, to see whether or not there were statistically significant differences in perception about the different views in relation to possible factors that act as barriers to Women's Participation in Educational Leadership, a one-way ANOVA was employed.

### 3.2.4.1 Human Factors Affecting Women's Participation in Leadership

#### 3.2.4.1.1 Women's Own Behavior and Attitude

Women's own behavior sometimes is believed to prevent them from getting appointed to leadership positions in the educational system. In addition, the women themselves exhibit forms of behavior that further strengthens their disadvantage. Some major ones were included in this study and the summary of the data is presented below on Table 13.

**Table 13: Respondents' Perception on Major Problems Related to Women Themselves**

S/N	Items	Degree of Seriousness							
		Mean Score				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
	<b>Women...</b>								
1	Still acknowledge the world as "masculine"	3.12	1.396	2.56	1.439	2.95	11.20*	.001*	9
2	Perceive themselves as less skillful in leadership	3.50	1.189	3.89	1.357	3.63	6.93*	.009*	3
3	Have less aspiration (ambition) to become leaders	3.05	1.325	2.91	1.422	3.01	0.76	.384	8
4	For go investing in education in fear of not getting their desired career choice	3.12	1.222	3.45	1.169	3.23	5.04*	.025*	7
5	Exhibit poor risk taking skills in leadership	3.93	1.122	3.64	1.236	3.84	4.50*	.035*	2
6	Lack awareness and knowledge of the organizational culture and politics	3.40	1.221	3.02	1.221	3.28	6.71*	.010*	6
7	Fear success in achievement will lead to negative attitudes from colleagues	2.77	1.195	2.71	1.185	2.75	0.18	.672	10
8	Avoid leadership position in fear of balancing professional work and family life	4.32	0.868	4.50	0.873	4.38	2.86	.092	1
9	Encounter jealousy, competition and lack of support from other female subordinates	3.41	1.103	3.89	1.290	3.56	12.22*	.001*	5
10	Lack of Mentor/role model	3.52	1.210	3.78	1.364	3.60	2.83	.093	4
	<b>Average Mean</b>	<b>3.41</b>		<b>3.44</b>					

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.84$

Level of Cause: (" $< 2.50$ ='Minor Cause';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Cause';  $> 3.50$ ='Major Cause')

Item 1 on Table 13 ranked ninth with a weighted mean score of 2.95, rating it as a “Moderate Cause” for limiting women’s participation in leadership positions. This reflects that both respondents had a moderate level of acceptance on the issue. In other words, both genders agreed that women’s acknowledgement that the world is “masculine” could have a moderate effect on their minimal numbers in leadership roles. However, like some of the above items, the gap between the degrees of acceptance between the two genders was seen as statistically significant different in perception. ( $F(1,326)=11.20>3.84$ ). Females’ individual score of 2.56 showed slightly lower than the male score of 3.12. Women strongly feel that viewing this world, as a “masculine” is more outdated and a traditional trend. This change of attitude could be due to the fact that women are seen more in the work force playing a more dominate role in the public sphere due to legislative laws and actions as compared to decades ago.

Women perceiving themselves as less skillful in leadership, item 2 in the same table ranked third with a weighted mean score of 3.63. Both respondents rated the issue as a “Major Cause” that inhibited women’s participation in senior posts. The female individual mean score 3.89 was much higher than that of the male score of 3.50. This finding points out that women’s low self-esteem and lack of confidence has always put them in the position to underestimate their strengths, which could be due to early socialization. The tabulated F value ( $F_{critical}=3.84$ ) was lower than the obtained value of 6.93, which strongly indicates a statistically significant difference between the two respondent groups.

Women having less aspiration to becoming educational leaders were rated as a “Moderate Cause” with a weighted mean score of 3.01. Both respondents having a mean score of 3.05 and 2.91 agree that women have no ambition to becoming leaders. Men argue that women actually do shy away from added responsibility either due to overburden of family obligations, lack of self-confidence or simply lack of interest in acquiring leadership positions. The one-way ANOVA test did point out the statistical significant differences between the two genders. Male’s state that this could be one of the factors that explain their marginalization in leadership.

As indicated in item 4 on Table 13, respondents view on whether women forgo investing in education simply because of fear of not getting their desired career goals was rated as a “Moderate Cause”, with a weighted mean score of 3.23. This factor ranked seventh with individual mean score, 3.12 and 3.45 respectively, reflecting a “Moderate Cause” as

well. However, their level of agreement was not one and the same. Females strongly confirm that women are afraid they would not be able to compete nor get the same opportunity as compared to men in the job market if and when they do decide to continue or upgrade their educational level. The one-way ANOVA test revealed a significant difference in perception between the two genders. ( $F(1,326)=5.04>3.84$ ).

The second highest weighted mean score was 3.84, where respondents rated the inability of women exhibiting risk taking skills as a “Major Cause” for their under representativeness in leadership positions. The respondents individual mean score of 3.93 and 3.64 respectively reflected the same rating as a “Major Cause”. From both genders however, men were found to have a stronger agreement that fear of taking risks was detrimental to getting into leadership positions since it is one of the essential qualities leaders should possess. The one-way ANOVA further attests that there was indeed a statistically significant difference between the two genders where the obtained value, 4.50 was higher than the tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{critical}} = 3.84$ ). Ndongko (1994) did confirm this notion that women do indeed tend to exhibit poor risk taking skills.

Item 6 on the same table ranked sixth with weighted mean score of 3.28. This reflects that respondents rated it as a “Moderate Cause”. In other words, both genders in the study confirmed that women’s lack of awareness and knowledge of the organizational culture and politics can affect their chance in climbing the managerial ladder. The male individual mean score of 3.40 strongly suggests that claim as compared to the female score of 3.02. The one-way analysis of variance conducted revealed a statistically significant difference between the two respondent groups ( $F(1,326)=6.71>3.84$ ).

Furthermore, from the interview secured from both male educational officials and school leaders, it was confirmed that in order to climb the organizational ladder, one must become aware and be knowledgeable about the entire organization and how it works as well as explore the informal methods of communication so as to get crucial information.

The last item that ranked tenth was the fact that women fear success in achievement would lead to negative attitude from colleagues. Even though, both respondents rated it as a “Moderate Cause”, as one of the factors that could prevent women from reaching the top, it was not regarded as the biggest problem. On this item, there was no statistically significant difference between the average responses of the males and female responses. ( $F(1,326)= 0.18<3.84$ ). The

two group of respondents uniformly disclosed that women fear of generating negative attitude from peers for attaining success in the work place was not seen as a major problem.

As shown in Table 13, item 8, portray respondents view regarding women's avoidance in leadership positions due to fear of balancing professional work and family life. This item had the highest weighted mean score of 4.38 from the two group respondents. Therefore, this indicates that both genders rated the factor as a "Major Cause" in affecting Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. When individual mean scores were observed, with 4.32 and 4.50 respectively, both respondents rated the issue at hand as a "Major Cause" as well. A one-way ANOVA test was employed to check if there was statistically significant difference between the two genders. The results revealed there was no statistical difference between the two group respondents, where the obtained value 2.86 was lower than the tabulated F value ( $F_{critical}=3.84$ ).

This finding explains that both respondents agreed unanimously that one of the major factors that possibly prevented women from participating in senior posts was the fear of balancing both professional and family life. Studies indicate that it is easier for men to have both family and a career (Heller, 1982), whilst women constantly feel a constant pressure to perform well at work and a persistent feeling of guilt in coping with the expectations of the family (Parkih, 2003).

As can be seen from Table 13, item 9 with respect to women's attitude towards encountering jealousy, competition and lack of support from their subordinates was ranked fifth, with a weighted mean score of 3.56. This issue overall was rated as a "Major Cause" however, the agreement levels of the two genders was not uniform. In looking at the males individual mean score of 3.41, the rating indicated "Moderate Cause" where as, the female individual score 3.89 showed a rating of a "Major Cause" in preventing women from reaching the top ladder of the organizational hierarchy. Females feel the horizontal violence that they encounter in the work place from their fellow colleagues can be detrimental for advancement.

The difference of perception between the two genders was strongly confirmed by the one-way ANOVA employed. The obtained value 12.22 was much greater than the tabulated F value ( $F_{critical}=3.84$ ), showing a statistically significant difference between the genders. The phenomena "Blue Flamers" was described by (Funk, 2000) who confirmed the findings that women who achieve success and rise quickly through the ranks are often not supported and even sabotaged by other women who work for them.

Item 10 on Table 13 represents respondents view regarding women's lack of mentors from their senior women leaders. This issue had the fourth highest weighted mean score of 3.60, portraying it to be one of the "Major Causes" that help prevent women's entry into management positions. When individual mean scores were observed, with 3.52 and 3.78 respectively, both respondents rated the issue at hand as a "Major Cause" too. Generally speaking, the two genders confirmed that lack of role models or mentors is one of the biggest barriers to women's advancement. Wellington and Catalyst (2001) emphasized the importance of a mentor to women's success and not having one was seen as a major barrier to women's career advancement. A one-way ANOVA test was employed to check if there was statistically significant difference between the two genders. The results revealed there was no statistical difference between the two group respondents, where the obtained value 2.83 was lower than the tabulated F value ( $F_{critical}=3.84$ ).

#### **3.2.4.1.2 Societal Barriers**

The prevailing assumption in society and in school communities about women and their work and skills associated with other accessory stereotypical impacts have been evidenced as detrimental to women's absence in educational leadership roles. Thus to this end, in this section of the paper, an attempt will be made to investigate whether societal barriers such as assumptions, myths and prejudice exist and affect their level of participation in educational leadership roles. Table 14 presents the major societal factors believed to have affected Women's Participation in Educational Leadership and the summary of the findings were discussed hereunder.

It could be seen from the Table 14; item 1 had the third highest weighted mean score of 3.79. Both respondents viewed that early socialization, where boys and girls were raised and socialized different to assume different roles and expectations in society was seen to be one of the "Major" societal factors preventing women's entry into leadership roles. The individual mean scores of both genders were 3.70 and 3.98 respectively, rating the same issue as a "Major Cause". A one-way ANOVA test further revealed that there was no statistical significant difference in perception between the two respondent groups. The obtained value of 3.22 was slightly lower than the tabulated F value ( $F_{critical}=3.84$ ).

**Table 14: Respondents' Perception on Major Problems Related to Societal Barriers**

S/ N	Items	Degree of Seriousness							
		Mean Score				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
1	Girls and boys are raised and socialized differently to assume different roles and expectations in the society	3.70	1.297	3.98	1.321	3.79	3.22	.074	3
2	Most young girls/women are not encouraged and supported by their family to pursue their education	3.40	1.264	3.60	1.389	3.46	1.77	.184	6
3	Many people think women's role should be child bearing, rearing and taking care of family	3.43	1.249	3.87	1.100	3.57	9.55*	.002*	5
4	People think women don't have the ability and the skill to be a leader	3.40	1.260	4.16	1.055	3.63	28.33*	.000*	4
5	The influence of patriarchal ideology adversely affects women's participation in educational leadership	3.82	1.172	4.46	0.751	4.02	25.72*	.000*	1
6	Most people still think the decision making power rests with men	3.75	1.048	4.12	0.900	3.87	9.36*	.002*	2
7	Lack of Political affiliation	2.73	1.214	2.55	1.258	2.68	1.52	.219	7
<b>Average Mean</b>		<b>3.46</b>		<b>3.82</b>					

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.84$   
 Level of Cause: (“< 2.50= ‘Minor Cause’; 2.50-3.50= ‘Moderate Cause’; > 3.50= ‘Major Cause’”)

Item 2 on the same table held the sixth rank with a weighted mean of 3.46. Both respondents agreed that the fact girls/women were not encouraged nor supported by their family to pursue their education was seen as being a “Moderate Cause”. Male individual mean score 3.40 was seen lower than the female score of 3.60, which rated it as a “Major Cause”. Despite the differences of the mean scores, a comparison of the means in a one-way ANOVA test revealed that there was no statistical difference of opinion between the two genders ( $F(1,326)=1.77 < 3.84$ )

Item 3 on Table 14, the misconception of society that women’s role in society was to bear child, rear and take care of their family was regarded as the fifth “Major Cause” with a weighted mean score of 3.57. When observed separately, individual mean scores for males and females on this issue were 3.43 and 3.87 respectively, which revealed a statistically significant difference of opinion when conducting the one-way analysis of variance test. ( $F(1,326)=9.55 > 3.84$ ). Females were found to have a relatively stronger agreement than males, stating it as a “Major Cause”. This ideological thinking reflects the old traditional/stereotypical attitude of society, keeping women in the private domain.

According to the information secured from interviews, female leaders emphasized that in a male dominated society, there is still the notion that men belong in the public sphere whilst women

should stay in the private sphere. In reality, even though women's participation in the workforce has steadily increased, men still occupy in far greater proportions work categories historically classified as men's work.

Another misconception as stated (item 4 of the same table) was the fact that women do not have the ability, competence and skill to be a leader. This issue was rated as the fourth "Major Cause", thus, hindering Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. The weighted mean score of 3.63 underscored the fact that it was indeed a major factor. A one-way analysis of variance test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference of opinion between the two genders. The tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{critical}}=3.84$ ) was much lower than the obtained value of 28.33. Female individual scores of 4.16 as compared to the male score of 3.40 strongly suggests that females feel this issue to be a major barrier to women's advancement.

As indicated on Table 14, in item 5, respondents were asked to rate their views as to whether the influence of patriarchal ideology adversely affected women from entering the management field. This factor ranked first with a weighted mean score of 4.02 rating it as a "Major Cause". Both the respondents individual mean score was 3.82 and 4.46 respectively reflecting the same rating as the weighted mean. Although this is true, acceptance level by males and females was statistically significant from the analysis of variance ( $F(1,326)=25.72 > 3.84$ ) at significance level of 0.05. Females strongly feel that the influence of patriarchal ideology indirectly affects women from seeking senior positions because men are always behind the scene. Shakeshaft (1987) calls it "Andocentrism"; a male worldview that elevates masculine pursuits to an ideal, enforcing male supremacy and undermining female's experiences, skill, knowledge, and values as inferior.

As depicted in Table 14, the item with the second highest weighted mean score of 3.87 was item 6, rating the factor as a "Major Cause". The fact that most people still think the decision-making power rest with men, greatly affects women from entering the same leadership pool as men. Both respondents attested to this notion, with a rating of a "Major Cause", which was reflected in their individual mean score of 3.75 and 4.12 respectively. Although both genders mutually agreed the factor to be a major problem, their level of agreement however was not uniform. From the one-way ANOVA test conducted, results revealed an ( $F(1,326)=9.86 > 3.84$ ), showing a statistically significant difference between the two respondent groups. From this, it is safe to conclude that females strongly argue that men's biased attitude towards their upper hand in decision-making

could affect women from reaching the top ladder. The Ethiopian proverb, “Set bittawk, bewend yalk”- translated by Dr. Seyoum (1986) as “However knowledgeable a woman may be, the final decision rests on a man”, confirms this notion.

Regarding the last item on the same table, which asked respondents to rate their view as to whether “lack of political affiliation hindered Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership?” the weighted mean score was 2.68, with a rating of “Moderate Cause”. Both genders with individual mean score of 2.73 and 2.55 agree that women’s lack of involvement in politics may affect their progress into managerial positions in educational institutions. However, political affiliation alone cannot guarantee positions nor ensure leadership effectiveness, because unlike other fields, leadership within the education sector requires a special skill along with proper qualifications and work experience.

#### **3.2.4.1.3 Men’s Attitude**

Women’s biggest barriers to their advancement into educational leadership roles are believed to be men’s negative attitude towards them. This could be in the form of sex stereotyping by their male managers or overall resisting entry of women due to men’s belief that management is typically seen as a male dominated activity and in reality male dominance in educational management is a worldwide phenomena. Table 15 presents the major factors with regards to men’s attitudes believed to have affected Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership and the summary of the findings are presented below.

As indicated on item 1 on Table 15, the notion that men feel they are more competent, capable and efficient in leadership than women had the highest weighted mean score of 4.07. Both respondent groups with their individual mean score of 4.12 and 3.98 rated the factor as a “Major” obstacle that women face when entering the dominant field of men. It is safe to say that due to their masculine character and having been a dominate figure for a long tome, and the fact that men for centuries have always run organizations, they feel they have wide (rich experience) which makes them more competent than women. A one-way analysis of variance was employed to confirm both respondents strong agreement. The test revealed and confirmed that there was no statistical significant difference in perception between the two genders with the issue raised. ( $F(1,326) = 1.18 < 3.84$ )

**Table 15: Respondents' Perception on Major Problems Related to Men's Attitude**

S/ N	Items	Degree of Seriousness							
		Mean Score				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
	<b>Men...</b>								
1	Feel more competent, capable and efficient in leadership than women	4.12	0.984	3.98	1.171	4.07	1.18	.279	1
2	See management as an occupation which requires "Masculine Traits"	3.60	1.184	4.13	0.967	3.77	15.58*	.000*	2
3	Feel women have to do the same things as men in order to succeed in senior positions (adapt to men's ways)	3.32	1.193	3.37	1.298	3.33	0.13	.715	4
4	Feel uneasy working with women at equal level	1.84	1.028	1.97	1.184	1.88	1.11	.293	7
5	Are threatened by their jobs when women become over achievers	2.80	1.207	3.53	1.363	3.03	24.33*	.000*	6
6	Exclude women from their informal network	3.39	1.231	4.07	1.105	3.60	22.74*	.000*	3
7	Managers offer fewer opportunities/ unchallenging work assignments to women as compared to men	2.97	1.233	3.68	1.165	3.19	24.28*	.000*	5
	<b>Average Mean</b>	<b>3.15</b>		<b>3.53</b>					

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{\text{Critical}} = 3.84$   
 Level of Cause: (" $< 2.50$ ='Minor Cause';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Cause';  $> 3.50$ ='Major Cause')

The item, men looking at management as an occupation that requires “masculine trait” was ranked second with a weighted mean score of 3.77. Both respondents weighted mean and the individual mean score of 3.60 and 4.13 respectively, rated the issue as one of the “Major Cause” that could contribute to women’s non-entry to leadership positions. Despite the fact that both females and males agree, a one-way ANOVA test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in opinion between the two genders. The obtained value 15.58 was much greater than the tabulated value of ( $F_{\text{critical}}=3.84$ ). Females had stronger agreement that men always viewed management as a masculine trait and have resisted in accepting or acknowledging the “feminine touch of leadership style.”

As seen on Table 15, item 3, respondents were asked to rate their perception with regards to men expecting women to adapt themselves to work environment and expectations of men. This issue was ranked fourth with a weighted mean score of 3.33. The weighted mean as well as the respondents individual mean score of 3.32 and 3.37 respectively rated the item as a “Moderate Cause”. The comparisons of the two means were further tested using the one-way ANOVA to see if there was any significant difference between the two genders. The test revealed ( $F(1,326)=0.13 < 3.84$ ) which meant that there were no statistically significant differences in perception between the two respondents. Therefore, both males and females uniformly

agreed that men expecting women to do the same things as men in order to succeed in senior positions was seen as a “Moderate Cause” for preventing them in participating in educational leadership.

The last variable on Table 15 that ranked last from the list of the tables was item 4, where men felt uneasy working with women at an equal level. Both the weighted mean score of 1.88 and respondent’s individual score of 1.84 and 1.97 respectively was the lowest from all the other variables, rating it as a “Minor Cause”, with respect to preventing women’s entry into educational leadership roles. To check whether there was a significant difference between the two genders, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted. The test results revealed that there was no statistical difference between the two respondents. Therefore, it is safe to say that both respondents claim that the issue at hand was insignificant to be seen as a hindrance or barrier for women’s lack of participation in educational leadership.

The fact that men are threatened by their jobs when working with women who are or become over achievers was ranked sixth with a weighted mean score of 3.03. Even though, the overall respondents view rated it as a “Moderate Cause”, female had a stronger level of agreement, rating it as a “Major Factor” with an individual mean score of 3.53 as compared to male score of 2.80. The comparison of the two mean scores using one-way ANOVA test ( $F(1,326)=24.33>3.84$ ) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the perception of males and females. In other words, the latter groups highly accepted the fact that men felt threatened by their jobs when their female counterparts were seen to excel in performance.

Item 6 on Table 15, which sought to determine whether men exclude women from their informal networks known as the ‘Old Buddy’ system, the weighted mean shows a score of 3.60, rating it as a “Major Cause”. Even though it was ranked the third highest factor, the agreement of the two respondent groups was not equivalent. Females regarded this issue to be more serious rating it as a “Major Cause” with an individual mean score of 4.07 as compared to males mean score of 3.39, rating it as a “Moderate Cause”. By employing the one-way ANOVA test, it was further confirmed that there was a statistical significant difference, between the two genders. Females felt their exclusion from the males’ inner circle, prevented them from knowing the “office politics” and “informal channel” which help gear people to seek the right information and the right person for promotion.

In respect to item 7 on the same table, whereby men managers offering few opportunities and unchallenging work assignments to women was seen as a “Moderate Cause” with respect to women’s entry into management. The item was ranked fifth from the other variables listed with a weighted mean score of 3.19. Generally, both genders confirmed that getting unchallenging work assignments as well as being offered fewer opportunities in the work place as compared to men was a “Moderate Cause”. However the agreements of the two groups of respondents were not uniform. From the one-way ANOVA test results ( $F(1,326)=24.28 < 3.84$ ), it was revealed that the two groups in their acceptance level on this issue were significantly different. Females having an individual mean score of 3.68 as compared to men’s score of 2.97, strongly felt it to be a “Major Cause” that prevented women from seeking higher positions. This could decrease their visibility, their competence and ability to perform hard and challenging assignment, which will in turn affect their promotion opportunities.

### **3.2.4.2 Organizational Factors Affecting Women’s Participation in Leadership**

In spite of all these impressive gains, women still face artificial barriers to attitudinal and organizational bias that impede qualified female candidates from advancing in significant numbers into the upper echelons of organizations. Glass ceiling, a phenomena known for its artificial barrier denotes a wide spectrum of variables or circumstances that range from simple things like how and where information on leadership openings/positions are communicated to prospective candidates, composition of interview including types of questions asked, the organizational structure, procedures and the like.

#### **3.2.4.2.1 Organizational Cultures**

This part of the analysis will attempt to investigate the major possible organizational factors that are believed to act as barriers to women’s advancement. The major factors were listed, presented and rated by the respondents. The summary of the findings is depicted below in Table 16.

As indicated on Table 16 item 1, the majority of the respondents agreed that the stated organizational myths was a “Medium Cause” with a weighted mean score of 2.73 in affecting Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership. The two respondent groups individual mean score however showed a difference of opinion. Females mean score of 2.33, rating it, as a “Minor Cause” was much lower as compared to the males of 2.92 with a rate of “Moderate Cause”. Males strongly agree that women’s entry to management was affected because

organizations felt that they were less committed to their work as compared to men due to marriage and family obligations. To support this level of agreement of the respondents, one-way ANOVA test was computed, and significant difference was found to exist. The obtained F value 9.20 was shown to be higher than the tabulated F value ( $F_{critical}=3.84$ ). Likewise, acceptance level of males in the stated factor was higher than the females.

**Table 16: Respondents' Perception on Major Problems Related to Organizational Culture**

S/ N	Items	Degree of Seriousness							
		Mean Score				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
	<b>Organizations feel and believe women...</b>								
1	Are less committed than males	2.92	1.749	2.33	1.301	2.73	9.20*	.003*	4
2	Don't possess the masculine characteristic required by organizations	2.40	1.210	2.88	1.561	2.55	9.51*	.002*	6
3	Won't relocate and can't travel	2.70	1.187	2.36	1.282	2.49	5.46*	.020*	5
4	Don't take risks	3.59	1.131	3.45	1.152	3.54	1.07	.302	2
5	Job performance is affected by their family responsibility and obligations	3.58	1.111	3.70	1.153	3.62	0.76	.383	1
6	Are temporary workers (stop work after child birth)	2.91	1.293	2.71	1.512	2.85	1.55	.214	3
	<b>Average Mean</b>	<b>3.02</b>		<b>2.91</b>					

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.84$   
 Level of Cause: (" $< 2.50$ ='Minor Cause';  $2.50-3.50$ ='Moderate Cause';  $> 3.50$ ='Major Cause')

Regarding item 2 on Table 16, where organizations believed women as not possessing the masculine characteristics required by organizations, ranked sixth from the other variables in the list with the least weighted mean score of 2.55. Both respondents rated this issue as a "Moderate Cause". However, the agreement levels of the two genders were found not to be uniform. Female individual mean score of 2.88 indicated a rating of "Moderate Cause" where as the male scores of 2.40 reflected it as a "Minor Cause". From the one-way analysis of variances test results revealed ( $F(1,326)=9.51 > 3.84$ ) that there was indeed a statistical significant difference in perception between the two respondents. Females admitted that the above organizational myths did indeed prevent Women's Participation in Educational Leadership.

Item 3 on the same table represents respondents view regarding organizational myths that, women won't relocate nor travel, as the work deemed necessary. This issue had the fifth highest weighted mean score of 2.49, a slightly below average portraying it to be one of the "Minor Causes" that might hinder women from entering higher positions. Despite their weighted mean

score, the two genders had different levels of agreement. Males regarded this issue to be more serious, rating it as a “Moderate Cause” as oppose to the females rating of “Minor Cause.” The one-way analysis of variance confirmed that there was indeed a statistically significant difference in opinion between the two genders with  $(F(1,326)=5.46 > 3.84)$ . Likewise, acceptance level of males in the stated factor was higher than the females.

The second highest weighted mean score of 3.54 was item 4 of Table 16 where organizations believed that women are resistant or afraid to take risks when placed in leadership roles. Even though it was rated as a “Major Cause”, the males had a slightly higher individual mean score of 3.59, indicating it as a “Major Cause” whilst the female score showed a mean of 3.45 rating it as a “Moderate Cause”. Although the agreement level by both respondents was different, the one-way analysis of variance test revealed that there was no statistical difference between the two respondent groups.  $(F(1,326)=1.07 < 3.84)$ . In other words, the organizational myths that women don’t take risks can greatly affect their participation rate.

One of the organizational myths that can affect women from entering or climbing the managerial ladder is the belief that women leaders job performance is greatly affected by their family responsibilities and obligation which is reflected on item 5 on Table 16. It had the highest weighted score of 3.62, indicating the issue to be a “Major Cause” that could possibly prevent women’s entry into higher positions in the organizations. The individual score of the genders, 3.58 for males and 3.70 for females respectively also reflect that concept. A one-way ANOVA test further confirmed that there was no statistical significant difference of perception between the two respondent groups  $(F(1,326)=0.76 < 3.84)$ . Therefore, both male and female respondents admitted that the above myth greatly affected women’s entry into the world of leadership arena.

As depicted on Table 16, the third highest weighted mean score of 2.85 was item 6. This reflects that both respondents agreed that the issue of women, being seen as temporary workers i.e. stop work after giving birth was seen as a “Moderate Cause”. The individual mean score of the respondents were 2.91 and 2.71 respectively, rating the factor as a “Moderate Cause” as well. The comparison of the two means in the one-way ANOVA shared that there was no statistical differences in the opinion of the two genders. This meant that despite the fact organizations reframe from hiring prospective female candidates in fear of loosing them after giving birth was only considered to be a “Moderate Cause” in blocking their entry or advancement in senior posts.

### 3.2.4.2.2 Organizational Rules and Regulations

Respondents were asked to rate their views on possible factors that were believed to prevent women from advancing into senior position with regards to the rules and regulations of educational organizations. The major factors were presented and rated by the respondents and the summary of the findings is presented below in Table 17.

**Table 17: Respondents' Perception on Major Problems Related to Organizational Rules and Regulations**

S/ N	Items	Degree of Seriousness							
		Mean Score				Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		Males (N=225)	Std. Dev	Females (N=103)	Std. Dev				
	<b>Educational Organizations...</b>								
1	Have less transparent selection, hiring and promoting policies and practices	3.55	1.183	4.07	1.247	3.71	13.03*	.000*	1
2	Have policies or programs that help women's career	3.36	1.134	3.52	1.356	3.41	1.31	.254	4
3	Make no official effort to make females active participants in educational leadership positions	2.97	1.223	3.30	1.399	3.07	3.75	.130	5
4	Have occupational sex segregation in the workplace (at time of selection and hiring)	3.53	1.157	3.84	1.118	3.63	5.22*	.023*	2
5	Provide less training and professional development similar to men	3.55	1.129	3.62	1.197	3.57	0.30	.586	3
6	Encourage women to form their own net work	2.27	1.165	2.32	1.477	2.28	0.13	.723	8
7	Have performance appraisal systems that are biased towards women	3.03	1.185	3.07	1.239	3.04	0.07	.797	6
8	Flexible hours and childcare facilities for women not available	3.07	1.169	2.88	1.223	3.01	1.69	.195	7
	<b>Average Mean</b>	<b>3.17</b>		<b>3.33</b>					

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (1,326) and  $F_{\text{Critical}} = 3.84$   
 Level of Cause: (" $< 2.50$ =‘Minor Cause’;  $2.50-3.50$ =‘Moderate Cause’;  $> 3.50$ =‘Major Cause’")

The highest rank and weighted mean score of 3.71 was item 1 on Table 17, where organizations lacking transparent selection, hiring and promoting policies and practices was rated as a “Major Cause” preventing women from seeking higher posts in the educational institutions. Both respondents had an individual mean score of 3.55 and 4.07 rating the issue as a “Major Cause”. Furthermore, the one-way test of ANOVA confirmed that there were statistically significant differences in perception between the two scores ( $F(1,326) = 13.03 > 3.84$ ). In the open-ended items, Females contend that lack of transparent selection, hiring and promoting policies opens room for discrimination whereby males are hired or promoted ahead of female aspirants or a scenario of “Tokenism” and the isolation of few women getting that position is created.

Lack of policies or programs to help women's career and the organization's lack of effort to make females active participants in educational leadership position, ranked fourth and fifth with a weighted mean score of 3.41 and 3.07 respectively. The former factor, item 2 was rated slightly below average as a "Moderate Cause" similar to the male individual mean scores of 3.36, while the female score of 3.52 rating showed slightly above average as a "Major Cause". The latter factor, item 3 was rated as a "Moderate Cause" similar to the rating of both respondents with their individual mean score of 2.97 and 3.30 respectively. A one-way ANOVA tests revealed that there was no statistical difference in opinions between the two respondent groups. Both obtained value, 1.31 and 3.75 respectively where below the tabulated F value ( $F_{\text{Critical}}=3.84$ ). In other words, both genders did agree that organizations having no programs or policies set out to improve women's career and making no effort to make females active participants were regarded as a moderate problem.

As can be seen in item 4 on Table 17, respondents rated occupational segregation as the second highest "Major Cause" possibly preventing women from entering the male dominated field. The weighted mean, the male and female individual scores of 3.63, 3.53 and 3.84 respectively rated the issue under consideration as a "Major Cause". The comparisons of the two means, a one-way ANOVA test ( $F(1,326)=5.22 > 3.84$ ) showed that there was a significant difference in the level of agreement between the two genders. Females strongly argue that gender differences in occupations are very much apparent in the education job market where men occupy the most prestigious, responsible and better paying jobs as compared to their female counter parts.

Insufficient or lack of professional training and professional development ranked third with a weighted mean score of 3.57, rating it as a "Major Cause" in hindering Women's Participation in Educational Leadership positions. Both respondent groups unanimously agreed the issue to be a "Major Cause" with individual mean scores of 3.55 and 3.62 respectively. The one-way ANOVA test employed revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in perception between the two genders. ( $F(1,326)=0.30 < 3.84$ ). Hence, the data revealed that both respondents noted that lack of training and professional development could possibly hamper women's chances of advancement /promotion in the workplace.

Item 6 on Table 17 represents respondents view regarding organization's support and encouragement for women to form their own network within the work place. This factor ranked eighth, with the least weighted mean score of 2.28, rating it as a 'Minor Cause' in limiting

women's upward mobility. Both respondents had similar ratings with individual mean scores of 2.27 and 2.32 respectively. The one-way ANOVA test further confirmed there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of the two genders with regards to the issue under consideration.

As pointed out on Table 17 items 7 and 8, the respondents agreed that the stated problems were "Moderate Cause" with weighted mean scores of 3.04 and 3.01 respectively. Both issues, having biased performance appraisal towards women and organizations providing flexible and child care facilities to women held the sixth and seventh rank. Individual mean scores of the two genders, 3.03 and 3.07 for the males' and 3.07 and 2.88 for the females' respectively revealed similar rating of "Moderate Cause". The one-way analysis of variance test revealed that there were no statistically significant differences between the two genders.

### **3.2.4.3 Policy Factors Affecting Women's Participation**

The Policy on women was mainly designed to remedy the effects of discrimination and to eliminate more subtle institutional barriers to equal employment opportunities. Affirmative action helps qualified candidates overcome racism, sexism, and basically helps open doors for women who often don't have those connections.

In this section, an attempt is made to assess the perception of respondents on the effect or influence that the policy intervention has brought to women themselves. Different factors that could have an effect on Women's Participation in Educational Leadership was identified and presented to the respondents to be rated by five point Likert Scale: Very High=5, High=4, Average=3, Low=2 and Very Low=1. For ease of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as >3.50=High Contribution, 2.50-3.50=Moderate Contribution and <2.50= Low Contribution.

The design of policies and programs set out for women as seen on Table 18 ranked the second highest with a weighted mean value of 4.09, rating this issue as a "High Contribution". All three respondents groups agreed unanimously that the policy was designed appropriately in favor of women's equality in all aspects i.e. Education, job opportunity, justice etc. And in particular, it promoted Women's Participation in Educational Leadership .The one-way analysis of variance test further confirmed their uniform agreement whereby (F (2,325)=1.89<3.00) shows no statistically significant difference in their opinion.

**Table 18: Respondents' Perception on the Effect of Policy Interventions**

S/ N	Items	Degree of Contributions									
		Mean Value				T (N=220)	Std. Dev	Weighted Mean	F Ratio	Sig.	Rank
		EO (N=48)	Std. Dev	SL (N=60)	Std. Dev						
1	Design of policies and programs of women	3.85	1.458	3.98	1.157	4.16	.984	4.09	1.89	.153	2
2	Clarity and transparency of policy for easy implementation	1.94	1.311	1.58	.996	1.71	1.200	1.72	1.22	.296	7
3	Commitment and willingness of the political representatives at higher levels	3.44	1.556	2.67	1.434	1.89	1.098	2.28	34.88*	.000*	5
4	Good Communication and coordination	2.42	1.427	2.45	1.534	2.28	1.206	2.33	.51	.601	4
5	Careful monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the policy	2.06	1.450	1.98	1.467	1.87	1.187	1.92	.52	.596	6
6	The current policy on women encourages women's participation in educational	4.40	.962	4.17	.886	4.09	.973	4.15	2.08	.127	1
7	Ethiopian women have benefited from the policy	3.54	1.271	3.35	1.147	3.03	1.284	3.16	4.03*	.019*	3
<b>Average Mean</b>		<b>3.09</b>		<b>2.88</b>		<b>2.72</b>					

NB\* Indicates there is a significant difference at  $\alpha = 0.05$  level with the degree of freedom (2,325) and  $F_{Critical} = 3.00$   
EO=Educational officials, SL = School Leaders and T=Teachers

Level of Contribution: (" $< 2.50$ "='Low Contribution'; " $2.50-3.50$ "='Moderate Contribution'; " $> 3.50$ "='Major Contribution')

Item 2 on Table 18 ranked seventh with the least weighted mean value of 1.72 rating the subject at hand as a "Low Contribution". Respondents were asked to rate their views as to whether the policy that was designed for women was clear and transparent for easy implementation. All occupational group respondents with individual mean values of 1.94, 1.58 and 1.71 respectively had the same rating as "Low Contribution". Their level of agreement across the groups was uniform where they strongly agreed that due to lack of clarity and transparency of the policy, implementation proved to be ineffective. To further confirm their unanimous agreement, a one-way analysis of variance was employed. The test indeed revealed that there was no statistical significant difference across all group respondents. ( $F(2,325)=1.22 > 3.00$ ). To conclude, this issue if not corrected or fixed could be seen as one of the major factors that might hinder women from reaching the top ladder of the managerial hierarchy.

As presented, item 3 on Table 18, the commitment and willingness of the political representatives at higher levels showed a "Low Contribution" with a weighted mean value of 2.28. In looking at the respondent's individual mean value, it indicates a variation of opinion. Accordingly, the means of educational officials indicate a "High Contribution"; the means of school leaders indicate a "Moderate Contribution" and the teachers mean value

indicate the issue to be “Low Contribution.” These findings clearly indicate that teachers above all strongly disagree with the notion that political representatives at higher levels are committed and willing enough to implement the policy as planned, which could be one factor that greatly affects women’s lack of participation. One-way ANOVA was computed and the result revealed there was a significant difference across the respondents with respect to the commitment and willingness of higher officials. The significant difference was seen between educational officials and teachers, and between school leaders and teachers.

The information secured from the interview with female officials and school leaders indicated that, even though the policy was good on paper, the implementation was not that effective since in reality, women’s participation has not increased as originally intended. The major hindrance they felt was the fact that higher political officials who were mostly men were not serious and committed towards the achievement of increasing women’s participation rate in educational leadership positions because they were biased and have the old stereotypical attitude that management is still a man’s domain, that women are not competent in terms of experience and qualification, and have less commitment to the job due to family obligations.

From the listed factors, item 4, communications and coordination for effective implementation of the policy ranked fourth with a weighted mean value of 2.33. The judgment of the three occupational groups was uniform whereby they indicated that the policy was not communicated and coordinated well enough to implement the policy as planned. Their uniform agreement was further confirmed by a one-way ANOVA test, which showed no statistical significant difference between the three respondent groups. ( $F(2,325) = 51 < 3.00$ ). These findings indicated that lack of communication and coordination of the policy negatively hinders Women’s Participation in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa.

Item 5 on Table 18, ranked sixth with a weighted mean of 1.92. The individual mean values of the occupational respondent groups, 2.06, 1.98 and 1.87 respectively, clearly pointed out a very “Low Contribution”. Whereby lack of careful monitoring and evaluation of the policy indicated the implementation of the policy to be ineffective. A one-way ANOVA test computed no statistical difference in opinion between the three respondent groups. From the results obtained, it is clearly understood that lack of careful monitoring and evaluation of the policy greatly affected proper implementation of the policy, which in turn affected women’s participation in educational leadership positions in Addis Ababa.

As indicated in item 6 of the same table, respondents were asked to indicate their views as to whether the policy set out for women encouraged their participation in educational leadership. The weighted mean score showed the highest mean value of 4.15 rating it as a “High Contribution”. The individual mean value of all the occupational groups, 4.40, 4.17 and 4.09 respectively reflected the same rating. Therefore, the findings portrayed that the current policy did in fact encourage women to participate in leadership roles in Addis Ababa.

Finally, as can be seen on Table 18, item 7, respondents were asked to indicate their views on whether the contributions of the current policy of women benefited the Ethiopian Women. Accordingly, the weighted mean values of 3.16 ranked the issue third, which indicted a “Moderate” level of contribution. However, the means of educational officials indicated a “High” level of contribution whereas the means of school leaders and teachers indicated the contribution of the policy to be “Moderate”. Significant differences were observed between the responses of the educational officials, school leaders and teachers. ( $F(2,325)=4.03 > 3.00$ ). The difference was seen between the responses of educational officials and teachers. This clearly indicated that educational officials gave responses in favor to the contribution of the policy, whilst teachers claim when forwarding their comments, that the policy has to a relative degree, benefited women comparatively before the policy was designed and implemented. However, they stated that only a few women have benefited from the policy leaving the majority still underprivileged.

# CHAPTER 4

## 4. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

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

### 4.1 Summary

The main purpose of this study aims at distinguishing factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership in Addis Ababa City Administration, Ethiopia. To this end, an attempt has been made to evaluate the attitudes of students, teachers, school educational leaders and educational officials towards women as educational leaders, to examine the extent of women's participation in leadership positions, to find out the current selection criteria for educational leaders, to explore the problems and constraints that women encounter that limit their upward mobility as well as investigate any other related issues of concern. Finally, the study makes an effort to come up with suggestions and forward recommendations.

In order to attain the objectives of the study, the following basic questions were stated and answered.

1. To what extent do women participate in educational leadership in Addis Ababa?
2. What are the major selection criteria currently used in the selection and placement of educational leaders in Addis Ababa?
3. What are the major factors that prevent women's participation in educational leadership in Addis Ababa?
4. What are the attitudes of students, teachers and educational leaders towards women's ability, skill and leadership competence as educational leaders in Addis Ababa?
5. How can women's role in educational leadership be improved in Addis Ababa?

A descriptive survey study with quantitative and qualitative research approach was employed in this study and the related literature was reviewed. To ensure fair representation of all administration parts of Addis Ababa, four out of ten sub-cities (40%) were selected through simple random sampling technique so as to give an equal chance of selection. The first subjects purposefully selected for the study were officials that include 17 educational officers in the City

Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau, 27 in Education offices in each four-sample sub-city. (Bole, Gullelie, Kirkos and Yeka). 66 school leaders (School Principals and Vice Principals) both from primary and secondary schools in the four sample sub-cities were included using purposive sampling technique. Individual teachers (234) in the four sample sub-cities were selected on the basis of simple random sampling techniques and lastly, 80 secondary school students (20 from each of the four sample sub-cities) were also chosen using simple random sampling techniques.

Different data collecting tools were employed to carry out the study. These include questionnaires, in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. Out of 353 questionnaires, 328 (93%) were filled and returned (48 officials, 60 school leaders and 220 teachers). In-depth interviews were conducted with some officials and school leaders from both genders and finally, a careful inspection of documents were made. Lastly, data was carefully collected, tallied and presented for analysis.

The study has employed different data analysis tools that the student researcher thought of as relevant to the study under consideration. These statistical tools used include percent, mean, standard deviation, weighted mean, one-way ANOVA and Turkey's HSD Post Hoc comparison of means. The analysis made therefore, justifies the following major findings.

#### **4.1.1 Women's Leadership Abilities, Skills and Competences**

##### **4.1.1.1 Competence in Administrative Skills**

With respect to the overall administrative skills, the findings indicate that women leaders were found to be highly competent in three skills. These were optimizing full use of all resources in terms of financial, material, and human, with a weighted mean of 4.66; implementing the organizational rules and regulations properly and effectively (4.33) and finally coordinating and planning activities towards the achievement of organizational goals (4.13); however, both respondents agreed that women leaders were not as competent in delegating duties and responsibilities to subordinates (2.96).

##### **4.1.1.2 Competence in Communication and Coordination Skills**

From the responses obtained by both respondent groups, it was noted that women leaders were highly competent in their communication and coordination with respect to giving clear guidelines to employees (4.34) and their ability to communicate the overall organization's vision to subordinates (4.29). The study also revealed that women were not able to read, know and make use of the organizational informal system, as they

should in order to gain insight of what is going on within the workplace.

#### **4.1.1.3 Competence in Leadership Skills**

Different results were obtained between respondents with regards to consistency in decision-making. The male's perception of this particular skill was rated as moderate (3.11) whilst female's results indicated a high competency (4.01). On the other hand, women leaders participatory approach (4.62), having a feminine leadership style (4.44) and the ability to motivate and mobilize people (4.02) was regarded as high competence. On the contrary, two leadership skills were noted as poor competence by both respondents with respect to exhibiting poor risk taking skills (2.35) and the inability of giving a negative feedback to subordinates at the time of poor performance (2.45).

#### **4.1.1.4 Competence in Human Relation Skills**

In the study, it was discovered that a lower involvement rate of women leaders in extra-curricular activities (2.37), and not giving support and encouragement to their subordinates (2.29), was seen as poor competence in their human relation skills. On the other hand, all respondents rated their ability to offer counseling whenever deemed necessary (4.50) as well as providing a harmonious working environment that encourages good team spirit (4.02), as highly competent in these skills.

#### **4.1.1.5 Competence in Conflict Management Skills**

No significant difference was observed between the two genders concerning handling conflicts within the work place, whereby women leaders competence was rated high by both genders with an average mean of 3.58 and 3.82 respectively. In general, the major findings indicate that women leaders were rated as having high competence for their ability to minimize (4.40), and manage conflicts among staff/students and the community in general (4.17). Nonetheless, both respondents viewed the ability to solve conflicts (2.40) on a permanent basis, as poor competence.

### **4.1.2 Extent of School Leadership Participation of Women**

The overall findings obtained with respect to the representation of women in school leadership roles depicted the view, maintained by both educational officials (2.83) and school actors (2.88), that moderate participation was seen in almost all the leadership positions found in schools; however, from the data analysis, it was revealed that principalship (2.44) and unit leadership (1.94), were two positions in school leadership where women were seen participating less while a high participation of women were

seen in the schoolgirls club (3.85). On the contrary, it was revealed from the document analysis that out of 136 positions held for school principalship and vice principalship in both secondary and primary schools, only 27(20%) positions were seen headed by female leaders (See Appendix VI).

### **4.1.3 The Selection Criteria for Educational Leaders**

#### **a) Educational Officials:**

From the responses obtained, it becomes clear that in as far as the selection and placement criteria procedure was concerned, work experience (3.55) was the major criterion considered in selecting and placing educational officials. It was found that the other selection criteria, like political affiliation (2.75), professional qualifications (3.43) and performance appraisal (3.03) were considered as moderate. The selection criterion least used, as indicated in the findings was, professional training (2.38). It was revealed in the study that there was a significant difference between educational officials and school leaders on one side and the teachers on the other in their opinion, with respect to considering political affiliation, professional qualification and work experience as the selection criteria for the placement of educational officials.

#### **b) School Principals:**

Majority of the respondents agreed that only work performance appraisal (3.66) was the major selection criterion used in selecting and placing school principals. With respect to considering a prospective candidate with political affiliation (2.67), professional qualifications (3.35) and work experience (3.41) as some of the possible selection criteria used, the findings indicated that "Moderate Consideration" was used for all of them, whilst acquiring professional training certificate was regarded as a minor criterion (2.48). Significant differences were observed between educational officials and school leaders on the one hand and the teachers on the other in the perception of considering professional qualification and work experience as part of the selection criteria used for the placement of school principals.

As per the interview secured from educational officials and the civil service department, for internal promotion, a performance appraisal and letter of recommendation were used as a selection criterion. When seeking prospective candidates from the outside, professional qualifications as well as work experience were required in order to be selected and placed. To encourage women applicants, priority was given to them if they had the same qualifications and work

experience as their male counterpart. This was done for both internal and external application. Note however, that through document analysis obtained from the Civil Service Department, the selection criteria for primary school leaders for instance, did show professional qualification and experience, but nothing was written regarding women applicants. Through memorandum of understanding, women who scored the same as men were given priority. This again shows lack of clarity and transparency to all concerned.

#### **4.1.4 Problems related to Women's Own Attitude and Behavior**

Relating to the assessment of the major problems encountered by the attitudes of women themselves and their behavior, it was discovered that five factors were regarded as major causes that prevent women from climbing the managerial ladder. These major causes include, fear of balancing professional and family life (4.38), fear of taking risks (3.84), perceiving themselves as less skillful (3.63), lack of role models and mentors in the workplace (3.60) and finally, lack of support from other female subordinates (3.56). On the other hand, both the respondents rated the other five factors that ranked sixth to tenth, as a moderate cause with respect to women's own attitude, that hinder their participation rate in leadership.

#### **4.1.5 Problems related to Societal Barriers**

The study depicted that the majority of the respondents who perceived the influence of patriarchal ideology (4.02), view that men are always decision makers (3.87), early socialization of gender (3.79), lack of confidence in women's ability to lead (3.63), and lastly, the fact that the society as a whole considers women's role in the private domain (3.57) were regarded as major causes that hinder women from reaching senior posts. On the other hand, women were neither encouraged, nor supported to go to school (3.46) and their lack of involvement in politics (2.68) was only seen as a moderate cause for their absence in leadership. Moreover, the findings indicate that there were significant differences of opinion between the two genders on most of the points listed as societal barriers. This clearly indicates that societal attitudes indeed play a big role in limiting women's participation in leadership.

#### **4.1.6 Problems related to Men's Attitude**

With regards to the assessment of the major problems encountered by men's attitude, both respondents rated three factors as a major cause for limiting women's participation

in educational leadership. These causes include men's perception of themselves as being more competent and capable in leadership as compared to their female counterparts (4.07), men's view of management as requiring masculine traits (3.77), and excluding women from their 'Old-Buddy' network (3.60). The finding further pointed out that there were significant differences in perception between the two genders with respect to men managers offering women fewer opportunities for promotion and offering less challenging job assignments. Women strongly believe that men feel challenged and threatened, by their female counterparts when they become overachievers in the work place. In line with this, it was observed that men were not threatened nor felt uneasy, working with women at equal levels, which was regarded as a minor cause for their absence in management.

#### **4.1.7 Problems related to Organizational Culture**

Concerning the judgment of the major problems encountered with respect to the organizational culture, the two respondent groups rated five related points. The organization's belief that women don't take risks (3.62) and that their job performance is greatly affected by family responsibility and obligation (3.62) were regarded as a major cause for preventing women's entry into management. On the contrary, organizations' belief that, women would not relocate nor travel (2.49) and are less committed than their male counterparts, was seen as a minor cause for the issue under consideration. Even though, women not possessing the masculine characteristics required by an organization was seen as a moderate cause, there appeared to be significant difference in perception between the two genders.

#### **4.1.8 Problems related to Organizational Rules and Regulations**

The study identified three factors that could possibly be major causes for acting as barriers towards women's participation in educational leadership with respect to organizational rules and regulations. They are, lack of transparent selection, hiring, and promoting policies and programs (3.71), having occupational segregation in the workplace at time of selecting and hiring (3.63) and lastly, organizations not providing professional development and the necessary training-on or off the job (3.57). A significant difference was observed between the two genders in the perception of lack of policies or programs that help women's careers (3.52). Males rated it as a moderate cause whilst females rated the problem as a major cause for the current under-representativeness of women in leadership roles.

#### **4.1.9 The Effect of Policy Intervention**

According to the findings, the judgment of the majority of the occupational respondent groups (Educational officials, school leaders and teachers) on the effect of policy intervention on women's participation had different ranges of weighted mean values that fall below the minimum satisfactory point (2.50 indicating a low contribution to women's entry into management. These items include lack of clarity and transparency of policy for easy implementation (1.72), lack of careful monitoring and evaluation (1.92), lack of commitment and willingness from higher political officials (2.28) and lack of good communication and coordination (2.33); however, the current policy that encourages women to participate in educational leadership (4.15) as well as the proper design of policy and programs for women, was perceived as playing a major contribution.

### **4.2 Conclusions**

As more and more women are seen at senior posts, their presence has become familiar, acceptable and their competence proved. Research results reveal that the overall perception of society has changed towards women leaders' ability, skill and leadership competence, recognizing and accepting their competence in most skills. Helgeson (1990) confirms that female values in the workplace are emerging as valuable leadership qualities. Despite their unique abilities and competence, women in leadership are still in minority. In education, a profession that had traditionally employed a large number of women, the leaders are seldom female, where it is readily apparent that the rate of participation of women diminishes the higher up the occupational hierarchy goes. This shows that there were no adequate measures taken to improve and increase their participation rate, be given the opportunity to exercise their talent and be visible in the workplace.

Women have undoubtedly made significant contributions towards the socio-economic development of their country, but unfortunately, women's problems and desires have not always been given adequate attention. Interestingly, even though participation in the workplace by women has steadily increased due to the history of political and legislative action designed to eliminate or at least ease such inequities, gender differences in occupations remain constant. As noted in the findings, the current selection criterion for educational leaders was not clear and transparent to aspiring women. This led to misconceptions as to what the actual selection criteria is in order to apply and get selected to

these senior leadership positions. Based on this, it is possible to conclude that there was no pre-hand information that would help women know what is expected of them, encourage and motivate aspirants to seek and apply for leadership positions.

For many years, women have been denied opportunities to become true leaders and the real factors surrounding this denial cannot be underestimated, ignored nor overlooked. As indicated in the study, several major factors have affected their participation in leadership. Such problems arise from a variety of sources, namely: traditional beliefs and practices; men's behavior and expectations; women's behavior towards themselves as well as towards others. Thus, this shows in general, that women are greatly affected by this sex-stereotypical attitude of society by both men and women as well as attitudes created against and within themselves, which is detrimental to their advancement. This study confirms Shakeshaft's (1999) claim that "Women are their own worst enemies", which could be due to their upbringing and socialization process. In addition, an institutional setting that reflects men's needs and situations and ignored women's different needs and experiences have marginalized women in the workplace. Thus, lack of professional development and training; transparency in the selection, hiring and promoting policies, and organizational myths about women were major organizational problems observed in the study. Organizations have not been able to alleviate these problems so women can compete and enter into leadership positions without this subtle discrimination against them.

For many policy experts, the persistent shortage of women at the highest level of a field, where education is primarily dominated by women e.g. majority of teachers are females, is one of the most troubling leadership issues in public education. Despite such positive moves, the study indicates that there has been insufficient political and sustained commitment to meeting the need and interest of women by higher officials, lack of careful monitoring and evaluation, lack of good communication and coordination, and finally, lack of clarity and transparency of policy for easy implementation. Some women leaders noted through the interview, that the policy looked good on paper but the implementation proved to be ineffective and in most cases, the assessors did not have standardized criteria recording and rating scales, which is safe to say that the result would fall in doubt to be based on some component of merit. Therefore, this implies that in spite of the policy intervention; the participation of women has not increased, as it was originally intended to.

## 4.3 Recommendations

To tackle the problem that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership, the following recommendations are proposed in view of the above findings.

### 4.3.1 Awareness Creation and Consensus Building

As noted in the study, one of the biggest obstacles to women's advancement to leadership is the negative attitudes women have of themselves and other females as well as the sex-stereotypical attitude of society. In order to combat these problems, women and society in general have to set positive strategies to break these barriers. The following are possible measures to be taken: -

- a) The study revealed that women were found to be competent in most of the skills; however, all the competence in the world will not be sufficient if women leaders do not recognize, think about, and discuss their needs to advance and survive in the organizations. Women need to figure out the politics of the organizations' system and learn how to play the game to get themselves noticed (visible), to win the support of key people (bosses, subordinates) and take some risks to get the attention needed to move along to the "next level" or to a particular job. Avoiding politics and relying on the formal system will not always get the organizations' wheel go round.
- b) At personal level, perhaps the first thing that needs to be done is to change the way children are raised. Parents must provide their daughters with opportunities to develop their decision-making skills and leadership capabilities and must train their sons to respect their sisters as equals. In particular, they must ensure that daughters have equal access to the same quantity, quality and type of education as their sons.
- c) Women through attendance of awareness creation workshops, seminars and experience share (networking) should learn to change their self-image, be strong-willed, get rid of fear and take initiatives. They should value their inner strength, ability, qualifications and skill and convince themselves of their competence, as well as prove their ability by being competitive.
- d) Women aspiring for promotion must be competitive, competent, outshine men through performance, be well educated and concentrate on positions that offer the most career potential, rather than the financial aspect of it.
- e) Successful women leaders should organize workshops, seminars, use the media (talk shows, radio etc) to share their experiences, tell their stores of success, challenges and failure where possible so as to build self confidence and set the stage for being a role

model to female aspirants. This will also benefit and possibly change societies stereotypical attitude towards women leadership capabilities, strength, skill, commitment and competence.

- f) As indicated in the study, one of the major stumbling blocks for the low participation of women in educational leadership was the lack of support systems (role models, networks and mentors). Women can minimize the negative impact of the Glass Ceiling and make positive and sustainable breakthroughs by engaging in mentoring and networking. Women in leadership positions should strive to enrich young and inexperienced female aspirants by mentoring, which is considered a viable means to career advancement and has limitless potential to improve women's chances for career success in leadership. Women should also develop formal as well as informal networks similar to men's 'Old- Buddy' network so as to share information, career plan and get professional support and encouragement as well as get visibility with senior management.
- g) Women and girls should become aware of the existence of horizontal violence and work together to understand this phenomenon, the psychological reasons behind female-to-female discrimination, and the powerful message that such behavior has on others. Allowing horizontal violence to continue will retard the progress of women and result in inequitable treatment that will not allow them to become equal members in our society. Women in leadership should become aware of and acknowledge sexism and gender discrimination and strive to eliminate it.
- h) Women in leadership should strive to enrich their schools and workplaces with qualities of female leadership e.g. Collaboration, caring, courage, intuitions and vision as well as change the existing cultures in education by drawing on their female strengths.
- i) In order to counter stereotyping in school, curricula should be modified by screening all textbooks and support materials from kindergartens to senior secondary schools. This way, women's participation in all areas of society will be properly reflected.
- j) Teaching staff should be sensitized in order to promote non-discriminatory attitudes and practices in teaching.

## **4.3.2 Organizations and Policy Interventions**

### **4.3.2.1 Organizational Strategies**

In spite of all these impressive gains, women still face artificial barriers of attitudinal and organizational bias that impede qualified female candidates from advancing in significant numbers into the upper echelons of organizations. Organizations have to acknowledge the fact that more

women are entering management than before, and it will be an enormous loss in terms of economics and management talents if strategies are not set up to increase and improve women's participation in leadership positions. To this end therefore, the study recommends the following: -

- a) Organizations should establish goals and set targets for recruiting and promoting women that will help overcome bias in prospecting and recruitment by making procedures gender-neutral.
- b) Recruitment and selection criteria should be clearer, more transparent and better structured which would help ensure fairness and give women a better chance, e.g. interviewers should be instructed to ask all candidates a set of specific questions and to carefully rank candidates according to their actual replies, qualifications and experience. This way, subjective impression would interfere less with assessment, and decisions would not be made for or against a person on the spot in just a few minutes.
- c) Organizations should provide equal opportunities for women to develop a career in management. These leadership career opportunities include career planning, counseling, creation of informal networks for all women leaders and provide reasonable maternity and paternity leave with a guarantee to return to work after it, as well as have some financial security during the leave period. Paternity leave is particularly important in the changing circumstances of the family and may encourage husbands of women leaders to give more emotional and domestic support in the home.
- d) Develop and design gender sensitive workshops, seminars and training about gender role socialization, family shared responsibilities, gender role perception, and other gender sensitive issues that are conducted with men so as to make them more receptive to female peers, subordinates and superiors. This approach will help to reduce many of the stereotypes commonly ascribed by males to women leaders.
- e) Emphasis should be in place on the development of specific managerial skills designed to increase the necessary technical and conceptual abilities. That is, organizations should have long as well as short term training aimed at improving women's leadership skills, performance, school management and the like.

#### **4.3.2.2 Government and Policy Intervention**

Governments play a vital role in promoting girls/women participation in education and leadership positions by designing appropriate policies. Policies should be practical in reality and not be theoretical, where they should be implemented properly with careful monitoring, and evaluations should take place for its effectiveness. As the study indicated, the policy designed and set out for

women has greatly encouraged women to participate in educational leadership; however, it is far from reaching its intended target. Therefore, it will be good and important for governments and concerned authorities to consider the following recommendations by this study: -

- a) Government policies should be designed in a way that directly addresses the problem of women's marginalization. The policies and strategies that could enhance women's participation in educational leadership should be devised and implemented.
- b) Positive actions should be taken to build a critical mass of women educational leaders, and appropriate mechanisms have to take place to monitor their access to senior positions.
- c) According to the study, lack of communication and coordination as well as lack of careful monitoring and evaluation of the policy was seen as "Low Contribution" which could have been well affected by the lack of clarity and transparency of the policy. Policy makers when designing the policy should in reality make it well known to concerned personnel how to interpret and implement the policy so as to benefit the people that it was designed to benefit in the first place.
- d) It would be ideal if policies are communicated to all implementers especially at grass root levels (e.g. teachers, school leaders, parents, communities etc) which would not only help in creating awareness, but would also clarify ideas and content which are important for the implementation of the policy at lower levels. In fact, most respondents in the open-ended questions pointed out that rather than designing/formulating policies at the top and descend them to the implementers, designing it locally will help solve a lot of problems in terms of communication, clarity and commitment.
- e) The implementation of equal opportunity policy has to be carefully reviewed and monitored which includes reviewing the criteria for recruitment and appointment. As noted in the findings, professional training was not included as one of the selection criteria. This should be revised because professional development is an ongoing training where people are educating themselves, upgrading their technical as well as their conceptual skills in the areas of their specialty. This makes them better-qualified personnel.
- f) Another problem noted was the lack of clarity and transparency with regards to the selection criteria for the selection and placement of educational leaders. To help women strive up the ladder, they need to know what is expected of them. In order to encourage and motivate female aspirants to apply for senior positions and avoid misconceptions, it is advisable for the selection criteria to be clear and transparent to all applicants. Note: The student researcher was not able to get a hold of documents that stated the actual selection criteria for educational officials and secondary school leaders. A written policy for

recruitment and selection, practices and procedures should be developed by a trained search committee and make it publicly known.

- g) In order to change the attitudes and increase the commitment of higher political officials, educational officials and the like, it would be advisable to have advocacy and training to take place so as to make them gender sensitive. It was noted in the study that since women were absent at the top of the hierarchical ladder, it is men that have the power and authority to exercise the policy.
- h) Affirmative action programs merely help qualified female candidates to overcome racism and sexism and help open doors for those who don't have the connections. As it was discovered in the study, there were a limited number of women leaders in both the administration and in the schools. Therefore, for affirmative action to be effective, proper quota system that ensures the appearance of women leaders should be arranged and implemented to guarantee high presentation of women leaders in every educational institution. Authorities involved should attentively monitor the way appointments are undertaken.

### **4.3.3 Recommendation for Further Study**

A quick review of the literature on women in educational leadership makes it clear that female leaders need to be further researched to assist other women in allowing and sustaining positions of leadership. The focus should be on those women who have made significant progress in their lives and because of their actions, knowledge, skills, experience and the know how, will eventually open doors for many aspiring women.

The very essence of using men as yardsticks to measure how women fare in administration creates a knowledge gap and an illusion about what we need to know about the characteristics of women in leadership. For example, prior to 1980 most research studies on school administration were confined to white, male, urban administrators to the exclusion of women (Shakeshaft, 1987), and used men as benchmarks to advance and promote women's understanding of what leadership entails. Therefore, without such research the prevalent practice of hiring men rather than women has the tendency to create or continue the belief that women must somehow be inferior to men and unable to succeed in that position.

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# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX I

## Section I Biographical Information

Please put a tick mark against your choice for each category

Sex	Age	Marital Status	Children < 16	Position	Service years	Educational Level	Salary
M ___	<20 ___ 20-30 ___	S ___ M ___	Yes ___	Principal ___ V. Principal ___	<3 ___ 3-5 ___	12 ___ 12+TTI ___	<400 ___ 401 - 600 ___
F ___	31-40 ___ 41-50 ___ 51-60 ___ >60 ___	D ___ W ___	No ___	Unit Leader ___ Dept. Head ___ Teacher ___ PTA ___ Women's Affairs ___ Guidance & Counseling ___	6-10 ___ 10-15 ___ 16-20 ___ >20 ___	12+1 ___ 12+2 ___ 12+3 ___ BA/B.SC ___ MA/M.SC ___	601 - 800 ___ 801 - 1000 ___ 1001 -1200 ___ 1201 -1500 ___ >1501 ___
	< Less than > Greater than	S-Single M-Married D-Divorced W-Widow	< Less than	PTA-Parents Teachers Association	< Less than > Greater than		< Less than > Greater than

## Section II

**In your opinion, what is your feeling concerning the ability, skills and leadership competence of women leaders in education? Please put an "X" in one of the boxes provided for your agreement or disagreement.**

Use the following five scales to answer the questions.

VG – Very Good      G – Good      M – Medium      P – Poor      VP – Very Poor

No.	Variables	VG	G	M	P	VP
	<b>Women...</b>					
<b>2.1</b>	<b>Administrative Skills</b>					
1	Implement rules and regulations efficiently and effectively					
2	Promote optimum use of the material, financial and human resources					
3	Effectively plan and coordinate all desired activities towards the achievement of educational goals					
4	Delegate duties and responsibilities effectively to subordinates					
<b>2.2</b>	<b>Communication and Coordination Skills</b>					
1	Are able to develop and communicate a vision					
2	Clarify and instruct staff on how to apply rules and regulations					
3	Are able to read the organizations informal systems					

No.	Variables	VG	G	M	P	VP
<b>2.3</b>	<b>Leadership Style Skills</b>					
1	Are articulate and consistent in decision-making					
2	Are accommodating, patient and gentle					
3	Possess the ability to mobilize and motivate people					
4	Make criticism and reprimand subordinates whenever deemed necessary					
5	Develop positive attitude towards changes and encourages to improve their efficiency					
6	Allow subordinates to participate in decision-making					
7	Are risk takers					
<b>2.4</b>	<b>Human Relation Skills</b>					
1	Create warm team spirit and better working atmosphere					
2	Treat all staffs/students on equal grounds					
3	Involve and coordinate extra curricular activities e.g. Sports, HIV/AIDS, Red Cross Clubs					
4	Provide professional counseling to concerned staff/students/parents whenever deemed necessary					
5	Encourages and supports other women (acts as mentors/role models)					
<b>2.5</b>	<b>Conflict Management Skills</b>					
1	Have the ability to minimize conflicts that occur within the work environment					
2	Have the ability to manage conflicts					
3	Have the ability to solve conflicts					

1. If there are other factors not mentioned above that you would like to include, please specify in the space provided.

- a. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Any comments/suggestions you might have regarding women education leaders, please state in the space provided.

- a. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \_\_\_\_\_

### Section III

**Show the extent of Women’s Participation in School Leadership positions by putting an “X” in one of the boxes provided for each position.**

Use the following five scales to answer the questions.

VH – Very High      H – High      A – Average      L – Low      VL – Very Low

No.	Women in School Leadership positions	Extent of Participation				
		VH	H	A	L	VL
3.1	Principals					
2	Vice Principals					
3	Unit Leaders					
4	Department Heads					
5	Parents Teachers Association					
6	School Girl’s Club					

### Section IV

**Indicate the current selection criteria used for selecting educational leaders (Education Officials and School Principals) by putting an “X” in one of the boxes provided to each possible criterion.**

Use the following five scales to answer the questions.

VH- Very High      H – High      A - Average      L - Low      VL – Very Low

No.	Variables	VH	H	A	L	VL
<b>4.1</b>	<b>Education Bureau Officials are selected by...</b>					
1	Political Affiliation					
2	Professional Qualification					
3	Work / Leadership Experience					
4	Performance appraisal results					
5	Adequate and relevant professional training					
6	Other (If any)					
7	Other (If any)					
8	Other (If any)					
<b>4.2</b>	<b>Schools Principals are selected by...</b>					
1	Political Background					
2	Professional Qualification					
3	Work / Leadership Experience					
4	Performance Appraisal Results					
5	Adequate and Relevant Professional Training					
6	Other (If any)					
7	Other (If any)					
8	Other (If any)					

## Section V

Indicate the extent to which these human factors affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership by putting an "X" in one of the boxes provided for each possible factor.

Use the following five scales to answer the questions.

VH- Very High      H – High      M – Medium      L – Low      VL – Very Low

No.	Factors/Items	VH	H	M	L	VL
<b>5.1</b>	<b>Attributable to women themselves</b>					
	<b>Women...</b>					
1	Still acknowledge the world as "masculine"					
2	Perceive themselves as less skillful in leadership					
3	Have less aspiration (ambition) to become leaders					
4	Forgo investing in education in fear of not getting their desired career choice					
5	Exhibit poor risk taking skills in leadership					
6	Lack awareness and knowledge of the organizational culture and politics					
7	Fear success in achievement will lead to negative attitudes from colleagues					
8	Avoid leadership position in fear of balancing professional work and family life					
9	Encounter jealousy, competition and lack of support from other female subordinates					
10	Lack of mentor/role model					
<b>5.2</b>	<b>Societal barriers towards women</b>					
1	Girls and boys are raised and socialized differently to assume different roles and expectations in the society					
2	Most young girls/women are not encouraged and supported by their family to pursue their education					
3	Many people think women's role should be child bearing, rearing and taking care of family					
4	People think women don't have the ability and the skill to be a leader					
5	The influence of patriarchal ideology adversely affects women's participation in educational leadership					
6	Most people still think the decision making power rests with men					
7	Lack of political affiliation					

No.	Factors/Items	VH	H	M	L	VL
<b>5.3</b>	<b>Attitudes of men</b>					
	<b>Men...</b>					
1	Feel more competent, capable and efficient in leadership than women					
2	See management as an occupation which requires "Masculine Traits"					
3	Feel women have to do the same things as men in order to succeed in senior positions (adapt to men's ways)					
4	Feel uneasy working with women at equal level					
5	Are threatened by their jobs when women become over achievers					
6	Exclude women from their informal network					
7	Managers offer fewer opportunities /unchallenging work assignments to women as compared to men					

## Section VI

**In your opinion, indicate the extent to which these policy interventions of women have affected Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. Please indicate by putting an "X" in one of the boxes provided for each possible factor.**

Use the following five scales to answer the questions.

VH- Very High      H – High      M – Medium      L – Low      VL – Very Low

No.	Variables	VH	H	M	L	VL
<b>6.1</b>	Deficiency in the design of policies and programs of women					
2	Lack of clarity and transparency of policy for easy implementation					
3	Lack of commitment and willingness of the political representatives at higher levels					
4	Lack of good communication and coordination					
5	Lack of careful monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of the policy					
6	The current policy on women encourages women's participation in educational leadership					
7	Ethiopian women have benefited from the policy					

## Section VII

**Indicate the extent to which these organizational factors affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership by putting an "X" in one of the boxes provided for each possible factor.**

Use the following five scales to answer the questions.

VH- Very High      H – High      M – Medium      L – Low      VL – Very Low

No.	Variables	VH	H	M	L	VL
<b>7.1</b>	<b>Organizational Culture(Myths)</b>					
	<b>Educational Organizations feel and believe women...</b>					
1	Are less committed than males					
2	Do not possess the masculine characteristic required by organizations					
3	Would not relocate/ cannot travel					
4	Do not take risks					
5	Education leaders job performance is affected by their family responsibility and obligations					
6	Are temporary workers (stop work after child birth)					
<b>7.2</b>	<b>Rules and regulations</b>					
	<b>Educational Organizations...</b>					
1	Have less transparent selection, hiring and promoting policies and practices					
2	Have no policies or programs that help women's career					
3	Make no official effort to make females active participants in educational leadership positions					
4	Have occupational sex segregation in the workplace (at time of selection and hiring)					
5	Provide less training and professional development to women than men					
6	Encourage women to form their own network					
7	Have performance appraisal systems that are biased towards women					
8	Flexible hours and childcare facilities for women not available					

1. If there are other factors not mentioned above that you would like to include, please specify in the space provided.

- a. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \_\_\_\_\_

## Section VIII

1. In your opinion, what are OTHER major factors that might contribute to the under representativeness of Women Leaders in Educational Leadership?

- a. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \_\_\_\_\_
- e. \_\_\_\_\_
- f. \_\_\_\_\_

2. If you believe any actions have taken place to encourage Women's Participation in Educational Leadership, please state them below.

- a. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \_\_\_\_\_
- e. \_\_\_\_\_
- f. \_\_\_\_\_

3. State what possible strategies or actions should be taken in order to improve and increase the participation of Women in Educational Leadership?

- a. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. \_\_\_\_\_
- e. \_\_\_\_\_
- f. \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you again for your cooperation**

## **APPENDIX II**

# **ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**

**School of Graduate Studies**

**Department of Educational Planning and Management**

### **Interview Guide - For Educational Leaders**

#### **General Instructions:**

The main purpose of this interview is to gather primary and relevant data on factors that affect Women's Participation in Educational Leadership. It is also aimed at identifying the possible strategies that could be implemented to improve and maximize the participation of educational women leaders.

You have been selected to participate in this study; therefore you are kindly requested to answer the questions in order to give the necessary information on the different issues related to the study. The success of this study depends upon your honest and genuine response to the questions. The information will be used for academic purposes and your responses will be kept confidential.

**Thank you in advance for your cooperation**

### **I. An interview concerning education, training and experience**

1. What was your undergraduate/masters level major?
2. Have you ever taught in your career?
3. If yes to number 2, how many years did you teach before you got assigned to your current position?
4. What position did you hold immediately before first becoming an educational leader?
5. Does the position you have been assigned currently accompanied with salary improvement?
6. Do you receive on the job training? If yes, how often?
7. Do you participate in workshops/seminars? If yes, how often?
8. Have you taken any professional management courses? When and for how long?

### **II. An Interview concerning selection, recruitment and promotion**

1. What are the current methods used for the selection criteria and placement of educational leaders in your institution?
2. What are the methods for promotion/transfer procedures of educational leaders in your institution?

### **III. An Interview concerning Women Educational Leaders**

1. What is the extent of women participation in educational leadership in your institutions?
2. What is the overall attitude towards women leaders?
3. Does your institution encourage women to senior positions? Explain your response briefly.
4. Does the current policy on women encourage women's participation in educational leadership? Explain your response briefly.

### **IV. What are the major factors that might contribute to the under representativeness Women in Educational Leadership?**

### **V. Do you believe any actions have taken place to encourage Women's Participation in Educational Leadership?**

### **VI.. State what possible strategies or action should be taken in order to improve and increase the participation of Women in Educational Leadership?**

## APPENDIX III-A

# ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

## School of Graduate Studies

### Department of Educational Planning and Management

### Checklist

#### I. General Data

1. Kifle Ketema: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_

#### II. Populations figures

No.	Positions	Male	Female	Total
1	Principal			
2	Assistant Principal			
3	Unit Leaders			
4	Department Heads			
5	Teachers			
6	Students			
7	Parents Teachers Association			
8	Schoolgirls Club			
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				

## APPENDIX III-B

# ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

## School of Graduate Studies

### Department of Educational Planning and Management

### Checklist

#### I. General Data

City of Addis Ababa Administration Education Bureau

\_\_\_\_\_ Kifle Ketema Education Bureau

#### II. Populations figures

No.	Positions	Male	Female	Total
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				

## APPENDIX IV

### List of Sample Schools

#### Government Secondary and Primary School Leaders and Teachers in the Four Sub-Cities

#	Name of Schools	Sub Cities	School Leaders				Teachers				
			Principal		V. Principal		Unit Leader		Teachers		Total
			M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
<b>Secondary Schools</b>											
1	Bole Secondary	Bole	1	0	2	0	9	0	144	20	173
2	Dr. Hadis Alem.	Bole	0	1	2	0	2	0	29	5	36
3	Lem Secondary	Bole	1	0	1	1	5	0	63	10	78
4	Dilber	Gullellie	1	0	2	0	3	1	63	16	83
5	Medhanyalem	Gullellie	1	0	2	1	5	3	145	49	202
6	Yekatit 12	Gullellie	1	0	2	0	7	0	111	18	136
7	Abiyot Kirse	Kirkos	1	0	2	0	4	0	111	24	139
8	Shimelis Habte	Kirkos	1	0	2	0	6	0	101	21	128
9	Kefetenya 12-AK	Yeka	1	0	2	0	4	0	113	3	120
10	Kokeb Tsibiha	Yeka	1	0	2	0	6	0	98	32	136
11	Wondirade	Yeka	1	0	2	0	4	0	75	15	94
	<b>Total Population</b>		<b>10</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1053</b>	<b>213</b>	<b>1325</b>
<b>Primary Schools</b>											
1	Berhanehe Zare	Bole	1	0	1	1	3	0	52	42	97
2	Gerji Primary	Bole	1	0	0	1	3	2	39	67	111
3	Mesrak Ber #1	Bole	1	0	1	1	4	0	40	75	119
4	Entoto Amba	Gullellie	0	1	2	1	3	1	55	54	113
5	Taitu Betul	Gullellie	1	0	1	1	1	2	23	29	55
6	Tshehay Chora	Gullellie	0	1	2	0	2	1	39	37	79
7	Finfine	Kirkos	0	1	0	1	2	0	18	25	45
8	Mesrak Goh	Kirkos	1	0	1	1	3	0	23	27	53
9	Urael Primary	Kirkos	1	0	0	1	2	0	19	26	47
10	Salayesh Primary	Yeka	0	1	1	1	2	1	24	35	62
11	Wondirade Primary	Yeka	1	0	2	0	4	0	84	88	176
12	Yeka Primary	Yeka	1	0	0	0	2	2	16	36	56
	<b>Total Population</b>		<b>8</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>432</b>	<b>541</b>	<b>1013</b>
	<b>Total Population</b>		<b>18</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>1485</b>	<b>754</b>	<b>2338</b>

#### SUMMARY OF RESPONSES

School Leaders				Teachers			
Summary	M	F	Total	Summary	M	F	Total
Total Population(Sex)	50	16	66	Total Population(Sex)	1571	767	2338
Total Population-required(100%)	50	16	66	Total Population-required(10%)	157	77	234
Total response	44	16	60	Total response	145	75	220
Over/under	-6	0	-6	Over/under	-12	-2	-14
Percentage of response	88%	100%	91%	Percentage of response	92%	98%	94%

## APPENDIX V

### Distribution and Response of Questionnaires of Sample Population

Types of Respondents	Actual Distributions			Actual Response			% Returned	Unreturned Responses		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total		M	F	Total
<b>Educational Officials</b>										
City Gov't of Addis Ababa Education Bureau	14	3	17	11	3	14		3	0	3
Subcity Education Offices	23	4	27	21	4	25		2	0	2
Kebele Education Desks	4	5	9	4	5	9		0	0	0
<b>Total</b>	41	12	53	36	12	48	91%	5	0	5
<b>School Leaders</b>										
Primary School	19	13	32	15	13	28		4	0	4
Secondary School	31	3	34	29	3	32		2	0	2
<b>Total</b>	50	16	66	44	16	60	91%	6	0	6
<b>Teachers</b>										
Primary School	46	55	101	43	54	97		3	1	4
Secondary School	111	22	133	102	21	123		9	1	10
<b>Total</b>	157	77	234	145	75	220	94%	12	2	14
<b>Grand Total</b>	248	105	353	225	103	328	93%	23	2	25

## APPENDIX VI

### Total Educational Leadership Positions in the City of Addis Ababa Administration in Four Sub-Cities (Bole;Gullillie;Kirkos;Yeka)

Positions	Educational Officials *				Total
	M		F		
	N	%	N	%	
City of A.A. Administration	14		3		17
Bole	12		3		15
Gullilie	14		3		17
Kirkos	18		1		19
Yeka	18		3		21
<b>Total</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15%</b>	<b>89</b>

Educational Officials \* - Education Bureau; Sub-City Education Offices and Kebeles

Positions	School Leaders					School Leaders					Total
	Principals				Total	Vice Principals				Total	
	M		F			M		F			
	N	%	N	%		N	%	N	%		
<b>Secondary Schools</b>											
Bole	2		1		5		1				9
Gullilie	3		0		6		1				10
Kirkos	2		0		4		0				6
Yeka	3		0		6		0				9
<b>Total</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>Primary Schools</b>											
Bole	11		2		6		4				23
Gullilie	7		1		14		2				24
Kirkos	6		3		8		5				22
Yeka	12		2		14		5				33
<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>0.18</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>0.84</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>0.16</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>0.22</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>136</b>

<b>Summary</b>	
Total - Principals and Vice Principals	136
Total - Female Principals and V.Principals	27
Total - Percentage of Participation	20%

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

**Name: - Dr. Jeilu Oumer**

**Signature: -**

  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Date: -**

April 2, 2008