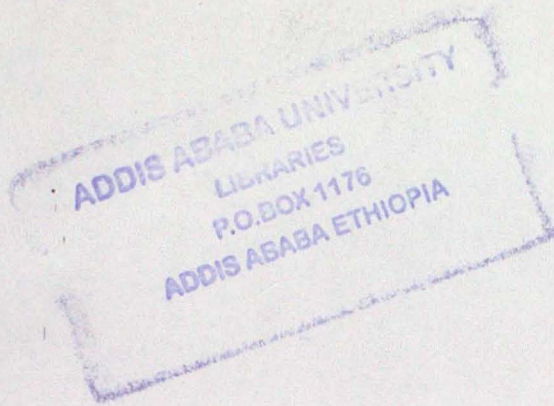


THE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN THE TEACHING
PROFESSION IN GOVERNMENT UNIVERSITIES OF ETHIOPIA



By

Anteneh Tadesse



A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN
EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

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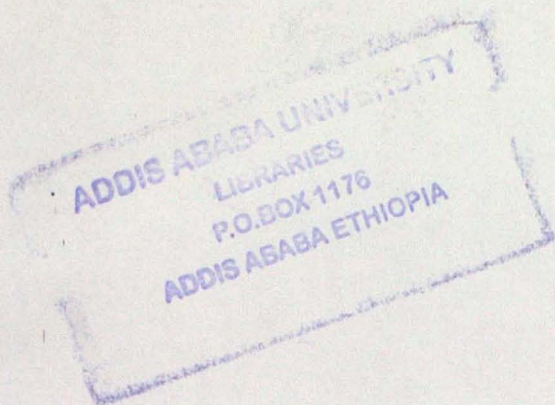
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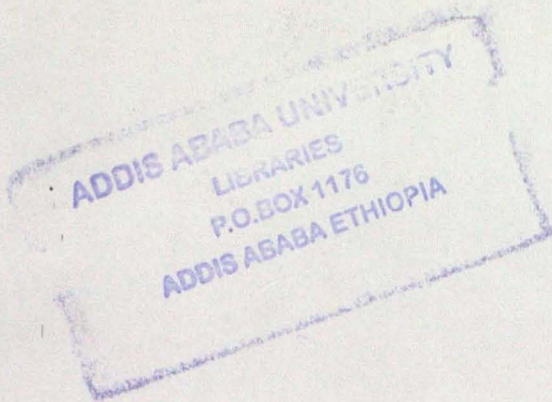
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Abstract

Women participation in all spheres of life has become significant. The presence of a high number of women as instructors in the higher education institutions would play an important role in the efforts to promote the education of women in Ethiopia. One major reason is that it is at the higher echelons where important decisions related to the why, what and how of education are made. Women need to be present in these institutions to voice the needs and different educational programs that would affect the participation, success and outcomes of women. Currently however, few Ethiopian women possess these attributes and very few are represented as instructors in government universities. Hence, this study is meant to understand the myriad factors that affect the low representation of women in government universities of Ethiopia with particular reference to Addis Ababa University, Bahirdar University and Haramaya University. To examine the major constraints that entangled women during recruitment and promotion, a total of 246 academic staff, where 56 were women faculty, 22 administrators including Deans, Human resources department officers and 360 student subjects were selected through simple random sampling, purposive sampling, cluster random sampling and stratified random sampling techniques as the case requires. The study used qualitative and quantitative methods. Questionnaires and interview Items were used to gather data from the subjects.

The data was analyzed mainly qualitatively and by descriptive statistics using (frequencies and percentages). The findings show that there are small number of women faculty in the selected faculties and departments of Addis Ababa University, Bahir-Dar University and Haramaya University. The range varies from none to 8 in some departments.

The major findings of the study also indicated that very few women apply to become lecturer in the selected faculties of the three Universities. From among these already few, very few pass the screening process and join the faculty. This is mainly because of a generally poor performance record in their under graduate studies i.e. low CGPA at the time of graduation. The very few who make it do not advance in the career ladder because during promotion they again fail to meet the additional requirements such as research output. Additionally women's low representation in the interview committees has also found to be another obstacle for women candidates who are interested to join higher institutions.

CHAPTER ONE

1. THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

1.1 Background of the Study

One way of attaining high participation of women for national development is increasing their representation in status position (Shakeshaft 1989:12). However, though theoretically the representation of women in status and decision making positions are an acceptable issue, various findings (for example, Heller, 1982; Dipboye, 1989; Gordon and strober, 1975; Marshal, 1985; shakeshaft, 1989) cited in Almaz (1994) confirm a very poor representation of women in the academic labor market, in various fields of endeavor.

Surprisingly, the marginalization of women from academia includes even those areas where traditionally women constitute the majority (or at least considerable portion of the personnel) in organizations. Teaching is one of these occupations. A survey study conducted by UNESCO in some countries from Africa, Asia, Latin America and Eastern Europe shows excessive low percentage of women's participation including teaching (UNESCO, 1998:72).

The presence of a high number of women as instructors in higher institutions of learning would play an important role in efforts to promote the education of women in Ethiopia. One major reason is that it is at the higher echelons, where important decisions are made. Women need to be present in these institutions to voice the needs and different programs that would affect women. Decision making requires the empowerment of the various actors involved in education and women are one of the major actors. When women possess the expertise required for decision making, are well represented in higher education institutions of learning and are gender conscious, they have the power to shape policy and introduce change. Currently however, few Ethiopian women possess these attributes and very few are represented as instructors in higher institutions of learning.

Another important reason why women need to be highly represented in higher levels of educational institutions is that as role models they will play an important part in motivating and developing positive and strong self-images for young women

especially girls in elementary and secondary schools. This has been well documented in national and international studies. A study by the Ministry of education (1999) cited in Almaz (2003) for example, states that the greater the number of female teachers in schools and universities, the better the girls' performance and the lower the drop out rates. Studies also show that students at higher education institutions consider female teachers as more understanding of students' needs, as communicating better with their students and as being more accessible to students (Selby, 2002). The positive aspect of this is that female teachers can be very effective in soliciting psychological and social support to female students against the prevailing societal norms that become serious constraints in their education. Referring specifically to this study, representation of women in higher education institutions teaching post, they could be assigned as teacher counselors and become important assets in mentoring female students to join and complete higher education programs, compete, succeed and be employed in these institutions and benefit from various professional development programs.

In Ethiopia, there is a women's policy that promulgates special focus on women's education. There are structures at federal (the women's Affairs office), regional, zonal and woreda women's affairs offices that are supposed to implement the policy and follow up on the action plans of the policy. Numerous gender awareness training groups for educators are organized by these units and other international and non-government organizations to overcome the prevailing negative socio-cultural stereotypes related to the education of girls and women. However, no drastic improvement is apparent especially at tertiary levels of education when it comes to women. Often policy makers, teachers, planners and implementers continue to perpetuate gender role based discrimination or remain silent from implementing interventions that could improve situations in schools and at all levels of the education system. Consequently, women's low participation in tertiary level both as a student and as academic teaching staff has become glaringly alarming.

Data from the Ministry of education as shown on Table 1 indicates that the female teaching staff in higher institutions is dismally low. Women low representation in such universities should entail serious concern for educators.

Table 1: Summary of Teaching Staff in Regular Programs of Selected Government Universities in Ethiopia (2004/2005)

	Both sexes	Female	% F
Addis Ababa University	1069	119	11.1
Debub University	420	41	9.0
Bahir Dar University	408	42	10.2
Haramaya University	225	15	6.7
Gonder University	142	11	7.7
Mekelle University	353	37	10.4

Source: Ministry of Education, Education statistics Annual Abstract 2004/2005

NB: The data includes those teaching staffs who are only Ethiopian nationals.

In addition, the graduation rate of female students in various higher institutions of learning was found to be low. For instance, the number of female graduates of regular undergraduate degree programs of Addis Ababa University, Bahir Dar University and Haramaya University were 15.3 %, 11.0 % and 15.5 % , respectively for 2004/2005 (MOE). These institutions are the main sources from where potential candidates are recruited.

Table 2: Graduates of Regular Undergraduate Degree Programs from three Institutions of Higher Education 2004/2005

Institution	Total	Male	Female	% F
Addis Ababa University	2,548	2158	390	15.3
Bahir Dar university	858	764	94	11.0
Haramaya University	593	501	92	15.5

Source: MOE, Education Statistics Annual Abstracts, 2004/2005

All in all the above statements and statistical figures showed that men represent the great majority of college and university faculty members world wide in general and in the higher learning institutions of Ethiopia in particular.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Teachers are the key agents for educational development and most critical and essential inputs into education. The improvement of teacher's academic and professional skills and their composition is a crucial asset for quality education provision. However, various studies have made clear that academia is highly dominated by men (Worku, 1997).

Many researchers also wrote that teaching is generally a feminine role. To mention some, "being a teacher is what females wanted "(Shakeshaft, 1989:70); " Teaching profession is an extension of every thing that females are supposed to be" (Weiler, 1997:85); teaching has been identified as females profession" (Shakeshaft, 1989:23), and "teaching is a nice job for a nice girl" (Adler, et al, 1993:19). This is so, because as Lewenhak (1992:85) wrote: "females are considered more suitable than males as teachers on the ground that innate gentleness is more commonly found in them than males". However, the emergent problem is that the "educational system reflects the inferior position of females in teaching" (Alexander, 1975) cited in Abraham (1993:1). Moreover, ".....teaching would be female dominated in many parts of the world, but the challenge is that in the bulk of developing countries, more "males than females are teachers" (Moore, 1987). For example, according to Schmittroth (1991:444), there were 52 % female faculty in developed countries and 33% in developing countries in tertiary level in 1987. Ethiopia is not an exception; because out of the total higher education institutions teaching force, female faculty constituted 3.1% in 2001/2002 (Almaz, 2003).

From the above statements, it is vivid that women are marginalized and their contribution in academia is undervalued. But, the thorny question is that what accounts for the small number of female teachers?

The reasons for women's low representation in the higher education teaching post are of course many and complex. Some are direct reflections of the personal, social, and economic factors. Others are related to the structure, administrative and management

structures of the institutions that can also become crucial points for intervention. This study is an attempt to find out some of the unique reasons if any are at public higher institutions in Ethiopia and suggest policy and program options that could ameliorate the dismal situation of women faculty in higher institutions in the country.

1.3 Study Objectives

The main objective of the study is to investigate the constraints to the recruitment, and career advancement of female academic teaching staff in government universities in Ethiopia.

Specific objectives

1. To identify the major institutional constraints that contributes to the low participation of women faculty in Addis Ababa, Bahir-Dar and Haramaya Universities.
2. To identify personal constraints that impedes women from being faculty members and advance in their career.
3. To indicate possible solutions that could ameliorate the dismal situation of women faculty in government universities in the country in general and in the target universities in particular.

To this effect the study tries to find answers to the following basic questions:

1. What are the organizational and institutional barriers to women becoming instructors in Government Universities of Ethiopia?
2. What are the personal constraints to women becoming faculty members and advance in their career?
3. What are the implications of these constraints for the recruitment and career development of women faculty for the concerned institutions and government?

1.4 Significance of the Study

It is envisaged that the findings from this study will have the following contributions:

1. It will shed light on mitigating factors to gender inequalities in the composition and advancement of faculty at Government Universities of Ethiopia.
2. It will highlight the policy and program implications for recruitment and career development of women faculty
3. It will recommend the implementation of interventions.
4. Furthermore, the findings may also indicate future directions of research for those individuals who are interested in this topic and other related areas.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

The scope of the study is limited to three public universities, namely Addis Ababa University, Bahir-Dar University and Haramaya University.

The reasons that make these higher institutions the focus of attention lay on the following facts:

Addis Ababa University is the oldest and well established higher learning institution in the country. Thus, it is right to argue that it has to be a role model for the other higher institutions of the country in many aspects. Unfortunately, when it comes to academic staff gender composition the reality is not as expected. The numbers of women faculty members are small compared to their male counterparts. For instance, as indicated in the back ground section (page 3, table 1) women represent about 11% of the academic staff. Therefore, the issue deserves closer investigation.

- Secondly, Bahir-Dar University was selected because it has been showing improvement in the gender composition of its academic staff recently. Before three years ago (1995 E.C) there were only three female faculty in the university. Currently, however, out of 600 academic staff, 120 are women. This drastic improvement sparks a question in the mind of the researcher and the researcher has become interested to see if there are unique interventions made in this university to employ women faculty. Besides as the investigator is an academic staff member of Bahir-Dar

University, he has observed the seriousness of the problem from personal experience. Finally, Haramaya University was included because it is an old agricultural university and the researcher wants to examine the representation of women faculty in such higher education institution. It also increases the representativeness of the universities. In general, the decision to select these three universities emanate from a general belief that the practice and experience of these universities would represent the rest of Government Universities in Ethiopia as a whole. In addition, the study is delimited to organizational and institutional barriers which refer to factors such as rules, regulations and established procedures set by the institutions for recruitment, promotion and training of faculty, while personal constraints refer to factors such as family commitments and perceptions, problems that accompany the dual roles of women.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

Since research specifically on women faculty in higher learning institutions in Ethiopia is scarce, much of the review of the related literature is based on the international context. Moreover, it was planned to bring some women faculty and administrators together through group focus discussion to let them discuss about institutional constraints women face and its possible solutions. However, it failed due to personal reasons of the administrators, especially time constraint. the presence

1.7 Definitions of Terms

- **Academic Teaching Staff-** employees of institutions of higher education engaged in lecturing, researching and counseling at third level institutions. Graduate assistants are also regarded as academic teaching staff (MOE, 2004/2005)
- **Level of Education-** this indicates either the highest grade completed or the highest certificate or diploma held by an employee (MOE, 2004/2005).

- **Academic Rank-** a distinct academic position bestowed on lecturers in institutions of higher education based on their years of service and achievements while in service, and level of education (MOE 2004/2005 Educational statistics, Annual Abstract).
- **Affirmative Action:** an intervention measure usually has under gone to relieve the sustained gender educational inequality at tertiary level (Good, 1973).
- **Sex role stereotypes-** sex roles are a set of behaviors or characteristics that are standard for each gender in a society. Sex role stereotypes are widely held beliefs about those behaviors and characteristics (Singleton, 1987).

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Gender Inequality and Higher Education

Numerous studies on development reveal that women have been victims of inequality since long. The major cause are reported not the biological difference but because of the gender bias and behavior inflicted from social, economic, cultural, historical and religious factors. As a result inequality is highly prevalent for women in the areas of social, political, educational and economic life.

Of these areas of life, however, inequality in education is the most painful since education is the gate way to improve the social, economical and political life of an individual woman in particular and to promote the nation's development in general. Confirming this fact, Almaz (1999) stressed, "There is no inequality more intolerable than inequality in educational opportunity."

Research finds have further made clear that these gender bias role, behavior, attitude and expectation are deep rooted in educational processes too. Thus educational in equity has endangered the education and training of girls and women in all the three dimensions of educational processes; namely. Access, success, and out comes at all levels of schooling (Jacobs, 1996). In connection to this, it is indicated that the degree of severity increases along levels from primary to tertiary, across the dimension of educational process from access , success and out comes, and cross-sectional among countries from the highly developed ones to the least developed others (Jacobs, 1996).

From these different perspectives of educational equity, it becomes apparent that the education of girls and women would be in trap at the peak of the pyramid, in institutes of higher learning of developing countries that is particularly of importance to the national development.

To be more specific, equal access to educational opportunity is highly limited for girls and women as one ascend to the pyramid from primary to tertiary levels of schooling. When this comes to female students in institutes of higher learning, the situation is highly distressing. In relation to this, the status of the third world

countries, like Ethiopia, is highly acute (Bowman and Anderson, 1982; Njuma, 1993) cited in Tariku(1999). Research findings of Konjit (1995) and Almaz(1994) on the situation of girl participation in higher education of Ethiopia have also proved this fact. Supporting the above fact Almaz and Jung (1990) indicated that girl's access to schooling is limited for a variety of reasons:

- Parents perceive less immediate or even negative economic returns from educating daughters and can't afford what they consider luxury of sending them to school.
- Girls are required to help in the hose hold or to perform agricultural tasks in rural areas.
- Schools are too distant or too few.
- The culture precludes male, instructors for female students but there are too few female instructors.

Through out every type of college and university in the nation, a selective differential occurs in the proportions of men and women enrolled as students or employed as faculty members, starting with entrance to college (where men and women are found in approximately equal numbers), proportionately fewer women enrolled with each advancing year as sophomores, juniors, seniors, or as graduate and professional students. In faculty ranks, proportionately fewer women are employed as full professors than assistant professors, and where they are employed in the same professorial rank women characteristically receive a lower income (Chalmers, 1972).

He further argued that this disproportionate utilization of men in higher education is the product of (1) lower levels of expectation on the part of women, (2) the use of criteria that are better adapted to the needs and life styles of men, or (3) the unfair application of fair (i.e. sexually neutral) criteria. Therefore, the basic problem of discrimination against women in higher education remains relatively unanalyzed and unresolved. Another study in Britain also indicates that the alleged causes are many and complex: a male bias in curriculum materials; the lack of child care facilities; an absence of maternity leave policies; nepotism regulations; in adequate health care for women; policies against the hiring of a university's own graduates; but

most of all the charge of deliberate male bias in the enrollment or employment of women in an overwhelmingly male enterprise (Acker, 1990b).

Further, various studies made on sex based discrimination in USA affirmed three specific points where the differential utilization or treatment of men and women in higher education is greatest. These are: admission to under graduate and post graduate programs, appointment to faculty positions, and faculty advancement. However, it doesn't imply that all of the other problems noted above are either non existent or minor. Nor does it wish to suggest that there is no discrimination against women in non-faculty positions. What the researchers wish to suggest is that reasonable answers to the three areas noted above would do more to solve the entire problems women encounter in higher education than any other focus (Jackson, 1990 and Toren, 1990).

No one can dispute the fact that a major shift to a predominantly male population occurs as one compares lists of recipients of bachelor degrees with lists of admissions into faculty positions of most colleges and universities. For example, in British Universities, the few exceptions in nursing and home economics only serve to prove the rule. Why does this occur? One may hear the charge that, law schools, and medical schools use criteria other than grade point averages. More specifically, it has been charged that predominantly male admissions committees and administrators screen out women of the same or higher qualifications than men, or that fellowships go disproportionately to men.

Heiss (1970) cited evidences that some departments of some universities discriminate against women on the false assumption that they will not make the same kind or degree of professional contribution that men would, i.e., that marriage and child rearing will divert their time and energy to a disproportionate degree. The fact that selection and admission criteria of individual universities show higher undergraduate grade-point averages for women than for men would appear to bear out his accusations. On the other side of this issue, it is argued that proportionately fewer women aspire to continue their formal education beyond the under graduate level. In line with this idea, Researchers also made clear that although there has been a dramatic shift within the last few years, a substantial number (31%) of freshmen entering college in 1994 still preferred the role of house wife with one or more

children to any other,. Other researchers have also confirmed these differences in aspiration on a broader scale (Astin and Robert 1996) cited in Selby (2002).

To alleviate the hectic problems of women's higher education a variety of simple-formula solutions have been proposed which tend to ignore these differences in aspirations, or to assume that all differential enrollments in higher education and professional schools are wholly attributable to discrimination against women. For example, in USA, the University of Michigan planned to increase the ratios of female admissions to all Ph.D. programs via quota. Another group, at Yale University, proposed that whenever the proportion of qualified applicants to a particular graduate department or faculty post fell below 35 percent, the department would be obliged to actively recruit women applicants (Cross, 1971). Still another formula proposes that women should be admitted to post-graduate programs and faculty appointments in the same ratio as women who complete under graduate degree programs in the department (school, college, or university). Advocates of another solution seriously urge admission of women in the same ratio as they apply. Conversely, Ray and Poonowassie, 1992 cited in (Chalmers 1972: 27) and (Dresselhaus, 1994: 195) argued that all simple ratio or percent solutions are insensitive to the fact that colleges and universities have widely differing arrays of post- baccalaureate offerings. Worse still, they are open to the counter charge that the institutions would be required to accept less qualified women and to reject better qualified men-at a time when graduate enrollments are being curtailed by lack of funds and lack of jobs.

Here it seems logical to ask, if formulae or ratios are improper or unjustifiable, what is the obligation of higher institutions and professional schools sincerely committed to the elimination of discrimination? A number of alternative steps seem quite clear. First, there is a need for considerably more information than we currently possess. For example, by disciplines and professions what are the proportions of each sex that wish to continue their education? Why are there disproportionately fewer women who choose certain disciplines or professions? What can be done to modify these choices? Unless or until we have adequate answers to questions like these it will be extremely difficult to determine whether a given campus is pulling its fair share of the load.

Second, it becomes absolutely essential for each college and university that offers education, and faculty appointment to document the case of each women applicant who has been rejected. Where it can be shown that the applicant has been rejected on the basis of "neutral" criteria that are met by all of the men and women who were accepted, the department, school or college should not be challenged either by college or university administration or by state or federal agencies. On the other hand, questionable decisions should be questioned, and biased criteria as well as biased decisions must be subject to remedial action. It will require the devotion of considerably greater time and attention to criteria for admission and selection, but the effort must be made if we are to begin to rectify the real imbalance that has occurred in the past.

Additionally, affirmative steps should be taken to develop compensatory recruitment programs for women students and faculty especially in traditionally male oriented professions. Special programs to encourage women to return on either a full or part-time basis to complete degree programs and continue their career that were interrupted by marriage or by children would go a long way toward demonstrating that an institution was not only not discriminating against women in its graduate and professional programs, but actively committed to overcoming some of the obstacle to successful completion of such programs and their representation in faculty positions.

The above mentioned persistence features of educational inequality against female students and faculty in institutes of higher learning is believed to be malign to the representation of women in faculty positions and to the development of most developing countries, like Ethiopia.

2.2. Gender Inequalities in University Employment

No one will dispute the fact that in the vast majority of disciplines and professions there are proportionately more women who receive the terminal degree than there are women who receive regular faculty appointments. A variety of reasons has been suggested for this discrepancy. For example, it has been suggested that proportionately more women prefer careers outside academia. Conversely, it is suggested that nepotism regulations, restrictions against hiring one's own graduates, and the restricted privileges of part-time faculty members all serve to discriminate against women, but most importantly it is suggested that a predominantly male

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faculty, consciously or unconsciously, is biased against the employment of female colleagues (Chalmers, 1972).

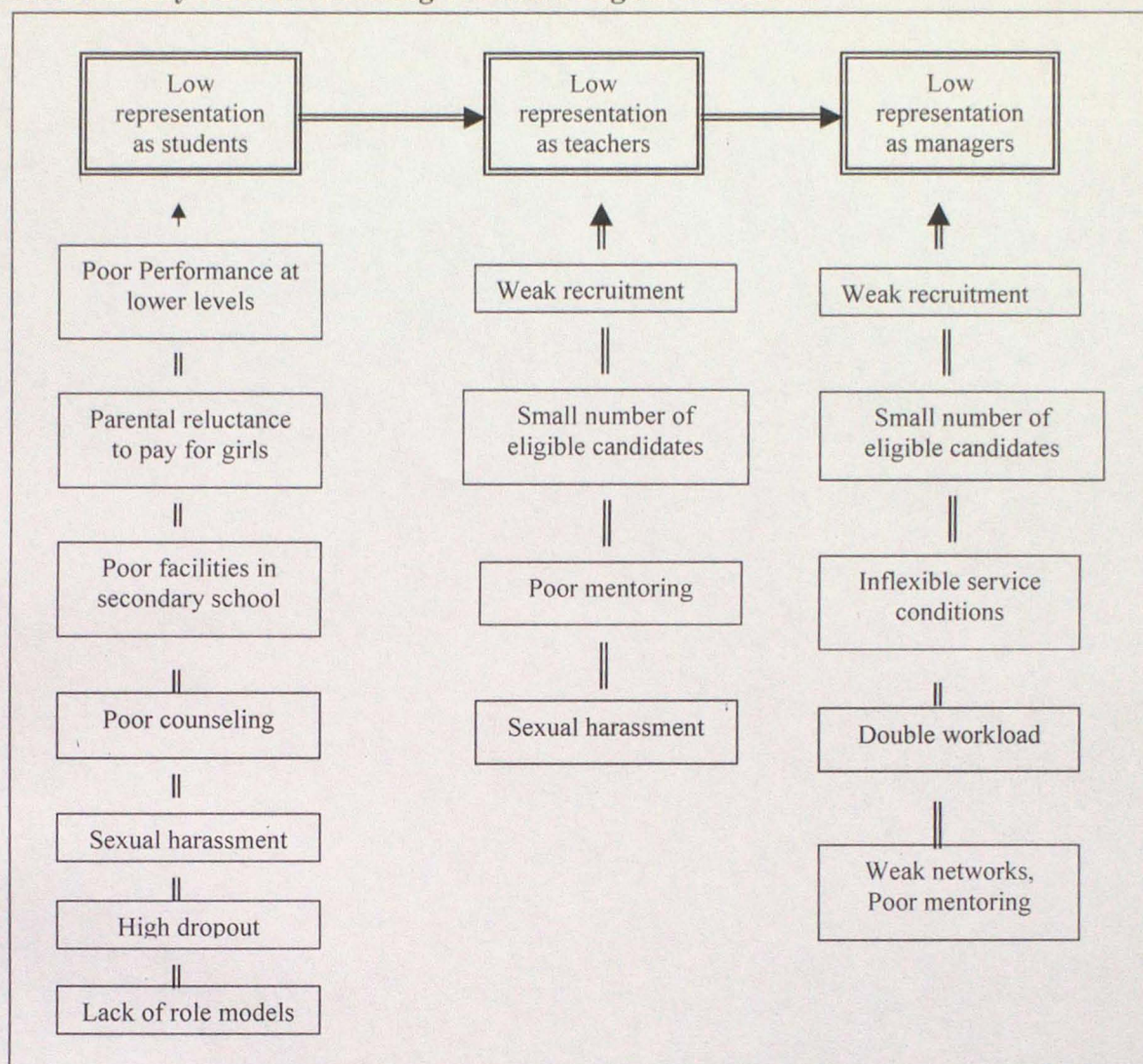
In this regard, UNESCO did a very comprehensive review of women in higher education in 1998 under a thematic section of the world conference on Higher Education. The report under the title **women and higher education: Issues and perspectives** dealt with 12 thematic debates aimed at examining the status quo regarding the major issues related to women in higher education. The report emphasizes the importance of procuring a critical mass of women in the decision making process which it concludes remains vastly inadequate in member countries. The major barriers the document identifies are related to decision-making that include:

- Limited access to education, especially higher education;
- Discriminatory, practices;
- The stress of dual family and professional role;
- Career interruptions;
- Propagation of the glass ceiling syndrome privilege that cover criteria for advancement; and
- Absence of adequate policies and legislation to ensure the participation of women.

These variables are also the ones that came up as constraints in this study especially items under bullets 1, 2, 3 and 4.

In the same document the forum for African women Educationalists (FAWE) under the theme **Africa women in Higher Education: Issues, barriers and strategies**, based on data from thirteen countries shows that in all the countries except Namibia, the female gross enrollment rates are lower than those of males varying greatly, with south Africa being close to parity, while Togo and Benin have female ratios one ninth of those of males. The proportion of women in the higher education teaching force in these countries also ranges widely from 3% in Rwanda and Ethiopia to 50% in Namibia. The report summarizes the key contributing factors in a figure form as follows:

Relational Key Factors Affecting Women's Higher Education



Source: Forum of African Women Educationalists 1998

As a membership organization made up of female ministers of education, vice chancellors and other prominent women serving in its technical committee and National charters, FAWWE envisages the full participation of women in higher education as a key factor to promote the educational status of women in Africa. The forum states that a higher profile for women in higher education will help transform the educational system at all levels. It argues that the highest level of education helps to determine the shape of the levels below and that the universities' function of training teachers, scientists and leaders requires the full representation of women. Recognizing the improvement of female education at the primary and secondary levels are essential, it states that using a number of strategies including pre-entry

identification and support and direct intervention strategies such as counseling on courses and the provision of support networks among students themselves and teachers can help girls' transition to tertiary level education. The report gives an example of the good practice of university of Dar es Selam to increase the number of female students attending universities and improve their performance. The interventions that the University of Dar es Selam took include:

- Admitting girls with scores up to 1.5 points lower than boys although above the minimum entrance requirement which has increased their representation from 1.7% in 1995/96 to 29% in 1996/97;
- Introducing a program to help form VI leavers (equivalent to 13 years of schooling) to improve their science grades and thus qualify for university entry;
- Placing female under graduate students on the university's sponsorship list for consideration by both government and private sponsors.

The problem of gender inequalities in academia has been quite well researched especially in the United States. Taking into consideration the overriding regional differences, the findings are interesting and useful in that they portray issues that seem to be common. Some of the study data corroborate the finding of this study.

In these studies academia has been perceived as traditionally elitist, male dominated and patriarchal in its work place, culture, structure and values. Consequently in career development, women must overcome the obstacle of gender discrimination. Women are found in lower academic ranks than men. They are less likely to be tenured at professorial level and have slower career progress. Pool et-al., 1997 found that the succession of career behavior for women is far more complex than for men. The reason is that women frequently interrupt their education and career preparation so as to harmonize work with family life. In another study of female and male faculty members Weiler (1997) indicated that female faculty members find demands of employment and concurrent care considerably more overwhelming and guilt provoking than to their male counterparts.

Hence, Men represent the great majority of college and university faculty world wide. For example, again in the United States, 31.8% of faculties were women

in 1991. Women's representation declines with the prestige of the institution: 37.9% in public two year schools, 28.9% in the public comprehensive schools, and 19.5% in private research universities. The number of women also declines with faculty ranks women represent 47.9% of lecturers and instructors, 39.7% of assistant professors, and 17.2% of professors (National center for Educational Statistics, 1994). The US record actually looks quite favorable by comparison with the professoriate in Britain and France, which were 2.3% and 8.7% female, respectively, during the early 1980s (Clark, 1987).

There are many reasons that women's entrance into faculty positions is so low. Until recently women were a small proportion of PhD recipients; women are concentrated in a limited number of fields; women entered academia in large numbers during a period of retrenchment and pursued fields that were facing sharp declines in enrollments (Slaughter, 1993). Nonetheless, women's progress remains far slower than would be expected. Viewed optimistically, if a sizable fraction of women who are currently assistant professors are granted tenure, then the sex composition of the faculty will change dramatically during the next decade or two. Parity is unlikely for quite along time because of the number of fields in which women PhDs remain severely under represented (Ransom, 1990).

Females also experience lack of various institutional supports. For example, O'leary and Mitchell (1990) reported that women were found to be less well integrated into their academic departments and disciplines than men. The reasons for this were identified as lack of mentors and networks. In the face of the absence of mentors and models, females must rely on the process of acculturation.

In relation to gender differences in areas of specialization, a study by Toren (1990) conducted in Israel found that female representation in the sciences is disproportionately low compared to the humanities and social sciences. This finding has been replicated in Australia and in the UK by Poole et.al (1997), and by Aziz (1990) respectively. Similarly, Dowd (1999) stated that women disproportionately choose humanities subjects that emphasize personal and intellectual development.

Reports of different research results also revealed that, there exist differences in the characteristics of male & female teachers. For example in a study carried out by Bernard (1981:681) on the description of high school male and female teachers

teaching behaviors, male teachers were rated highly than female teachers in their directive and authoritative behavior whereas female teachers were rated as easily approachable and supportive. Similarly, in studying teacher effectiveness of 417 male and female teachers, Almaz (2003) revealed, females possessed interests in the objective of teaching, encouraging pupil participation, and evaluating learning to a significantly greater degree than males did.

Moreover, a number of studies conducted in the USA reported the differences between male and female faculty with respect to their involvement in teaching and type of satisfaction they derive from teaching related activities (Austin and Davis, 1990; Olsen, Maple and Stage, 1995; and Horning, 1980) cited in Selby (2002). For instance it was found that females spend more time on teaching and attending to administrative demands than did men. They reported lower research productivity, heavier teaching load and institutional service compared to their male counterparts.

Women are inclined toward teaching rather than research and the importance of having time for family responsibility. The results of a study conducted on 100 female faculty members also indicated that most women found their employment ideal because it enabled them to find professional fulfillment without the pressure to publish and it allowed them sufficient time for family responsibilities. A follow up study of female and male non-tenured faculty by Lovano- Kerr and Fuchs (1982) cited in Almaz (2003) found that men were more satisfied than women with the quantity of their research. On the other hand, women appeared to be more satisfied than men with their teaching performance, service and professional activities. It was also reported that men perceive their colleagues' evaluation in terms of the quantity and quality of their research output whereas females view their colleagues' evaluation in terms of their teaching.

Similarly, differences were reported in work satisfaction between female and male academics. It was found that women perceive their working conditions more positively, in terms of intrinsic-subjective satisfaction in contrast to men's assessment, which is based on the extrinsic-objective of status, salary, and conditions. Other researchers also found that female faculty exhibited a greater orientation to the intellectual and social development of students compared to males. This was also

found in the present study and according to the authors, the situation can influence women's work load.

The reasons for women's low representation at higher levels both as students and faculty are numerous and complex. To use FAWE's phrase "A women can not become a vice chancellor if she has not had the opportunity to enter and complete university, to be a teacher and then enter administration." Likewise, Hyde (1993) cited in FAWE (1998) states that girls' low chance in entering university result from a generally poor performance in school, which is in turn caused by such factors as subject choice, pattern of parental investment, domestic work load, lower teachers' expectations and negative female stereotypes in text books. Those females who succeed to join universities face other hurdles. For instance, such factor as sexual harassment from lectures fellow students and staff is becoming a glaring and serious obstacle making the university environment a traumatic one for female students as well as faculty.

A number of researchers see the position of women faculty as evidence of a chilly climate for women throughout higher-education (Sandler, 1986). But the effects of faculty composition on students continue to be debated. He also finds that the proportion of female faculty is strongly associated with the number of women high achievers, even in coeducational schools. This finding is probably less vulnerable to the lack of institutional controls than are his other findings and is a result that bears further scrutiny with longitudinal data. Rothstein (1995) finds that women students with female advisors are more likely to continue their education after college. Evidence on student satisfaction with same sex advisors and faculty is mixed (Erkut and Mokros, 1984). These issues require more detailed investigation of particular environments on particular groups of women, such as math and science majors Sadker (1993) make the case for gender bias in the classroom, but this evidence is principally based on research in high schools. There are ironies in the history of women faculty as role models. The first generation of women faculty was expected to forego marriage. As Horowitz (1993) notes, by the 1920s women college students, most of whom planned marriage and not career, did not entirely identify with their female faculty mentors, who had scarified so much for the sake of women's education. The faculty was often perplexed and disappointed at the students who followed them. Same sex role models can of course be beneficial, but it is important

to understand the context of the student-faculty relationships in order to develop firm generalizations in this area.

2.3. Staff Recruitment and Selection Process in Higher Institutions

Selecting staff is a key management task. Staff be they teachers, ancillaries, care takers or secretaries are the resources of the university and colleges. Thus the selector decision will have a direct bearing on the institutions effectiveness (Southworth, 1990). Hence, selection processes are very crucial stage where the future prosperity or damage of the institutions is determined. On the basis of these premises, access to employment opportunities in principle should be equally made available to both sexes; but in practice, it is usually girls/women who have a subordinate position. The reason why employment discrimination is wrong and illegal is because (1) in reality, god did not intended for people to exercise undue control over other people and (2) the law recognizes that it is important employers shouldn't conduct themselves as though they posses undue control over other people. As modern society has made clear, women have the ability to perform with equal skill and success in virtually every endeavor engaged in by men, including employment, in academics and politics. Yet discrimination on the basis of sex has along history worldwide and its residual effects still operate to keep women's representation for faculty appointment and other opportunities fewer than those available to men.

A number of employer organizations, including higher institutions have established equal opportunity policies aimed at removing discrimination in employment, but the effectiveness of these over the past few years has been limited to a number of reasons, including, the wrong beliefs of society at large. Even with apparent commitment and determination, discriminatory practices are clearly proving extremely difficult to identify, to isolate and to dismantle. They are so deeply entrenched in the systems and procedures of institutions and organizations, that any attempt to remove discrimination often involves challenging the fundamental principles upon which organizations and managers operate (Dowson, 1987).

On top of this, traditional methods of recruitment including selection rules and procedures, interviewing are unsatisfactory and make no guarantees that the chosen candidate will perform well in the job. It usually results in the appointment of staff

that conforms to the ideals and images of those who recruit them, and who serve to maintain and protect the status quo.

Removing discrimination in recruitment has to start with a major review of current practice and commitment to change. Without an acceptance of the need for change, subsequent measures taken are likely to lack conviction and fail to meet their objectives (Southworth, 1990). Recent attempts to improve the arrangements for recruitment and avoid such discrimination have been based on the principle that the system should become more objective in order to restrict the possibility of bias or prejudice affecting selection decisions. Clearly this is only 'Making the best of a bad system' and what is required in the long term is a major rethink of the ways in which staff are recruited and promoted, so that this is based on the ability to do a job, rather than ability to 'perform' an interview (Dowson, 1987). Dowson's emphasis on rethinking the ways in which staffs are recruited is wholly appropriate. Without a substantial overhaul, selection and recruitment will allow existing discrimination to continue.

Perhaps, segregation of women in higher education teaching force may be done consciously or unconsciously. When people, including teachers and others are invited to think about staff selection a number of common themes that need serious attention emerge. Southworth (1990) identified five issues by which discrimination in staff selection process occurs. These are unfairness, prejudice, involvement of lay people, time and interviewing.

Female faculties frequently feel that they have been treated unfairly when they apply for a teaching post. They perceive that they have been given an unfair hearing, questions were fired at them but their answers provoked little or no response. Consequently, they did not know how they were doing. Alternatively almost before the process began the selectors appeared uninterested, even dismissive. Typically, no one seemed to be listening to them.

Another form of unfairness relates to hidden tests, all considered, including females know they are being examined and "tested" but very often they do not know what the rules are, or what criteria are being applied. Hence, they feel they are being judged and (Sentenced) but have little control over the affair they are expected to "be themselves" so that the selector can appraise them. The candidate suffers all the

discomfort while the selectors do not have to explain any of their actions or justify any of their opinions.

Of course, some selections are unfair because the process is "rigid" an 'insider or sitting tenant' is lined-up to get the job and selectors are only going through the motions? The appointment has been already made and the other candidates are bogus; they are simply there to make the whole charade appear respectable. Hence, the unsuccessful candidates feel their time has been wasted. However, it is also clear that 'shame selections' are unhelpful to the insider' or favored one. How do they feel? They might assume that they only got the job because of their advantageous position rather than their outstanding caliber and qualities. The old adage of "better the devil we know than the one we don't" is usually applied in these circumstances.

Moreover, Horning (1989) added that many teachers, particularly females, further complain about the behavior of university and college administrators and staff selection committees. Selectors are often cited as asking irrelevant or prejudicial questions, unrelated documents etc. so, strong are these complaints about the involvement of administrators in staff selection that numerous 'horror stories' have entered the folk lore of teachers. Indeed, the folk lore may itself create stereotypes; cloth cap imagery abounds; Administrators are usually blamed for perish-pump-type questions; political affiliations are associated with administrators. According to these stories, the involvement of administrators is a major reason for selection going wrong. However, such an argument is never counter balanced by what administrators do to make selection a valid exercise. When selection works well (i.e. when we got the job!) administrators are rarely praised. It seems the best administrator can do is nothing.

Undoubtedly, the strongest and most negative feelings are reserved for interviewing. Most people dislike interviews. Interviews rarely correspond to job-related skills; they can be nerve-racking events and often produces all kinds of stress. Moreover, stress and nerves can be experienced by both the candidates and the selectors! In favor of this idea Roberts, C., (1985) stressed that an interviewing gives only a poor indication of whether the candidate possesses the qualities and competences needed to do the job on after. Yet interviewing is likely to remain and thus while it can not be eliminated, it needs to be modified. The modification must be

to reduce its status and weight. Instead of the interviewing being, THE event, it should be regarded as merely one part of the process (Roberts, 1985).

What are the selection criteria governing the choice of candidates for recruitment in higher institutions? Regarding this issue UNESCO (1998) has made a continental survey on the practices of higher institutions on staff selection requirements world wide.

Accordingly, in Africa, almost all replies present research work as being the most important for recruitment and promotion. Teaching experience is considered to be of either equal or middling importance.

For example, in Benin, the importance attached to research work as well as to team leadership aptitude is held to be a disadvantage for women; Burkina Faso: Aptitude for administrative duties placed first, followed by the quality of research work and teaching. In Ethiopia, another criterion is the grade point average (GPA) which takes the lion's share for faculty appointment again worse for women.

However, the study also indicated that attempts have been made by many institutions to minimize the situation. For instance, Bangladesh has set a quote of 10% women in the academic fields. In Japan, it is stated that importance attached to teaching competence would be an advantage for women, if these were considered impartially.

2.4. Employment Equity for Women

Women now make up half of the world population. However, they are marginalized in employment opportunities, particularly in academics. They make up the majority of people hired in term positions, and they are concentrated in many traditionally female support roles.

The issue of promoting equal opportunity in employment among citizenry has been referred as one of the permanent agenda both at national and international level. Cognizant of this fact a UNESCO report on employment equity indicated that despite government efforts, certain groups continued to face discrimination in employment, the groups include women, people with disabilities and visible minorities. This persistent segregation of women at work place is the result of their marginalization due to lack of opportunity in the political, social and economic sphere

of life. Thus, the low participation of women enrolled as a student or employed as a faculty in higher institutions could be taken as good example for sex based discrimination. Girls were deprived of their right for education for many years; they were made to lag behind their male counterparts due to socio-cultural, economical, religious and traditional practices. The cumulative effect of these obstacles for girls' education made them under represented in the higher echelons of the academic world, including teaching.

To make equity practical, government and educational authorities has to respond to any form of discrimination, especially sex based discrimination. The ministry of education and respective institutions should be proactive in its formal recognition of the problem and in taking measures to address it. Hence, to get fair representation of women faculty members, first female students participation has to be fostered at all levels of the education sector (Howie, 2002).

2.5. Obstacles to Equality in Academia

The nature of academic work is not visibly dependent on masculine virtues, such as physical strength, authority or leadership skills, although clearly the last may be important in senior posts (Toren, 1990, p. 75). Why then should women find it so hard to have their talents recognized and be accepted, particularly since the academic community is dedicated to rational equity and the dispassionate search for knowledge? Feminists (such as Fee, 1981) have identified academic objectivity as, in fact, profoundly masculinity; an argument which leads to hot debate. But in any case here, as in other large organizations, there is often unwillingness to explore the less obvious reasons for women's apparent under achievement. That very exceptional women succeed is taken as a demonstration that there are no barriers specific to women in academic life.

If explanations are sought, they fall into one or other of two broad categories: either to the personal obstacles or organizational barriers.

2.5.1. Personal Constraints

The careers of academic women may be impeded by their biological nature or socio-cultural expectations.

The first is the one least openly acknowledge: that woman simply is not of the academic caliber of their male colleagues, as measured by those criteria that carry most weight. We have already raised some doubts about such claims (Jackson, 1990), but they have a number of other dimensions. This kind of argument often has biological under tones: women are seen to be at the mercy of their hormones. Those women who do excel are seen as the exceptions that prove the rule. But even if women are not judged to be intellectually inferior; they are thought generally to lack the commitment necessary for academic life. The argument here is complex and rests partly on the idea of differential expectations, acquired in gender socialization. Gender role explorations for women inhibit ambition and competitiveness and, some times, even intellectual activities (Hoffman, 1972 and Deem, 1980). But bound up in differential expectations is the second category of explanation that women give priority to their family and domestic commitments.

Women academics are seen, then as devoting more time and energy to family life-partly as a result of gender socialization, and partly from choice. There is some evidence from research on American universities that the child-bearing years are a period of lower productivity, although exceptional women continue to do well.

Deem (1980) suggests that women's publication rate are negatively correlated with the period during which they have children under 10 years old. However, the assumption that women are family-centered fails to throw any light on the position of single women with no family responsibilities whose academic career, by and large, also demonstrates the same pattern of falling behind their male colleagues. It is also assumed that women leave work when they have children and many researchers noted that career breaks may explain why women fall behind in terms of salaries, especially from their late thirties. But one of the interesting facts also may not be covered by researchers is that once women leave to have children they almost never return to academic work. The reality is that virtually no women resign academic posts and then return when children reach school age.

The break is only for maternity leave, and is roughly equivalent to study leave in terms of time. Nonetheless, women are perceived as half-hearted in their commitment to an academic career because their attention is else where. As Acker (1983:p.127) points out this suggests a restricted view of commitment and is posited

on a highly individualized understanding of success, within a 'greedy organization' (Coser, 1974). An examination of women academics and family life suggests that the taken-for-granted assumption that women are the major care-givers is held by both women and men. Women in fact evince a variety of different responses to their two roles: 'the public male world and the private female one' ranging from compartmentalizing' among Turkish university women (Acar, 1990), conflict for Norwegian women and West German academics who merged 'their two "worlds" into a single, stable, homogeneous one' (Hawkins and Schultz, 1990, p. 49). Where the two roles can be merged in this way, it must make for a rich and challenging life, with benefits for both worlds. These benefits are however, are also structural. Formally, academic discourse seeks to separate the two, and where there is spillage of the female world into the public, the results can only be seen as unfortunate. But one significant exception-that women members of staff are often able and willing to undertake a large share of pastoral support of students only under writers the advantages. Such additional responsibilities are only rarely acknowledged. Perhaps because women as a minority are invisible-almost literally so in some disciplines-their commitment to excellence in teaching and administration is also invisible and thus taken for granted. At times it seems that women provide the substructure of collegiality, while individuals, individual men, excel. This is also particularly true of contract research staffs who act as a kind of academic 'proletariat' for senior academics with prestigious research contracts.

The assumption that family responsibilities only matter for academic women ignores men's possible dual involvement in two 'greedy institutions' (Acker, 1990b) and also critically neglects men's own specific relation to the academic project. Only women have to demonstrate that they are 'coping' with the pressure, since for men work must always come first, a priority uncluttered by the competing discourse of domesticity. Yet the other side of this coin is the discourse of masculinity-which includes success through competition. This discourse is taken for granted, in general, but is perhaps particularly embedded in the ethos of individual academic excellence and scholarship, such that its tensions go unremarked. Similarly, the tension between the discourse of masculinity and the ideology of collegiality is often over looked. Not all men does in-fact excel and, as we have suggested, they too may have, especially in some disciplines, a 'glass ceiling' through which they can see where they wish to be

but through which: they can not pass. The collegiate ideal, with its assumption of community and a sense of shared collective endeavor, sits uneasily alongside a meritocracy with merit defined in terms of particular kinds of individual achievement. Moreover, as pressures mount on the university system and resources shrink, responses are increasingly couched in the pervasively masculine language of management: budget, resources, 'manpower' competitive bidding and the 'cutting edge' of research. Collegiality, however, has its own specific effects. It buttresses rather than conflicts with the pressure for individual success and it may also serve to cushion the consequences failure, at least for men-for collegiality has several meanings, one of which implies a shared life with its own distinctive culture. Women, though, find themselves excluded from this culture (often the 'locker-room culture' or gentleman's club) and, even if invited to partake, feel awkward and out of place in what is essentially a man's world. Similarly, male colleagues, however welcoming, may feel awkward, with the additional problem of the risk of sexual innuendo if friendship is seen to be out of the ordinary. This may furthermore, be double-edged. A means of keeping women in their place is, precisely, the use of sexuality. Feminists have also argued that patriarchy is deeply embedded in bureaucratic forms (Pringle, 1989). Despite the illusion of rationality, work places are saturated with personal and sexual relations. Cockburn's (1991) thesis, much of it based on men's own testimony, includes the argument that sexualized discourse is itself part of the way in which senior male binds junior men into the hierarchical fraternity and marginalize women intruders. This, interestingly, would make sense of Davis and Astin's (1990) observation that it is women married to academics who find it easier to enter and participate in the male world of the university. Unmarried women colleagues or those without an academic spouse are 'out of place' and not bound to one of the brethren. They therefore pose greater potential threat and will be target for conscious and unconscious hostility. Women's exclusion has more relevance, however, than the question of social activities. They are also excluded from the useful networks that their male colleagues establish, and this in turn can mean exclusion from career opportunities, research contracts, new jobs, and fruitful discussion.

"Lack of role models" (Spencer and pod more, 1987:2) cited in Tariku (1999) indicated that is the other area of challenge that female teachers face; that is "in their work lives, females rarely have female role models in their organizations. Further, the

same females may have to serve as role models to many junior females, there by increasing there stress" Tariku (1999:76).He further wrote on the rarity of female role models as compared to those of male as:

Role models for males are found in areas of human endeavor covering the spectrum from brown to brains; from active to the sedentary; the risks to the safe; and the routine to the creative. But, females outside the presence of females find them primarily in a relatively small number of fields that do not offer much in the way of small minority in non- traditional fields and high status jobs.

Some believe that women must set up networks for themselves, to counteract the crucial lack of a mentor (O'leary and Mitchell, 1990). Because there are very view women in senior positions, younger women do not have the some chance as male colleague of guidance, and support from older, well-established academic. Again, sexual innuendo makes it difficult, for both parties, for senior men to act as mentors to junior women. While women can, and do receive support from one another, it is much more difficult for them to find a mentor. When they are fortunate enough to have such a colleague, they must take care not to overload her, since as a lone, possibly, 'token' woman, she will be most sought after. O'leary and Mitchell advise junior women academics to use their mentor sparingly and then only for help that they cannot receive elsewhere and others call for special training (Jackson, 1990).

In the mean time, it is clear that women experience a number of obstacles within the academic culture, obstacles rationalized by what Acker (1990b) calls a deficit model for women: deficit either by choice, because their heart is not in their work, or deficit because they are not male. Women academics has, as a result, be seen as not 'proper' women, doing what is expected of them, but nor by definition can they be men, despite having made decisions about their careers identical to those of their male colleagues. It is perhaps this perceived ambiguity of status which also explains the disguised, or not so disguised, sexual discourse which serves to marginalize women in male domains. Or there may be the fiction that woman colleagues are just 'chaps' and must find their own way within the andocentric culture, like the other chaps. Alternatively, women are rendered invisible. But, if these are some of the ways in which academia deals with women, there are as well as strategies that women deploy to deal with the academy. Recent feminist analysis has identified a hegemonic

male culture within the discourse of rationality itself (Thornton, 1989 and Acker, 1990b, p. 39). Although this is profoundly exclusive of women, it also raises questions about the extent to which women are willing to engage in and compete within the andocentric culture of the university. Among women students, even in as 'masculine' a discipline as physics, there is a resistance to expected patterns of behavior. Thomas (1990) discovered that the women physics undergraduates she interviewed worked-co-operatively on projects, even when they had been expressly forbidden to do so. She suggests that these students found themselves in something of a double-bind: by choosing a 'male' subject they were conforming to the andocentric culture, but had they chosen a 'female' subject they would have conformed to gender stereotypes. One solution was to choose physics but to resist those aspects of the male culture that they disliked. Wolffensperger (1993) explores similar issues. Equally, when women academics appear unwilling to conform to aspects of the meritocratic ethos of university life they may be engaging in a form of resistance. Davis and Astin's (1990) analysis of 'facilitators' for productivity found that women academics were less likely to value organizational and/or structural variables as enhancing their research or publications, out put. As the authors point out, this finding may reflect institutional barriers to involvement. But it may also demonstrate an active and purposeful unwillingness to become involved. This is not to argue that women academics are unsuccessful (in terms of organizational criteria) by choice-the institutional barriers are both real and hard to overcome. The concept of resistance may, however, illuminate how some women cope with the way in which their contributions are over looked or dismissed in academia.

2.5.2. Organizational, Institutional and Structural Barriers to Gender Equity in Academia

i) Institutional Constraints

Many of the factors thought to contribute to persisting gender disparities in academia can be organized within the frame work of theories from sociology and economics about the sources of work place discrimination: organizational contexts that support "institutionalized discrimination" to preserve men's organizational and professional advantages, and considerations that prompt employers to engage in "statistical discrimination" against women. There are a large literature contending

that gender inequalities are rooted both in official and informal administrative and collegial practices in academia: Men's tendency to control faculty search processes, criteria, screening, and interviewing; their domination of nomination and insider information networks; and the heightened scrutiny and extreme evaluations that academic women experience when they enter departments as tokens, solos, and outsiders (Aisenberg and Harrington, 1988; Epstein, 1991; Keller, 1977) cited in (Howie, 2002). These account of the workings of academia align with sociological theories of institutionalized discrimination" (Feasin and Feagin, 1978; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993) cited in (Jackson, 1990) which contended that dominate groups engage in continuous efforts to maintain their privileged organizational positions. This account of gender discrimination assumes that men maintain their privileges by restricting women from jobs with the highest levels of skills, authority, status, and remuneration. In academic settings, this would culminate in the wide spread exclusion of women from tenured faculty jobs. Though institutionalized discrimination may be increasingly subtle and difficult to detect or measure.

The presence of numerically significant female constituencies or interests within the institution represents a final set of constraints on institutionalized discrimination. Women's placement within decision-making structures and more informal influence networks has important implications for their recruitment and representation. Women in top administrative positions influence personnel decisions directly by establishing criteria for recruitment and promotion, and by monitoring their implementation at lower levels (Toren, 1990).

It has been suggested that female administrators are more sensitive to discriminatory criteria, more vigilant in curbing biases in hiring and promotion, and more effective in transforming organizational culture such that gender bias is minimized among all decision makers (Perrucci, 1986) cited in Almaz(2003). The student sex ratio may also be an important factor when administrators seek to anticipate the concerns of sizable internal constituencies of female "customers". When women are proportionally more dominant in the student body, they are more likely to engage in direct student intervention on behalf of faculty women's interests (Clark, 1987). Here, administrators may perceive more acute needs to sensitize the institutional climate to gender issues; among other things by providing role models of academically successful women faculty. For example, establishment of a women's

studies program on campus could signify an important threshold of institutional recognition of those needs and concerns, while creating a base to exercise influence within the administrative structure. These activities would help to foster the representation of women as faculty and in higher administrative posts.

In addition to bias, systematic constraints and expectations built into academic institutions have impeded the career of women academics. The traditional societal stereotypes and discriminatory practices presume academia as a male life course. It is predicted on the assumption that the faculty member will have an unlimited commitment to his or her academic career throughout his or her working life. Attention to other serious obligations, such as family, is taken to imply that lack of dedication to one's career. Historically, that career model depended on a faculty member having a wife to take care of all other aspects of life, including the household, family, and community. The model still fits some men but is increasingly unsuitable for both men and women who need to participate in other activities important to them and their communities.

Almaz and Jung (1990) further indicated that the traditional career model is clearly difficult for women faculty to fulfill, especially if they have children. Because the burden of family, household, and community care generally falls more heavily on women than on men-and because women seldom have substantial spousal support-women faculty often experience intense conflict between their family and professional roles (Pfeffer, 1977) cited in Jacobs (1996). A well-documented complex of biases known as the maternal wall or family responsibilities discrimination hampers the career advancement of women academics with children and the minority of male faculty who bear major care-giving responsibilities. Those on highly competitive academic career tracks are aware of these issues and often make compromises to lessen the conflict or choose not to avail themselves of accommodations for which they are eligible, such as stopping the tenure clock or reducing work responsibilities, out of fear of damaging their career prospects. Women educationalists in fast track positions for example, are less likely than those on less competitive career tracks to be married or to have children. Those who are mothers tend to have fewer children than comparable men. Furthermore, the perseverance of women faculty is seldom perceived as evidence of the very high level of devotion to their profession that it represents. In addition, nepotism, selection and

promotion rules, regulations restrict women from being faculty member in higher institutions (O'Leary and Mitchell 1990).

Anti-discrimination law requires universities to remedy conditions that differentially affect women's entry into and promotion in academic careers. Under recent legal decisions, the existence of stereotyping can serve as proof of discrimination, legal trends thus encourages institutions to reduce stereotyping and also to change the institutional practices and norms that limit women's advancement. Other steps needed to remove barriers include documenting the status and progress of under represented groups, establishing a work environment that is explicitly inclusive, and providing services that allow female academics to be productive while meeting their responsibilities outside of work. All those steps require leadership-and resource commitments-at the highest department and institutional levels. The most necessary and most difficult change is a thorough reconsideration of the long-accepted recruitment and evaluation practices implicit in the out dated academic career model.

ii) Structural Constraints

While there is acknowledgement that domestic responsibilities are a major contributor to the career obstacles many women face, there also exists a gender issue at the systems level, because the academic structure developed at a time when men were its only members, it tends to value stereotypically male characteristics such as autonomy, assertiveness, and decisiveness. In such a structure women are perceived as having less leadership ability and less competence, and when women's exercise assertiveness or try to assume academic position/leadership they have to work harder to get attention and they receive more negative reactions (Collins, 1992).

Perhaps women could develop a different type of organizational structure. A survey of faculty at a single US Academic institution found that, relative to their male counter parts, women faculty placed less value on accomplishments such as leadership, scholarship and national recognition and more value on recognition of their work by parents', students and local peers (Barber L., 1995)cited in Tariku(1999).

Therefore, this analysis by no means presumes that men intentionally perpetuate the system, or doesn't it imply that all men benefits from the current structure. New

strategies must address ways of changing the academic system to best accommodate the strengths of both women and men, rather than trying to mould women to fit an organizational structure that was never designed for them. This goal can be accomplished by willingness on the part of academia to understand and root out the cultural biases that lead to discrimination. We would all be well served by institutional approaches that address "discrimination by fixing the organization, not the women who work for it (Jackson, 1990).

2.6. Affirmative Action for Recruitment and Retention of Faculty

Affirmative action is a policy component used first in the United States in the 1960s to increase opportunities for minorities by favoring them in hiring, promotion and college admission. Affirmative action has been used by government, business firms or educational institutions for making remedy to effect the past discrimination. President John F. Kennedy first used the term affirmative action in 1961 to ensure that applicants are employed, and employees are treated during employment, with no regard to sex, race or a national origin (Roosevelt, 1990).

Affirmative action is an extension of the notion of equality of opportunity and non-discrimination. Therefore, the purpose of affirmative action is to overcome the effects of a past discrimination by enabling the person or groups, discriminated against either on level terms with the favored group, more controversially to achieve equality outright ("equal result"). Affirmative action programs has end to promote equal opportunity among members of academic staff in university or college to eliminate or/at least to minimize the existing discriminatory conditions (Weiler, 1997). In the discussion about positive discrimination in university employment, (Kemp, 1992) has out lined the reasons for positive discrimination as: first, when the group or groups in question have suffered significant negative discrimination in the past and society must therefore make restriction for this injustice; and second, when the groups have special rights in the society by virtue of certain historical position or constitutional provision. The author further mentioned different forms of positive discrimination in education; these are, (1) by developing various qualifying standards for admission into selective institution; (2) via quota system (affirmative action), which enable policy makers to define at the outset the proportion of different sex groups to be represented in a given level of schooling/ position.

Moreover, a study made in US universities has identified variety of solutions that are proposed to achieve a ratio of female employment in academic positions at least equivalent to availability as determined by the number of qualified female applicants. For instance, Chalmers (1972) has suggested that "adequate representation shall be defined as the employment of women in each classification in numbers equal to the proportion of the combined faculty, staff, and student women to the university population as a whole" or, alternatively, "departments shall be required hire women up to the minimum of the level of their representation in graduate programs."

The implications of formulae based either upon ratios of applicants or ratios of women enrolled and/or employed are obvious. If simple formula or ratios are in appropriate what steps then can be taken to insure that real discrepancies will be eliminated within a reasonable period of time? It seems clear that every college and university must analyze the composition of its faculty, identify deficiencies, and develop recruitment methods, goals, and timetable that will enable them to achieve an equitable ratio of the number of qualified men and women who are encouraged to seek faculty employment to the number of men and women who receive offers of employment. In order to overtly demonstrate good faith efforts, it will be essential to identify, in all related bulletins and correspondence, the institutions' interest in women applicants, to establish liaison with likely sources of qualified women applicants, and to document all effort to locate and to appoint qualified women. Thus colleges and universities need to prepare affirmative action guide lines for faculty recruitment and retention.

2.7. Controversies and Challenges in Affirmative Action

The idea of affirmative action faced controversies in its application from its beginning in the United States when preferential treatment to people on their membership in a group was considered as a violation of principal that all individuals are equal under law. The opponents of affirmative action regard preferential treatment as a form of reverse discrimination (Roosevelt, 1990).

Moreover, the rival of affirmative action argues basically on the basis of competition and meritocracy. The other argument in that when students and faculty are admitted with low academic background, they would perform low in higher

institution, if simply admitted through quota or affirmative action policy. Then, they develop low self-esteem and frustration that will also contribute for their future performance (Ray and Poonowassie) in Kemp (1992). In connection with the negative effect of the affirmative action programs Roosevelt (1990: 105) has noted the following:

When faculty with very different qualification are admitted and the levels and quality of university instruction are not adjusted downward so as to accommodate the needs of faculty with poorer preparation and/or abilities, the groups that are supposed to benefit from the positive discrimination will not benefit at all as their academic activities will fail or become very challenging.

The other critics of affirmative action and its implementation in the area of employment according to Kemp, (1992) is that “such measures start out as temporary and narrowly tailored to the goal to be achieved but end up permanent and broad and that within the favored group the benefit of the measure group disproportionately to those already at the top of the group in employment status”. The author goes in arguing against affirmative action in that in most of the cases there is no adequate data that shows real success and failure of affirmative action program and result distortions and inefficient in achievement.

On the other hand, supporter of affirmative action contained that affirmative action policies are the only way to ensure an integrated society in which all segments of the population have an equal opportunity to share in jobs, education and other benefits. Despite its advantage, however, it remains a controversial issue in its justification and application (Davis and Astin).

In Ethiopia, positive discrimination has been used as one way of increasing the number of women progressing to tertiary education. Subsequently, female students are admitted with lower grades as compared to male students. However, once they are admitted little or no attempt is made to address the possible differences in the capability of some of the female students (Vso Ethiopia, 2002) cited in Tariku (1999). Hence, one of the critics is that the preferential admission policies harm academic standards (quality of education).

CHAPTER THREE

3. THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Design

The study is basically descriptive survey. This is because the concern of the study is to investigate the current practices and experience of government universities in relation to women faculty employment and the major barriers that hamper women during recruitment and promotion and training.

3.2 Sources of Data

Primary sources of data were basically used for this study. Thus; the major source of information was the responses (opinions, reflections and recommendations) of the sample respondents gathered via questionnaire and interview items. Besides, relevant documents from the Ministry of Education and the target institutions were referred and necessary information were used as inputs for the investigation.

3.3 Instruments

The study used qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. Two types of questionnaires and two interview schedule forms were used with key informants. The questionnaires were administered to faculty and to senior students in education faculties of the target institutions. The two forms of interview schedules were designed for and used with female faculty members and for administrators, such as deans, department heads and human resource officers.

The questionnaires for faculty members (both male and female academic teaching staff) consisted of 46 items of both open and close-ended type. Additionally 2 items with a list of 13 conditions where respondents were asked to rank order in terms of what they considered the most and least important were included. The 59 items raised such issues as recruitment, promotion and training policies and guidelines and work conditions and what respondents considered being obstacles faced by women faculty.

The questionnaire for students had 14 items of both open and close ended types. The items of the questionnaire touched upon such issues as the views students have about

their present training and future career aspirations, and their perceptions and preferences of female/ male teachers and attitudes towards female teachers.

The interview form for female faculty had 10 items. The major issues raised in the interview with female faculty were information on their background, their perceptions of recruitment procedures, training and promotion opportunities, their gender and professional roles and associated constraints to their career development.

The interview schedule form for administrators had 8 items. The items were open-ended. The major points included in the interview schedule were criteria for recruitment, rules and regulation that guide the promotion and training opportunities of faculty members, institutional and organizational constraints and gender specific constraints faced by women faculty.

Questionnaire was used as a major instrument to collect data, not only because it is a popular means of collecting data in research but also it is an appropriate tool to obtain information about current conditions, practices and problems for relatively large sample size studies. While the interview items were used to elicit views, opinions, problems and possible recommendations from women faculty and administrators, it was also used to see the problem in depths.

3.4 Pilot Test

A pilot test was administered in Addis Ababa University. This was done to try out the data gathering tool so as to make the instruments dependable and complete by making the necessary corrections before fully used in the actual study. Thus, all the necessary amendments had been made before the final copy of the instruments were distributed. For instance some of the questionnaire items were most appropriate to ask the position of women in management posts and they were replaced by other relevant questions that appeal to the participation of women in higher education teaching posts.

3.5 Study Sample and Sampling Techniques

The study was conducted in three government universities of Ethiopia; namely Addis Ababa University, Bahir-Dar University and Haramaya University. These universities were selected by purposive sampling technique. The reasons that made these institutions the focus of attention were explained early in the delimitation part (see

page 6). Among the existing colleges and faculties in the three universities using cluster random sampling techniques nine faculties (i.e. Five from Addis Ababa University and two from Bahir Dar and Haramaya University each) were included in the study. The selected faculties were Faculty of technology, faculty of science, college of social science, institute of language studies and institute of gender studies from Addis Ababa University; Faculties of education and law from Bahir Dar university and Faculties of Agriculture and health from Haramaya university. The clustering was made by grouping the faculties and departments.

Accordingly, the subjects of the study were faculty members (male and female instructors) and administrators of the three higher learning institutions. Students from faculties of education of Addis Ababa University, Bahir Dar University and Haramaya University were also included in the study. Thus, out of a total population of 660 academic teachings staff in the selected faculties only 40%, were sampled proportionally. This amounted to 246 subjects; 56 were women faculty. Besides, 22 administrators namely deans, department heads and human resource officers were included in the study.

Male faculty members were drawn from the clustered departments using simple random sampling techniques. Where as, all women faculty and the administrators were included purposefully. These respondents were deliberately included for the following main reasons:

1. Their number is small and manageable
2. The issue of gender inequality in employment is quite sensitive and serious. Then, close investigation of female faculty themselves and administrators reaction enables to see the problem in depth in its entire spectrum. Moreover, they are the right people to be consulted than any body else.
3. Female faculty members has been infiltrated through the process and they know the "stick or carrot" of their academic life from being the recipient side, Therefore, they provide the necessary data for the study.
4. Because of the Authority/ position, administrators have the power to make decisions regarding recruitment and promotion whether people like it or not. Therefore, they would indulge appropriate information on the guidelines,

procedures, criteria that have impact for faculty appointment and career development.

Student subjects consisted of female and male students of senior regular under graduate degree program students. Here again among the existing colleges in the three universities education faculty students were purposefully selected. Among the existing batches one batch (third year) were selected {cluster random sampling technique}. Then departments were also selected randomly based on stream, as social stream, natural stream, language stream etc. In each selected department, first the consent of the students was secured. Available students on the day of administration were again divided into two groups by sex. From each group students were randomly chosen through a disproportionate stratified random sampling technique. Then, a total of 360 (20%), 225 male and 135 female students were participated in the study. They were drawn from departments of education, languages, natural science and social science. Education faculty students were preferred to see the general perception of students towards teaching profession, how they joined their current departments, their aspiration of job and whether they are happy to be trained as teachers.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The actual data collection processes were held on late march, 2007. First orientation was given to the data collectors to follow similar procedures of administration to ensure uniformity of administration of the instruments. Then, the questionnaires were administered by the data collectors assigned in face to face sessions. The interview was conducted by the researcher himself, so as to reduce the possibility of misinterpretation.

In every session, before the respondents were asked to answer any part of the questionnaire or interview, they were clearly guided on the Do's and Don'ts needed, about the purpose of the study, how their responses contribute to the best success of the study etc. The respondents were also made free to ask whatever question they might have visa vise to the issue under investigation and the questionnaire item, in particular.

3.7 Methods of Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

The data obtained from the questionnaire and interview items were categorized under major themes. Percentage was used to measure and analyze the magnitude of respondents' opinion, experience and views against each statement. Besides, the responses obtained from open-ended items, the interview and any other responses that can not be measured or tabulated in statistical terms were clearly put in qualitative terms.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

This part of the paper deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from respondents and relevant documents.

The main sources of the data were male and female faculty members, administrators and education faculty students of the target universities.

Questionnaires comprising closed and open ended questions were distributed to a total of 264 subjects where (203 male and 61 female full time academic teaching staff members). Of the total questionnaire distributed to female and male faculty 246 respondents (190 male and 56 female, respectively) returned and used in this study.

Among the questionnaires administered to 400 students 360 (90%) were collected and usable for the study. Among these only 37.5% were female; where as the majority (62.5%) were male. This shows that women students are less represented compared to male in the respective universities which in turn might be one cause for the low representation of women in the higher education teaching force. Also, the information obtained through interview from administrators and senior women faculties of the target universities were used in the analysis of this study. Additionally, information from documents of MOE and the three universities were also included.

Table 3: Characteristics of the Respondents

Age group	Male faculty			Female faculty		
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent	Frequency	percent	Cumulative percent
<20	-	-	-	-	-	-
20-29	49	25.8	25.8	43	76.8	76.8
30-39	76	40.0	65.8	12	21.4	98.2
40-49	51	26.8	92.6	1	1.8	100.0
50 and above	14	7.4	100.0	-	-	-
Total	190	100.0		56	100.0	
Marital status						
Married	148	77.9	77.9	20	35.7	35.7
Single	42	22.1	100.0	36	64.3	100.0
Total	190	100.0		56	100.0	
Years of experience						
1-5	38	20.0	20.0	42	75.0	75.0
6-10	65	34.2	54.2	12	21.4	96.4
11-15	57	30.0	84.2	2	3.6	100.0
16-20	23	12.2	96.3	-	-	
21 and above	7	3.6	100.0	-	-	
Total	190	100.0		56	100.0	
Level of education						
B.A/B.Ed/ B.SC	59	31.1	31.1	39	69.6	69.6
M.A/M.SC	103	54.2	85.3	14	25.0	94.6
Ph.D	28	14.7	100	3	5.4	100.0
Total	190	100.0		56	100.0	

As can be seen in table 3 above, there was no one below 20 years from both sexes. The majority of the female subjects were young: 76.8% between 20-29 years; 21.4% between 30-39 years; and the rest 1.8% aged between 40-49 years. There was no female respondent aged 50 and above. On the other hand, the majority of male subjects (68.9%) fell in the age category of 30-49 (middle adult hood) years. Data on

the marital status showed that 64.3% of the female respondents were single and the remaining 35.7% were married. Of the male faculty (77.9%) were married, while 22.1% were un-married. It was also learned that one third of the married female subjects have children; the number of their children ranges from 1 to 3. Regarding years of experience in teaching 75.0% of the female subjects have served in their respective universities from 1 to 5 years and the remaining 25% have served from 6 to 15 years. Whereas, the majority of male subjects (64.2%) have served from 6 to 15 years. And even there were male faculties who have been serving for 21 and above years (3.6%). However, in the case of female faculty there was no one served above 15. This implies that the majority of the female faculties get access to be employed as instructors in their respective institutions recently, compared to their male counterparts. On the other hand, men's long year service in the institution is a manifestation of their dominance in academia.

4.2 Gender Difference in Qualification of Faculty

The data shows that 70% of women faculty members have specialized in behavioral sciences such as social sciences, education and language. There are very few female faculties in the field of natural science and technology. This is in line with what other studies have shown. For example, in the literature section (Toren, 1990; Aziz, 1990) indicated that women representation in the sciences is disproportionately low compared to the humanities and social sciences. Similarly, Dowd (1999) stated that women disproportionately choose humanities that emphasize personal and intellectual development. The theoretical explanation to this is that women are culturally defined as care takers and nurturers and they believe that it is in the behavioral sciences and humanities that they could find fulfillment. Moreover, table 3 shows that the majority of female faculty members (69.6%) were B.A/B.ED/B.SC holders and the rest (25.0% and 5.4%, respectively) were M.A/M.SC and PhD holders. When we compare these figures with male respondents, the result seems very demanding to the universities. Over half (68.9%) of the male respondents are either M.A/M.SC or PhD holders.

The above data indicated that regardless of what type of degree female holds she is much more likely than her male counterpart to be in one of the lower qualifications. This might be because due to the dual roles vested on women they may not be able to compete effectively during promotion and training that means access to higher levels

of qualification is much more limited to women than men. Another reason might be because most of the female subjects are young and joined the universities recently or scholarship offers for further education are competitive, females may not be able to meet the criteria.

4.3 Recruitment Procedures and How it Affects Women's chances of being Selected and Employed as Lecturers.

It was learned from the legislation of the universities and responses of administrators that appointment of academic teaching staff is the responsibility of the staff appointment and promotion committee. The processes of recruiting and decision about numbers and qualifications of the recruit staff depend on the guide lines of the universities and staff requirement plan of the needy departments and universities.

The administrators' responses further indicated that academic staff members enter through competition. When faculty is hired via competition the criteria include: CGPA, field of specialization, work experience, letter of recommendation and competency in the language of instruction and interview result. Almost all of the subjects (92.2%) reported that proportionally CGPA was given higher weight as highly as 60% than the other criteria. This was highly emphasized by the female respondents probably because they already were aware that this criterion is where many female candidates are relatively weak and which eventually curtails their chances of being employed and advancing in their career as lecturers.

Here also, the administrators' response supported the women faculties' opinion in that at least B.A/B.SC Degree, CGPA of 2.75 and above is required for both sexes to join the teaching force of their respective university in normal condition. They added that there were very small female candidates who fulfill these requirements and apply to the post.

The administrators were further asked if there are rules and regulations that favor female candidates during faculty recruitment, All emphasized that there are laws and regulations which are in line with **the 1994 Education and Training Policy of Ethiopia stated as "special attention will be given to the recruitment, training and education of female teaching personnel,"** Which in turn is consistent with the 1997 UNESCO recommendations regarding the appointment of teaching personnel.

Related to this fact, both male and female faculties were asked if women are discriminated against recruitment in their respective institutions. All replied "No", rather women applicants are small in number since there are small numbers of eligible candidates who meet the criteria and applied for the post. They added that there is equality between the sexes as regards recruitment or promotion prescribed by law or regulation in their respective institutions, Consistent with the administrators' responses. However, difference was observed when they were asked if there is equality in practice, More than half (51%) of the female respondents indicated that in practice there is no equality between the sexes as regards recruitment. In mentioning their reasons, the criteria used for recruitment are more suitable to men than women, especially the weight given to CGPA. On the other hand, 85% of male and 49% female subjects mentioned that there is equality between the sexes in practice with regard to recruitment. In the open ended items the respondents also added that the existing rules and regulations of the universities privileged women via affirmative action program.

Results from document analysis also confirmed that the performance of men and women when they graduate from the universities vary. Men have higher CGPA than women at the time of graduation. For example, of the randomly selected 2006 graduates of regular undergraduate degree students of the selected faculties in the three universities, 64.4% of the students had CGPA of above 2.50 at the time of graduation and among these female students represented 24.1% which is very small number as compared to 75.9% of male students. Table 5 below shows variation in the cumulative grade point average of senior female and male students.

Table 4: Summary of the CGPA of Graduates of Regular Undergraduate Degree Programs of the Selected Faculties in the Three Universities (2005/2006)

Sex	CGPA											
	Below 2.00		2.00-2.50		2.51-3.00		3.01-3.50		3.51-4.00		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	3	1.2	70	28.1	111	44.5	47	19.0	18	7.2	249	100
Female	7	6.3	52	46.9	39	35.1	11	9.9	2	1.8	111	100
Total	10	2.8	122	33.8	150	41.7	58	16.1	20	5.6	360	100

Table 4 shows, the majority of the subjects fall in the interval between 2.51 and 3.00. 53.1% of the female students have CGPA of 2.50 or below. It means 29.3% of male students have CGPA falling at 2.5 or below. In other words, the majority of male students (70.7%) have CGPA of greater than 2-50 with over-one-quarter (26.2%) with CGPA greater than 3.0. Among female (46.8%) have CGPA of greater than 2.50, while only 11.7% of females have CGPA above 3.0. These discrepancies become a serious handicap for those women who would be interested to join tertiary level institutions, like universities. Thus, here, starts the problem of the absence of eligible female candidates for becoming lecturer in universities.

An interesting situation observed was when women faculties were asked about their sources of information at the time of their employment. The majority of female respondents (71.4%) mentioned the notice board as their first source of information. Besides, magazines, news papers, TV and Radio, and informed by colleagues were respectively, cited as second, third, and fourth sources of information. Here, this information demonstrates the well documented fact that women's networks are limited because usually they opt for the easier and closer sources and lack the networks by which information is obtained as opposed to men. Consequently, women lose opportunities that men who are more outwardly oriented and take advantage of information on available opportunities.

Another interesting situation female faculty raised related to recruitment procedures was the composition of the interview committee. 67.1% of the female respondents revealed that there is a gender bias in the composition of the members of the

interview committees. They said that in the interview sessions they attended only few number of women were present. Almost all members of the interview committee were male. When asked about the impact, if any, of being interviewed by a group of male interviewers the majority acknowledged that it affected their performance and results negatively. They indicated that when being interviewed by a group of strange males, they felt tense and anxious. These situations, according to the subjects reduced there actual performance.

One female interviewee indicated that in her case the all male group convinced that she couldn't properly teach in classrooms because she exhibited fear and tension during the interview. Another female subject said that although she tried to control her self and tried to express her self well, the situation where all the interviewers were men affected her negatively. Almost all the women interviewee stressed that they did not say what they had to say or know in the men dominated interview sessions because of fear and stress. Some said even the questions asked were not related to the job they applied for.

Among the recorded anecdotes:

"Before I got inside to the interview hall, I was very confident and I was convincing my self to say every thing I know at my disposal, however when I left the interview session I was thinking about what I said in the hall And didn't say it because I was afraid."

"There were many instances in which I was bluffing many issues which were not related to the question asked. It was not because I did not know the answer, rather the environment was nerve-wracking and I was full of stress."

The findings of Roberts, (1985) supported the females' feeling. Interviews rarely correspond to job-related skills- they can be full of fear and apprehension.

When administrators were asked what conditions they think are operating against females during recruitment, over half (53%) of the administrators indicated that there are no rules that operate against females during recruitment as such. However, they noted that since CGPA is given more weight compared to other requirements, females fail during the competition with men. The administrators listed the following conditions as obstacles:

- The weight given to CGPA as a basic requirement for the appointment of academic teaching staff in which women are weak.

- Inflexible criteria and absence of clear guide lines that allows priority to be given to female candidates.
- Small number of eligible candidates for the job on vacancy.
- Restricted privileges of female faculty members all serve to discriminate against women,
- The prevalent attitude in society at large, and in the selection committee that men perform better than women.

4.4 Major Constraints that Contribute to the Low Participation of Women faculty in Higher Institutions

The institutional and personal barriers female faculty faces are various and numerous. Participants in this study were asked to rank in order of importance various conditions that they perceive to be major constraints to women becoming faculty members in the universities under study.

Table 5 below shows, the percentage of participants who ranked each condition in order of importance (1= the most important condition "8"= the least important condition).

Table 5: Conditions perceived to be constraints to women Faculty members:

	Conditions	Rank in order of importance							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Female students have low CGPA at the time of graduation	52%	25%	12%	4%	3%	2%	1%	1%
2	Small number of female students in higher institutions compared to male students	35%	31%	14%	10%	3%	4%	2%	1%
3	Female students don't choose teaching post in universities even if they have the required CGPA	30%	20%	24%	11%	6%	4%	2%	3%
4	Lack of role models of women who have succeeded in those career as men do have	14%	9%	22%	27%	11%	10%	4%	3%
5	Family pressure on their daughters not to choose a teaching profession	4%	9%	5%	8%	20%	14%	23%	17%
6	Female faculty do not receive the respect males get from students	3%	12%	11%	13%	26%	23%	7%	5%
7	Teaching in universities is regarded as men's domain	3%	11%	6%	12%	15%	21%	24%	8%
8	Sexual harassment	1%	8%	4%	4%	5%	6%	13%	59%

The results in table 5 show that the top three most serious conditions that contribute to the under representation of women faculty are: low CGPA of female students at the time of graduation; small number of female students in higher institutions; lack of academically competent candidates who are interested to join the teaching professing at tertiary level. Sexual harassment was ranked least in degree of seriousness.

Regarding the issue of sexual harassment administrators and female interviewee were also asked what do they think about sexual advances against women faculty as a constraint for the low representation of women faculty in higher institutions. All of the interviewed women faculty said they never faced such kind of unwanted sexual advances, But, they suspected that there might be some women faculty members who have faced this challenge and hide it due to fear of embarrassment from colleagues. The administrators' response supported the females view in that there might be some women faculty members who have encountered such challenges; however, they indicated that they never know such cases as far as their institutions are concerned. And even some of the administrators showed nervousness to give response for such kind of questions. A few went all the way and said that this is a western concept that few educated women (feminists) want to introduce in our culture. It seems here that the issue of sexual harassment needs further investigation.

Below the above conditions (factors) for the under representation of women are discussed further.

1. **Low cumulative grade point average of female students at the time of graduation:** As indicated in table 5, this reason was ranked as the first most important condition serving as a barrier for women who are interested to become faculty member in the target universities. The CGPA of girls were low compared to their male counterparts at the time of graduation. This implies that due to their low CGPA there has been small pool of eligible candidates who will apply for becoming lecturer in higher education institutions. This was also noted in the report of FAWWE (1998) stated as small number of eligible candidate is one cause for the low representation of women as teachers in higher institutions.

2. Low representation of female students in higher institutions.

As shown in table 5, (35.0%) of the subjects ranked this reason as the second serious condition in contributing to the low participation of women faculty in higher education institutions. The subjects' response to the open-ended item further indicated that the under-representation of women in the higher education teaching force is the cumulative effect of their low representation as a student at all levels of the education sector. This is consistent with the findings of Hyde (1993) cited in the report of FAWE (1998) in the literature section stated as girls low chance in entering university results from poor performance in schools, which in turn is caused by such factors as pattern of parental investment, domestic work load, lower teacher expectations and negative female stereotypes in textbooks.

In this regard, questions were also posed to women faculty during the interview session related to the causes for the low representation of women faculty. They responded that the low representation of women instructors in universities is the result of their low representation as a student in higher institution which in turn is the result of many factors. The factors for the low representation of female students were summarized below:

- Poor performance at lower levels
- High drop out rate of female students
- Poor facility at secondary levels
- Poor guidance and counseling services
- Lack of role models
- Sexual harassment etc

3. Female students don't choose teaching post in universities even if they have the required CGPA. Various prejudice such as unpleasant and unsatisfactory working conditions, low salary and a minimum of fringe benefits, insufficient and poor quality of services delivered in many schools

and universities, lack of prestige of teachers generally, and poor administrative leadership in many schools lower the status of the "Mother profession"; teaching. Here, it implies that academically competent women prefer jobs outside academia maybe because of the above reasons and the traditionally low status given to teaching in general which is consistent with Almaz and Jung (1990) findings.

4.5 Issues Related to Academic Promotion and Training

Many studies proved that women tend to populate the lower professional ranks in colleges and universities. As one ascends the academic ladder the greater is the inequality in academic status between men and women. Cognizant of this fact, a study conducted in USA which matched women and men statistically on a number of variables related to academic promotion found out that women were likely to be below men in both rank and salary (Davis and Astin 1990). The findings of the present study also corroborated this fact. 76% of the women faculty reported to have stayed in the present rank from 6 months to 2 years, the remaining 24% have served in the present rank between 3 to 6 years. This is due to two main reasons: first, many of the women faculty joined higher institutions recently; second, they may not be able to compete with men because of the weight given to research and publications in which women are relatively weak because of much family commitments.

Administrators were asked about the criteria required to get promotion to the next academic rank. They indicated that the criteria required for promotion to the next academic rank, include: **Length of service with a given rank, publications in reputable journal, effectiveness in teaching or research, participation in the affairs of the university, and public and professional service rendered to the public in various capacities, performance evaluation, etc** are the basic criteria on the basis of which promotion is determined. It was also learned from the response of the administrators that both men and women are judged on the criteria equally, in case of promotion. There is no special consideration for women faculty as can be done in the recruitment procedure where if male and female candidates have equal point on the criteria, the female

candidate would get the employment opportunity and become the academic staff member of the university.

However, in case of promotion there is no such kind of special privilege for female applicants. Here, the implication is that promotion is determined based on merit, for both faculty members. Quota or any other kind of special favor is not applied for female faculty members.

Related to this issue women faculty were asked whether the existing rules and regulations of their respective institutions are an advantage for women faculty. The majority 79.4% replied in the negative, while the rest 20.6% replied in the affirmative. The subjects' responses to the open ended questions show that for those who said promotion criteria are not an advantage for female faculty the reason given was: Publishing research article is given more weight in determining promotion. Research and publications being the two aspects of academic life where women perform poorly as documented by many studies, the rate of promotion to the next academic rank for women is slower or stagnant compared to men. When asked about the reasons, why it is difficult for women to advance upward in the academic ladder fulfilling the standard of research and publication, 51.8% indicated that they have too many family commitments and don't have time or energy to spend on much reading to engage in research and publishing while 28.2% indicated that teaching provides more satisfaction than research and they don't want to bother themselves about research and publishing. The rest 20.0% replied they do not know how to go about it. The results are in line with the findings of (Austin and Davis, 1990; Olsen, Maple and Stage, 1995 and Horning, 1980) cited in Almaz (2003). They confirmed that women are inclined towards teaching rather than research and the importance of having time for family commitments. The results of their study also indicated that most women found their employment ideal because it enabled them to find professional fulfillment without the pressure to publish and it allowed them sufficient time for family responsibilities. A follow up study of female and male non –tenured faculty by Lavano-kerr and Fuchus(1982)cited in Almaz (2003) also found that men were more satisfied than women with the quantity of their research. On the other hand, women appeared to be more satisfied than men with their teaching performance. Table 6, shows academic rank of men and women respondents.

Table 6: Academic Rank of Men and Women Respondents

Rank	Men		Women	
	N	%	N	%
Professor	3	1.6	-	-
Associate professor	13	6.8	-	-
Assistant professor	47	24.7	4	7.1
Lecturer	72	37.9	15	26.8
Assistant lecturer	23	12.2	14	25.0
Graduate assistant	32	16.8	23	41.1
Total	190	100.0	56	100.0

Table 6 shows that the majority of the female subjects fell below the rank of lecturer (66.1%) compared to their male counterpart which accounted only (29.0%) from male total. There were no women faculty at the rank of associate professor and professor. Hence, the data prove that women faculties are concentrated in the lower academic rank. .

Regarding further training the majority of the subjects gave similar answers: CGPA, years of service, performance evaluation service in committees and service in leadership positions such as department headship. Here again no special consideration is given to women during selection. Women have to compete on an equal footing with the overwhelming majority of men. Women also mentioned that they are again handicapped from benefiting from training opportunities for the same reasons that they lose on promotion that is the conflicting dual roles of family and work. Gender specific roles such as pregnancy, birth, bringing up children and managing family affairs become handicaps especially in situations where extended family and husband help is limited or unavailable.

In addition, during the interview session women respondents indicated that since many of the women faculty members joined university teaching force recently, they are the ones most affected while competing with the highly experienced and qualified male counterparts. They stressed that the problem emanates from applying selection criteria suited for male situations without any adjustment and special attention to females. Women faculty tend to have a better performance profile in teaching rather than research

but this differential field of competence is never focused upon when it comes to promotion and training.

Some of the female interviewee expressed their compliant as follows:

"There is no situation in which priority is given to women when it comes to promotion and training."

"The same selection criteria are applied for both male and female faculty that is why we always fail to get the promotion opportunity."

The institutional and personal barriers women faculty faces in relation to career development are immense. Related to this issue both male and female faculty were asked if women academics have got equal chance of promotion in their respective universities. Table 7 below shows this.

Table 7: Female Teachers Chances of Promotion

Item	Male Faculty N=190			Female Faculty N=56		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Do female faculties get equal chance of promotion compared to their male counterparts in your department?	(40%)	(60%)	(100%)	(25%)	(75%)	(100%)

As Adler et-al (1993) wrote, females' chances of promotion is slower than that of males'. Similarly, as can be seen in the table above (75%) of the female faculty and (60%) of the male subjects indicated that women faculty do not get equal chance of promotion compared to men in their respective departments. Whereas (25%) of female and (40%) of the male subjects replied in the positive. Related to this fact questions were forwarded for male and female faculty members related to the major institutional constraints for women's slower chance of promotion.

Table 8: Major Reasons that Causes the Slower Promotion of Women Faculty

No	Reasons given for slower promotion of women faculty	Rank order				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The weight given to research and publications in determining promotion	57%	30%	9%	4%	-
2	Application of promotion criteria tailored for male situations	48%	28%	11%	9%	4%
3	Double work load of women	43%	20%	16%	21%	-
4	Females are not given opportunities for further education	5%	23%	32%	28%	12%
5	Bosses influence (both male and female who deny women's chance of progress).	-	6%	8%	10%	76%

As summarized in Table 8, such barriers as the weight given to research and publication in determining promotion, application of promotion criteria tailored for male situations and double work load of women ranked as the top 3 major reasons that contributed to the slower promotion of women faculty, respectively. Boss's influence was identified as the least important reason for women's slower chance of promotion.

Furthermore, when women faculty were asked to identify the personal constraints to their career development, 68.7% cited family responsibility, while the rest 21.3% and 10% mentioned other factors such as lack of professional preparation and discouraged by lack of female role models, respectively.

It was also learned from the responses of women faculty during the interview sessions that married women are not as likely to be promoted as do single women who are unmarried. This is also confirmed by (87%) of women faculty in the closed ended items being single is a relative advantage for women academics. The reasons given were because women normally taken the primary responsibility for managing a house hold and rearing children, (Time lost on the job during pregnancy and child birth) are simply unable to produce professionally at the rate of their single female colleagues. It means the dual roles of married women hamper them from advancing upward in their academic life.

4.6 Perceptions of Faculty and Students of Female Teachers

In women studies many researchers state that how women perceive themselves accounts for many of the cause of their marginalization in society. That is why interventions such as awareness creation and self-assertion trainings are recommended to bolster the self-perception (self-image) of women. It was learned from the responses of the administrators of Addis Ababa University that attempts were made by the Institute of Gender Studies (Former CERTWID) to initiate and organize forums where successful women role models were invited to talk to female students to boost their self-image and discuss problems they face as female students in a predominantly male dominated learning environment.

The responses of the female students at Addis Ababa University on this issue indicated that the awareness creation forum organized by the Institute of Gender Studies helped them a lot, and even the panel discussions held occasionally at German Cultural Institute (**Goethe**) enable them to learn a lot about gender related problems and how to cope with them. Of the female students selected from the College of Education of Addis Ababa University 50% participated in self-assertion trainings on gender awareness creation programs. However, the response of the administrators of Bahir-Dar University and Haramaya University revealed that except gender clubs organized recently in the institutions less effort was exerted to organize such kind of forums to bolster the self image of female students. This is corroborated by the response of the female students of the two universities. Hence, Only 21% of the respondents were participated in gender awareness creation training programs.

Additionally questions were also included to find out how faculty and students perceived female teachers in order to see its relationship with the other issues raised in this study. The table below summaries this.

Table9: Perception of Male Faculty towards their Female Colleagues

Item	Highly competent		Equally competent		Undecided		Less competent		Highly incompetent	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
How do you perceive women faculty in your department in terms of academic competence?	19	10.0	127	66.8	38	20.0	6	3.2	-	-

As summarized in table 9, over half (66.8%) of male faculty disclosed that female faculty members are equally competent as their male counterparts in academic matters. Even some rated women faculty as highly competent (10%). In this case, the result points to the fact that female faculty members are accepted as colleagues and considered competent members of the faculty.

Related to this fact, 51% of the female respondents confirmed that male colleagues persistently encourage them both to remain as faculty member and to advance in their career. The rest 34% and 15% said they get encouragement from family and administrators, respectively. Similarly women faculties were asked with whom they feel comfortable to work with in their work environment. The majority (91%) replied that it is alright to work with male and female colleagues. However, the remaining 9% feel comfortable to create close relationship with female colleagues.

In answering to a related question about personal constraints that women encounter to become faculty members the administrators mentioned several issues of attitudes and perceptions.

The following is a summary of the responses:

- *Attitude of society that men are superior to women*
- *Women's own perceptions of themselves that prevent them from taking responsibilities.*
- *Gender specific problems such as fear of separation from spouse.*
- *Are discouraged by the lack of examples of women who are succeeded in those careers.*
- *Guilt feeling regarding their dual roles*
- *Low CGPA that affects their admission to faculty, performance and promotion*

The organizational and institutional constraints that females encounter to become faculty members by administrators vary. One-third of the administrators said that there are no organizational and institutional constraints. Two-third of the administrators cited several constraints. Their responses were as follows:

- High CGPA requirement is the major obstacle for women.
- Difficult working condition
- Rigid criteria of recruitment and selection to join the universities.
- Lack of proper accommodation and low pay.
- Traditional attitude of authorities and members of the faculty towards women regarding their ability. Thinking that women are less productive compared to men in academic matters.

Moreover, the administrators were also asked what they think are the conditions that prevent females from joining the teaching force of their respective universities. Their responses were consistent. High CGPA requirement during recruitment was mentioned by two thirds of the administrators as a condition that prevents females from joining these institutions. The remaining one-third mentioned other factors. In the order of their frequencies, they are: absence of women with the required qualification, absence of women in the science fields such as engineering and natural sciences, and difficult working conditions.

When we look into the responses of students, the majority of the subjects (84%) evaluated women faculty as equally competent as their male counterparts. When asked whether they thought that women have special characteristics that make them good teachers, almost all (99.11%) said "yes" they do have and listed the following traits. The traits are listed in their order of frequency of the responses:

- Women instructors are not dictators; they are tolerant.
- They try to help them and treat them impartially.
- Women instructors are warm and supportive than male instructors.
- Women teach well and can be approached without fear.

- Women instructors are kind to their students.
- Women instructors have good verbal communication ability

When students were asked about their preference of teachers, the majority (57.6%) of the students preferred male to female teachers. Close inspection of the disaggregated responses indicated that more male students (65%) preferred male teachers and more female students (55%) preferred female teachers. Whatever their preference, pupils were requested to give reasons:

Those who preferred male teachers mentioned some traits. The traits were listed below in order of frequency of the responses.

- *Male teachers are alert, confident and bold to carry out their responsibility*
- *Male teachers are academically stronger than female teachers, especially in the field of technology and computing.*
- *Unlike female teachers, male teachers have sufficient time to prepare themselves for teaching.*

For those who preferred female teachers the main reasons given were:

- *Female teachers don't miss classes, do their work well; they teach well.*
- *Female teachers can understand problems easily; they are co-operative; they are not dictators; do not create fear in students and can be approached easily.,*
- *Female teachers do not get upset easily.*

Bird (1992) supporting this idea said that composition of staff has its own effect on students achievement. He further noted that the proportion of female faculty in higher learning institutions has strong relationship with the number of women high achievers.

The above results show that there are identified Sex characteristics by which male and female instructors are judged. The difference between the two sexes conforms to the common traditional gender stereotyping society adhered to the two sexes. Thus, female teachers are associated with nurturing roles and characteristics whereas male instructors with power, confidence and superior abilities. It is very heartening here to see that

students also recognize the dual roles of women and described male teachers as having more time to concentrate on their teaching.

The irony here is that since the above perceptions, attitudes and values of women are manifested in behaviors, female faculties are likely to assimilate them and define their behaviors and aspirations accordingly. Consequently, consciously or unconsciously, they are led to concentrate their time and energy in supportive activities for students when male instructors concentrate on activities to promote their career and professional development such as research. These situations as we saw earlier influence their career development.

4.7 Women's Own Perceptions Regarding Their Roles, Responsibilities and the Challenges They Face as Faculty

Traditionally academic career and domesticity have been considered as incompatible. If a woman married her colleagues assume that she would retire from the academic scene.

Such social expectation still persists. To any one acquainted with academic mores and socialization, the wide gap in expectation between the two sexes is in fact not surprising. "Every one knows that the expectations for women and men are different and it is not necessary for them to be formally spelled out. To be taken "seriously" an academic women knows that it is best not to marry; however, remaining single does not guarantee serious treatment (Bernard, 1981).

The findings of this study also support the above idea. During the interview session, it was learned that women faculty especially those who are married considered their gender roles as mothers and wives clash considerably with their responsibilities as faculty members. Pressures from family members and spouses to get married early and have children as early as possible were also mentioned as major problems. They indicated that since at university level one has to conduct research, serve as head of department, and be a member and work in different committees and search ways to advance one's career women are handicapped by their dual roles. More than half (57%) mentioned conditions related to family responsibilities, the rest (43%) indicated that they don't face personal constraints. Probably these were the unmarried and with no children. The female subjects

stressed that family responsibilities forced them to postpone their academic plans and this in turn prevented them to succeed in their career advancement and development.

It was also understood from the responses of the female subjects that marriage has been considered as main determinant variable for women's career progress. Associated with this issue factors such as husbands help, number of children and the availability of child care and other facilities have their own effect on the career advancement of women faculty.. Accordingly, (83.6%) of the married women replied that much of their time is taken by family responsibilities than professional activities, related to this issue women faculty were probed about their husbands help in home making and other family commitments. Table 10 shows this.

Table 10: Married Women Faculty by Reported Degrees of Husbands' Help (for home making and other family roles)

High		Modern		Low		Total	
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
2	10.0	5	25.0	13	65.0	20	100.0

As can be seen from table 10, over half of the married women (65%) labeled the help they obtained from their husbands as low, which implies that much of the burden of home making and family commitments rest on the shoulder of women. Consistent with this issue questions were also posed for female faculty if they believed that being single is a relative advantage for women academics. The majority (85.7%) replied in the affirmative ("yes"), while (14.3%) of the subjects reacted in the negative. A close look into the responses of women faculty for the open ended questions indicated that being single reduces the stresses of women's dual roles. However, those subjects reacted in the negative said that it is difficult to conclude that being married or unmarried is an advantage for women faculty. It all depends on the situation; factors such as husband and extended families help matters a lot.

Perhaps, the greatest discrepancy in higher education is the imbalance of women and men chairing departments or serving as department heads deans, vice-presidents or presidents of universities. As regards additional responsibilities in their institution only 10% of the women faculty holds responsibility in addition to teaching, however, most of the female

faculty said that the additional responsibilities are limited to work associated with committees and clubs that are formed to supervise the education of women in their respective institutions.

In light of this, findings of (Almaze and Hyde, 1990) cited in Almaz (2003) indicated that gender discrimination in job assignment starts as early as primary school or even nursery school, the early categorization that boys play with cars and girls with dolls. Such gender role stereotyping has been shown to have an impact on later stream and career choices such as science and technology versus social science and humanities by women and men.

Women faculties' perceptions of officials were mixed. While 44% rated administrators as cooperative and sympathetic, 56% saw them as bossy and having negative attitudes towards women faculty. Moreover, it was also understood from the women faculties' responses during the interview session that administrators who showed some "sympathy" towards women faculty; it is not because of their genuine understanding of women's competency rather the sympathy emanated from the belief that women are weak and need more sympathy than men. The following are some of the expressions:

"Some administrators encourage women while others consider women as incompetent and incapable.

"Some administrators undermine the ability of women and they don't usually dare to give responsibilities to women.

"Some administrators undermine women's ideas and opinions on issues and consider them worthless in contrast to those of men.

These statements somehow contradict with what administrators and male faculty said earlier. Here, it shows that while they may believe that women are equally competent, behaviorally it is the opposite that is manifested. Here, the result indicates that further study is needed for the study of attitudes, values and behaviors of faculty members with regard to women.

When asked whether department heads evaluate female faculty members' work performance fairly, the female subjects gave different responses. Two-thirds of the

female faculties have the opinion 'yes' they do. While one third said that the department heads evaluation is unfair.

Female faculty members were also asked if they have faced gender related problems such as sexual harassment. All women respondents indicated that they did not experience such kind of problems when working with male colleagues and administrators for that matter. However, they implied during the interview that it is not easy to work with men especially if a woman is unmarried.

The above findings indicated that there are many personal problems that female faculty face in work environment. The prevalent ones are those associated with gender discrimination and the stereotyping of women as incompetent, weak and whose ideas are not to be taken seriously.

4.9 Students Perception of and Attitudes towards the Teaching Profession

Many of the problems that contribute to the low representation of women faculty are of general in nature. Students perception of and attitudes toward the teaching profession might contribute in this regard. In an attempt to find out their attitudes toward the teaching profession, students were asked whether it is their choice to join the faculties of education. The biggest percentage (76%) replied that they did not choose the education faculties they are currently in. when asked how they were assigned to education faculties, they indicated that it was done based on their entrance examination performance at grade 12.

To the question of whether they are happy being trained as would be Teachers, the majority (67%) replied they are not happy being trained as would be Teachers. Gender disaggregated data analysis showed that there is no much gender difference in their response to the question. That is 66% of male and 71% of female students said they are not happy being trained as would be teachers. These students were also requested to give their reasons, what ever their choices might be.

For those who wanted to become teachers the main reasons were:

- Job security
- Convenient holidays
- Promotion prospects etc

For the majority (63%) who indicated that they didn't want to become teachers, reasons mentioned were:

- Low salary
- Poor working environment
- Few promotion opportunities
- Lack of respect on the part of the society for teachers.
- Heavy teaching loads
- The facilities at places where teachers teach are not adequate and conducive.

Students were also asked about their job aspiration after graduation. The majority (65%) indicated non-teaching professions, where as (35%) of the subjects mentioned teaching profession.

Surprisingly, to the question posed to students whether teaching is a worthwhile profession to devote one's life time, almost all (97.5%) of the subjects said "Yes" which is contrary to their earlier responses. The implication here is that as long as I am not going to be a teacher, as a whole teaching profession is a "noble one", which is very similar to the findings of (Almaz, 2003).

4.9 Issues Related to Affirmative Action

Redressing historical imbalances relating to staff appointments and student access is an imperative for Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions. One of the strategies that must be applied to accelerate that change process is affirmative action, yet affirmative action on its own is not the whole answer. It is essential that the diversity created by affirmative action be effectively managed, by using a strategic management approach. To day in many higher learning institutions of Ethiopia has been implemented. As a result

significant numbers of female students are benefiting from the program and joined tertiary level institutions with a relatively minimum college and university entrance result compared to their male counter parts. Related to this issue questions were presented to male and female subjects in order to see their attitude against the practice. See the table below

Table 11: Response of Male and Female Faculty Members Related to Affirmative Action Programs.

Item	Male faculty N=190			Female faculty N=56		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Do you think that affirmative action practices exercised in higher institutions are right actions with regard to recruitment of woman?	(51.6%)	(48.4%)	(100%)	(69.6%)	(30.4%)	(100%)

As depicted in table 11 above (69.6%) of female faculty and (51.6%) of male faculty supported the implementation of affirmative action programs with regard to the employment of women faculty, however, (48.4 %) of male and (30.4%) of female subjects respectively, didn't support it. Similarly the same questions were posed to administrators in the target universities during the interview sessions. They indicated that all are in favor of affirmative action practices exercised in higher institutions in relation to staff appointments and students access in principle. However, differences were observed when they were asked on how it should be exercised on the ground. Two – thirds of the administrators said that priority should be given to female candidates if and only if both male and female applicants have equal points on the criteria. This is should be done in order to redress the gender imbalance in the composition of university academic staff members. On the other hand, one-third reported that women candidates should be admitted via quote system although they have less CGPA compared to their male counterparts. In mentioning their reasons they said that redressing historical gender imbalances relating to both staff appointments and student access is an imperative for higher education institutions. Experiencing diversity is a common component of a quality educational experience; to achieve excellence it is also imperative to achieve diversity. They further argue that universities are implementing institutions; hence, they have to go

inline with the education and training policy of the country. This idea was particularly reflected by Bahir Dar University Administrators during the interview session. They voiced that before three years ago, there were only three female faculty members in Bahir Dar University, but currently there are 120 female academic staff members and this is a great achievement. This implies that Bahir Dar University is duly utilizing the quota system with regard to women employment. There was also an amazing case that occurred in Bahir Dar University related to this issue. In 1998 two candidates (male and female) applied to join the teaching force of the same university in a certain department. The male applicant has CGPA of 3.94 while the female has CGPA of 2.20. Surprisingly the male candidate was rejected but the female was accepted. It was done because the university administrators were planned to employ at least two female candidates in each department in the year indicated earlier. Finally after a serious discussion was made between higher officials of the institution and the concerned department decision was passed to appoint both candidates. From this finding, it seems logical to argue that should women be employed simply because of their sex at the expense of men? Is the goal of affirmative action truly to achieve equal chances for all, or is it amounts to a vengeful turning of the tables of discrimination? Is affirmative action utilized to create a diversified academic society or simply for political consumptions? Therefore, the purpose of affirmative action is to overcome the effects of past discrimination by enabling the person or groups discriminated against either on level terms with the favored group. It is not a tool to reverse the discrimination against the assumed favored groups.

While answering for the question why you favor or don't favor the affirmative action interventions against women faculty employment? The subjects mentioned their reasons:

For those who were in favor of positive discrimination practices the main reasons were:

- a) It enables to build an academic environment where equality and diversity are truly valued beyond the verbal commitment and mere tolerance.
- b) To create a campus climate were the principles of affirmative action, equal opportunity and diversity are an integral part of campus life.

- c) More female representation in faculty positions has good implications for female students who aspire to be instructors in tertiary level institutions.
- d) Due to social, cultural, institutional and personal constraints women were handicapped from becoming faculty members in the higher learning institutions of Ethiopia. Thus, positive discrimination would enable to redress the gender imbalance in university staff appointments.
- e) Girls' access to education in general and to tertiary level institutions in particular has been limited for various reasons. Hence, the employment of more women instructors in colleges and universities of Ethiopia is not a choice rather it is a must to enhance role modeling for female students who want to assume faculty posts in universities.

Whereas, for those who didn't support affirmative action practices the reasons mentioned were:

- a. Academic institutions are a merit based environment, every one should be judged based on his/her merit (academic excellence) not sex. Women should be appointed if they perform equally well and are able to meet the same standards in academia.
- b. Employing female graduates with low academic performance achievement (CGPA) compared to their male counter parts via quota system means reducing the quality of university teaching. Even it is telling to the woman that she is inferior.
- c. If more women are employed in higher education institutions through quota system and if these faculty members are expected to achieve excellence in teaching and research without special support to male faculty members employed based on competition, it becomes a mere wish of policy makers and management of the institutions to make effective action programs as a whole.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

The main purpose of this study is to understand the myriad factors that affect the low-representation of women in government universities of Ethiopia. This includes perception, recruitment, promotion and training issues.

Accordingly, the study tried to answer the following questions:

1. What are the organizational and institutional barriers to women becoming lecturers and advance in their career at government universities of Ethiopia?
2. What are the personal constraints to women becoming faculty members?
3. What are the implications of these constraints for the recruitment and career development of women faculty for the concerned universities?

The study used both quantitative and qualitative methods. Questionnaires (both close ended and open-ended type) and interview items were used to collect data for the purpose of the study. Using the instruments data were collected from Academic teaching staff and administrators of the selected faculties of Addis Ababa University, Bahir Dar University and Haramaya University. Additionally, student subjects from Education faculties of the three universities were included.

The findings from the questionnaires and interview items were categorized under ten major themes and Analyzed accordingly. To analyze the data frequency and simple percentage were used.

Major Findings

- ❖ The findings show that there are small numbers of women on the selected faculties of the three Universities as compared to men. The range varies from none to 8. Women faculty have a lower qualification namely from past performance in under graduate studies. Thus very small numbers of candidates show up at recruitment. Since more weight is given to cumulative

grade point averages from under graduate record, very few women are able to effectively compete with men for employment.

- ❖ According to the female respondents, although there are regulations and laws that prescribe special consideration for women candidates during recruitment, it is not practically utilized on the ground to allow many women candidates to join faculty members of the universities.
- ❖ Those women who eventually make it to become faculty members of the universities find their chance of advancing in the career ladder and further training minimal. This is due to the fact that the criteria for such opportunities are again based on academic performance, research and publication outputs, membership and contribution in committees and experience in leadership positions such as heads of departments. These are activities on which women again do poorly.
- ❖ The invariably all male composition of the screening committee result in fear, tension and apprehension on some female candidates leading to poorer performance in the screening results.
- ❖ The dual responsibility for family puts women behind their peers in performing well according to the above criteria. Entrance into early marriage through the pressure of family, that is the old Ethiopian cultural practice and the ensuing child bearing and rearing tasks, are stronger barriers when it comes to women. Although the concept of a dual role of women has been camouflaged by the current women's empowerment campaign, it is a serious gender specific need especially with women teachers.
- ❖ The results of the present study also shows that the most serious conditions that contribute to the low representation of women faculty were: Low CGPA at graduation, small number of women students in higher institutions compared to men, lack of academically competent women to enter the teaching profession.
- ❖ Similarly, it was learned from the subjects response that weight given to research and publications in determining promotion, application of criteria

tailored for male situations and double work load of women were mentioned as the three top reasons for slower promotion of women in the career ladder.

- ❖ Sexual harassment did not come out high in the ranking of the constraints in the responses of the subjects. However, among the few who indicated it, more women subjects mentioned it as a problem than men. In the interview session made with administrators, they said that they did not know such kind of problem as far as their institution is concerned. Even some men went all the way and said this is a western concept some educated women (feminist) want to impose on the Ethiopian culture. Here, perhaps a more qualitative method on the socio-cultural context of Ethiopia might be needed to investigate the problem of sexual harassment in institutions of higher learning in Ethiopia.
- ❖ Despite all the constraining factors, women faculties were perceived positively by faculty as well as students. However, even though colleagues accepted female faculty and considered them as equally competent, when it came to actual behavior patterns, negative labeling such as “weak” and fearful of responsibilities were reported by female faculty as common amongst colleagues, especially administrators.
- ❖ Students also reported that women faculties are as competent as men. However, the characteristics on which they were considered to excel were different from men. Women faculty were described as more understanding of students’ needs, tolerant, having good communication abilities and easily accessible to students. Male teachers were characterized as academically strong, confident and well prepared. This orientation is perhaps more related to the stereotypical cultural character attributions associated with women that is they are more person oriented, sensitive and they value social communication and interaction patterns in general, and as instructors, they demonstrate the “Maternal role”.
- ❖ An additional revelation from the study was that students at education faculties in their respective universities expressed unhappiness at being trained as teachers. The majority stated (65%) once they finish their training

they would look for opportunities other than teaching. The reasons for this they stated were low pay, lack of respect on the part of society for teachers, poor working environment etc.

- ❖ Another additional revelation from the study was that some of the administrators and faculty members support the affirmative action practices while some others were not in favor of it, especially the introduction of the quota system. Those who were in favor of the affirmative action program suggested that during recruitment females should be employed if they fulfill the minimum CG PA requirement. This was justified by some of the subjects that as long as gender discrimination and oppressions against women prevails in the society the quota system should be introduced to supersede the debilitating situations. On the other hand, the opponent group said that the goals of affirmative action should be truly to achieve equal chances, it should account to a vengeful turning of the table of discrimination.
- ❖ The respondents provided important recommendations to alleviate the problematic situation of the absence and slower progress of women faculty in higher level institutions, including universities. They ranged from changing gender based cultural norms, improving screening policies in favor of women, and improving their working environment and providing support for female students at lower levels beginning from primary level.
- ❖ All in all the responses from the study showed that there are serious issues that need to be addressed concerning the particularly strong gender imbalance in the university teaching force. Though the education disparity between male and female show up way before arrival and entrance to universities as students or faculty, the present study shows that the situations that exist in Addis Ababa University, Bahir-Dar University and Haramaya University that need to be focused up on.

5.2 Conclusions

The questionnaire and interview findings of this study revealed the reality that there is a strong gender imbalance in the academic teaching staff composition in the three target universities. In short, very few women apply for posts in universities. For among these already few, very few pass the screening process and join the faculty.

This is mainly because of a generally poor performance record in their undergraduate studies. The very few who make it do not advance in the career ladder because they again fail to meet the additional requirements such as research output.

The results clearly show the cyclic nature of the problem of women's and girls education in general and the poor situation of women faculty in particular: low representation as students, low representation as teachers, rigid recruitment policies, small number of eligible candidates, double work load emanating from dual roles etc. From this entire spider networks of problems and constraints it is concluded that there is an acute problem in the academic staff composition of Government Universities in Ethiopia. The issues require a wider understanding of the problems and a broad range of interventions by many players, to bolster education of girls' at all levels and presence of women faculty in tertiary level institutions in Ethiopia in general and Government universities in particular.

Recommendations

In light of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are put forward as approaches to improve the problematic situations of female faculty in government universities.

The Ministry of Education

The 1994 Education and Training Policy and Women's Policy of the Federal Democratic Republic Government of Ethiopia has set frameworks and implementation strategies for the advancement of girls' and women's education. Utilizing these frame works, the department assigned to deal directly with girls' and women's issues should put special focus on the problematic situation of women faculty in government universities of Ethiopia and take measures to ensure that the problems are alleviated. These would include:

- 1) Until the cultural influence is reversed, various supportive measures need to be introduced to increase the number of female students in primary education, secondary education and tertiary education through various forms of positive discrimination. For instance, Admitting girls with a relatively minimums score compared to male students.

- 2) Support Secondary Schools to establish in-school tutorial and counseling programs for girls at every secondary school to enable girls to improve their academic performance.
- 3) Establish scholarships and community awareness programmes to increase the number of girls and women at secondary and tertiary level institutions. The community awareness program can be addressed by special teacher cadres, woreda education bureau officers etc, using settings, such as farmer centers, religious centers and various public meetings to achieve the goal.
- 4) Ensure the readiness of institutions, teachers and personnel in leadership positions to implement the policy and guidelines in their respective institutions through a monitoring and evaluation system to be undertaken by existing structures of women's affair offices at federal, regional, woreda and institutional levels.

Government Universities

- 1) Develop and put into practice different criteria for recruitment, promotion and selection for training of female faculty members. For instance, different criteria of CGPA requirement for female and male candidates need to be introduced to encourage females to join the institutions. This enables them to be faculty members without competing with male students who present themselves with higher grades.
- 2) It appears that the poor performance of female students at government universities begins with the poor performance of female students at secondary level. In light of this the following are recommended:
 - A pre-entry identification of the academic status of the female students entering the institutions should be assessed and support provided during training. The support could include provision of academic and personal tutoring and counseling by female teacher counselors, the establishments of student-teacher support groups to monitor the academic performance and personal adjustment of female students.
 - Encouraging female students and retaining them when they have good CGPA and providing them in-service training for career development.

- Establish a more comprehensive selection process for female candidates that include not only cumulative grade point average (CGPA) but also willingness and commitment to enter the teaching profession.
 - Development of a system of incentives such as bursary programs for female students to motivate and interest them to join tertiary level institutions. Such measures would especially be of a great assistance to the prospective teachers who are already married and with children.
 - Preparation and provision of career pamphlets portraying positive images of teachers, especially female teachers to counteract the negative perceptions that students have about teaching and female teachers.
- 3) The recruitment, promotion and training opportunities at government universities require an important focus. Consequently the following are recommended:
- Specific guide lines should be prepared and implemented by the institutions for recruitment. The guide line could include:
 - Actively recruiting women with the minimum requirements without putting them in competition with men.
 - Structuring the composition of the selection committee to ensure that there are equal or a significant number of women on the team.
 - Developing and implementing gender specific priority incentives such as housing, child support services and making attempts at spouse unifications and ensuring that applicants are aware of these provisions prior to application to join as faculty.
- 4) According to the responses of the women faculty criteria for promotion and training emphasize qualities in which men excel and women are weak such as research and publication out puts, services in academic committees and administrative positions such as department headship. Attempts should be made to:
- Include criteria where women have shown to be strong namely teaching and student support.
 - Organize short-term training courses for women in doing research, preparing teaching material to initiate their interest and develop the

knowledge and skills required to do research and prepare teaching materials.

- Giving priority to women when opportunities for further education and training are available.
 - Conduct leadership training to strengthen women's leadership qualities and provide them with skills to aspire towards and take responsibilities.
 - Appointing women to decision making posts such as deanship, vice deanship and raising the awareness of members of the universities about the potentials and capabilities of women.
- 5) Double workload seems to have serious impact on the performance of women faculty as stated by the respondents. The concerned higher learning institutions should be looking into these situations that are problematic for women and provide support. The support could include.
- Checking their teaching assignments as well as other assigned tasks and making adjustments in their load and schedules especially during pregnancy, birth and early childhood care and development and other gender specific situations that become problematic to women faculty.
- 6) The prevalent negative attitudes, behaviors and practices of the Ethiopian culture towards women seem to be perpetuated in the work place. Consequently,
- Discussion forums and sensitization trainings should be formally and continuously conducted in the respective universities to develop awareness and positive practices regarding the status of women. This would ensure the development of positive attitudes and behaviors towards women as teachers.
 - An "Honor a Female Teacher" practice where female teachers are recognized and rewarded for good performance be a tradition to motivate female faculty and enhance role modeling.
- 7) Encouraging the setting up of professional females association. According to Almaz and Jung (1990) the forming of females' professional association has many advantages. For instance, it can help them to articulate their needs, interests and problems to government and policy makers with a unified voice.

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Appendix A

Addis Ababa University College of Graduate studies Department of Education planning and management

General Instruction

Purpose

This study is devoted to investigate some of the major factors that may contribute to the under representation of women in the teaching profession in government universities of Ethiopia. In order to undertake the survey this questionnaire has been designed with a view to shed light on the entire problem.

The information collected through the questionnaire and interview items will be used by the investigator for strictly academic purposes. You are kindly requested to answer the items of the questionnaire and interview carefully and honestly. Because your responses have a great say for the success of the investigation.

Please read the instructions carefully before you answer the items.

If you want to change any of your responses, please make sure that you have cancelled the unwanted ones.

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

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation!

Research Title: the participation of women in the teaching profession in government universities in Ethiopia

Part I. Questionnaire filled by female faculty

Personal Data

1. Name of your institution _____

2. Age

i. below 20 ☐

iii. 30-39 ☐

ii. 20-29 ☐

iv. 40-49 ☐

v. 50 and above ☐

3. Marital status

i. Married ☐

ii. Single ☐

4. years of experience in teaching

i. 1-5 ☐

iii. 11-15 ☐

ii. 6-10 ☐

iv. 16-20 ☐

v. 21 and above ☐

5. Academic rank

i. Graduate assistant ☐

iv. Assistant professor ☐

ii. Assistant lecturer ☐

v. Associate professor ☐

iii. Lecturer ☐

vi. Professor ☐

6. Level of education

i. B.A /B.Ed/ B.Sc ☐

ii. M.A/M.SC ☐

iii. Ph. D ☐

7. Field of special _____

8. Number of children raised

i. 1-3 ☐

ii. More than 3 ☐

iii. None ☐

9. How long has it been since you got your last academic rank?

Part II. Below are questions related to recruitment, promotion and training of faculty members.

Please put an "X" mark against your responses or write your responses in brief as the question demands.

1. Do you think that women are discriminated against recruitment in your department?

A. yes ☐

B. No ☐

2. If you do feel that the numbers of women faculty are small compared to their male counterparts in your department, is this due to:

A. Small numbers of eligible candidates ☐

B. Weak recruitment procedure (criteria) of the university ☐

C. other (please specify) _____

3. Which criteria are given more weight during academic staff recruitment in your institution?

A. CGPA ☐

B. Performance during interview session ☐

C. Work experience ☐

D. Letter of recommendation ☐

E. Other (please specify) _____

4. What ever your choice for question No "3" please indicate the weight give to each in percent _____

5. Is priority given for female candidates during recruitment in your university?

☐☐

A. yes

B. No

6. If your answer to question No "5" is "No" please indicate your reasons below

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iii. _____

7. Do you think that the current rules and regulations of your institution are an advantage for women faculty with regard to?

7.1 Recruitment

Yes ☐

No ☐

7.2 Promotion

Yes ☐

No ☐

8. If your response to question No "7" is to the negative please try listing them the reasons.

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

9. What was your source of information when you applied to become lecturer in your department?

A. notice board ☐

B. magazines and news papers ☐

C. TV and Radio ☐

D. informed by colleagues ☐

E. _____ other

(specify)

10. Do you think that there is a gender bias in the composition of the members of the interview committees during academic staff selection process?

A. Yes ☐

B. No ☐

11. In your situation how many female were included in the interview committee?

12. If your answer to question No "11" is "Yes" how do you think that it affects female candidates performance during interviewing?

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

13. With whom do you feel comfortable to create close relationship in your work environment?

A. male colleagues ☐

B. female colleagues ☐

C. both ☐

14. Below are some of the conditions supposed to be constraints to women becoming lecturer in universities. Please, Rank in order of importance the various conditions that you perceive as major constraints to women becoming faculty members in higher institutions ("1"= the most important condition, "8"= the least important condition)

Conditions		Rank in order of importance							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Small number of female students in higher institutions compared to male students								
2	Female students have low CGPA at the time of graduation								
3	Females don't choose teaching posts in universities, even if they have the required CGPA.								
4	Lack of role models of women who have succeeded in those careers as men do have.								
5	Family pressure on their daughters not to become a teacher								
6	Female faculty don't receive the respect males get from students								
7	Teaching in university is regarded as men's domain								
8	Female faculty experience improper sexual advances from men								

15. Do women get equal chance of promotion in your department?

A. yes ☐ B. No ☐

16. If your response to question No "15" is to the negative, please mention the reasons for women's slower chance of promotion.

i. _____ iii. _____
 ii. _____ iv. _____

17. What are the criteria required for determining promotion in your University? Try listing them

i. _____ iii. _____
 ii. _____ iv. _____

18. Among the criteria you listed in question "17" above which criteria are given more weight in determining promotion?

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

19. What do you think the reasons are for slower promotion of women compared to their male counter parts?

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

20. What are the criteria required for further training in your department?

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

21. Is there any priority for female faculty during selection process for further training?

A. yes ☐ B. No ☐

22. If your answer to question No "21" No "Yes" please list down the reasons below

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

23. What personal constraints deter women from benefiting training opportunities? List them

- i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

24. Below are some of the institutional barriers that contribute to the slower promotion of women faculty. Please rank them in order of importance "1" denoting the most important reason for slower promotion of women and "5"= the least proportion reason)

Reasons		Rank order				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The weight given to research and publications in determining promotion					
2	Female are not given opportunities for further education					
3	Double work load of women					
4	Application of promotion criteria tailored for male situations (e.g. leadership role)					
5	Boss's influence (both male and female who deny females' chance of progress)					

25. What are the personal constraints you faced as a women faculty related to your dual role? Please mention the constraints

A. _____ C. _____
B. _____ D. _____

26. How do you label the help you obtain from your husband for family and home making roles?

A. High ☐ B. Moderate ☐ C. Low ☐

27. If you feel that the low representation of women faculty in higher education institutions is the result of their low representation as students in higher institutions? What are the factors that contribute to the later case?

i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

28. Do you have any additional responsibilities other than teaching?

A. yes ☐ B. No ☐

29. If your answer to question No "28" is "Yes" please specify it below.

30. How do you perceive administrators of your respective institutions?

A. Co-operative ☐
B. Sympathetic ☐
C. Bossy ☐
D. Having negative attitude to wards women faculty ☐

31. How do you label your department heads evaluation of your performance as women faculty member?

A. fair ☐ B. unfair ☐

32. If your answer for question No "31" is "B" what are your reasons to say so? Please list your reasons below.

i. _____ iii. _____
ii. _____ iv. _____

33. Do you think that family commitments take much of your time than professional activities?

A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

34. Do you think that affirmative action practices exercised in higher institutions are right actions with regard to women faculty employment?

A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

35. Have you ever encountered any form of unwanted sexual advances from male students or staff?

A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

36. What measures you recommend to be taken in order to encourage women to become instructors and advance in their career?

PART II Some of the Interview Questions Presented to Women Faculty

1. Do you think that women are discriminated against recruitment in your University? Please, brief your responses.
2. Is priority given to women during recruitment or promotion in your institution? What ever your responses, please mention your reasons.
3. In your opinion what are the institutional constraints that contribute to the low representation of women faculty in your institution in general, and in your Department in particular?
4. As woman faculty how do you see your dual role?
5. Have you ever faced conflict emanating from your dual roles?
6. (If there are any) what are the major barriers operating against promotion of female faculty in general and your own situation in particular?
7. If you feel that the low representation of women as teachers is the cumulative effects of their low representation as students in higher institutions, what do you think are the reasons for the latter case to occur?
8. How do you perceive administrators in your institution?
9. Do you fill that your department head's evaluation of your performance is fair? Please, brief your responses
10. What do you consider to be some of the measures that should be taken to encourage women to become instructors and advance in their career?

Appendix B

Questions answered by male faculty

I. Basic Data

1. The name of your institution _____

2. Age

i. Below 20 ☐

iii. 30-39 ☐

ii. 20-29 ☐

iv. 40-49 ☐

v. 50 and above ☐

3. Marital status

i. Married ☐

ii. Single ☐

4. Years of experience in teaching

i. 1-5 ☐

iii. 11-15 ☐

ii. 6-10 ☐

iv. 16-20 ☐

v. 21 and above ☐

5. Academic rank

i. Graduate assistant ☐

iv. Assistant professor ☐

ii. Assistant lecturer ☐

v. Associate professor ☐

iii. Lecturer ☐

vi. Professor ☐

Ok a new page!

7. Level of education

i. B.A/B.Ed/B.SC

☐

iii Ph.D

☐

ii. M.A/M.SC

☐

8. Field of specialization _____

II Direction: please fill in the questions below by putting an "X" mark against your responses. For items that require open answers writer down your responses briefly in the blank spaces corresponding to the items.

1. Do you think that women are discriminated against recruitment in your institutions?

A. Yes ☐

B. No ☐

2. if you do feel that the number of women faculty are small compared to their male counter parts in your department, is this due to:

A. small number of eligible candidates

☐

B. weak recruitment criteria of the university

☐

3. Which criteria are given more weight during staff recruitment in your institutions?

A. CGPA ☐

B. Performance during interview session

☐

C. Work experience

☐

D. Letter of recommendation

☐

E. other (please, specify) _____

4. Is priority given for women candidates during recruitment in your institution?

A. Yes ☐

B. No ☐

5. Do women get equal chance of promotion in your department?

A. Yes ☐

B. No ☐

6. If your response to question No "15" is to the negative please mention the reasons below

i. _____

iii. _____

ii. _____

7. What are the criteria required for promotion in your institution? Please list them

i. _____

iii. _____

ii. _____

8. What are the criteria required for further training in your university?

i. _____

iii. _____

ii. _____

iv. _____

9. Below are some of the conditions supposed to be constraints to women faculty becoming lecturer in universities? Please, Rank in-order of importance the various conditions that you perceive as major constraints to women becoming faculty members in higher institutions ("1"= most important condition "8"= the least important condition)

Conditions		Rank in order of importance							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Small number of female students in higher institutions compared to male students								
2	Female students have low CGPA at the time of graduation								
3	Family pressure on their daughters not to be come a teacher								
4	Females don't choose teaching posts in universities even if they have the required CGPA								
5	Lack of role models of women who have succeeded in those career as men do have								
6	Female faculty do not receive the respect male get from students								
7	Teaching in university is regarded as men's do main								
8	Female faculty experience improper sexual advances from men								

10. How do you perceive women faculty in your department in terms of academic competence?

- A. Highly competent ☐
- B. Equally competent ☐
- C. Undecided ☐
- D. Less competent ☐
- E. Highly incompetent ☐

2. What are the criteria used for recruitment, training and promotion in your institution?
 - A. Recruitment criteria _____
 - B. Promotion criteria _____
 - C. Training criteria _____
3. Is priority given to women candidate during recruitments promotion or training as for as your university concerned?
4. Do you think that women faculty is as competent as their male counter parts in academic matters?
5. What conditions do you think are operating against females during recruitment?
6. What personnel and institutional constraints women encounter to become faculty members? Please list them.
 - A. Personal constraints _____
 - B. Institutional constraints _____
7. Are there any clear affirmative action guides line with regard to recruitment and promotion of women faculty?
8. In your opinion, what should be done to encourage women to join the teaching force of higher institutions in general and your universe in in particular?

Appendix D

Addis Ababa University College of graduate studies Department of Educational Planning and Management

**Questionnaire filled by some selected regular undergraduate
Students in the faculties of Education of the target universities**

This questionnaire is designed to touch upon such issues as the views students have about their present training and further career aspirations, and their perceptions and preferences of female/male teachers and attitudes toward female teachers.

Please, Don't write your name in any part of the questionnaire

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation!

**Research Title: the participation of women in the teaching profession in
government universities in Ethiopia**

I. Back ground information

1. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Age _____

3. Grade level (year) _____

4. Department _____

II. Direction: for the question items below put an "X" mark on your choice or write your responses briefly when the questions demand.

1. Is it your choice to join your current department in the faculties of Education?

A. yes ☐

B. No ☐

2. If your answer to question No "1" is to the negative, please specify the procedures how you were assigned to your current field of study below

i. _____ ii. _____

3. Are you happy being trained as would be teachers?

A. yes ☐

B. No ☐

4. What ever your choice, please try listing them the reasons below.

i. _____

iii. _____

ii. _____

iv. _____

5. Do you think that female teachers are equally competent as men in teaching responsibilities?

A. Yes ☐

b. No ☐

6. Are there unique characteristics that are attributed to women that make them good teachers?

A. yes ☐

B. No ☐

7. If your response for question No "6" is "Yes" please list down the traits in order of importance

i. _____

iv. _____

ii. _____

v. _____

iii. _____

8. Whom do you prefer to teach you?

Male instructor ☐

Female instructor ☐

9. Your response to question No "8" might be "male or female teachers". List down the traits that probe you prefer male to female or vice versa in order of importance

i. Male teachers

a. _____

c. _____

b. _____

d. _____

ii. Female teachers

a. _____

c. _____

b. _____

d. _____