

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF
GRADUATE STUDIES**

**CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FACING WOMEN
MANAGERS IN OROMIA REGIONAL STATE BUREAUS AND
OFFICES**

BY:

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Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT
MANAGEMENT

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OFFICES

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Acronyms and Symbol

Acronyms

CEDAW	Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
OBFED	Oromia Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
OCSCO	Oromia Civil Service Commission
OESA	Oromia Education Statistical Abstract
ORS	Oromia Regional State
OWAP	Oromia Women's Affaire Policy
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
WB	World Bank

Symbol

\bar{X}	Mean
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Abstract

The study is generally intended to investigate challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the executive branch regional level bureaus and offices of the Oromia region. Moreover, it is concerned with identifying attitude of subordinates towards women managers' behavior, and identifying initiatives taken by the organizations and regional government to resolve women managers' problems. To attain these objectives data is collected from secondary and primary sources .Primary data is collected from women and men managers as well as their subordinates using survey questionnaire and semi structured interview schedules. Secondary data is collected from regional gender related policy documents. The data is presented and analyzed descriptively using percentages, mean and independent sample t-test by the help of SPSS version 13. Furthermore, relevant literatures are also reviewed. It is found that women are generally underrepresented in regional bureaus and offices and the majority of them are not adequately qualified. They do not have better opportunities to hold managerial jobs both in large and newly established executive branch bureaus and offices. Furthermore, they are equally under-represented at all levels of management hierarchy in the study universe. Gap in gender policies, human resource management in its practices, organizational culture and personal barriers are the major challenges for women to join and steps forward in managerial jobs. Despite this fact, the attitudes of both sex subordinates towards women managers are found relatively encouraging. Regional executive branch bureaus and offices, and the regional government have taken some encouraging initiatives to increase women's share of managerial positions. But they are not adequate to dismantle the "glass ceiling" and "glass walls" in managerial occupations although current political environment and international institutions' pressure among others are the available opportunities. Generally, women managers have encountered challenges both within the organization and outside of the organization. The challenges are conditioned by institutional and non institutional factors. Thus, in addition to using available opportunities, policy intervention and collective effort of stakeholders are generally recommended to eliminate the challenges facing women managers in the executive branch regional bureaus and offices of the Oromia state.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. 1. Background of the Study

Woman- “designed by God to be ‘better half’ but sliced to ‘half’ by Man” - has been facing tremendous and numerous problems in every society throughout the world. They have been deprived of and denied in all matters which affect their life. Yet, not surprising many people-both males and females- find difficulty to perceive that women constitute an oppressed group. In most societies they are regarded as if they are created to serve their male partners. In some societies they are treated as the property of their husbands. Generally, women experience unequal treatment in political, social and economic matters in every nation (Wirth , 2001).

Notwithstanding, with some improvement, women continue to be drastically underrepresented in the halls of government. They are forced to occupy very few decision making positions. Sociologists and social workers note that the problem of sexism is the most serious barrier in women’s development in the political environment. First, they are prejudiced by both men and women regarding their fitness for leadership. Secondly, those who are elected/appointed encounter prejudice, discrimination and abuse in the work environment. Thirdly, despite these problems, some of elected/appointed women consider themselves as incapable. As a result, in no nation do women account for 50 percent of the legislators (Longwe, 2000). This generally implies the women’s powerlessness in all nations.

Social discrimination against women is reflected in a number of ways. Women do not have equal access to social services such as education and health. Despite the majority of them are illiterate, those who break through in education are not entitled to occupy higher positions. For instance, higher positions such as: university professors and college administrators which hold relatively high status in most society are generally reserved for men. In contrast, public school teachers and public health workers, who have relatively lower status, are largely dominated by females (Wirth, 2001).

Gender issues have got much more attention worldwide today. Many social researchers are highly interested in the issues of gender and have conducted various studies from different

perspectives and indicated the challenges women have been facing in the development process. Almost all gender discrimination problems have been assessed more or less. Accordingly, many governments have included gender issues in their laws and made different policies to bridge gender discrimination gap (Wirth , 2001).

Despite these efforts, gender discrimination problems have not been uprooted because of many interdependent factors. This implies that in addition to enacting laws and formulating policies that address gender issues, nations have to work hard to bridge gender discriminations if they are to attain the essence of integrated development program initiatives.

To tackle the deep-rooted problems that women have been facing and for growth to be translated into social development, a more long lasting solution is necessary which will empower women and transform society so that women and men can live and work as equal partners regardless of class or national location. It should be also noted that an integrated approach is a make or break affair for successes. This indicates that women alone cannot solve their problems and hence all government organizations, and private investors and the society at large should collectively develop integrated working system if women are to benefit from the success of development efforts.

Similar to all nations in general and developing countries (regions) in particular, women have been facing different interdependent problems in the Oromia National Regional State. In the domain of political and other decision making environment, women are underrepresented both in the public and private sectors. Socially, they are also experiencing many problems. The socio cultural and traditional practices such as early age marriage, genital organ mutilation and unequal access to social service like health and education as to their male colleagues are only a few to be mentioned. Discrimination in the access to economic assets is another challenge women experience in the region. In the labor market, their labor goes usually unpaid or under paid. Socially, women are not allowed to succeed productive assets from the predecessors. In short, women have no equal access to all development factors and fruits as their male counterparts do have in the region (OWAP, 2005).

In response to the problems women have been facing, the Oromia Regional Government encourages affirmative actions and has enacted and formulated different laws and policies that address gender issues. The regional government has also established Women's Affairs Bureau,

Departments and Offices at Regional, Zonal and *Woreda* (District) government levels respectively for successful accomplishment and coordination of gender issues. Furthermore, the regional laws and policies demand all organizations in the region to include gender issues in their development plans.

Although encouraging efforts have been made by the regional government, to enhance women's access to managerial positions, women have been almost denied decision making positions. Appreciating encouraging effort, identifying the number of women managers at each levels of management and critically analyzing the challenges and opportunities women managers face in the dynamic environment become very essential to find out appropriate solutions. Assessing the activities of all concerned parties is also very essential to take corrective actions timely. Therefore, this study attempts to find out the challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the Oromia National Regional level Bureaus and Offices.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Management is traditionally considered as men's occupations. Because of this traditional attitude women face many challenges to hold and progress in managerial positions in addition to other barriers. In spite of this, in recent years the number of women managers has been increasing worldwide. Based on hierarchal order, however, they are concentrated at lower levels. They could not be able to breakthrough to the top management positions (Wirth, 2001). Wirth explained that in addition to the "glass ceiling" effect that hinders the going up in the organizational hierarchy, women managers are expected to face more problem than men managers. This is because they experience challenges both at paid work /job and unpaid house hold tasks. Other forces are also created pressure on women managers and forced them to work highly under stressful conditions as compared to men counterparts.

In response to the challenges facing women in the Oromia region, the regional government has taken different initiatives. The regional government has formulated different policies to avoid gender discrimination problems in employment and other development activities. Although the responses of Oromia Regional Government to solve the problems of women are encouraging generally, they are not able to enhance women's share of managerial positions. In this regard, the Oromia Civil Service Commission (2007) reported that out of total appointed civil servants women constituted only 11 percent in 2006/07 Ethiopian fiscal year. The report, however, do

not show the distribution of women managers in management ladder. It also failed to indicate the size of women managers who hold managerial positions through merit system. Furthermore, even for the appointed women managers their distribution at different levels of government and branches of government were not indicated clearly. Despite these facts, generally the figure indicates that women are underrepresented in managerial jobs in the Oromia regional state governmental organizations. The Oromia Women Affairs Policy (2005) also indicated existence of persistent gender discrimination in occupations and other aspects of development. Thus, the adequacy of the initiatives taken by concerned bodies to enhance women's share of managerial positions at all levels is questionable. Therefore, adequately identifying all the challenges and opportunities facing women managers is very essential for decision-making. Accordingly, this study was devoted to provide adequate information on the challenges and opportunities facing women managers in Oromia Regional bureaus and offices. Basic research questions of the study include:

1. What is the percentage distribution of managerial positions by women managers in the management hierarchy in the executive branch bureaus and offices of Oromia?
2. What is the attitude of subordinates towards women managers' behavior and performance in the executive branch bureaus and offices of Oromia?
3. What challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the executive branch regional bureaus and offices?
4. What personal challenges do women managers are facing (that limit their managerial performance and chance of holding better management positions) outside of their bureaus and offices?
5. What are the initiatives taken by the regional bureaus and offices and the regional government to solve challenges of women managers?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to find out and analyze the challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices. The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To identify the percentage distribution of managerial positions by women managers in the management hierarchy in the executive branch bureaus and offices of Oromia;
2. To identify the attitude of subordinates towards women managers' behavior and performance in the executive branch bureaus and offices of Oromia;
3. To identify and analyze the challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the regional bureaus and offices ;
4. To identify and analyze personal challenges of women managers that limit their chance of holding better managerial positions outside of their bureaus and offices; and
5. To find out initiatives taken by regional bureaus and offices and the regional government of Oromia to solve the problems of women managers.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The study would be significant for decision makers and academicians. The study would provide up to date valuable information on the status of women in management and the challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the region. Secondly, since the study intends to indicate important areas of policy interventions it would allow decision makers to revisit and correct existing gaps and thereby facilitates situations to realize gender equality in managerial occupations in the regional bureaus and offices. The study would also be significant for academicians. It could serve as a base for academicians to conduct further research work in the area. That is the possible gaps and the identified limitations of the study might initiate researchers for further research work. In short the study would also be significant because the result could inspire decision makers to make policy interventions and initiate further research work and hence could contribute to problem solving and knowledge building simultaneously.

1.5. Scope of the Study

Generally, the scope of the study is limited to the executive branch regional level bureaus and offices of Oromia Regional State. The legislative and the judiciary organs of government are not included. Zonal and District (Woreda) level executive branch administrative offices are not also included in the study. Furthermore, the study covers the period between 2002/03-2006/7. This research concentrates only to a section of human resource i.e. the women managers and to micro-human resource functional areas of “challenges and opportunities”. Other human resource functions related to and “strengths and weaknesses” of and “conflicts and tensions” encountered by women managers have been excluded from the scope of the study.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

There are three major limitations of the study. For one, the type of managerial occupations held by women managers is not considered. Alternatively the share and distribution of different managerial jobs (supportive and strategic) among women managers are not investigated. For the other, the impacts of the difference in managerial activities between women and men managers on women’s share of managerial positions are not adequately investigated. Thirdly, interview is conducted only with focal persons (Gender Officers and Head of Women Affairs Bureau). Given that the responses of the interviewees are not cross checked with other expected officials the study could experience limitations consequentially. Generally, the study experienced weaknesses because of lack of addressing women managers’ types of occupations, inadequate investigation about the impact of difference in management styles between women and men managers on women’s share of management, and slightly limited generalization due to lack of involving other concerned officials in the interview. And, these gaps are expected to be filled up by other researchers.

1.7. Research Design and Methodology

1.7.1. Type of Research

The study was aimed at analyzing and presenting the existing challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the regional bureaus and offices of Oromia State. Hence, descriptive type (survey) of research method was used. In other words, collected data was analyzed descriptively with out control over the variables of the study.

1.7.2. Population of the Study

The population of the study were both women and men managers in the regional level executive branch bureaus and offices of Oromia State. Male managers were included to identify their attitude towards female managers. Both sexes' subordinates were also included in the study to identify their attitudes towards women managers. In short, both sex's managers in management hierarchy as well as their subordinates (both sex) were the population of the study.

1.7.3. Sample Size

For primary data, 30 percent of men managers (185) and all women managers (20) were included in the study. Women managers were totally included in the study because their size in terms of number was very few compared with men counterparts. With respect to subordinates 15 percent from each sex (male=517, female=417) were included in the sample. Finally, out of 33 executive branch's regional level bureaus and offices 30 percent (10 in number) were included in the sample.

1.7.4. Sampling Design and Sampling Technique

To select representative sample from population of both sexes' subordinates stratified sampling technique was used. This sampling technique was preferred to enhance the accuracy of the study. From the types of stratified sampling (disproportionate stratified sampling and proportionate stratified sampling) proportionate stratified sampling was used to draw proportional size of sample from each stratum; male and female subordinates. Sample of both sex subordinates were drawn using simple random sampling technique. To draw sample from men managers' population simple random sampling technique was used to allow equal chance for members of the population to be included in the sample. Similarly sample bureaus and offices were selected using random sampling method. Samples were drawn from each population of the study using lottery method of simple random sampling technique except in the case of women manager where census was used to collect data because of their greater under-representation. Sampling frame was obtained from employees' payroll and 2005/06 employee's placement as a result of organizational restructuring document (for managerial employees). Organizational restructuring document of the stated year was used as sampling frame because most managers were changed their previous positions as a result of business reengineering (which was on pilot test during data

collection) in most sampled regional bureaus and offices. To summarize, disproportionate stratified sampling technique, simple random sampling technique and census were used to collect data from the population of the study. Employee payroll and employee placement due to organizational restructuring document were used as sampling frame and samples were drawn from the population using lottery method except in case of women managers. And hence, conclusions of the study have become sound despite indicated limitations.

1.7.5. Data Source and Type of Data

Both primacy and secondary data were collected from all available sources within the scope of the study. As secondary data source the Constitution of FDRE, the Constitution of the Regional State of Oromia, the Civil Servants Proclamation of the Regional State, the Family Code of the Regional State, Disciplinary and Grievance Procedure Regulation of the Regional State, Human Resource Management Directive of the Regional State, and Regional Women Affairs Policy were used. Furthermore, human resource profile report of the region which was compiled by the Oromia Civil Service Commission, and organizational restructuring and employee placement documents were reviewed. Primary data was collected using questionnaires and interview guides. The data were of both quantitative and qualitative in types.

1.7.6. Data Gathering Tools

Two data gathering tools were used for collecting data from primary data sources. Secondary data was collected using review and inspection of the indicated source documents. Questionnaires and interviews were utilized to collect data from primary sources. The questionnaire was by and large closed ended types. Only one open ended questions was included at the end in order to solicit respondents for recommendations. Questionnaires for managers and subordinates were slightly different from each other. In the questionnaires variables were measured in nominal and ordinal scales. The majority of the variables were attitudinal and measured using Likert scale with five response categories (strongly agree, ---, strongly disagree). The Likert scale method was preferred to make questions interesting to respondents and thereby enhance their cooperation; ultimately to ensure maximum response rate (Robson Colin, 2002). Semi-structured type of interview was used for an interview so as to ensure flexibility and avoid unnecessary inconveniences. Questionnaires and interview questions were translated into *Afan*

Oromo (Annex 5 and annex 6). English (Annex 3 and Annex 4) version and the translated questionnaires and interview guide (Annex 7) have been annexed.

1.7.7. Procedure of Data Collection

A questionnaire which was translated into *Afan Oromo* was administered to sample respondents at their work place (bureaus and offices) personally. Respondents were briefly told about the purpose of the study and encouraged to cooperate. Collection of responded questionnaire is started after a week from date of administration and continued for a month. Interview was conducted with interviewees by appointment. The interview period was almost managed within an hour for every interview except with the Head of Women Affairs Bureau which took about an hour and half. Interview was conducted parallel to collection of responded questionnaire and was completed with interview of Head of Oromia Women Affairs Bureau a month later after first interview with gender officer at the Oromia Water Resources Bureau. To obtain data from secondary sources, concerned officials were approached and some of the available documents were photocopied while others were returned to the officials after being reviewed

1.7.8. Response Rate and Data Coding

Questionnaire was distributed to 56 men managers (30 percent of population) and 20 women managers. Questionnaire was also administered to 76 male and 63 female subordinates. The response rate for men and women managers was 80 percent and 90 percent respectively. The response rate for male and female subordinates was 84 percent and 87 percent correspondingly. Out of the total response rate of men and women managers 84 percent and 89 percent of the questionnaire was used for analysis. Similarly 88 percent and 91 percent questionnaires filled by male and female subordinates were used for analysis. The remaining questionnaire filled by managers and subordinates were rejected because of two major reasons. For one, most of rejected questionnaires were filled by respondents carelessly. For the other, there were many missing values in some of the questionnaires responded by participants. In short questionnaires that were filled carelessly and had missing values were rejected. In coding the responses, male respondents were given code number “1” and female respondents were given code number “2”. Positive attitudinal scales statements were coded as (strongly agree (5), ----strongly disagree (1)) while negative statements were coded in the opposite direction (strongly agree (1), -----, strongly disagree (5)). The remaining variables of interest were coded starting with code number “1” for

the first variable and proceed to end accordingly following the natural number order. Open ended questions and interviews responses were not coded and were simply narrated at suitable place.

1.7.9. Method of Data Analysis

Collected Data from primary sources were organized and interred into SPSS version 13 program (computer operated software program). Data collected from secondary sources were organized manually. Quantitative data were presented in tabular form. Quantitative data were presented and discussed in narrative forms. Percentages and ratio (for few secondary data) were computed for secondary data and to present demographic features of women and men managers' respondents. Mean, standard deviation, standard error mean, and a two tailed independent sample t- test at 95 percent confidence interval was computed for all variables of interest using SPSS version 13. However, in the analysis only the results of mean and t-test value were used. Independent sample t-test was employed to compare means of women and men managers' respondents, and means of male and female subordinates respondents and thereby determine the extent of challenges or opportunities facing women managers. Two tailed t-test was utilized with the basic assumption that variance of the two group are approximately equal (homogeneity of variance). The upper value of "t" was used when equal variances were assumed (homogeneity between population was not violated) while the lower value of "t" was used when equal variances were not assumed. Levene's test for equality of variances value of "F" and "Sig" were compared to decide the value of "t" to be used. When Levene's test for equality of variance for value "F" was less than the value of "Sig", the upper value of "t" was used; implying homogeneity between populations was not violated. Conversely, when Levene's test for equality of variance for value "F" was greater than the value of "Sig" the lower value of "t" was used (SPPS.1997). A two tailed independent t- test was used to identify the extent of similarity/difference between the two groups of population (men and women managers, and male and female subordinates) over variables of interest and make implications accordingly. Qualitative data were analyzed in narrative forms using direct quotation technique.

1.8. Organization of the Thesis

The Thesis has been subdivided into four chapters. The first chapter deals with the introduction of the study. The next reviews literature in the area. The third chapter is concerned with data analysis, interpretation and discussion of findings. Finally, the last chapter is on conclusions and policy implications and recommendations. At the end there is a bibliography and some annexes.

1.9. Definition of important terms

1. Glass ceiling refers to “the invisible artificial barriers, created by attitudinal and organizational prejudices, which block women from senior executive positions” (Wirth, 2001). It is vertical barrier.
2. Glass wall is a mirror of occupational segregation patterns which restricts women managers to areas less central or strategic in organization and concentrates them in certain areas (Wirth, 2001). It is horizontal barrier.
3. Challenges refer to all factors that restrain women managers to perform managerial duties effectively and advance in managerial occupations.
4. Opportunities in this study denote all factors/situations that could facilitate better conditions for women managers to perform managerial duties successfully and hold better managerial jobs.
5. Manager refers a person who has at least one follower and makes decision about the allocation of resources.
6. Top management level denotes managerial group that are found at the top of the organization and makes strategic decision
7. Middle management represents those managers who are responsible to translate strategic decisions of top management and serve as a bridge between top and lower level management.
8. Initiatives designate positive measures taken by organization or government to create suitable environment for women to join and advance in managerial occupation.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

Women have been under- represented in managerial jobs and in the halls of government. Many explanations are given by different scholars for the under- representation of women in management. The challenges facing women managers are also identified. To overcome the obstacles many solutions have been recommended. Different policies have been made for promoting women in management both at international and national levels. In this chapter we shall review the literature related to the status of women in management and leadership positions, policies for promoting women in management, status of women in Ethiopia, challenges faced by women managers and leaders, and solutions to overcome the challenges of women in management and leadership and conceptual framework of the study.

2.2. Conceptual Framework

2.2.1. Definition of Management

Many authors have defined management in many different ways. In this study management is conceptualized as the process of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling systematically the works of all organizational members and other resources to achieve both organizational and employees' goals. Furthermore, a manager in this study refers to a person who has at least one follower and makes decision about the allocation of resources.

2.2.2. Human Resource Management

Human resource management is concerned with effective and efficient utilization human resource in the organization. It is the systematic approach to management of capabilities of people in organization. Mondy and Noe (1990) defined human resource management as “the effective utilization of human resources to achieve organizational objectives”. Human resource management encompasses different activities often called human resources management functions. Basically these functions address all issues from human resource planning to separation of employees from the organization. For the sake of the present study, human

resources recruitment and selection, human resource performance appraisal, human resource training and development, and human resource career development are found highly relevant. These human resource functions are conceptualized briefly as follows.

2.2.2.1. Human Resource Recruitment and Selection

According to Mondy and Noe (1990) recruitment refers to “the process of attracting individuals on a timely basis, in sufficient numbers and with appropriate qualification, and encouraging them to apply for jobs in an organization”. Recruitment is concerned with filling both present and anticipated vacancies that might exist in the future because of different situation. Recruitment is influenced by both internal and external environmental factors. Werther et al., (1996) defined human resource selection as the process of choosing the best candidate among job applicants to fill vacant positions that are created in the organization. Employee selection has a number of implications on human resource, management. Mondy and Noe (1990), Werther et al., (1996) and Chatterjee(1990) indicated that employee selection should be based on systematic approach so as to benefit from selection decision. They underscored that organization should design appropriate employee selection system and practice them effectively.

2.2.2.2. Human Resource Performance Appraisal

Human resource performance appraisal refers to the identification, measurement and management of employee’s performance in organization. Fundamentally human resources appraisal result is used for human resource administrative decision (promotion, demotion, transfer etc), employee’s feedback and development, and human resources policy and program evaluation. In order to serve these objectives human resource performance evaluation ought to be based on appropriate appraisal design and techniques depending on the situation. Generally it is suggested that employees’ performance evaluation should be based on objective facts and avoid bias as much as possible for the common good of organization and employee (Mondy& Noe, 1990; Werther et al., 1996; and Chatterjee , 1990).

2.2.2.3. Human Resource Development

Human resource development is planned, continuous effort by management to improve employees’ competency level and organizational performance through training, education and development programs (Mondy& Noe, 1990). With respect to the importance of human resource

development, Scarpello and Leduinka (1988) pointed out that in the absence of appropriate human resource development programs; recruiting, selecting, orienting and then placing employees in jobs do not ensure success. Furthermore, they have indicated that an appropriate human resource development program that is based on need analysis greatly benefits both organizations and employees.

2.2.2.4. Career Development

Career development is the personnel activity which helps individuals plan their future careers within the organization in order to help the organization achieve its objectives and the employee achieve maximum self development (Werther et al, 1996). The principal aim of career development is to help employees analyze their abilities and interests to better match personnel needs for growth and development with the needs of organization. In addition career development is a critical tool through which management can increase productivity, improves employees' attitudes toward work, and develop greater worker satisfaction. To attain the desired objectives it is suggested that career development programs should emphasize; career equity, supervisory concern, awareness of opportunities, employees' interest and career satisfaction of employees.

2.2.3. Leadership Theories

Leadership is defined in many different ways. Almost all authors agree that leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives. Leadership in this study is defined as the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members.

There are many approaches to leadership. The approaches, however, systematically can be grouped into three broad theories. These include; trait approaches to leadership, the behavioral approaches to leadership, and the situational approaches to leadership. Each discussed below briefly.

2.2.3. 1. Trait Approach to Leadership

Trait approach to leadership is the oldest leadership perspective. The approach is devoted to identify the traits that distinguish leaders and non-leaders. Accordingly, advocates of the approach try to identify the traits of leaders. The identified traits include; intelligence,

dominance, self-confidence, physical energy, tasks related to knowledge, integrity and honesty. According to trait leadership theorists, these characteristics are relatively stable and enduring. They also believe that all individuals do not have these qualities, only those who had them would be considered potential leaders. Consequently, they suggest leadership training would be helpful only to those with inherent leadership traits. The approach is criticized for its failure to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders (Griffin & Moorhead, 2001; Hersey, Balchard, et al., 2001)

2.2.3.2. Behavioral Approach to Leadership

The behavioral approach to leadership is emerged against the critics of the trait approach to leadership. In this approach, personal characteristics are considered less important than the actual behaviors leaders' exhibit and hence devoted to determine what behaviors are associated with effective leadership.

The behavioral approach to study leadership includes three studies or sub-approaches. These are the Michigan studies, the Ohio State studies, and the Leadership grid. The Michigan leadership study identifies two basic forms of leadership. These are job-centered leadership behavior and employee centered leadership behavior. Job centered leadership behavior pays close attention to the work of subordinates and mainly interested in performance. Employee centered /employee orientation/ leadership behavior attempts to build effective work groups and high performance is accomplished by paying attention to the human aspect of the group.

Similar to the Michigan studies, the Ohio State studies of leadership behavior found two kinds of leadership behavior. These are consideration behavior and initiating-structure behavior. Consideration behavior leader is concerned with the followers' feelings and respect followers' idea. Initiating-structure behavior, on the other hand, the leader clearly defines the leader-follower roles so that subordinates know what is expected of them.

The leadership grid is a modified concept of the Ohio State and Michigan studies. The two dimensions of Ohio State studies are combined and integrated to form a nine-by-nine grid. The approach identifies five leadership styles in four quadrants. These are; impoverished management (1, 1), country club management (1, 9), authority-obedience management (9, 1), organizational man management (5, 5), and team management (9, 9). The developers of the grid suggest that the 9.9 combination of leadership behavior is the most effective leadership style. That is a manager

with this style will be the most effective leader. Accordingly, in grid training, managers are rated on their performance centered behavior (concern for production) and maintenance-oriented behavior (concern for people) (Bateman & Snell, 2002; Griffin & Moorhead, 2001, and Heresy, Blanchard, et al. 2001).

2.2.3.3. Situational Approaches to Leadership

The proponents of situational leadership approach believe that there is no one best way to influence people. According to Heresy, Blanchard et al (2001) and Bateman and Snell (2002) situational leadership approach focuses on the observed behavior of leaders and their group members (followers) in various situations. More specifically, situational leadership is based on an interplay among (1) the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives; (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides; and (3) the readiness level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function or objective. There are many situational theories of leadership. The path-goal theory of leadership, Vroom's decision tree approach to leadership, transformational leadership and transactional leadership, and the Heresy and Blanchard model are in the list.

The Path-Goal theory of leadership focuses on the situation and leader's behaviors rather than on fixed traits of leaders. The theory argues that subordinates are motivated by their leader to the extent that the behaviors of that leader influence their expectancies. That means the leader affects subordinate's performance by clarifying the behaviors (paths) that will lead to desired rewards (goals). The path-goal theory of leadership has identified four kinds of leadership behavior: directive (the leader tell the subordinate everything about the job), supportive (the leader is friendly and shows concern for subordinate's well-being and needs), participative (the leader participates subordinate in decision making) and achievement oriented (the leader sets challenging goals, expects subordinates to perform at their highest level, and show strong confidence that subordinates will put forth effort and accomplish the goals). Personal characteristics of subordinates and the characteristics of the environment are the two of situational factors that influence how leader behavior relates to subordinate satisfaction (Mullins, 1996; Moorhead & Griffin, 2001; Bateman & Snell, 2002; and Heresy, Blanchard, et al., 2001).

The Vroom Decision Tree approach to leadership focuses on assessing the situation before determining the best leadership style. That is why the model is named by "decision tree

approach”. The approach assumes that the degree to which subordinates should be encouraged to participate in decision making depends on the characteristics of the situation. The model clearly indicated that there is no one decision-making process that is best for all situations. The situational factors, in order of consideration are: decision significance, the importance of commitment by followers, the leader’s expertise, the likelihood of commitment by followers, group support, group expertise, and team competence (Bateman & Snell, 2002; and Moorhead & Griffin, 2001).

The Heresy and Blanchard model of leadership is one of the popular perspectives of leadership. The model is based on the notion that appropriate leader behavior depends on the readiness level (maturity) of the leader’s followers. Mullins (1996) has defined “readiness as the extent to which followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task”. From the combination of task behavior and relationship behavior the model has derived four styles of leadership. These are telling, selling, participating, and delegating. In telling, the leader emphasize high amount of guidance (task behavior) but limited supportive (relationship) behavior. This style is most appropriate for unable and unwilling follower. The selling style (directive and relationship behaviors) is most appropriate for low to moderate follower readiness. In participating, the leader emphasizes a high amount of two way communication, supportive (relationship) behavior but low amount of guidance (task behavior). This style is most appropriate for moderate to high follower readiness. Finally, in delegating, the leader emphasizes little direction or support with low level of the task and relationship behaviors. This style is most appropriate for high follower readiness. It is suggested that as the maturity of followers improves, the leader’s basic style should also change (Mullins, 1996; Heresy, Blanchard et al., 2001).

Transformational leadership is different from transactional leadership approach. Mcshane and Glinow (2000) have defined transformational leadership as “a leadership perspective that enables leaders to change teams or organizations by creating, communicating and modeling a vision for the organization or work unit and inspiring employees to strive for that vision”. Moorhead and Griffin (2001) similarly defined transformational leadership as “the set of abilities that allows the leader to recognize the need for change, to create a vision to guide the change and to execute the change effectively”. On the other hand, these authors have defined transactional leadership as “a leadership approach that helps organizations achieve their current objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and ensuring that employees have the resources

needed to get the job done”. Furthermore, they said that the contingency and behavioral theories described earlier adopt the “transactional perspective because they focus on leader behavior that improves employee performance and satisfaction”. Finally, they suggested that some leaders can adopt either transformational or transactional perspective depending on circumstances.

2.3. Women in Management

Senior officials in managerial jobs generally represent only a relatively small proportion of the total work force. In 1998 in 29 countries, such jobs ranged 2-16 percent. Studies pointed out that out of the total managerial occupations the share of women is insignificant. The pace of change is also slow and progress has generally been uneven despite the fact that the proportion of women in management has doubled or tripled in some countries. Furthermore, it was shown that managerial jobs have been increasing since 1970’s particularly because of the developing tertiary sector and growth in public sector. As a result the rate of women’s participation in managerial jobs has been increasing (Wirth , 2001).

Particularly the expansion in service sectors (especially public service) has given more opportunities to women to embark on managerial jobs while they remain underrepresented when compared to the increase in the labor force as a whole. Generally, women’s share of management positions does not exceed 20 percent and the more senior is the positions involved, the more clear is the gender gap. Even in countries where women hold over 40 percent of total employment, their share of legislative, senior official and managerial job is less than 30 percent. Women seem to experience difficulty in obtaining executive jobs in large organizations even though they often have greater opportunity to junior and middle management levels in the same organization (Japan , USA, Brazil, and UK are cited as examples) (Wirth , 2001; and Klenke , 1999).

Inherent discrimination in the structures and process of both organization and society is identified as the bottleneck for women’s advancement in management and political representation. These situations are generally illustrated by the terms “glass ceiling” and “glass walls”. The glass ceiling continues to limit women’s access to senior management and top management positions despite women’s interest in professional and managerial jobs and the predicted shortages of highly qualified managers. In those large organizations where women have managed to reach higher level managerial positions, they are often restricted to areas less central or strategic to the

organization such as human resource and administration. Women are not moving quickly enough and in sufficient numbers into line or strategic positions. It is still extremely difficult for women to move laterally into strategic areas such as product development or finance and then upwards through the central pathways to key executive positions in the pyramidal structure; that is characteristic of large organization. When it comes to political representation, women also experience ‘glass ceiling’ effects although in some cases, such as in the Scandinavian countries, they have managed to climb higher than in the corporate world of the private sector. The world average for women representatives in national parliaments stands at 13 percent in 1999 (13.4percent in single and 10.9percent in upper house/senate). It is also indicated that worldwide the number of women who hold the most senior positions of political leadership serving either as prime minister or presidents of their countries has increased steadily since 1960. However similar to the case in managerial positions they are concentrated in certain areas which are more closely related to women’s perceived social roles and therefore usually considered normally suited to women (Klenke , 1999; Wirth , 2001; UN, 1991; UN, 2000; and UNRISD, 2005).

Jaquette (2000/01) and Wirth (2001) elucidated that women’s share of managerial positions and under-representation of women in politics is not related to level of development of the nation and their share of total employment. The case of Denmark and Israel where women hold over 40 percent of the total employment and almost lack great access to more qualified jobs (management) and the existence of more significant number of women managers in some developing countries (Colombia, Costa Rica and Philippines) are the examples of their argument.

Women and men are also different in the hierarchy of positions with jobs. Even in occupations dominated by women, men usually occupy the more skilled, responsible and better paid positions. Occupational segregation which was induced because of social attitudes and gender inequality in education and training has created significant pay difference between men and women workers. Although women reached almost similar professional occupations they are concentrated in lower status and less well paid occupations. Even where the rates of pay may be similar, actual earning can vary because of different salary packages offered to managers. Occupational segregation of jobs which divides jobs between paid employment and unpaid care work further perpetuates image of women as “secondary workers”. It has been underscored

further that even though the gap is slowly closing yet it is likely to remain while occupations are still highly segregated by sex (Veiga and Yanouzas, 1976; Wirth , 2001; and UN 2000).

Women managers are very few at the top of the organizational hierarchy. Affirmative actions rarely reach upper levels and opportunities for subtle discrimination are far greater. The attitudes of male managers, the predominant decision makers at the upper levels, have not changed and those attitude negatively affecting women's opportunities to advance into positions of power and influence structural changes. There is strongly held attitude of "think manager think male" among decision makers who are men who will keep women confined to middle and lower level jobs. Senior managerial jobs are still seen as "men's jobs". Consequently, women are still minority of senior management staff especially in large corporations although they may employ more women in management (Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989; Brown, 1979; and UN, 2000). Brenner, Tomkiewicz and Schein (1989) further speculated that the increase in the number of women in lower and middle managerial positions can be attributed in part to the power of the law and the internal corporate changes designed to implement the law. Details of the challenges faced by women managers will be discussed in a separate topic (see 2.7).

2.4. Women in Leadership

Several studies have been conducted on women in leadership. The results of these studies are not the same. While there are arguments suggesting gender differences in leadership style, there are also arguments that there are no gender differences in leadership style or behavior between men and women. Some reported that men and women are different in significant ways in leadership (especially old studies). Others found no difference between male and female leaders in their leadership roles.

Roslyn (1971) in Brown (1979) argued that men and women are different in significant ways, with men being more aggressive and prove to visualize and with women begin more perceptive to reality and likely to sustain interest in completing a real job. Similarly, Eagly et al., (2001) cited in Manning (2002) indicated that women are superior on transformational leadership and males higher in the transactional styles of management. Komives, 1991; and Davison, 1996 in Manning (2002) pointed out also that males are higher in vision creation and females are reported more in vision implementation.

Early studies of differences between females and males in leadership found the difference is related to gender, with males being more “task oriented” and females more concerned with “socio-emotional” issues. Recent research emphasizes the fact that the learned difference in gender roles can be an advantage in organizational roles that require these characteristics. Thus, feminine characters are more appropriate for “transformational leadership” and masculine characteristics more appropriate for “transactional leadership” where the leader role doesn’t require an excess of either feminine or masculine characteristics, female and male are both found to be equally effective. Furthermore, it is argued that transformational leadership permits women to simultaneously carryout leadership and gender roles (Hare et al., 1997). This style of leadership is particularly recommended as organizations move toward continuous quality improvement and employee empowerment. Klenke (1999) argued that specific contextual factors framed by the culture of a given country on global region influenced the emergency of the women leader, determined her leaders style and shaped her success or failure while in office. The context could be political, historical or social: it may be religious, military or technical.

Women managers are more likely than their male counterparts to incorporate citizen input, facilitate communication and encourage citizen involvement in their decision making process. Female voice embraces the ideas of responsibility, caring and interconnectedness, while the male voice embraces adherence to rules and individualism. Women managers are more participative and encourage participation; share power and information more readily, enhance the self-worth of those around them and tend to energize others. They have high level of intuition about people, an interest in offering more prizes to employees, a greater interest in giving orders “kindly” a greater sensitivity to subordinates needs, a high level of compromise and conciliation, and a different approach to team work. They are more likely than men to attempt and facilitate communication between the employees. They act as intermediary between the employee and the organization. Generally, women managers seem to utilize skills that further the democratic principle of “governing by the people”. The skills and values that women managers demonstrate can help to advance the legitimacy of government (Fox & Schuhmann, 1999; Oshagbemi & Gill, 2003; UN, 2000).

Johnson (1993) stated that the socialization process for boys and for girls , unequal access to structural resources of power and status, and the status of male and female in the society because of expectation state are the causes for the difference in leadership behavior of men and

women. Generally, however, the structural approaches, an indication that formal positions and associated power resources have stronger effect on behavior than does gender has got strong support. A structural position has got more support than expectation state too.

The opposite positions or argument for difference between women and men leadership perceives little or no gender difference in leadership styles. The results of many studies have indicated that the absence of significant difference between male and female in leadership. It has been underscored that no actual difference in leader behavior especially if they have the same role. Particularly, in work, situations with leaders and subordinates researchers consistently found no difference between male and female leaders in performance, behavior and subordinate satisfaction specifically when demographic characteristics of leaders and employee are controlled. Men and women managers have similar values on the job and display almost similar personality behavior and characteristics at similar positions. No significant difference in transformational leadership and work satisfaction between male and female managers at equivalent levels. Furthermore, it is underlined that successful leader possess both stereotypically masculine and feminine characteristics. Despite this fact, however, little difference has been reported. These include; women usually obtain their satisfaction from social network while men are form work related values, women managers have less face-saving and self-confidences, and male managers are higher status consciousness and procedural. And hence, many researchers particularly in recent years concluded that, assuming difference in behavior between male and female leaders would lead to erroneous conclusions. Consequently, since there are no substantial differences in leadership characteristics between male and female managers, they underlined that women and men in management have at least equal claim to transformational leadership (Brown, 1979; Hare Paul et al, 1997; Kent & Moss, 1994; Chow, 2005; Oshagbemi & Gill, 2003).

2.5. Policies for Promoting Women in Management

Many studies have indicated that gender inequalities are deeply entrenched in all societies and are reproduced through variety of practices and institutions including policy interventions. They pointed out that inequalities based on sex are pervasive features of all societies; they are the product of socially constructed power relations, norms and practices. To tackle gender inequalities many initiatives have been made at international as well as national levels. Some of them specifically directed to enhance women in management and leadership while the majorities

are targeted all forms of discrimination against women. Furthermore, many feminist theories have been developed to enable women enjoying the same rights and privileges as men. The most recognized feminist approach includes Liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, Radical feminism, Socialist feminism, Psychoanalytic and existential feminist thought, postmodern feminism, and Feminist Critical theory (Steans , 1998; and Bandarage , 1984).

Internationally many initiatives have been taken to promote equal employment opportunities and to address other gender inequality problems. Almost all international level initiatives are ratified nearly by all nations as Conventions. These include International Labor Standard on Women Workers of 2000, which cover a board range of labor matters and ILO standards on gender equality which involve discrimination (Employment and Occupations) convention, 1958, No. 111 and Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951, No. 100, the Maternity Protection Convention, 1919 No. 3 which was revised in 1952 and adopted in 2000, and Declaration On Equal Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers, adopted by 1975. Among global actions taken within the Untied Nations systems: the Untied Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) adopted in 1979, The 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women which was held in Beijing; Global High level Plenatry Review of the Beijing Platform for Action which was specifically identified as the Beijing +5 Special session of the General Assembly; “Women 2000: Gender Equality, Development and Peace for the Twenty First Century” which was held in New York (June, 2000); the 1993 UN General Assembly declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women; and the 1994 Commission on human rights which appointed a special “rapporteur” to examine violence against women are the most commonly cited initiatives. These conventions generally calls for equality between women and men in all aspects and reaffirmed that the rights of women are an integral part of universal human rights (Wirth , 2001; UN, 2000; UNRISD, 2005; and WB, 1998).

In particular, signatory countries have committed to ensure “the right to the same employment opportunities including the application of the some criteria for selection. .., the right to free choice of professional and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retaining..., the right of equal remuneration... and equal treatment in respect of work of equal value.” In addition the labor legislation of many countries now incorporates principles of gender equality. Signatory

countries elected and formed the CEDAW so as to monitor its implementation (Wirth , 2001; UN, 2000; UNRISD, 2005; and WB, 1998).

In addition to the international conventions, different policies and strategies have been formulated and identified. It is underscored that all policies should embrace women and should have to address gender-based inequalities and constraints. Gender mainstreaming is found to be the most important mechanism. Gender mainstreaming is defined as the process and strategies of making women's needs and perspectives an integral part of the overall development work of the government as opposed to a separate concern. It is about integration of women's concerns into all aspects of development planning by explicitly considering the actual and potential role of women in all sectors of the economy, and the impact of all policies, plans and programs on women vis-à-vis men. Authors stressed the need to give concern for mainstreaming activities. They argued that whether policies or programs are gender neutral in their real impact will depend on the actual and potential role of women and men in the economy and their particular constraints and needs. This indicates that gender blind actions do not necessarily have gender-neutral impact (Valdeavilla , 1995; Lin , 1996; Wirth, 2001; UN, 2000; and UNRISD, 2005).

Accordingly, it is recommended that programs of reform must take into account from the outset the way in which formal and informal institutions are shaped by unequal gender relations. Analyzing institutions - set of formal and informal rules which shape social perceptions of people's needs and roles is important for gender justice. It is suggested that institutions usually will tend to reproduce gender-based inequality by limiting choices unless they are appropriately redesigned during the reform process. Therefore, there must be gender sensitive institutional arrangement to improve women's wellbeing. The effectiveness will also depend on cultures of the institutions of governance and the existence of appropriate environment. Within the institutions government and stakeholders should play their expected role effectively. Government play a fundamental role in regulating the social, political and economic environments and through adopting positive or affirmative action, and other stakeholder are key actors in rising awareness, implementing policies and developing innovative measures to enable women to attain and perform well in management positions and other aspects (UNRISD, 2005; Goetz ,1995 ; and Wirth Linda, 2001).

According to UNRISD (2005), the political and policy context of recent years has presented some new opportunities, as well as challenges for the attainment of gender equality and women rights. Social policies and “good governance” reforms are identified as the potential opportunities. Failure of liberalization and deregulation policy to provide a supportive environment for improving women’s wellbeing, and inability of government reform program to address gender issues comprehensively are identified as the major challenges (Del Rosario , 1995; UNRISD, 2005; Goetz , 1995; Wirth , 2001; Smith , 1992; and McGregor & Tremaine , 1995).

Rhode in Smith (1992) in particular argued that traditional legal framework has created difficulty in dealing with sex discrimination because of focus on abstract rights rather than social context and focus on gender difference rather than the disadvantage caused by differential treatment. According to her in a sexist society, judges and legislatures are just as likely as anyone else to be sexist. If status quo (which is usually constructed in terms of the experience of men) is presumed to be normal, victims of status quo are not perceived victims-instead they are perceived as their faults. She suggested that the need to get past the sameness /difference debt together to an assessment of the fairness of conditions created and maintained by legal policies and business practices. In other word careful contextual analysis is vital to think very far beyond or outside the confines of predominant public opinion.

Goetz (1992), Lin (1996) and Kardam (1995) underlined that the key to devising strategies to change organization to enhance their openness and accountability to women whether as citizens of the state, participants of development programs or staff members in organizations, is to understand the gendered dynamics of decision-making and of organizational functioning. They said organizations do not operate in vacuums, and accountability and incentive systems are shaped by the broader institutional arrangement. Women’s interest should be institutionalized in the state and there is a need to work both with and beyond context- restricted perceptions of interest to establish what might be called a strategic presence in policy-making. It means that management of democracy alone does not add up to an institutional comparative advantage in the absence of objectives prioritizing gender equity. This requires attention to the way gendered outcomes and personnel who, whatever their sex, reproduce gender- discriminatory outcomes and accountability for enforcement of sanctions.

2.6. Status of Women in Ethiopia

Ethiopian women generally have lower social, economic and political status than men. This is reflected by poor access to education, training and literacy levels; and/or gender stereotyping in education and training opportunities, poor access to health services, poor access to employment opportunities including wage differences, poor political status, including representation in community and formal decision making, etc(EWAP, 1993). With regard to employment, women's access to employment in the formal economic sector is very limited. In 2006 the Federal Civil Service Commission census revealed that out of the 490,363 permanently employed people at country level only 33.87 percent were women. In the same year out of 152,101 permanent employees in the Oromia Regional State the share of women were only 28 percent (Oromia Civil Service Commission, 2006). Women's political participation within the country is also very minimal. Women constituted only 7.6percent, 12.9percent, 6.9 percent, 13.9 percent of the total seats at the federal level, regional level, district level and the grass root (Kebele) level representative institutions respectively before 2000(WB, 1998).

The percentage of women in administrative and managerial works in Ethiopia was 8 between 1985/1997. UN (2000) indicated that out of 26 African countries for which data was available Ethiopia belonged to the lowest group and was better than only four countries (Djibouti 2 percent, Algeria 6 percent, Zambia 6 percent, Nigeria 6 percent).

Ethiopia being a UN member and also signatory country of the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) has recognized and made commitment to take appropriate measures to provide equal employment opportunity in the country. The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia of 1995 guarantees gender equalities in social, political and economic matters in Ethiopia. The new Constitution is thoroughly gender sensitive that meets the standard of equality of CEDAW. It declares that equal rights of women and men in all aspects and further provides affirmative measures to hasten the true equality of women and men. Ethiopia has ratified some other Conventions in addition to CEDAW to eliminate gender discriminations. These conventions include Convention on the Political Rights of Women, the Convention on the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of Others and Convention Concerning Discrimination in Employment and Occupations. The World Bank

(1998) considered these initiatives as great opportunities in Ethiopia. Furthermore, the government has established a Women's Affairs Ministry and respective Offices to realize true gender equality in Ethiopia. Ethiopia has also formulated a women's policy to guide the fight against gender inequalities. The formation of the Ethiopian Women Lawyers' Association is another positive step forward in the efforts to create the right climate to bring about the realization of the intended legal reform.

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopian government has issued national policy on Ethiopian women during transitional government of Ethiopian period (Sep, 1993). The policy document highlights the conditions of Ethiopia women both in rural and urban areas from different point of views (economic, social, law...) and indicated clearly the existence of discriminatory practices against women in all aspects of development. The policy is aimed at eliminating gender inequality by enhancing women participation in political, social and economic life on equal terms with men in the country; realization of democratic and human rights of women on equal base with men; modifying or abolishing existing laws, regulations customs and practices which aggravates discrimination against women and facilitating conditions conducive to their participation in the decision making process at all levels; ensuing women participation in the formulation of government policies, laws, regulations, programs, plans and protects that directly or indirectly benefits and concern women as well as in the implementation there on; incorporating and coordinating women affairs in government programs and structures and ensuring proper implementation of all policies that address gender concern directly or indirectly. The policy document has identified seventeen (17) strategies for implementation policy. Some of these include taking all appropriate measures to ensure respect of democratic and human rights of women; facilitating conducive conditions for women to participate in all affairs; taking all appropriate measures to ensure women as equal beneficiaries in compensation, promotion, appointments, desirable transfer or termination of employment and training with that of men; establishing women's affairs department in all ministries and government organizations entrusted with the responsibility of organizing and promoting women's interest are a few among others worth mentioning.

Furthermore, the national policy has identified duties and responsibilities of women affairs sector in the prime minister office; in the Regional women's affairs sector and women's affairs departments in ministries and public organizations. Creating conducive atmosphere for women's

affairs policy implementation in governmental organizations, organizing and encouraging women's to struggle for their rights, encouraging the establishment of women affairs organs at each level of government and public organization are only three among ten duties and responsibilities of women's affairs sector in the prime ministry office. Regional level women's affairs sector, among others are responsible for coordinating and facilitating activities related to women's affairs, devising ways (means) for effective implementation of women's affairs policy, creating favorable conditions for implementation of women affair policy in governmental and nongovernmental organizations and follow-up their implementation, and assist active participation of women in various activities could be mentioned. The women's affairs departments in ministries and public organizations are responsible for creating favorable conditions for effective implementation of women's affair policy in government organizations and monitoring closely their implementation; encouraging women to actively participate in various activities in the organization; monitoring full participation of women in training, promotion and transfer decisions in their organizations and providing necessary support for their implementations; monitoring and assessing proper treatment of gender issues during the preparation of plans and studies; assessing whether women's are benefited form policies programs and development plans of government (organization) and presenting proposal if needed are identified . Moreover, being allowed by the Constitution so far three Regional States (Oromia, Amhara and Tigray) as well as the Federal Governments has issued new family laws.

In spite of these efforts, challenges still persist. Different studies and reports made on the status of political and administrative participation of women in Ethiopia reveal that they are living in the world of extreme inequality. Similar to other nations; low rate of participation in education, difficulties in promotion, negative social attitude, lack of self-confidence, lack of interest in government service, limited access to resources, and inadequate family support are identified as major problems encountered by women .The major challenges are: enacting women-friendly legislation and enforcing legislation that confirms to the Constitution and international norms and standards and ensuring that the law enforcement offices are sufficiently gender-sensitive and gender friendly. Furthermore, religious and customary rules which generally fail to meet internationally accepted norms and standards, especially when it comes to gender issues are still in place. Hence, it is recommended that there must be enough legislations and their proper

enforcement. Women must also take part in the enactment of legislation (OWAP., 2005; and WB, 1998).

2.7. Challenges Faced By Women Managers and Leaders

Studies conducted by researchers at different places and times have identified many challenges encountered by women managers and leaders. The identified challenges can be systematically categorized into personal barriers, structural barriers and cultural barriers in organizations, each reinforcing one another and make hard to break the “glass ceiling” and the “glass wall”(Wirth ,2001) .

There are many personal barriers that hinder the entry and advancement of women into managerial jobs. Family obligation, lack of experience, not the right education, and lack of further training are widely mentioned among other things. Traditionally family responsibilities are mainly allocated to women which logically imply that they usually have less time to devote to their careers. Career interruption for family reasons often implies losses in seniority, less livelihood of receiving training and depreciation of job skills. In addition to family and other social responsibilities, women managers are challenged by unsupportive husbands’ attitudes in their career and managerial performance. Compared to men generally women managers do not have adequate experience particularly in strategic jobs (Wirth 2001; Cormier , 2007; UN; 2000).

Lack of appropriate and adequate training and development program, in addition to not having the right education for women is the other challenge experienced by women managers. Two theories; gender organizations theory and human capital theory have been identified to explain for the less concern of the organization to women managers’ development. Gender organizations theory (sociologist) argued that the culture of work organizations is gendered because it reflects male values. Organizational practices reflect the assumption that family and personal responsibilities should not interfere with work. Employees who are committed to their jobs tend to be rewarded with promotions and employees who must divide their commitment between their jobs and family or other responsibilities are demoted to lower level. And hence, once a women manager has a child she is automatically perceived to be less committed for her career. Society expects women managers to fill the homemaker than breadwinner role. Deviation from these roles, societal expectations, results in negative evaluations of employees. Therefore, organizations do not provide adequate developmental opportunities for women managers (Asker,

1990; Kantar, 1977; in Judiesch& Lyness, 1999). Human capital theory (economist) on the other hand argues that even with total work experience those with career interruptions have less human capital (job knowledge and skill) because gaps often occur early in careers. Human capital further state that time away from work causes employees' skills, knowledge and networks deteriorate or become outdated. Leave of absence provides penalties for managers who take leave of absence and miss a training program or other opportunity and thus fail to accumulate human capital at the same rate as other managers. Women managers with greater family responsibilities reduce devotion to work which results in less accumulation of human capital and thus they are less likely to seek promotions. From both theories one could predict that those managers who take leave of absence regardless of the reason might receive fewer rewards than managers who don't take them (Judiesch& Lyness, 1999).

Informal promotion without advertising, career starts in specialized management tracks and gender bias in promotion are also the most critical structural barriers for women in management. These problems stem from lack of equal opportunity by women managers as to male to experience some greater task-related developmental (challenging) jobs even in times of identical qualification because of stereotypical attitudes and decision makers adherence to trait approach; family responsibilities and unsupportive husbands' attitudes; absence of timely performance feedback and lack of career sponsoring and mentoring for female managers; the absence of women in management particularly at the top of the organization; prejudices and stereotypes that men have of women; strict seniority criteria for promotion; lack of appropriate selection criteria and procedures; men dominating while or most decision making structure; careers and performance appraisal of women by men managers; educational background(women being concentrated in non-strategic field of specialization which move them typically into support functions rather than into the "line management" functions that lead to more senior positions); and gender choice of study areas (which contributes to differential outcomes in the professional profiles of men and women and sets the stages for dividing occupations into typical "male or female" jobs) (Gold,1996; Brown, 1979; Mattis ,2001 ; Ohlott et al., 1994; Wirth ,2001; Chandan, 1999; Mullins, 1996).

Recruitment through informal networks is a barrier to women to be employed in managerial jobs. Men's virtual monopoly of the first management jobs meant that inertia has predisposed organization to continue to staff managerial jobs partly through sex based ascription. Sex based

ascription in employment of managerial employees can be caused by custom and structural inertia (management was equated with masculinity), need to minimize selection costs, risk aversion (familiarity with male), and group power and in group preference to institutionalize their group (sex) privileges. Recruitment through workers social ties tends to replicate establishment's demographic compositions. The different views of the leadership style of men and women indicated by studies also affect what constitute an effective manager, then techniques and methods for recruitment and selection are likely to test for certain skills and qualities considered essentially for the successful management. In case where a "male view" of managerial qualities is the norm women can be disadvantaged in assessment procedures. The tendencies toward ascription, unless checked, favor men for management positions. Appropriate personnel practices are suggested curtailing tendencies toward ascription if the organization broadens the applicant pool in the selection of managers. The sex compositions of managers also matters for organization. It is suggested that the more female managers in organization, the lesser the inequality. Formulization of personnel practices has the potential to undermine ascription, but it can not do so when formal requirements are largely symbolic or when establishments' recruitment is made through informal network. Nominal formalization will not check propensities toward ascription. That is organization may formalize personnel practices on paper without eliminating decision making discretion in managerial selection. Over-sighting responsibility and holding decision make responsibility for their selections, therefore, very important (Reskin et al., 2000; Wirth, 2001).

Many cultural barriers inhabit the entry and advancement of women into managerial positions in organizations. Men have traditionally networked amongst themselves, especially socially outside working hours. Women are willing to join in mixed social functions, but are often less keen or have less time to take part in such gatherings. This means that they have less opportunity to network informally. In addition, women often rely on family and friends for career advice than approaching colleagues or more senior people in their organization, and this contributes to a certain amount of invisibility. Top women seem to lack networks and friendships with colleagues and hence low social capital- disrupt women leaders' career particularly at the top. Not having an informal mentor or sponsor, lack of informal networking with influential colleagues, lack of company role models and lack of high visibility assignments are identified by Catalyst (1999) as the primary barriers to the advancement of women in management. Men have strong reservations

regarding women in leadership and management positions. The existences of pervasive and persistent sex role stereotypes impede the advancement of women in the managerial workforce. Women who succeeded in obtaining management positions were subjected to continuous sexual harassment by supervisors, colleagues and clients. Women's manager role imposes a more demanding schedule on the personal lives of women than of men. Socialization and negative stereotyping have reinforced the tendency for political decision making to remain in the domain of men. Wirth Linda (2001) has grouped these challenges systematically as male values dominate corporate culture; insufficient personal contacts; and prejudices of personal managers (Mattis, 2001; Cormier, 2007; Brenner et al., 1989; UNDP, 1996).

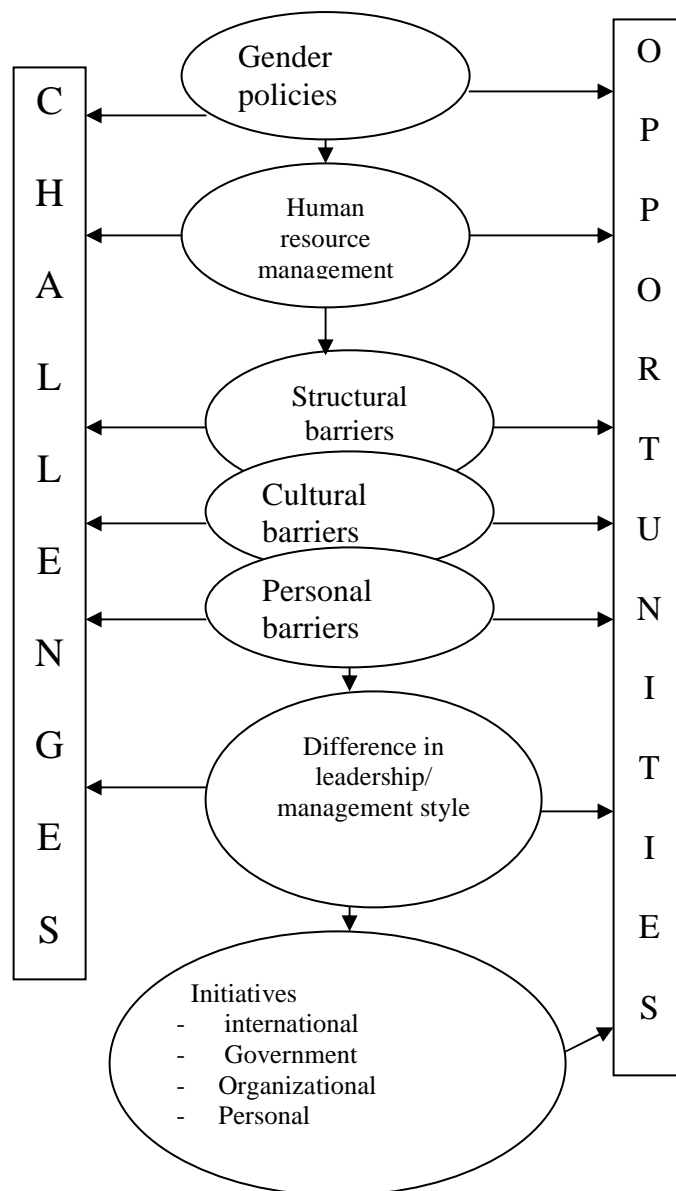
In addition to personnel practices that are found the immediate causes of establishment based gender inequality, organizational restructuring, downsizing, decentralizing and de-layering brought new barriers to women careers because jobs that are created by such initiatives demand a broader range of skills and general management experience for which women are not entitled because of inadequate access to key developmental experiences such as job rotation, lateral moves, and assignments to special development projects(Wirth ,2001).

2.8. Summary

Studies cited in this literature review indicate the existence of under- representation of women in managerial jobs and in the halls of government and some other activities of government. Researchers have indicated that managers face personal barriers, structural barriers and cultural barriers in managerial occupations. Gap in policies and human resource management in practices are other challenges that obstruct the entry and then after the advancement of women in management. Difference in management style/ leadership style between women and men managers is identified as challenge for women managers by some researchers. Others suggested there is no remarkable difference between women and men managers' style of management/ leadership and warned that focusing the difference approach led to erroneous decisions. In response to the challenges experienced by women many initiatives have been made at international and national levels. Different conventions were ratified by many countries at international level. Nation states have been also formulated different policies to overcome problems of gender discrimination in all spheres of development. However, studies in the literature do not indicate clearly how well the government and its institutions are honestly

implementing the laws, policies, plans and other initiatives to overcome the problems of women managers. Furthermore, most of the studies are highly contextual and reflect the realities of women managers in a particular country at specific time. These realities may not exist all the time. Notwithstanding with some common problems that are faced by women managers in general, the intensity and the type of challenges could also vary from nation to nation and even in a nation over a period of time. Conceptual framework of the study is presented using the following diagram.

Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework of the study



Source: Self developed, 2008

CHAPTER THREE

SITUATION OF WOMEN IN THE OROMIA REGIONAL STATE AND BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

3.1. Introduction

In the Oromia Regional State women do not have equal access to fruits of development with men counterparts. In employment, men constitute the majority at each level of service positions. In managerial occupations women share is low at each level of management. This chapter is presents the situation of women in the Oromia Region in general and sampled bureaus and offices. Backgrounds of respondents are presented at the end of the chapter.

3.2. Situation of Women in Oromia Region

Women, who constitute the majority out of the total population (50.1 percent) in the region, do not have equal access to fruits of development and power compared with men. In education, their share is minimal and very low; particularly as level of learning advances. The majority (91 percent) of women who give birth to children do not get health services thereon. Women suffer from harmful traditional practices and greater workload which is often unpaid or underpaid or voluntary. In the political and administrative areas the participation of women is very low (almost nil). Generally, women are marginalized in all aspects to enjoy the fruits of development and live in extreme poverty situation (OWAP, 2005).

The Regional Civil Service Commission Report (Nov. 2007) has indicated that male employees constitute the majority at each level of service. Table 3.1 depicts human resource profile of the Oromia Regional State in 2007. Out of the total employees in 2006/07, 72 percent were men. Furthermore, the share of women employees had not increased from 2004(29 percent) to 2007(28 percent). Rather there share has reduced by one percent. In the education area, women employees are almost absent as the level of education increases. The majority of women employees are concentrated in the lower level. Out of total male employees in 2006/07, 32 percent, 5 percent and 0.33 percent have college diploma, BA/BSc degree and MA/MSc degree respectively while the figures for female employees (out of total female employees) is 19 percent, 1.33 percent and 0.05 percent respectively. In proportion to their sex, women

employees having certificate and below in their education were found to out number male employees.

In service positions, (at professional science and junior professional science levels) women constitute only 12 percent (1609) and 24 percent out of 13,260 and 26,734 employees at respective service levels in 2007. Salary wise, 34 percent of women earn salary between 400-499 while the majority (72 percent) of men earn between 600 -699 out of total employees earning salary in the range correspondingly in the same year. Furthermore, among appointed individuals in the year (2006/07) in the region the share of women was very low, only 11 percent (955) out of 8857 appointees (OCSCO, Nov. 2007).

Thus, from human resource profile of the Regional State at least three implications can be drawn. Firstly, women are not joining the civil service institutions in sufficient number. Secondly, even among the existing women civil servants in 2007, the majority of them were less qualified. Lastly, women employees are almost absent at higher levels of learning. This proves that women have been discriminated in access to educations which consequently have negative impact on their opportunities to assume managerial positions.

Table 3. 1 Human Resource Profile of Oromia Region in 2006/07 by Education

No	Level of Education	Male	% out of total male	Female	% out of total female	Total	% out of total employees
1	≤grade 8	7634	5.75	2245	4.33	9879	5.4
2	9- 12 grade	20249	15.26	11241	21.69	31490	17.1
3	Certificate	51202	38.59	26695	51.51	77897	42.2
4	Technique Diploma	306	0.23	113	0.22	419	0.2
5	College Diploma	42372	31.94	9719	18.75	52091	28.2
6	1-4 th year college/university	2968	2.24	996	1.92	3964	2.1
7	BA/BSc	6739	5.08	690	1.33	7429	4.0
8	LLB/LLM	231	0.17	31	0.06	262	0.1
9	MA/MSc	440	0.33	25	0.05	465	0.3
10	DVM	67	0.05	3	0.01	70	0.0
11	MD	165	0.12	11	0.02	176	0.1
12	PHD	20	0.02	0	0.00	20	0.0
13	Others	279	0.21	59	0.11	338	0.2
	Total	132672	100.0	51828	100.00	184500	100.0
	% out of total	132672	72	51828	28	184500	100.0

Source, OCSCO, 2007

3.3. Human Resource Profile and Women Managers in Sampled Bureaus and Offices

3.3.1. Human Resource Profile in Sampled Bureaus and Offices

The human resource profile in sampled bureaus and offices indicates that the majority of job positions at Regional level were staffed by relatively qualified employees in 2005/06. Employees who had BA/BSc/ LLB degree, college diploma and grade 10/12 complete accounted for 24 percent 20 percent and 17 percent respectively. Women employees were generally underrepresented in terms of total number. However, compared with their total share in the region, the representation at Regional level executive branch was better. Women employees accounted for 38 percent in the executive branch at Regional level where as the figure for the region was 28 percent in the same year. In terms of educational qualification women were by

and large found at the lower levels. They constitute the majority out of employees with 10/12 grade completed (63 percent), certificate (62 percent) and technique diploma (59 percent). Obviously, the predominance of women at these levels of education greatly could affect negatively their share of managerial positions at least for two reasons. In first place, such levels of education do not enable the employees to acquire adequate human traits demanded by managerial jobs. Secondly, women with technical diploma compared with other level of learning (college diploma, BA/BSc) could not have adequate conceptual skill which is critical as one moves up in the management hierarchy. See Annex 1.

3.3.2. Level of Education, Service Year and Women Managers

Regional level Bureaus and Offices (executive branch of government) are managed by relatively qualified and experienced employees. In 2005/06 the majority of managers have BA/BSc/LLB degree (43 percent). Managers who had MA/MSc /LLM degree and College Diploma constitute 26 percent and 14 percent correspondingly. Of the total managers, 34 percent had served for more than 30 years while 29 percent had served 16 to 20 years in the public institutions at different positions. Employees who occupied top management, middle management and lower management positions account 10 percent, 17 percent and 73 percent in 2005/06 respectively. Tables 3.2 and 3.3 present the number of employees by sex and the share of both sexes' managerial positions, and total service years and managerial level by sex in sampled bureaus and offices in 2005/06 (for detail see Annex 2).

The share of women in managerial occupations in the executive branch of the Oromia Regional State is very low. In the sampled Bureaus and Offices the share of women out of 220 (in 2005/06) managerial positions occupied by employees was only 10 percent at each level of managerial positions. Women were underrepresented in managerial jobs at all levels of education compared to men counterparts with the exception to technical college level of education. Alternatively, women managers who had technical diploma outnumber men managers exceptionally in the same level of education. Furthermore, women's share of managerial positions did not significantly correlate to their level of education. Despite this fact, the trend shows as level of education of women employees increases their opportunity to hold, managerial positions are also increases.

Table 3. 2 Total Number of Employees by Sex and the Share Managerial Positions by Both Sexes

Item	<10/12	=10/12	Cert	TD	CD	BA/Bsc/LB	MFA/Msc/LLM	DVM	PHD	Total
Total Male employees in sampled Bureaus and Offices	117	72	27	44	133	225	80	7	2	707
Total Female employees in sampled Bureaus and Offices	49	124	44	64	95	55	8	0	0	439
Total	166	196	71	108	228	280	88	7	2	1146
Share of male corresponding to each level of education	0.70	0.37	0.38	0.41	0.58	0.80	0.91	1.00	1.00	0.62
Share of female corresponding to each level of education	0.30	0.63	0.62	0.59	0.42	0.20	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.38
Male managers		14	7	1	27	89	55	3	2	198
Female managers		6	0	4	4	6	2	0	0	22
Total number of managers		20	7	5	31	95	57	3	2	220
Share out of total managerial positions corresponding each level of education		0.09	0.03	0.02	0.14	0.43	0.26	0.01	0.01	1.0
male's managerial share corresponding to each level of education		0.70	1.00	0.20	0.87	0.94	0.96	1.00	1.00	0.90
women' s managerial share corresponding to each level of education		0.30	0.00	0.80	0.13	0.06	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.10

Source; Compiled from 2005/06 Organizational Restructuring and Employees' Placement (OCSCO)

NB: Cert= Certificate, TD=Technique Diploma, CD=College diploma, DVM= Doctor of Veterinary Medicine

Total service years of employees do not affect the share of managerial jobs for both sexes in the Oromia Regional level Executive Bureaus and Offices significantly. As it can be seen from Table 3.3 there was no uniform pattern in the distribution of managers (both male and female) across the total service years. Within their sex group, the majority (35 percent) of men managers have served above 30 years while 29 percent of them have served between 16-20 years. The figure for women managers in the same range (total service years sequentially) was 23 percent and 27 percent . In other wards, the majority of women managers out of their sex group served between 16-20 years followed by those who served above 30 years. Although the proportion of managers corresponding to total service years had no uniformity, the reverse in the proportion of managers of both sexes out of their own sex group across total service years suggests late entrance of women in to managerial positions. This might affect negatively women managers' advancement opportunities into higher level managerial positions.

Table 3. 3 Total Service in Years and Managerial levels by Sex

Name of bureau or Office	Sex	Total Service in Years in employment							Managerial level		
		1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	>30	Top	Middle	Lower
Oromia Water Resource Bureau	M		1	6	12	5	1		2	1	22
	F		1	1	1					1	2
Oromia Revenue Bureau	M			2	1	3		1	2		5
	F										
Oromia Civil Service Commission	M			2	11	3	3	2	1		20
	F		1								1
Oromia Agriculture and Rural Development Bureau	M					2	3	44	2	13	34
	F							3			3
Oromia Finance And Economic Development Bureau	M			9	12	7	2	7	3	8	26
	F				1		1			1	1
Oromia Capacity Building Office	M			4	5				2	3	4
	F						1				1
Oromia Works & Urban Development Bureau	M			1	12	3	1		3	3	11
	F				4					1	3
Oromia Women's Affairs Bureau	M		1		1	2	1			1	4
	F		1			1	2	1	2		3
Oromia Information and Public Relation Bureau	M						1	15	2	4	10
	F							1			1
Justice Bureau of Oromia	M			2	4	5	1		2	2	8
	F			1			1				2
Total	M	0	2	26	58	30	13	69	19	35	144
	F	0	3	2	6	1	5	5	2	3	17
Grand total		0	5	28	64	31	18	74	21	38	161
% age of male and female managers in the category	M	0.0	0.40	0.93	0.91	0.97	0.72	0.93	0.90	0.92	0.89
	F	0.0	0.60	0.07	0.09	0.03	0.28	0.07	0.10	0.08	0.11

Source: Compiled from 2005/06 Organizational Restructuring and Employee Placement (OCSCO)

Note: M= Male, F= Female

3.4. Characteristics of Participants

The profile of women and men managers (respondents) shows there are similarities and differences in their demographic background and types of employees they are managing in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices of the executive branch. Table 3.3 presents demographic profile of men and women respondents and work status of their subordinates.

Table 3. 4Background Characteristics of Respondents by sex

Item		Male		Female	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Age	20-25			1	6
	26-30	3	8	4	25
	31-35	14	37	3	19
	36-40	10	26	4	25
	41-45	8	21	4	25
	46-50	3	8		
	Total	38	100	16	100
Marital status	married	33	87	10	63
	Single			3	19
	divorced	4	11	1	6
	Other	1	3	2	13
	Total	38	101	16	101
No. of children	0	11	29	10	63
	1-2	17	45	5	31
	3-4	10	26	1	6
	Total	38	100	16	100
Level of education	10/12grade	3	8	4	25
	Cert	2	5		
	Dipl	8	21	6	38
	1 st degree	23	61	4	25
	MA/MSc degree	2	5	2	12
	Total	38	100	16	100
Total service year	1-5			1	6
	6-10	2	5	2	13
	11-15	18	47	7	44
	16-20	6	16	4	25
	21-25	10	26	2	12
	26-30	2	6		
	Total	38	100	16	100
Total exercise in management	1-5	13	34	6	38
	6-10	11	29	7	44
	11-15	10	26	1	6
	16-20	2	6	2	12
	21-25	2	5		
	Total	38	100	16	100
Work status of subordinates	All semi skilled	7	18	9	56
	All skilled	9	24	2	13
	Majority unskilled	2	5	2	12
	Majority semi skilled	15	40	3	19
	Majority skilled	5	13		
	Total	38	100	16	100

Source, own survey, 2008

As shown in Table 3.4 the majority of both sex managers are above 30 years of age. The majority of both sex managers are married. Of those married, however, while the majority of male

managers (71 percent) have children the majority of women managers (63 percent) have no children. In terms of education, most respondents (both sex) have diploma and above. Fourthly, most of the participants have served above 11 years of which greater than 6 years and above are in management positions. There are differences between respondents on the work status of subordinates. That is while the majority of women managers (56 percent) are supervising almost all in all semi-skilled subordinates, men managers are managing employees with different work status, although those who manage employees who are semi skilled account for 40 percent. The share of women managers who are managing greatly unskilled employees is almost twice that the share of men managers who are supervising employees with the same work status. Conversely, it is found that the proportion of men managers who are managing skilled (all) employees is twice that of women managers.

Generally, over all profile of participants suggests that the majority of managers in the Regional bureaus and offices of the executive branch are married of which the majority of men have children and while the majority of women have not. Even though women managers almost have similar level of education with that of men, in addition to persistent discrimination, the kind of education they have obtained affects their share of managerial positions. Total service years and years of experience in management do not necessarily justify women's claim for managerial jobs. This further suggests it is the types of experience that matters than having long year experience in the same positions of management (women managers being assigned to only one positions). Finally, the profile of subordinate who are managed by women managers indicates that the majority of women managers are assigned to challenging managerial jobs. Consequently, women managers do not have the opportunity to experience new challenges and high level of responsibilities which in turn affects their chance of promotion in management hierarchy.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

Women managers in the Oromia regional level executive branch bureaus and offices face many challenges and some opportunities. Drawbacks in policy documents, ineffective human resource management practices, and women managers' personal and organizational barriers are the most critical challenges for the under-representation and poor career progress of women in management services. Different initiatives are being taken by the regional government and executive branch of Oromia to enhance women's share of managerial jobs. However, these initiatives seem to be insufficient to ensure gender equality in managerial occupations in the selected bureaus and offices. In this chapter, results of collected data are presented, analyzed and interpreted.

4.2. Challenges or Opportunities Facing Women Managers due to Gender Related Regional Policies

The Oromia Regional State has issued different policies that address gender concern. The Constitution of the Regional State, the Civil Servants Proclamation of the Regional State, the Family Code of the Regional State, Disciplinary and Grievance Procedure Regulation of the Regional State, Human Resource Management Directive of the Regional State, and Regional Women Affairs Policy are the major policy documents that are concerned with gender issues. These policies are targeted to eliminate gender discrimination in all aspects. Despite there positive measures, most of these policies are not comprehensive enough to eliminate gender discrimination. These policies are discussed briefly in paragraphs that follow.

The Constitution- "the supreme law of the Regional State" (Art, 9(1)) consists of separate article (Art, 35) on women's rights. The article states that women have equal right with men in the employment and protection by Constitution; women are entitled to equality with men in marriage; women enjoy affirmative action measures to redress the inequality and discrimination; women have to be protected by the State from harmful customs; women have equal rights with men in employment, promotion, equal payment and the entitlement to bequeath pensions ;

women employed in government and private organizations have the right to maternity leave with pay; women have the right to education, information and to means that could enable them to plan their families; women have the right to participate in formulation of development policies, project management, particularly those affecting the interest of women; and women have the right to acquire, administer, control and transfer and benefit from property. This implies that the Constitution is aimed at ensuring the equality of men and women in all aspects. Furthermore, the Constitution provides positive measure (affirmative action) to redress persistent discrimination and inequality experienced by women. Generally the Constitution of the Regional State provides important framework to ensure the equality of women and men in development process.

The Oromia Civil Servants Proclamation has issued important guidelines for the administration of civil services of the region. The proclamation has incorporated all human resource management functions directly or indirectly. It is also intended to ensure gender equality in employment in the region. Some of the articles concerned with gender equality include, equal pay for equal work (Act, 6); no discrimination among job seekers on any ground (Act, 13(1)); affirmative action (Act, 13, a & b); clear advertisement of vacant positions (Act, 14 (1)); testing qualification and competency of applicant to fill vacant positions (Act, 13 (2)); competition for promotion unless prohibited by disciplinary case (Act, 22 (11)) and conducting employee performance evaluation transparently.

Although the proclamation provides general guidelines for civil servants administration and to address gender equality at work, there exist loopholes that counteract against the intended objectives. The major weakness of the proclamation is that it does not clearly indicate the type of examination and other selection tests to be conducted to fill vacant positions and make promotion decisions. In this regard Mondy and Noe (1990) stated that subjective, unreliable, invalid and unstandardized employee selection instruments not only affect the performance of organization but also denies equal opportunity to job seekers and for advancement in organization. This suggests that lack of clarity in selection instrument in the proclamation could prohibit the opportunity of women's entry into managerial jobs and their advancement in the managerial hierarchy.

The Oromia Regional State Civil Servants Disciplinary and Grievance Procedure clearly provide all necessary steps of disciplinary and grievance procedures and the likely decisions depending on the cases. The grievance procedure which is intended to promote the maintenance of smooth

employment relations by providing speedy redressal of grievances, corrective measures to mistakes and weaknesses causing grievances; and fair and equal treatment of all civil servants grants any civil servant the right to petition where she/he feels unfairly treated in connection with interpretation or enforcement of laws and directives, the enjoyment of rights and privileges; occupational health and safety conditions, classification and grading of jobs; performance evaluation, assignment to duty not failing under her/his job description ; undue influences resulting from arbitrary acts of supervision; disciplinary measure; or other conditions of service.

Notwithstanding to the clarity of disciplinary and grievance procedures to ensure gender equality at work place both procedures have limitations. The compositions and criteria of establishing the committee is not clearly indicated. That is in both procedure the majority of the members (four; chair person, two numbers and secretary for disciplinary committee and three; chair person, one member and secretary in the case of grievance committee) are appointed by the head of organization. Civil servants are allowed to elect only one member of the committee. Apparently this might hurt all employees particularly women at least for three reasons. Firstly, the head of government office might select individuals who accept and promote his/her interests consequently get biased in addressing employee concern objectively and timely. Secondly, incase where the head of government office is not gender sensitive women could be totally missed or underrepresented in both committees and hence the privileges of women are not protected. Thirdly, since civil servants are allowed only to choose one member of the committee women are less likely to be elected as a member of the committee because of their under presentation and male oriented organizational culture. This implies that though these regulations seem to be gender neutral (still using the pronoun “he”) their effect by no means could be gender neutral in practice. This suggests women managers’ problems may not be addressed adequately because of such loopholes in the regulations.

Family Code of the Oromia Regional State Proclamation No. 69/2003 and No. 83/2004 generally underscored the equality of spouse in the right of administration, ownership of commonly owned property. The Code has also provided issues and preconditions related to family. Regarding family responsibilities, Article 66 (1) and 66(2) of the Proclamation stated equal obligations of spouses for family responsibility and in ensuring their children's wellbeing in order to make them

responsible citizens. Furthermore, Article 65 (2) of the Code states that the spouses owe each other respect, support and assistance.

Like the Civil Servants Proclamation of the Regional State, the Human Resource Directive which was issued in July, 2006 has addressed all human resource management functions. Affirmative action has been institutionalized by the directive in selection and promotion of women applicants and women employees. The directive urged employing institutions have to encourage women applicants to fill vacant positions in their advertisement. Furthermore, the directive stated institutions ought to include women representative in the selection committee unless other wise difficult situation occurs. In the selection decision, the directive stated that women applicant who has scored equal mark or less by three points with that of men counterparts shall be selected over men applicant. The selection criteria in the directive similar to the Civil Servants Proclamation meets all the features of good selection test (norm, standardization, validity and reliability) except its failure to state the type of selection test. Alternatively, the Directive does not clearly indicate the type of selection test to be used in selection decision. Consequently women employees (managers) might be discriminated (although men too suffer to some extent) especially if the selection test are subjective type totally.

With regard to promotion, the Directive provides two possibilities; using open advertisements and recommendation by the head of the organization. Affirmative action has been institutionalized in promotion similar to selection. In case promotion based on competition all criteria identified by the directive are merit based except one (the type of selection test). The head of the organization, of course which might induce subjectivity, authorized for assigning nine points in promotion. This indicates both in competition based and recommendation by head of the organization, women managers could experience challenges in moving up the management ladder. This is so at least for two reasons. For one, women managers (employees) do not have opportunity to compete particularly for top managerial level because often times they are underrepresented at middle level positions. For another, the head of the organization may not be objective enough in assigning the indicated points to respective employees. And hence, women managers could suffer much more than men managers since most of them might not have strong network with the head of the organization who are usually men.

The Directive adopted result oriented performance appraisal method for employees' performance rating. In elevating managerial performance, managers of similar positions and related positions including their subordinates are suggested to participate. Appreciating the advantage of result oriented performance evaluation, women managers could be underrated because of overlooking elements of human behavior in appraising performance for which women managers are often found excellent. This in turn, clearly, limits their chance of promotion in managerial positions.

The Oromia Regional State has issued Regional Women's Affairs Policy in November, 2005 twelve year later after National Policy on Ethiopian women was issued (Sep. 1993). The policy having general and specific objectives has identified: women and politics; women and economy; women and education and training; women and HIV/AIDS; and women and harmful traditional practices as policy instruments so as to eliminate the prevailing discrimination against women in all aspects. The policy has also demarcated the responsibilities of Regional Government, Government Organizations; Civil Society and Regional Women's Affairs Bureau.

The responsibilities of Regional Government include incorporating national laws and conventions ratified by the country in the Regional policies and raising mass awareness thereon; repealing/amending laws that counteract against gender equality; enhancing gender awareness and enforcing gender equality at all levels, enforcing Constitutionally guaranteed women's right; building capacity of policy implementing sectors/ unites; and ensuring protection of women's right by justice sector are among the major ones to be cited.

Among the responsibilities of governmental organizations, increasing the number of women health professionals, preparing gender responsive reports, providing legal advisory for women; building women civil servants capacity, ensuring implementation of women's right and facilitating women's access to all resources are few among the list. The civil society, on the other hand, are responsible for educating children both male and female equally (house hold head), and enforcing gender policies and strategies so that women enjoy the fruit of development equal to men (civil society organization).

Ensuring the inclusion of gender equality concern in all policies and follow up the implementation in all governmental organizations; providing support for stakeholders; gathering, organizing and evaluation information regarding women's affairs; checking the inclusion of gender issues in plans and strategies of the Regional development plan; and enhancing women's

economic, social, political, and administrative power are among the major responsibilities of the Oromia women's affairs bureau.

Generally, although the policy has been issued a decade late after national policy, it seems comprehensive enough to address gender equality in all aspects at all levels. The loopholes in policy document (intended to increasing the number of women health professionals), however, could lead to perpetuation of perceived occupational role of women which in turn negatively affect their chance of holding managerial jobs.

4.3. Challenges/ Opportunities Facing Women Managers as A result of Human Resource Management Practices

4.3.1. Challenges/ Opportunities Facing Women Managers As Result Of Recruitment and Selection Practices

Recruitment and selection of employees to fill vacant positions if not done objectively apparently creates discrimination in employment practices. In this regard, significant difference between male and female managers is found except in relation to recruitment policies, advertisement, and the effect of informal network on women's share of managerial jobs. Table 4.1 presents effect of recruitment and selection practices on women's share of managerial jobs in sampled bureaus and offices.

Table 4. 1 Effect of Recruitment and Selection Practices on Women's Share of Managerial Jobs

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Note: the upper value of “t” is used when Equal variances is assumed and when Equal variances not assumed the lower value of “t” is used

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				“F”	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value
Organization has written objective policies for managerial recruitment	M	38	3.66	.305	.583	1.349	52	.183
	F	16	3.25			1.416	31.596	.167
Organization uses open advertisement method for managerial recruitment	M	38	3.66	.928	.340	.650	52	.519
	F	16	3.50			.742	38.869	.463
Organization uses objective selection tools for managerial jobs	M	38	2.84	7.579	.008	2.054	52	.045
	F	16	2.19			2.449	43.272	.018
Male organizational leaders(managers) reserve the most desirable jobs for male managers	M	38	2.37	.010	.920	-4.681	52	.000
	F	16	3.94			-4.303	23.805	.000
Recruiting managers through informal networks has blocked women’s entry into management positions	M	38	2.39	.107	.745	-.443	52	.660
	F	16	2.50			-.437	27.421	.666
Women managers are less likely to be promoted than men into comparable positions	M	38	3.00	4.830	.032	-3.087	52	.003
	F	16	4.13			-3.396	35.443	.002
Women with similar background or qualification with that of men have equal chance for promotion into management	M	38	3.47	.271	.605	5.405	52	.000
	F	16	1.88			5.518	29.605	.000

Note: M= Male, F= Female, N= number, “F” = F-value, Sig=significant, t=t calculated (value), df=degree of freedom

The Oromia Regional executive branch bureaus and offices have written recruitment and selection policy for managerial jobs. Both sex respondents agree that their organization have written documents on human resource administration. Specifically, men respondents (\bar{X} =3.66) and women (\bar{X} = 3.26) reported the existence of policy. And no significant difference in average between populations of average is obtained (t (52) =1.349, p>0.05). The result suggests that executive organs of the Regional government have objective policies for managerial recruitment. These organizations are also using open advertisement for recruitment of managers. The majority of both sex managers either agrees or strongly agrees that Regional bureaus and offices are using open advertisement method to fill vacant managerial jobs. Average of the population is not significantly (t (39) =0.742, p>0.05) different. However, participants indicated that Regional bureaus and offices do not use objective selection tools even though the average for men managers (\bar{X} =2.84) is slightly higher than that of women (\bar{X} =2.19). This designates both

women and men managers either disagree or strongly disagree to the statement. The t- test however indicates presence of significant difference between both sex managers ($t(43) = 2.449$, $p < 0.05$) suggesting women and men managers do not similarly perceive the extent of objectivity of managerial selection tools; women holding greater reservation as compared to men managers. Thus, one can reasonably question the extent of objectivity of selection tools.

Respondents of the study indicated that recruiting managers through informal network has not blocked women's entry into management positions in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices. In other words both male ($\bar{X} = 2.39$) and female ($\bar{X} = 2.50$) managers do not believe that informal networking in managerial placement affect women's chance of occupying managerial positions. No significant difference in average exists between population of the study ($t(52) = 0.443$, $p > 0.05$). This suggests Regional bureaus and offices do not depend on informal network for managerial recruitment directly.

Male value among other factors has seemed to challenge women managers' opportunities to hold relatively better managerial positions in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices. The majority of women respondent ($\bar{X} = 3.94$) agree that male managers reserve most desirable managerial jobs for their sex group. Men respondents ($\bar{X} = 2.37$) do not have the same opinion however. And hence significant difference in average between population is obtained ($t(52) = 4.681$, $p < 0.05$). Secondly, women participants greatly agree ($\bar{X} = 4.13$) that women managers are less likely to be promoted into comparable positions with male ($\bar{X} = 3.00$) counterparts. The result of independent sample t-test is significant for population mean ($t(35) = 3.396$, $p < 0.05$). Finally, even women with similar background or qualifications with that of men do not have equal chance for promotion into management jobs although men participants are slightly different in response from women respondents. That is, while women participants are inclined to strongly agree in the attitude ($\bar{X} = 4.25$) men subjects are found in the agree list ($\bar{X} = 3.47$) in their attitude. Statistically significant gap in average is obtained between population of the study ($t(41) = 3.286$, $p < 0.05$). The result indicates that absence of agreement between both sexes with regard to equal chance in managerial promotion. This is so, at least for two basic reasons. For one, men managers could either perceive existence of fairness in promotion (less likely) or they are defending themselves (most likely) - refuse to accept the reality. For the other, women managers

are being discriminated in the managerial promotions in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices to hold relatively better management posts.

To summarize, even though the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices of the executive branch have appropriate recruitment and selection policies and follow open advertisement method to fill managerial jobs, the opportunity of women to hold managerial jobs and after then advance in management ladder seem to be greatly affected because of subjective elements in selection tools and absence of fairness in managerial placement and promotion.

4.3.2. Challenges/Opportunities Facing Women Managers as a Result of Performance Appraisal Practices

Employee performance evaluation is concerned with rating employees performance for making human resource administrative decisions and providing rating result to employees. It should be made on objective bases to avoid bias and other kinds of discriminatory practices. In the Oromia Regional State bureaus and offices there are similarities and significant differences between women managers and men managers in relation to women managers' performance evaluation. Table 4. 2 Show responses of participants to managerial performance evaluation practice and women managers in sampled bureaus and offices.

Table 4. 2 Managerial Performance Evaluation Practice and Women Managers

Item	Gender	n	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value
organization has written policies for managerial performance records	M	38	4.18	1.237	.271	1.270	52	.210
	F	16	3.81			1.325	31.161	.195
Women managers are evaluated the same way as men managers in performance evaluation by men managers	M	38	3.79	.093	.762	3.400	52	.001
	F	16	2.56			3.316	26.769	.003
Managers discuss performance result with women managers equally as they do with men managers	M	38	3.32	1.334	.253	1.538	52	.130
	F	16	2.69			1.620	31.827	.115
Women managers are effective in attaining organizational goals	M	38	3.39	4.196	.046	-1.990	52	.052
	F	16	4.13			-2.197	35.747	.035
Women managers are more effective than men in addressing employees needs	M	38	3.71	8.577	.005	-2.356	52	.022
	F	16	4.44			-2.964	48.447	.005
Performance evaluation for women at middle management level is stronger than those in the lower level	M	38	2.82	8.509	.005	-3.977	52	.000
	F	16	4.13			-4.882	46.197	.000

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Firstly, while women managers (respondents) reported ($\bar{X}=2.56$) that they are not evaluated the same way as men managers in performance rating done by men managers, men subjects on the contrary reported ($\bar{X}=3.79$) the similarity in performance evaluation of managers by men managers regardless of sex. The average for the population is found significant ($t(52)=3.400$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, it is logical to doubt that women and men managers are evaluated in the same way by men managers in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices.

Secondly, subjects of the study by and large agree that women managers are effective in attaining organizational goals and better than men managers in addressing employees' needs. Despite this fact, however, women managers rated themselves very highly than men rating of managers in these two aspects. Women participants rated themselves higher ($\bar{X}=4.13, 4.44$ respectively of the statements). Men subjects on the other hand rated women managers performance relatively lower than women rating themselves ($\bar{X}=3.39, 3.71$ in the same order of the statements). And hence, there is significant difference in average between the two groups of population about women managers performance and their concern for employee needs ($t(36)=2.197$, $p<0.05$ and $t(48)=2.964$, $p<0.05$ respectively). Although there exists difference in mean between populations of the study, the result in generally suggests that women managers are effective in attaining organizational goals and addressing employees' needs.

Thirdly, significant difference between the two populations of the study is observed on evaluation of women managers at middle level ($t(46)=4.882$, $p<0.05$). Alternatively the majority of women managers ($\bar{X}=4.13$) reported that women managers' performance evaluation is stricter at middle level management. Men managers ($\bar{X}=2.82$) however, do not perceive the severity of performance evaluation of women managers at middle level. The figure supports that it is reasonable to doubt the severity of performance appraisal of women managers at middle level management positions.

No significant difference in average is found between population of the study with respect to performance policy and on the extent of performance feedback given to women managers in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices ($t(31)=1.325$, $p>0.05$ and $t(31)=1.620$, $p>0.05$ sequentially). However, there is slight difference in these dimensions between women managers and men managers. The majority of men managers agree or strongly agree ($\bar{X}=4.18$) while

women managers extent of agreement is relatively lower ($\bar{X}=3.81$) about existence of written managerial performance records policy in their organization. Similarly while a good number of men managers agree ($\bar{X} =3.32$), women managers to the contrary slightly incline to disagree ($\bar{X}=2.69$) to the item. The result indicates that managers of the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices discuss almost equally performance results of both sex managers.

4.3.3. Challenges / Opportunities Experienced by Women Managers because of Human Resource Development Practices

Mondy and Noe (1990) noted that human resource development is a planned and continuous effort to enhance employees' capacity to perform their jobs in the organization. In the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices women managers don't have adequate access to human resource development programs. Subjects of the study are significantly different on human resource development programs except on three of the items. Table 4.3 shows responses of women and men managers on human resource development programs of sampled bureaus and offices.

Table 4. 3 Women Managers and Human Development Programs in Practice

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value)
organization has objective human resource development policy	M	38	3.74	.010	.919	.365	52	.717
	F	16	3.63			.366	28.432	.717
Women managers have equal chance with male managers to improve and enhance their skills	M	38	3.58	5.149	.027	5.119	52	.000
	F	16	1.94			5.781	37.859	.000
organization invests in the development of women managers	M	38	3.18	.674	.416	2.433	52	.018
	F	16	2.31			2.510	30.325	.018
Most management development programs provided by organization are gender mainstreamed	M	38	3.21	10.201	.002	2.825	52	.007
	F	16	2.19			3.398	44.134	.001
Most management development programs provided by organization satisfies women's managers needs	M	38	3.21	.052	.820	.458	52	.649
	F	16	2.19			.473	30.523	.639
Organization reviews women manager's success in development	M	38	2.97	1.134	.292	2.916	52	.005
	F	16	1.94			3.109	32.788	.004
Appropriate organizational system exists for the advancement of women managers in my organization	M	38	4.08	5.802	.020	4.271	52	.000
	F	16	2.88			3.659	21.074	.001
Organization assigns challenging jobs to men managers than female managers even though they have identical qualification	M	38	4.03	2.137	.150	1.856	52	.069
	F	16	3.44			1.716	24.065	.099
Men have much more responsibilities than women managers even in similar jobs	M	38	3.82	.158	.693	.915	52	.364
	F	16	3.50			.917	28.359	.367
Women have opportunity to challenge men for desirable jobs to hold managerial positions (advancement)	M	38	3.39	1.122	.294	2.852	52	.006
	F	16	2.38			2.704	25.264	.012
Most women enter organization without career plan that will enable them to be manager	M	38	3.79	.049	.826	1.445	52	.154
	F	16	3.31			1.422	27.273	.166
Women don't have adequate access to career opportunities as men managers	M	38	2.61	1.490	.228	-3.505	52	.001
	F	16	3.88			-3.622	30.446	.001
Men understood more what career path exists in organization than women	M	38	3.39	1.562	.217	-2.994	52	.004
	F	16	4.44			-3.109	30.795	.004
Women managers have adequate access to professional coaches (mentor) in career path choices.	M	38	3.21	.766	.386	2.789	52	.007
	F	16	2.19			2.875	30.260	.007
Organizational structure creates difficulty for women managers reaching upper management levels	M	38	3.08	11.440	.001	-3.465	52	.001
	F	16	4.31			-4.611	51.800	.000

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Both men and women managers (respondents) stated that Regional level executive organizations have objective human resource development policy. Comparatively however, men managers (\bar{X} =3.74) reported slightly higher than women managers (\bar{X} =3.63) even though there is no significant difference between two population of study (t (52) =0.365, p>0.05). This shows the

presence of objective human resource development policy in the executive branch of Regional level governmental organizations. The presences of objective human resource development policy, however, do not guarantee equal opportunity for women managers for management development programs compared to men managers. While men respondents, agree or strongly agree ($\bar{X} = 3.58$) that women managers have equal chance with men counterparts to enhance their managerial skills, women managers disagree ($\bar{X}=1.94$) to the statement. A two tailed independent sample t-test shows that there exists significant difference in average between two groups population ($t(38) = 5.781, p < 0.05$). Interviewees indicated that “women managers’ access to managerial development programs is partly limited because of their assignment non-strategic managerial jobs.” The result thus suggests that there is no much doubt that women managers are discriminated to have access to management’s development programs in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices.

The investment made by the executive branch Regional level governmental organization of the Oromia Regional State to enhance women managers’ capability is very little. Men participants remain almost neutral ($\bar{X} = 3.18$) about the extent of organization’s investment on women managers to build their capability. Women managers on the other hand almost disagree ($\bar{X} = 2.31$) indicating that the investment made so far on women manager capacity building is not sufficient. Statistically the difference between population average is significant ($t(30) = 2.510, p < 0.05$). This implies women and men managers are quite different on the adequacy of investment made by the organization to build women managers’ capacity. Generally, however, the result indicates the level of investment made by Regional bureaus and offices to enhance women managers’ managerial skills is not sufficient.

Gender mainstreaming is recommended in all programs and projects to ensure gender equality in development process. However it is found that gender mainstreaming activities is lower in human resource development programs in the Oromia Regional level executive branch organization. Women managers ($\bar{X} = 2.19$) reported that management development programs they attended had not gender mainstreamed mostly. Men managers however slightly agree ($\bar{X}=3.21$) that most management development programs they had attended were gender mainstreamed. As a result there is significant difference in average between men and women population ($t(44) = 3.398, p < 0.05$). Therefore, it is difficult to believe that executive organ

Regional level bureaus and offices mainstream gender issues in managerial development programs.

With regard to management development programs in addressing women managers' needs both sex participants do not agree that the program in which they had participated were sufficient enough to meet women managers demand. The average for men and women respondents is 2.58 and 2.75 respectively. The result of independent sample t-test ($t(52) = 0.525, p > 0.05$) indicates that no significant difference exists in average between the two populations of the study. This entails most development programs offered by executive organ bureaus and offices of the Regional State are not conducted on the basis of developmental needs of women managers.

Periodical review of success in management development programs is essential to take remedial action timely and to take lessons for future managerial development programs. Subjects of the study (both men and women) almost indicated that their organization do not review women managers' success in management development. The level of disagreement varies between the men and women respondents. While men participants by and large remain closely neutral ($\bar{X} = 2.97$) women subjects on the other hand suggested that their organization do not review the success of women managers ($\bar{X} = 1.94$) in managerial development programs. The mean of the population is significantly different ($t(33) = 3.109, p < 0.05$) implying that it is difficult to accept that the Regional bureaus and offices are reviewing women managers success in management development.

About the existence of appropriate system for the advancement of women managers in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices, a good number of women respondents either strongly disagree or disagree ($\bar{X} = 2.88$) about the presence of appropriate system for women managers advancement while there sex opposites agree or strongly agree ($\bar{X} = 4.08$) to this. There exists significant difference in attitude between the populations of study ($t(21) = 3.659, p < 0.05$). Hence, it is reasonable to question the existence of appropriate system in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices for women managers' advancement in the management ladder.

Hertzberg's two factor theory of motivations suggests that relatively high level of responsibility associated with assignment to challenging jobs is critical for employees' motivation and their development in the organization (Griffin and Moorhead, 2001). These opportunities are not

available to women managers as compared with that of men counterparts in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices. Both group of participants of the study agree or strongly agree that organization assigns challenging jobs to men managers even though they have identical qualification (women $\bar{X}=3.44$, men $\bar{X}=4.08$). Similarly they also agree or strongly agree that even in similar jobs men managers are much more responsible than women managers (women $\bar{X}=3.50$, men $\bar{X}=3.82$). The independent sample t-test is not significant for both assignment to challenging jobs ($t(24)=1.716$, $p>0.05$) and extent of responsibility ($t(52)=0.917$, $p>0.05$) enjoyed by women managers-population mean is not significantly different. This generally shows women managers do not have opportunity to experience relatively challenging job assignments and high level of responsibility. Consequently, therefore, women managers do not have the opportunity to broaden their managerial talent which in turn affects their chance of advancement into managerial occupations.

Existence of opportunity for employees to ask for better jobs in the organization is essential to address gender equality in employment. In this line women participants indicated there is no adequate opportunities for women managers to challenge men and thereby hold better managerial jobs ($\bar{X}=2.38$). Men participants, however, almost pointed out that availability of such opportunities for women managers ($\bar{X}=3.39$). As a result significant gap in mean between populations is found which further suggests the difficulty to believe the availability of opportunity for women managers to (challenge) men for desirable managerial positions.

The advancement of women in managerial jobs in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices is constrained by women's personal motives and poor access to career opportunities. The majorities of participants of both sexes either agree or strongly agree (men of course with higher score) that most women enter organization without career plan that enables them to be manager. To be specific, men respondents ($\bar{X}=3.79$) pointed out that most women enter organization without career plan while the figure for women respondents is relatively lower ($\bar{X}=3.31$). No significant gap in average between populations of the study is observed ($t(52)=1.445$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, poor career planning before entering organization creates problem for women employees to enter into managerial jobs and to advance thereon in managerial level in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices.

Access to career development opportunities is one among the factors that could affect employees' development chance in organizations. Sample respondents of men and women managers have opposite views on this issue. Women participants agree (mean = 3.88) that women managers do not have adequate access to career development opportunities in their organization while men subjects do not agree ($\bar{X} = 2.61$). Significant gap is observed in population mean ($t(30) = 3.622$, $p < 0.05$). Thus it is difficult to believe that women managers have adequate access to career development opportunities as men managers. This further indicates that women managers are discriminated in getting access to career development programs in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices.

Organizations have to provide professional coaching service to their employees in career path choices. In this respect despite the fact that women participants ($\bar{X} = 2.50$) pointed out that their organization is not providing adequate professional coaching service to women managers to choose career path; men subjects ($\bar{X} = 3.29$) on the other believe that professional coaching service given to women managers is somewhat adequate. Significant difference in average between populations is found ($t(52) = 2.089$, $p < 0.05$). Accordingly it is difficult to trust that women are adequately advised in career path choices in the executive branch Regional level bureaus and offices. Moreover, even if there is significant gap between population mean ($t(31) = 3.109$, $p < 0.05$) both sex respondents indicated that men understood more what career path exists in the organization than women. This suggests generally women managers do not have adequate career choice professional coaching service and career path information as well in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices.

Organizational structure might create difficulty for some employees moving up in the organizational hierarchy. To this end, women participants by and large strongly agree ($\bar{X} = 4.31$) that organizational structure creates difficulty for women managers reaching upper level management positions whereas men respondents slightly agree ($\bar{X} = 3.08$) to the difficulties created by organizational structure for the advancement of women managers. Significant difference in mean between the populations is noticed ($t(52) = 4.611$, $p < 0.05$) supporting that organizational structuring creates challenges for women managers reaching upper management levels in the Regional executive bureaus and offices. It also indicates that limited attention is given to organizational structuring to make the structure gender sensitive for managerial jobs.

4.4. Personal and Organizational Culture Challenges of Women in Management in the Regional Bureaus and Offices

4.4.1. Women Managers and Personal Barriers

Women's share of managerial jobs has been constrained by their own personal barriers. Lack of right education, absence of further training opportunities, inadequate managerial experience, lack of confidence to challenge decision making process of organization, and family responsibilities are the major among personal factors that negatively affect women's share of managerial jobs. Table 4.4 shows personal barriers of women in management.

Table 4. 4Personal Barriers of Women in Management

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of		
				"F"	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value
Women managers do not have right education for managerial jobs	M	38	3.84	.464	.499	3.658	52	.001
	F	16	2.63			3.495	25.661	.002
Women managers do not have further training opportunities	M	38	2.84	8.965	.004	-4.757	52	.000
	F	16	4.38			-6.102	49.977	.000
Women managers do not have adequate managerial experience	M	38	3.45	.599	.443	-1.376	52	.175
	F	16	3.94			-1.385	28.697	.177
Female managers are more empowering(participative) than male managers	M	38	2.95	.416	.522	-2.924	52	.005
	F	16	4.00			-3.000	29.961	.005
Men and women managers perform organizational activities differently	M	38	3.24	.757	.388	-1.491	52	.142
	F	16	3.81			-1.438	26.150	.162
Men and women manager uses similar type of leadership style	M	38	2.34	.401	.529	1.269	52	.210
	F	16	2.00			1.220	25.985	.233
Women managers do not have characteristics associated with leaders	M	38	3.00	1.673	.202	.348	52	.730
	F	16	2.88			.309	22.427	.760
Managerial jobs are not desirable for women	M	37	3.19	.003	.954	-3.354	51	.002
	F	16	4.06			-3.228	26.247	.003
Women managers do not have confidence to challenge the decision making process of the organization	M	38	3.61	.004	.947	1.408	52	.165
	F	16	3.19			1.367	26.494	.183
Women with greater family responsibility are less committed to their career	M	38	3.79	1.640	.206	-2.259	52	.797
	F	16	3.88			-2.291	37.649	.772
Executive role impose more demanding schedule on the personal lives of women than of men	M	38	3.32	.388	.536	-2.907	52	.005
	F	16	4.19			-2.840	26.862	.009
Women managers are challenging the stereotype that only men are fit to-managerial positions	M	38	2.87	.145	.704	-.343	52	.733
	F	16	3.00			-.338	27.490	.738
Women managers have common interest in-fighting for greater inclusion into management jobs	M	38	2.79	.115	.736	-.561	52	.577
	F	16	3.00			-.560	28.066	.580

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Participants of the study hold different views about women's educational background and its match to managerial jobs. Male participants agree ($\bar{X} = 3.84$) that women's educational background do not fit for managerial jobs. Women participants on the other hand disagree ($\bar{X} = 2.63$) and believe that women managers do have right education to managerial jobs. Independent sample t-test result is significant between mean of the population ($t(52) = 3.658$, $p > 0.05$). Thus it seems realistic to accept that women managers' educational background directly or indirectly limits their share of managerial positions in the Oromia executive branch Regional bureaus and offices.

Further training opportunities is important for one self to improve personal skills. Men and women participants do not have the similar views about women managers further training opportunities. While women participants reported ($\bar{X} = 4.38$) that women managers do not have further development opportunities, men subjects slightly agree ($\bar{X} = 2.84$) that availability of further development chances for women managers. The mean of the populations differs significantly ($t(50) = 6.102$, $p < 0.05$). The result points out that it is difficult to believe that women managers have adequate opportunities to attend further training programs in the regional bureaus and offices of the executive organ governmental organization.

Adequate managerial experience is important to perform managerial duties effectively and efficiently. Both participants of the study reported that women managers do not have adequate managerial experience. The mean of population does not differ significantly ($t(29) = 1.385$, $p > 0.05$). This implies that lack of managerial experience (not assigned to different managerial jobs particularly), which is the consequence of many factors, created difficulties for women managers to hold relatively better managerial positions.

Men and women managers do not have similar attitude about participative behavior of female managers. Men managers have reservation ($\bar{X} = 2.95$) about participative behavior of women managers where as women managers consider themselves as empowering employees more ($\bar{X} = 4.00$) than men managers in decision making process. Significant difference in average is observed between population of study ($t(52) = 2.924$, $p < 0.05$). Although, it seems logical to doubt participative behavior of women managers than and men managers (based on managers

responses) the responses of subordinates indicates that women managers are more participative than men counterparts.

In performing organizational activities, the result of sample respondents indicates that women and men managers are different. Both men ($\bar{X} = 3.58$) and women ($\bar{X} = 3.56$) subjects agree that women and men managers perform organizational activities differently. No significant difference in population mean is seen in this respect ($t(23) = 0.039, p > 0.05$). It should be noted that differences in behavior in performing managerial duties between women and men managers affects women's share of managerial jobs particularly if decision makers are dominated by men (holding men culture) in placing employees for managerial jobs. Respondents of the study also indicated that women and men managers do not use similar leadership style. Both participants believe that the leadership style of women managers ($\bar{X} = 4.13$) and men managers ($\bar{X} = 3.05$) are dissimilar. Significant difference in population is observed ($t(52) = 3.478, p < 0.05$) suggesting the need to doubt existence of similarity in leadership style of men and women managers. Population of the study do not have significant difference in average as to characteristics associated with women leaders ($t(24) = 0.445, p > 0.05$). Both groups (women $\bar{X} = 3.38$, men $\bar{X} = 3.55$) agree that women managers do have characteristics associated with leaders. This indicates that women managers possess characteristics associated with leaders. Furthermore, both women ($\bar{X} = 4.06$) and men ($\bar{X} = 3.19$) managers indicated the desirability of managerial jobs for women employees. The attitude of men managers however is still not lower. In other words men managers do not have extremely positive attitude about the suitability of managerial jobs for women managers. Consequently significant difference in average between population is observed ($t(52) = 3.354, p < 0.05$). The result points that male manager's reservation about desirability of managerial jobs for women which in turn negatively effect women's chance to hold managerial jobs and their advancement in the management hierarchy.

Women managers' confidence to challenge decision making process of the organization is found almost neutral. Both groups of respondents of the study are almost neutral about the confidence of women managers. Significant difference between the populations is not seen ($t(52) = 1.042, p > 0.05$). Thus, it is difficult to suggest the level of women managers' confidence to challenge decision making process of organization.

Multiple responsibilities and executive role impose challenges on women managers' performance and their commitment to career development. Both respondents of the study indicated that women with greater family responsibilities are less committed to their career. Population mean is not significantly different ($t(38) = 0.291, p > 0.05$). And hence greater family responsibility checks women managers to advance in career development path in the Regional bureaus and offices. As to the executive role, both men ($\bar{X} = 3.32$) and women ($\bar{X} = 4.19$) subjects agree that managerial role imposes more demanding schedule on personal lives of women managers than men managers. The difference between the population mean, however, is significant statistically ($t(52) = 2.907, p < 0.05$). Thus, women managers are constrained greatly by family responsibilities in their career development than what men managers perceive. It also implies men managers with such attitude may not be willing to assign women managers to challenging jobs which in turn affect their opportunity of growth.

Women managers neither have common interest in fighting for greater inclusion into managerial jobs nor strongly challenge the stereotype that only men are fit to managerial positions. Both women and men subjects almost neutral about common interest among women managers in challenging the stereotype and claiming greater inclusion into managerial jobs. The result of independent sample t-tests is not significant for the populations mean difference ($t(52) = 0.343, p > 0.05$) and ($t(52) = 0.561, p > 0.05$ respectively). Therefore, women managers' courage to challenge men for managerial jobs collectively so as to enhance their managerial positions is not satisfactory in the Regional executive bureaus and offices.

4.4.2. Women Managers and Challenges of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture could affect the interaction of employees within the institution and their development as well. In this regard, different results are obtained in the study universe. Table 4.5 demonstrates challenges created by organizational culture to women in management.

Table 4. 5 Challenges Created by Organizational Culture to Women in Management

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value
There is strong acceptance of hierarchy of structure in organization	M	38	3.29	3.623	.063	-1.384	52	.172
	F	16	3.75			-1.526	35.662	.136
there is strong acceptance of unequal superior-subordinate relationship in organization	M	38	3.45	.195	.661	-.785	52	.436
	F	16	3.69			-.737	24.803	.468
Women managers are given few resources than men managers to do their jobs commensurate with their positions	M	38	2.92	1.545	.220	-2.541	52	.014
	F	16	3.88			-2.608	29.956	.014
Women managers have fewer chance to make important networks than male managers because they are assigned to lower visible jobs	M	38	3.58	4.302	.043	-1.546	52	.128
	F	16	4.13			-1.674	34.075	.103
Women managers have fewer opportunities to share ideas with their supervision	M	38	3.32	4.150	.047	-2.057	52	.045
	F	16	4.06			-2.288	36.442	.028
Women managers are left out of important networks in organization than men (no personal support)	M	38	3.18	.775	.383	-2.746	52	.008
	F	16	4.19			-2.750	28.345	.010
Predominance of male at the top level negatively affects women's opportunities to advance into positions of power	M	38	2.92	.048	.827	-4.092	52	.000
	F	16	4.25			-4.015	27.117	.000
Women managers don't equally participate in the formulation of organizational policies	M	38	3.08	.070	.793	-2.165	52	.035
	F	16	3.81			-2.197	29.189	.036
Women's present positions of management match their ideal positions of management	M	38	3.34	.556	.459	3.207	52	.002
	F	16	2.13			2.955	23.900	.007
Women managers are effective in managing organizational activities than men managers.	M	38	3.03	.154	.697	-.671	52	.505
	F	16	3.31			-.654	26.752	.518
Women managers are more suitable for organizational transformation (change).	M	38	3.82	.396	.532	-.534	52	.596
	F	16	4.00			-.535	28.359	.597

Source, Own survey, 2008.

In the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices hierarchy of structure in organization is strongly accepted. Both women ($\bar{X} = 3.06$) and men ($\bar{X} = 3.26$) subjects of the study agree that hierarchy of structure is accepted as culture of organization. Population mean is not significantly different ($t(25) = 0.489, p > 0.05$). Respondents also agree that there is strong acceptance of unequal superior - subordinate relationships in Regional bureaus and offices. No significant difference is seen in average between the populations of the study as well ($t(21) = 1.584, p > 0.05$). Thus, unequal superior-subordinate relationship and acceptance of hierarchy of structure as culture of the organization limit interaction of employees in general and women employees in particular in the executive branch Regional bureaus and offices.

Resource availability affects managerial performance. In this aspect women and men managers have opposing views about the amount of resource given to women managers. Women managers (participants) ($\bar{X} = 3.88$) reported that women managers are not given sufficient resources commensurate with their positions. Men subjects, on the other hand, are almost neutral ($\bar{X}=3.25$) about the size of resource given to women managers. Consequently, significant difference is observed in average between populations of the study ($t(30) = 2.608, p < 0.05$). Therefore, it is reasonable to question about equal allocation of organizational resource for women managers and men managers to do their jobs in the Regional executive branch bureaus and offices.

Women managers in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices do not have adequate chance to make important network, share information and hence left out of important networks as compared to men during the study period. Both sex participants indicated that because of assignment to less important jobs ($t(34) = 1.674, p > 0.05$), fewer opportunities to share ideas with their supervisors ($t(36) = 2.288, p < 0.05$) and inadequate personal support ($t(28) = 2.750, p < 0.05$) women managers are kept out of important network. Respondents of interview further stated that “societal attitude, values and beliefs, and women’s family responsibilities have restricted women managers to have important networks with men managers (even among their own sex group).” Although there are significant differences in average on opportunities to share idea and personal support, the result suggests women managers do not have equal opportunities as to male counterparts to make important informal network and share information in the Oromia Regional bureaus and office.

Participation of both sex managers in the formulation of organizational policies is essential to ensure gender equality and empowerment at work place. In the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices, women managers are not equally participate with men in the formulation of organizational policies. Women managers ($\bar{X} = 3.81$) subjects especially pointed out that women do not equally participate in organizational policy development. Men managers, however, slightly accepted ($\bar{X} = 3.08$) the existence of unequal participation of both managers in organizational policy formulation. Hence, significant difference between the population mean is found ($t(52) = 2.165, p < 0.05$). Interviewees are found to share women managers’ idea. They pointed out that,

“..... even when the opportunity for participation exists, women managers’ participation remains only symbolic.” They said that “male- values and under-representation of women managers are the major factors for inactive participation of women managers in organizational policy formulation.”

Thus, the participation of women managers in formulation of development policy of their organization is limited. This further indicates that male-values by and large dominate organizational policies.

There are similarities and differences, in attitudes among women and men managers in connection with women managers’ performance, women’s present positions of management, women managers’ suitability for organizational change and the effect of male managers’ dominance at top level on women’s share of managerial occupations. Women ($\bar{X}=3.31$) and men ($\bar{X}=3.03$) managers agree that women managers are effective in managing organizational activities. No significant difference in population mean is observed ($t(52)=0.671, p>0.05$). Both subjects indicated that women managers are suitable for organizational transformation. The difference in level of agreement between men ($\bar{X}=3.82$) and women ($\bar{X}=4.00$) is very minimal and hence there is no significant difference obtained in population average as well ($t(52)=0.534, p>0.05$). As to the difference, women managers ($\bar{X}=4.25$) agree that advancement of women into positions of power is constrained by predominance of male at the top level while men ($\bar{X}=2.9$) on the contrary do not accept it. Secondly, while men respondents ($\bar{X}=3.34$) agree that women’s present positions of management match their ideal positions of management women respondents ($\bar{X}=2.13$) opposed this attitude of men managers. Thus, significant difference between population in average is noticed on the effect of male dominance at top level ($t(52)=4.092, P<0.05$) and women present positions of management ($t(24)=2.955, p<0.05$). This shows, even though, women managers are very suitable for organizational transformation and effective in managerial jobs it is logical to argue that male-value dominated organizational culture has created challenges for women’s share of managerial jobs in the executive branch Regional level bureaus and offices. This is further supported by the interview information. Respondents underscored that male dominance organizational culture which is the result of inheritance from the society is one of the most serious problem. They also indicated that this culture is very difficult to change very soon.

4.5. Attitude of Subordinates toward Women Managers' Behavior and Performance

Knowledge of attitude of male and female subordinate towards women managers is important to identify the challenges and opportunities in promoting women into managerial positions. In the study area, both men and women followers almost have similar attitude except on few items where significant difference is observed in the average between population of the study. The attitude of subordinate participants towards women managers is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6 Attitudes of Subordinates towards Women Managers' Performance and Behavior

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value
Women and Men managers manage organizational activities differently	M	56	3.46	12.584	.001	-.215	104	.830
	F	50	3.52			-.211	88.113	.833
Women managers are more participative than men managers	M	56	3.16	4.043	.047	-1.323	104	.189
	F	50	3.48			-1.307	94.163	.194
Women managers are more effective in achieving organizational goals	M	56	3.43	.593	.443	-2.392	104	.019
	F	50	3.96			-2.372	97.416	.020
Female managers are more assertive than male managers	M	56	3.23	1.492	.225	-.544	104	.587
	F	50	3.36			-.540	98.040	.590
Women managers better consider employees' interest than men managers	M	56	3.54	1.184	.279	1.516	104	.132
	F	50	3.16			1.505	98.054	.136
Men and women manager display similar type of leadership style(leadership traits)	M	56	2.20	2.018	.158	-2.473	104	.015
	F	50	2.62			-2.459	99.694	.016
Women managers respect followers idea than male managers	M	56	3.48	.116	.734	-.977	104	.331
	F	50	3.70			-.976	104.84	.332
Women managers are good in team building than male managers	M	56	3.45	.140	.709	-1.508	104	.135
	F	50	3.78			-1.506	102.10	.135
Women managers are suitable to deal with situational variables than men managers	M	56	3.25	.678	.412	-3.032	104	.003
	F	50	3.92			-3.010	98.380	.003
Women managers have strong confidence in their subordinates than men managers	M	56	3.11	3.795	.054	1.364	104	.176
	F	50	2.80			1.348	94.562	.181

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Table 4.6 Cont----

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value
Women managers discharge their responsibilities more effectively than men managers	M	56	3.68	.009	.927	-2.989	104	.003
	F	50	4.30			-2.976	100.343	.004
Women managers share information more readily than men managers	M	56	3.57	.771	.382	-1.606	104	.111
	F	50	3.92			-1.591	96.573	.115
I am disappointed with leadership style of women managers	M	56	3.29	.873	.352	-.224	104	.823
	F	50	3.34			-.223	98.699	.824
I prefer male managers than women managers	M	56	3.09	4.820	.030	-1.853	104	.067
	F	50	3.58			-1.836	96.864	.069
Men are more qualified than women to be a manager	M	56	2.71	.899	.345	.572	104	.569
	F	50	2.58			.567	97.684	.572
Women are inappropriate for management	M	56	3.39	7.907	.006	.351	104	.726
	F	50	3.30			.346	92.116	.730
Senior managerial jobs should be essentially men's jobs	M	56	3.25	.616	.434	-1.664	104	.099
	F	50	3.68			-1.662	101.959	.100
Women managers do not have characteristics associated with leadership	M	56	3.23	.339	.561	-3.243	104	.002
	F	50	4.00			-3.211	96.133	.002
Women's current positions reflect their own self-image	M	56	3.45	2.472	.119	-.312	104	.755
	F	50	3.52			-.309	95.210	.758
Women are ideally suitable for homemaker role than breadwinner role (managerial)	M	56	3.57	1.881	.173	-3.636	104	.000
	F	50	4.36			-3.660	104.000	.000
Women's present positioning in management match their ideal positions of management	M	56	3.30	12.542	.001	-7.204	104	.000
	F	50	4.52			-7.361	96.900	.000

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Both sexes' subordinates of women managers and men managers agree that there are differences between men and women managers in managing organizational activities, employees' participation and concern for employee issues. Both sexes' followers rated women managers as effective in managing organizational activities. However, significant difference between population mean is seen ($t(97) = 2.372, p < 0.05$). Respondents revealed that women and men managers are managing organizational activities differently. Difference between population mean is not significant ($t(88) = 0.211, p > 0.05$). Moreover, both sex-followers said that women managers are more participative than men managers in decision making, and consider employees' interest better than men managers. The average does not significantly differs between the group ($t(94) = 1.307, p > 0.05$; $t(98) = 1.505, p > 0.05$ respectively). Therefore, it would be safe to say that women are different from men managers in managing organizational activities, in involving

subordinates in decision making, and addressing employees' needs in the executive branch regional level bureaus and offices.

Women managers are also different from men managers in the type of leadership style they are adopting. Firstly, both sex participants indicated that women and men managers don't display similar leadership styles (traits). Result of independent sample t-test is however significantly different ($t(99) = 2.459, p < 0.05$) between population mean. Secondly, majority of followers (both sex) agree that women managers respect followers' ideas more than men managers. Difference between populations averages is not significant ($t(104) = 0.977, p > 0.05$). Thirdly, respondent generally agree that women managers are better in team building than men managers. Lastly, subjects of the study appreciate that suitability of women managers than men counterparts to deal with situational variables. Significant difference in the average of population is obtained despite general agreement of respondents of both sexes ($t(98) = 3.010, p < 0.05$). The result, therefore, suggests even though female subordinates rated women managers higher on difference in leadership style of women from men and the suitability of women managers to deal with situational variables, women managers in the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices by and large adopt transformational leadership approach in managing organizational activities.

With regard to trust of women managers in their subordinates and discharging their responsibility of management, male and female subordinates express almost similar views. The average for population of the study does not significantly differs ($t(95) = 1.348, p > 0.05$) in the extent of confidence placed by women managers on their subordinates. In discharging responsibilities of management, women managers rated higher than men managers by followers of both sexes. Both men ($\bar{X} = 3.68$) and female ($\bar{X} = 4.30$) agree (females strongly agree) that compared with men managers, women managers are effective in discharging their responsibilities. The average for the populations of the study is found to be significantly different ($t(104) = 2.989, p < 0.05$). Despite this fact the result generally suggests that women managers are effective in discharging their responsibilities and good in trusting their subordinates.

Subordinates of managers almost have identical views about women managers with respect to sharing of information; leadership style; preference of managers; fitness of women to managerial jobs, who should hold senior managerial jobs; women managers and leadership characteristics; and women managers present positions and their image. Participants of the

study (both sexes), indicated that women managers are more willing to share information than men managers. The result of independent sample t-test is not significantly different between populations average. Thus, both followers have similar attitude in this item-women managers share information readily with their subordinates. Secondly, both sex respondents reported that they are not disappointed with the leadership style of women. Women followers particularly disagree ($\bar{X}=3.34$) that leadership style of managers are not attractive. No significant difference in average is obtained between population of the study ($t(99)=0.223, p<0.05$). Hence, both sex followers seem to be willing to accept women as their managers in the Oromia Regional executive branch bureaus and offices. Thirdly, in terms of qualification, respondents of both sexes agree that men are more qualified than women to be a manager. Significant difference in mean between population of the study is not obtained ($t(98)=0.567, p>0.05$). Thus, lack of right qualification by women in the Oromia bureaus and offices of the executive branch create challenge for women employees to hold and be promoted in managerial positions. Fourthly, both sex followers do not believe that women are unfit for managerial jobs ($t(92)=0.346, p>0.05$) suggesting that women employers are suitable for managerial jobs. Fifth, no significant difference is seen in mean between populations of the study on who should hold senior managerial jobs in organizations. Both male ($\bar{X}=3.25$) and female ($\bar{X}=3.68$) respondents disagree that senior managerial jobs should be exclusively men's jobs. Populations mean is not found to be significantly different ($t(102)=1.662, P>0.05$) which ensures capability of women managers to hold senior managerial positions and it seems that both sex followers are willing to accept women managers as the head of their organization. Six, as to the characteristics associated with leadership, both sex subjects are not agree that women managers do not have features associated with leadership in general. However, while women followers strongly oppose ($\bar{X}=4.00$) men followers ($\bar{X}=3.23$) are almost inclined to reservation. As a result significant difference in average between the groups of the study is observed ($t(104)=3.243, p<0.05$). This implies that followers do not have similar perception about leadership characteristics of women managers-women followers rated women manager leadership characteristics higher. Seventhly, both sex followers have identical attitude about women managers' current positions in relation to women's own self-concept (image). Both respondents do not agree that women current positions of management do reflect their own self image. The independent sample t-test is not significantly different in average between the populations ($t(95)=0.309, P>0.05$). This shows there exists

discrimination in managerial occupations that accounts for the under-representation of women in management not their own self image to hold managerial occupations.

Women and men subordinate do not have similar level of agreement on managerial role of women and present positions of management even though their level of agreement is not different greatly. Both participants do not believe that women are ideally suitable for homemaker role than managerial role (breadwinner). They do not also believe women's present positions of management match their ideal positions of management. Women subordinate are specifically indicated clearly their disagreement with perceived societal role of women and current positions of management. Consequently significant difference is observed in average between populations of study in these aspects. The independent sample t-test is found ($t(104) = 3.660, p < 0.05$) and ($t(97) = 7.361, p < 0.05$) respectively. This implies, though, men subordinate do not believe greatly with preserved role of women and their present positions in management, men and women followers hold different attitude in these areas. These further suggest that men subordinates do not totally removed the attitude and perceived roles of women's' assigned by the society.

To sum up, both sex followers reported that women managers are participative and respect subordinates' ideas, good at addressing employees' issues, team building and sharing information and different from men counterparts in managing organizational activities. Respondents are slightly different on the role of women managers and present positions of women in management.

4.6. Initiatives Taken to Enhance Women's Share of Managerial Positions in the Oromia Regional Bureaus and Offices

4.6.1. Initiatives Taken by Regional Bureaus and Offices to Enhance Women's Share of Managerial Positions

Organizational commitment and support to realize gender equality at work place is very vital. The initiatives and level of commitment made by the Oromia Regional executive branch bureaus and offices are not enough to break the "glass ceiling". Table 4.7 presents the organizational initiatives to enhance women's' share in managerial occupations in sampled bureaus and offices.

Table 4. 7 Organizational Initiatives to Enhance Women’s’ Share in Managerial Occupations

Item	Gender	z	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p, value)
Top officials have sustained commitment to change organizational culture for women to advance in management hierarchy	M	38	2.63	8.688	.005	1.700	52	.095
	F	16	2.00			1.941	38.930	.060
Top officials properly enforce gender policy	M	38	2.74	4.184	.046	1.069	52	.290
	F	16	2.38			1.172	35.197	.249
Senior officials provide strategic direction(support) to promote women into management	M	38	3.16	.116	.734	1.029	52	.308
	F	16	2.75			1.002	26.709	.325
Senior officials have established accountability for proper implementation of gender policies	M	38	2.97	.189	.665	1.258	52	.214
	F	16	2.50			1.323	31.740	.195
organization has specific agenda for women to enter management positions	M	38	2.92	5.046	.029	3.060	52	.003
	F	16	1.75			3.384	35.922	.002
organization provides support to women managers to balance their work and family (personal) responsibilities	M	38	3.11	2.558	.116	2.970	52	.004
	F	16	1.94			3.158	32.593	.003
Top management is equally willing to promote women and men managers to top management.	M	38	3.32	6.401	.014	2.654	52	.011
	F	16	2.31			3.083	40.597	.004
Middle managers are prepared for playing their unique leadership role for the advancement of women managers	M	38	3.68	.029	.866	2.810	52	.007
	F	16	2.69			2.803	28.096	.009
Affirmative action enhances women promotion into management positions	M	38	2.92	.133	.716	1.473	52	.147
	F	16	2.38			1.501	29.484	.144
Affirmative action has been applied to top management level	M	38	3.11	1.960	.167	2.394	52	.020
	F	16	2.19			2.597	34.212	.014
Organizational restructuring enhances the chance of women to enter managerial positions	M	38	2.55	2.077	.155	1.903	52	.063
	F	16	2.00			1.997	31.580	.055
Women managers' complains are answered regularly	M	38	3.16	.790	.378	2.127	52	.038
	F	16	2.31			2.157	29.143	.039
Current formal institutional arrangement in my organization is gender sensitive	M	38	3.18	1.024	.316	4.334	52	.000
	F	16	2.00			4.396	29.177	.000

Source, Own survey, 2008.

The initiatives that are taken by top officials of the Regional executive branch bureaus and offices to change organizational culture, to enforce gender policies and provision of strategic support for women to enter and advance in managerial occupations are not sufficient. Participants of the study (both sex) indicated that top officials do not have sustained commitment to change organizational culture for women to join and advance in management hierarchy. Population mean is not found to be different significantly ($t(39) = 1.941, p > 0.05$). This suggests that the level of commitment made by top officials of Regional bureaus and offices to change organizational

culture to ensure gender equality at work place is limited. Secondly, top officials are not properly enforcing gender policies. Women ($\bar{X}=2.38$) and men ($\bar{X}=2.74$) participants suggested that the level of enforcing gender policies by senior officials in the executive branch of Regional bureaus and offices is minimal. Absence of significant difference in population average ($t(35)=1.172$, $p>0.05$) suggests that the initiatives taken by senior officials to enforce gender policies in the Regional bureaus and offices (executive branch of government) are not adequate. Thirdly, senior officials do not provide sufficient strategic direction (support) to promote women into management. Women respondents ($\bar{X}=2.75$) particularly pointed out that top officials do not provide the required support adequately. In spite of this fact, however, population average does not differ significantly ($t(52)=1.029$, $p>0.05$). Thus, strategic direction offered by top officials in the Regional executive branch bureaus and offices to enhance women's chance of managerial jobs is limited. Fourthly, accountability for proper implementation of gender policies is not established either sufficiently in the Regional bureaus and offices of the executive branch of government. Women ($\bar{X}=2.50$) and men ($\bar{X}=2.97$) respondents indicated that extent of accountability established by Regional bureaus and offices for proper implementation of gender policies is inconsistent. The difference in average between population is not significant ($t(52)=1.258$, $p>0.05$) that is, accountability for proper implementation of gender policies is not continuously checked by the Regional level executive branch bureaus and offices. Interview respondents also hold the same view. They pointed out that "even though the initiatives taken so far are encouraging; the extent of materializing them is not adequate enough." Therefore, the level of commitment made by top officials of Regional bureaus and offices (executive branch) to change organizational culture, enforce gender policies, provide strategic direction and ensuring accountability for women to join and advance in managerial jobs is overall not satisfactory.

Besides the aforementioned limited initiatives by the top officials of Regional bureaus and offices, they have no specific agenda for women to enter management positions and do not provide adequate support to women managers to balance their work and family responsibilities. Women respondents ($\bar{X}=1.75$, 1.94 respectively) particularly pointed out that absence of such initiatives. Accordingly, significant gap between population average is obtained ($t(36)=3.384$, $p<0.05$; $t(33)=3.158$, $p<0.05$ respectively). The result of interview information does not much deviating as well. Interviewees said that,

“.....organization’s agenda to increase women in management is not specific as such.” They also underlined that “supports given to women managers to balance their work and family responsibilities are very little.”

This shows the absence of specific plan to enhance women’s share of management positions and support for women manager so that they could discharge both work and family responsibilities simultaneously.

Significant difference among populations of the study is observed on the willingness of top management to promote women managers and the unique leadership role played by middle level managers for the advancement of women in management. While men participants ($\bar{X} = 3.32$) indicated that top management is equally willing to promote women and men managers to top level, and middle level managers play (mean=3.68) their expected role to promote women in management, women participants on the contrary disagree ($\bar{X} = 2.31$) about the willingness of top management and the role played ($\bar{X} = 2.69$) by middle level managements. The independent sample t-test is significant for the population’s average in these aspects ($t(41) = 3.083, p < 0.05$; $t(52) = 2.810, p < 0.05$ respectively). Thus it is reasonable to doubt the extent of willingness of top officials to promote women and men managers on equal base, and the sufficiency of role played by middle level managers in order to increase women’s share of managerial occupations in the Oromia Regional executive branch bureaus and offices.

Furthermore, both subject groups of the study do not believe that affirmative action has enhanced women’s share of management positions and the application of affirmative action at top management level. Women participants particularly disagree to the opportunities created by affirmative action ($\bar{X} = 2.38$) and the application of affirmative action ($\bar{X} = 2.19$) at top of organization for women to hold and advance in managerial occupations. Significant difference between population mean is not obtained ($t(52) = 1.473, p > 0.05$) on opportunities created by affirmative action while the average for the two population is different significantly ($t(34) = 2.597, p < 0.05$) on the application of affirmative action at the top of the organization. Interviewees in this respect said that,

“..... affirmative action has failed to increase women’s share of managerial positions and could not applied to top managerial jobs partly because women

employees in general and women managers in particular do not fulfill even the minimum requirements of such managerial jobs.”

Considering gender issues in organizational restructuring and making institutional arrangement gender sensitive is crucial to correct past gender discriminations and maintain gender inequality at work places. In the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices the initiatives taken by respective institutions were not sufficient to do so. Women participants particularly reported that the initiatives taken by their organization to enhance women's share of managerial positions while organizational restructuring ($\bar{X}=2.00$) and making institutional arrangement gender sensitive ($\bar{X}=2.00$) are minimal. Men respondents almost hold similar attitude with women subjects on organizational restructuring ($\bar{X}=2.55$) but supported the view that existing institutional arrangement is gender sensitive. Significant difference between population average is not obtained with respect to organizational restructuring ($t(32)=1.997, p>0.05$) where as difference between population is significant ($t(35)=5.701$) in case of formal institutional arrangement. Therefore, it is rational to doubt the adequacy of the initiatives taken by the Regional level executive bureaus and offices in those areas of concern so that the share of women in administrative positions has been increased although as indicated women managers were failed to fulfill the minimum requirement of managerial post most of the time. Moreover, women participants particularly reported ($\bar{X}=2.31$) that women managers complains are not answered regularly. Men participants, however, opted almost for reservation ($\bar{X}=3.16$) about timely response of organization to women managers complains. The deference between populations of the study is significant ($t(29)=2.157, p<0.05$). This portrays that timely response of the Oromia Regional bureaus and offices of the executive branch to redress women managers' complains is not adequate enough.

To summarize, although the initiatives made by Oromia Regional level executive branch bureaus and offices to enhance the share of women in management are encouraging; they are not strong enough to break managerial “glass ceiling” and “glass wall”.

4.6.2. Initiatives Taken By the Oromia Regional Government to Enhance Women’s Share of Managerial Jobs

Government commitment and support for proper implementation of gender policies is very critical to ensure gender in all aspects. Similar to inadequate initiatives taken by the organization to improve women’s share of managerial positions, the initiatives made by the Regional government is encouraging but generally not satisfactory. Level of initiative of made by Regional government ensure gender equality in managerial jobs is illustrated in Table 4.8.

Table 4. 8 Initiatives Taken by Regional Government to Enhance Women’s Share of Managerial Jobs

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
The executive branch of government has been issued appropriate gender policy to enhance women share of managerial jobs	M	38	3.53	3.800	.057	-1.767	52	.083
	F	16	4.13			-1.872	32.326	.070
Gender offices has been instituted in my organization	M	38	4.26	.002	.965	-.696	52	.490
	F	16	4.38			-.726	31.159	.473
Gender office has been staffed with adequate employees	M	38	2.39	1.576	.215	1.392	52	.170
	F	16	2.00			1.442	30.614	.159
Adequate budget has been appropriated for the implementation of gender policies	M	38	2.37	1.314	.257	.913	52	.366
	F	16	2.06			.913	28.296	.369
Gender issues has been included there developmental plans of my organization	M	38	3.24	3.582	.064	4.862	52	.000
	F	16	2.13			5.448	37.121	.000
The regional government continuously oversees the implementation of gender policies to increases women share of managerial jobs	M	38	2.89	4.619	.036	1.587	52	.118
	F	16	2.25			1.759	36.089	.087
The regional government provides adequate support for the implementation of gender policies	M	38	3.32	.841	.363	2.654	52	.011
	F	16	2.31			2.819	32.497	.008

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Table 4.8 Cont----

Item	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
				"F"	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
The regional government continuously evaluate the performance of executive organizations in addressing gender equality	M	38	2.37	.254	.616	.903	52	.371
	F	16	2.13			.836	24.168	.411
The executive branch of the regional government takes corrective action timely for the problem of women managers	M	37	2.84	15.393	.000	2.902	51	.005
	F	16	1.75			3.754	50.316	.000
Gender issues have been considered in restructuring the organization system by executive branch of the regional government	M	38	2.74	.509	.479	1.203	52	.234
	F	16	2.31			1.230	29.709	.228
Government reform programs are comprehensive enough to address gender issues	M	38	3.26	3.090	.085	3.347	52	.002
	F	16	2.00			3.624	34.056	.001
The political environment is good for gender equality	M	38	4.32	3.291	.075	.317	52	.752
	F	16	4.25			.351	35.910	.728

Source, Own survey, 2008.

Respondents of both sexes agree that the Regional government has issued appropriate gender policies for women to hold positions of management. No significant difference between populations of the study is observed ($t(32) = 1.872, p > 0.05$). Moreover, they also revealed that gender structure (office) has been structurally institutionalized for implementation of gender policies in the Regional bureaus and offices. Population mean is not significantly different between the sexes ($t(52) = 0.696, p > 0.05$) as well. Therefore, the initiative taken by the Regional government in this regard is encouraging. However, the initiatives taken by the Regional government on the enforcement and implementation of gender policies are not sufficient enough to ensure gender equality at work place in general and that of managerial occupations in particular. Participants of the study pointed out that the initiatives made by Regional government are limited.

Firstly, both sex participants of the study stated that adequate budget has not been allocated for implementation of gender policies by the Regional government. There is no significant difference between populations mean ($t(28) = 0.913, p > 0.05$). Therefore, lack of adequate budget for

implementation of gender policies is one among the others that hinders realization of gender equality in managerial jobs.

Secondly, gender offices in the Regional bureaus and offices are not staffed with required number of employees. Here, respondents (women $\bar{X} = 2.00$, men $\bar{X} = 2.39$) revealed about the inadequate staffing practice in gender offices. Populations mean is no significantly different ($t(31) = 1.442$, $p > 0.05$). Furthermore, in an effort to conduct interview with gender officers in sampled bureaus and offices it is found that 30 percent of them do not have gender officers. The name of these organizations is depicted in table 4.9 in the remark column. Accordingly, therefore, it is safe to underline that efforts made by the Regional government to staff gender offices with required gender officers in the Regional bureaus and offices is inadequate.

Thirdly, even though significant difference is obtained between population means on extent of inclusion of gender issues in developmental plan of organizations and the support given by the Regional government to implement gender policies, the overall data shows gender issues are not sufficiently included in developmental plans, and the support provided by the Regional government is insufficient. To be specific the difference in average between population is found significant ($t(52) = 7.066$, $p < 0.05$, $t(32) = 2.819$, $p < 0.05$ respectively). Subjects of the study also indicated that the Regional government is not continuously evaluating the implementation of gender policies in the Regional bureaus and offices. Interviewees also pointed out almost similar situation. They indicated that,

“... Regional government has not conducted consistent evaluation of gender policy implementation, although the initiatives are far better in recent years than in the past.”

Fourthly, participants of the study hold opposite positions on timely response of government to solve women's managers' problem, comprehensiveness of government reform program in including gender issues and concern for gender issues during organizational restructuring. Women participants ($\bar{X} = 1.75$) indicated that the Regional government do not solve women managers' problems on timely basis. Men respondents, however, slightly suggested that the Regional government is responsive to women managers' problems. The result of independent sample t-test which is significantly different between population mean ($t(51) = 4.710$, $p < 0.05$) reveal that it is reasonable to distrust the extent of timely correction of women managers

problems by the Regional government. Women managers ($\bar{X}=2.00$) are not have strong confidence on the comprehensiveness of government reform programs in addressing gender issues. Unlikely, men subjects ($\bar{X}=3.26$) are seem to perceive the adequacy of government reform programs in addressing gender concerns. The result of independent sample t-test (mean population being significantly different ($t(34)=3.624, p<0.05$) shows that the need to investigate how well the government programs are comprehensive in integrating gender issues. Moreover, women respondents ($\bar{X}=2.69$) have reservation while men subjects ($\bar{X}=3.32$) are supporting that the Regional government has been considering gender issues in organizational restructuring. In this case, nevertheless, no significant difference between populations mean is found ($t(31)=1.570, p>0.05$). Thus, concern given to include gender issues during organizational restructuring by the Regional government are not seems sufficient. This is further substantiated by secondary data compiled from 2002/03 and 2005//06 organizational restructuring and employee placement (OCSCO). Table 4.9 illustrates number of managers by sex in sampled Bureaus and Offices during 2002/03 and 2005//06 organizational restructuring.

Table 4. 9 Number Of Managers by Sex in Sampled Bureaus and Offices During 2002/03 And 2005//06 Organizational Restructuring

Name of bureaus or offices	2002/03			2005//06			Remark
	Male	Female	Total	M	F	Total	
Oromia water resource Bureau	18	4	22	25	3	28	
Oromia Revenue Bureau	0	0	0	7	0	7	established in 2005/06 <i>Has no gender officer</i>
Oromia Civil service commission	19	1	20	21	1	22	
Oromia Agri.& Rural dev't Bureau	35	3	38	49	3	52	
Oromia Finance & Economic Dev't Bureau	32	3	35	37	2	39	<i>Has no gender officer</i>
Oromia Capacity Building Office			0	9	1	10	Separated from Oromia Capacity Building & education bureau in 2005/06
Oromia Works & Urban dev't Bureau	15	2	17	17	4	21	
Oromia Women's Affairs Bureau	0	0	0	5	5	10	established in 2005/06
Oromia information & Public Relation Bureau	7	0	7	16	1	17	<i>Has no gender officer</i>
Justice Bureau of Oromia	8	1	9	12	2	14	
Total	134	14	148	198	22	220	
Percent age	90.5	9.5	100	90	10	100	

Source: Compiled from 2002/03 and 2005//06 Organizational Restructuring and Employee Placement (OCSCO).

As shown in the Table 4.9 organizational restructuring has not created opportunities for women employees to hold managerial jobs in the executive branch Regional level bureaus and offices.

Organizational restructuring has not increased the number of women managers significantly during the period 2002/03 and 2005/06. The share of women in managerial jobs increased only by 1 percent (it was 9 percent and 10 percent in 2002/03 and 2005/06 respectively). Gender parity in managerial positions is registered only in Women Affairs Bureau. In other Bureaus and Offices the number of women managers has either decreased or remained the same. There is also a bureau (Oromia Revenue Bureau) without a single woman manager. This discloses that limited attention has been given to the inclusion of women into managerial positions during organizational restructuring.

In spite of limited initiatives of the Regional government to address gender equality, respondents of the study indicated (the majority) that current political environment is favorable to ascertain gender equality in all aspects. Both categories of respondents almost hold the same view. And hence no significant difference in average is observed between populations of the study ($t(40) = 0.351, p > 0.05$). Therefore, existing political environment is the greatest opportunity to enhance the share of women in management and ultimately reach gender equality in management.

Finally, the majority of respondents who answered the open ended question and interviews recommended that adequate training and development opportunities for women employees and managers, enforcing gender policies effectively, women personal psychological readiness and investment in right education, more societal support to compensate past discrimination, provision of adequate support for women managers, periodic review of women managers' success in management and timely corrective action for deviations, sustained commitment and support of top officials and regional government, and creating and using available opportunities to enhance women's share of managerial occupations at all levels in the regional bureaus and offices.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter discussion on findings is made briefly in relation to the concepts and research output mentioned in review of literature.

5.2. Discussion

In the Oromia Regional level executive branch bureaus and offices the share of women out of total management occupations is very low. Women are not generally entering these public organizations sufficiently. Secondly, even those who are employed by and large are not adequately qualified. Women employees are almost absent at higher level of learning. Thus, this finding supports the work of Wirth (2001). Unlike the works of Wirth (2001), and Klenke (1999), it is found that women do not have better opportunities to hold managerial jobs both in large and newly established executive branch bureaus and offices. Furthermore, the result indicated that women managers are equally under-represented at all levels of management hierarchy in the study universe. That means women do not have adequate access to managerial jobs in large organizations which supposed to offer better chance usually at junior and lower levels as suggested by these authors.

Demographically, the majority of managers in the Oromia Regional level bureaus and offices are married and have served above 16 years of which 6 years and above in managerial jobs. Of married managers the majority of male managers have children while the majority of women have not. Men and women managers are also different by the work status of their subordinates. While women managers are supervising almost unskilled and semi skilled employees men managers are directing employees with diversified work assignments. This suggests that women are usually assigned to routine managerial jobs. This finding goes inline with the findings of research output in the literature. Moreover, the result in the analysis indicated that total service year and level of education do not significantly correlate with women's share of managerial positions. Thus, absence of opportunity to experience different managerial posts and lack of right educational background among other factors are the major challenges for women to join and steps forward in managerial jobs. Consequently, affirmative actions have failed to increase

women's share of managerial jobs. This finding greatly confirms to the structural challenge "management job starts at specialized career track" identified by Wirth (2001).

Women's personal barriers are also the most critical factors that have contributed for under-representation and very low progress of women in management. In this regard it is found that women's inappropriate educational background, poor access to management development programs because of managing routine jobs and family responsibilities, and inadequate managerial experience partly due to lack of job rotations and transfers opportunities are found to be the most critical ones. Consequently it is suggested that men are more qualified than women to be managers. Secondly, difference in behavior between women and men managers seem to create challenges for women to hold managerial jobs on equal basis with men at all levels of management in the executive branch Regional bureaus and offices. Women managers are found to perform organizational activities differently than men managers, and to adopting different style of leadership. To this end, women managers are found more participative and accommodative in decision-making and give due concern for employees needs. In short women managers seem to emphasize employees-centered behavior and exhibit largely characteristics of transformational leadership. The result, thus, confirm to the difference view promoters in the literature. Consequently, men being dominating managerial jobs at all levels coupled with difference in behaviors and managerial approaches could systematically block women's share of managerial positions. Thirdly, family responsibilities in addition to executive role pressure, and lack of common interest among women managers are women's other barriers which hinder women managers' career development. Furthermore, collective interest among women managers to challenge men and fight for greater access to management jobs is not satisfactory. Thus, women's personal barriers among other things explain the reason for the under-representation of women at all levels of management in the executive branch bureaus and offices of the Oromia Regional State.

Absence of suitable organizational culture is also an obstacle for women to enter and be promoted in the Regional executive branch bureaus and offices. It has limited women's access and chance of advancement in management. Many factors have contributed. However; four elements are the noteworthy. Firstly, it is found that hierarchy of structure is accepted as organizational culture and has resulted in unequal superior-subordinate relationship in those organizations where the present study is conducted. Resource allocation among women and

men managers is another issue. Equitable allocation of resources among men and women managers befitting their positions is hardly done. Women managers are also kept out of important informal network particularly beyond working hours. Societal attitudes, beliefs and values, and family responsibilities (sparing time as compared to men) are identified as the causal factors. Furthermore, these factors directly or indirectly are institutionalized in the organizational culture. Lastly, results obtained show that women managers do not actively participate in the organization's policy formulation; at best their participation remains symbolic. In the nut shell, male values (the result of societal attitude and value) dominate in organizational culture. Generally, organizational culture has failed to create equal opportunities for men and women in managerial jobs as suggested in theory and hence the result supports the work of independent researchers mentioned in literature particularly of Wirth (2001).

With regard to subordinates' (both male and female) attitude towards women managers relatively encouraging results are obtained. Women managers are rated better in respecting followers' ideas, team building, sharing information, trusting followers and their suitability to deal with situational variables. Moreover, the subordinates do not believe that women's current positions in management reflect their self concept although male subordinates prefer to reserve their views which indicate persistence of male values in the organizations. Therefore, changing this value becomes quite important to ensure gender parity in managerial positions in the Regional executive branch bureaus and offices.

The Oromia Regional State has issued different policies to ascertain gender equality in its developmental activities. Constitution of the Regional State; Family Code of the region ; Oromia Women's Affairs Policy; Civil Servants Proclamation of the Region; Human Resource Directive of the Region ; and Civil Servants' Disciplinary and Grievance Procedure of the Region are worth mentioning. These policies target at gender equality more or less in the Regional State. However, except the Constitution and Family Code of the Region, others have loopholes that could limit realization of the intended objectives. The Constitution of the Regional State provides framework to address gender equality in all spheres in the region. The Constitution also guarantees affirmative action to ensure gender equality. The Family Code of the region urges spouses to respect each other and share family responsibilities on equal basis. The Civil Servants Proclamation and Human Resource Directive of the Regional State has included almost all human resource functions. Alike the Constitution of the region, these policy documents have

institutionalized affirmative action to redress gender discrimination. In spite of positive efforts, these documents have not clearly stated the type of managerial selection tests and allowed head of the organization to totally recommend and/or assign 9 points for managers at the time of making promotion decisions (the directive). Furthermore, the Human Resource Directive of the Region seems to emphasize inclusion of only one woman employee in selection and promotion committees. Civil Servants' Disciplinary and Grievance Procedure of the Regional State has outlined all necessary steps of disciplinary and grievance cases. As per these procedures women may be completely missed or largely under-represented in the disciplinary and grievance committees particularly if the head of the organization who is in-charge of appointing the majority of committee members is not gender sensitive. The Oromia Women's Affairs policy, issued a decade later after National Policy on Ethiopian Women, is generally comprehensive to bridge gender gap in development activities. However, since the policy has targeted to increase the number of women health professionals, it has implicitly restrict freedom of educational choice and hence perpetuate occupational segregation which in turn negatively affect women's share of managerial positions. Generally, the initiatives taken by the Regional government to translate the Constitution into reality and thereby addressing gender equality in all aspects through issuing additional policies are encouraging. These policy documents can serve as available opportunities for women to join and advance in managerial occupations. However, most of the supportive policies have not taken into account contextual factors. They have not also targeted to influence beyond the context. Instead they have opened room for inherent gender discrimination. This finding goes inline with the work of Bandarage (1984) which underscored that institution including policy interventions and variety of practices reproduce gender inequalities.

Human resource functions are not performed as per the existing theories in the Oromia Regional State executive branch bureaus and offices. Although these governmental organizations do have written policy for management recruitment and selection, management performance appraisal, and management development programs there exist gaps between provisions and practices. Regional executive branch bureaus and offices are not using objective (usually) selection tests in order to fill vacant managerial posts. Moreover, fairness in managerial placement is not secured because of the loopholes in the policies and male value dominance (men reserving desirable managerial jobs for men) in these organizations. Even if the Regional bureaus and offices are

using open advertisement for managerial recruitment and the impact of informal networking recruitment is not observed on women's share of managerial positions, effect of placement by the recommendation of head of organization by no means is totally positive. It is found that despite the fact that women managers are effective in achieving organizational goals and addressing employee needs their performance evaluation is not done the same way as is done in the case of men managers in the executive branch Regional bureaus and offices. Women managers, however, are treated equivalently with men counterparts in performance evaluation feedback report. Problems are also observed in relation to management development programs in the executive branch Regional bureaus and offices despite existence of written human resource development policy. Firstly, women do not have equal access to management development programs as compared to men. That means managerial development policy has not guaranteed equal chance for women and men. Secondly, management development programs attended by women managers are not based on need analysis and do not mainstream gender issues adequately. Thirdly, women managers' development programs are not organized regularly and the investment made by their organizations to build their capability is not enough. Existence of appropriate system for women managers' development is also questionable. Fourthly, women managers are not have adequate opportunities to experience challenging job assignments and high level responsibilities, and to challenge men for desirable managerial jobs. Fifth, professional coaching and mentoring services for career choice given to women managers are inadequate. Generally, Regional level executive branch bureaus and offices are not performing managerial recruitment and selection; managerial performance rating; and managerial development functions according to available theories. Moreover, the practices override the solutions proposed by different writers as indicated in literatures.

The initiatives taken by the Regional executive branch bureaus and offices, and the Regional government generally are encouraging but insufficient to break the hardest rock; managerial "glass ceiling" and "glass wall". Top officials of the sampled bureaus and offices do not show their expected sustained commitment and provide support in many areas of interventions. The initiatives they have taken to change organizational culture to make it gender sensitive (friendly) are limited. They do not enforce gender policies effectively and establish clear accountability for implementation as well. Senior officials do not have specific agenda and provide strategic direction for women to join and progress in management levels. They do not provide adequate

support to women managers so that they can balance their work and family responsibilities concurrently.

The Regional government has not appropriated adequate budget for implementation of gender policies. The initiative taken to enforce implementation of gender policies is also weak. This is evidenced by lack of consistent supervision and evaluation about inclusion of gender issues in developmental plans of bureaus and offices; limited initiative to including gender issues comprehensively in governmental reform programs and poor concern given to gender issues during organizational restructuring; inability to resolve women managers problems timely; and inadequate staffing practice of gender offices and absence of gender officers in some Regional executive branch bureaus and offices.

Finally, it is found that current political environment ,international institutions' pressure, women's own desire to join managerial jobs and their interest in education(particularly in recent years), relatively positive societal attitudinal change towards women and their roles are identified as significant opportunities to ensure gender equality in managerial occupations. Furthermore, adequate training and development opportunities for women employees and managers, enforcing gender policies effectively, women personal psychological readiness and investment in right education, more societal support to compensate the loss due to past discrimination, provision of adequate support for women managers, periodic review of women managers' success in management and timely corrective action against deviations, sustained commitment and support of top officials and regional government , and creating and using available opportunities are a few recommendations made here to enhance women's share of managerial occupations at all levels in the executive bureaus and offices of the Regional State named Oromia.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Summary

The study was intended to investigate challenges and opportunities facing women managers in the executive branch regional level bureaus and offices of the Oromia region. Specifically, it was concerned with locating the distribution of women managers in the management hierarchy, identifying and analyzing the challenges and opportunities facing women managers within the organization and outside of organization, pointing out attitude of subordinates towards women managers behavior and performance, identifying initiatives taken by the organizations and regional government to resolve women managers' problems and suggesting policy implications. To attain these objectives data was collected from secondary and primary sources .Primary data was collected from women and men managers as well as their subordinates using survey questionnaire and semi structured interview schedules. Secondary data was collected from regional gender related policy documents. The data has been presented and analyzed descriptively using percentages, mean and independent sample t-test by the help of SPSS version 13. Data interpretation and result discussions have been made in detail. Furthermore, relevant literatures have been reviewed as much as possible. In this chapter, thus, conclusions and policy implications and recommendations have been made based on the entire body of the thesis.

6.2. Conclusions

Women are underrepresented in management and facing many challenges and some opportunities to hold posts and progress in management hierarchy in the Oromia regional level executive branch bureaus and offices. Many factors have contributed to the under-representation and challenges experienced. Encouraging but limited initiatives are taken by the selected organizations and the regional government to overcome the challenges facing women managers.

A. Demography of Women Managers

Women are not generally entering regional bureaus and offices sufficiently. Secondly, even those who are employed by and large are not adequately qualified. Women employees are almost absent at higher level of learning. Women do not have better opportunities to hold managerial jobs both in large and newly established executive branch bureaus and offices. Furthermore, women managers are equally under-represented at all levels of management hierarchy in the

study universe. Demographically, the majority of managers in the Oromia Regional level bureaus and offices are married and have served above 16 years of which 6 years and above in managerial jobs. Of married managers the majority of male managers have children while the majority of women have not. Women managers are supervising almost unskilled and semi skilled employees while men managers are directing employees with diversified work assignments. That means women are usually assigned to routine managerial jobs. Absence of opportunity to experience different managerial posts and lack of right educational background among other factors are the major challenges for women to join and steps forward in managerial jobs.

B. Gender Policies

Gap in gender policies is the major challenge faced by women managers in executive branch regional level bureaus and offices. Except for the Constitution of the region and Family Code of the regional state, other supportive gender policies have loopholes which could directly or indirectly create inherent gender discrimination in managerial placements. These policies have not also seriously taken into account the socio-cultural context. Moreover, they are not intended to influence beyond the context. In short, although gender policies are aimed at addressing gender equality in employment and other spheres, existence of loopholes could perpetuate gender inequalities in management rather than guaranteeing equality.

C. Human Resource Management in Practices

Human resource management in its practices has also created significant challenges for women managers in the executive branch regional level bureaus and offices. Poor selection tests (subjective elements in selection tests and managerial placement), unequal treatment of women and men managers in performance evaluation, and women managers' poor access to managerial development programs (insufficient women managers capacity building programs) are among the most critical challenges obstructing the increase in women's share of managerial jobs in the executive regional bureaus and offices.

D. Organizational Culture and Personal Barriers of Women Managers

Women managers are challenged by organizational culture and personal barriers to progress in management hierarchy in the executive branch regional bureaus and offices. Male-value dominated organizational culture and lack of right educational background and family responsibilities are some of the significant challenges experienced by women managers.

E. Attitude of Subordinates towards Women Managers Performance and Behavior

The attitudes of both sex subordinates towards women managers are relatively encouraging. Subordinates rated women managers better in respecting followers' ideas, team building, sharing information, trusting followers and their suitability to deal with situational variables. They do not also believe that women's current positions in management reflect their self concept. Male subordinates, however, mostly prefer reservation; indicating persistence of male values in the organizations.

F. Initiatives Taken by Regional Government and Organizations to Increase Women's Share of Management Occupations

Regional executive branch bureaus and offices, and the regional government have taken some encouraging initiatives to increase women's share managerial positions .Generally even though the initiatives (issuing relevant policies) are encouraging (far better in recent years particularly), they are not adequate to ensure gender equality in management. The regional government has not allocated adequate budget for gender policy implementation and consistently followed implementation of gender policies. Similarly, top officials of the Regional bureaus and offices have not shown their expected sustained commitment to increase women's share of management positions and have not provided adequate support for women managers to balance between official work and family responsibilities.

G. Opportunities for Women to Hold and Advance in Management Occupations

In spite of the challenges, there are some opportunities for women to hold and advance in managerial occupations in the Oromia regional executive branch bureaus and offices. It is found that current political environment, relatively positive attitudinal change towards women and their expected roles , international institutions' pressures, relatively positive attitude of subordinates towards women managers' behavior and performance, and women's own self interest and self development through education are the opportunities available to them to be placed and advance in the hierarchy of management

Generally, women managers have encountered challenges both within the organization and outside of the organization. The challenges are conditioned by institutional and non institutional factors. Some opportunities are available to women to hold and progress in management in the executive branch regional bureaus and offices. Notwithstanding the encouraging initiatives, the initiatives taken by executive branch regional bureaus and offices and regional government are

insufficient to break managerial “glass ceiling” and “glass walls” and thereby ensure gender equality in managerial jobs.

6.3. Recommendations

The identified challenges faced by women managers in the executive branch regional bureaus and offices calls for policy interventions. Under-representation and slow progress/mobility of women in management in the regional level executive branch bureaus and offices show the prevalence of challenges in managerial placements. Therefore, decision makers and stakeholders ought to make policy interventions at least in the following major areas.

Firstly, even though gender policies have been formulated to ensure gender equality in occupations (management in our case) and other aspects, existence of loopholes in some policy documents challenges the effort to assure gender equality in practices. Thus, unless these policy documents are revised, women would face challenges and would be directly or indirectly underrepresented at all levels of managerial occupations in the regional government.

Secondly, those ineffective human resource management practices which have obstructed women’s opportunities to hold and advance in management need to be corrected. Therefore, organizations and concerned bodies should give due attention to effective practices of human management functions in general and provide adequate capacity building programs for women managers in addition to professional career coaching and mentoring services. Otherwise, women’s share of managerial jobs will remain lower in the long run too.

Thirdly, women managers’ personal barriers (such as inappropriate educational background and family responsibilities) also call for policy interventions in order to enhance women’s share of managerial jobs in the executive branch regional bureaus and offices and in the region in general. In this regard, bureaus and offices and other stakeholders need to create enabling environment so that women managers could remove those personal barriers. More importantly, women managers ought to keep determined to eliminate personal barriers by using available opportunities.

Fourthly, policy interventions are quite important to change organizational culture to avoid challenges encountered by women managers and thereby assure gender equality in management in these bureaus and offices. Unless adequate efforts (top officials commitment and strategic direction and influence) are made to change male value dominated organizational culture through

all possible actions women will continue to face the challenge and ultimately discriminated in holding and progressing in managerial positions.

Fifthly, inadequate organizational commitment and support to realize gender parity in managerial jobs indicates that regional executive branch bureaus and offices are not effective and efficient in their efforts to minimize challenges of women managers so as to ensure gender equality in management. Thus, these organizations need to design appropriate systems and use so that women enjoy their Constitutional Right to Equality. Above all these organizations and other stakeholders need to show their commitment to eliminate women managers' challenges and gender parity in practice.

Sixthly, regional government's commitment and support is very critical to eliminate women managers' problems and increase women's share of management at all levels. In this perspective, even if government commitment and support is far better than the past years, the initiatives are not sufficient enough to dismantle the "glass ceiling" and "glass walls". Hence, regional government commitment and support to women employees in general and women managers in particular in all aspects ought to be maximized.

Seventhly, gender discrimination does not affect only the victims of discriminations. It has also strong implication on economic, political, and social development of the region. And hence, the society has to actively cooperate in an effort to eliminate women's employees challenges with concerned bodies (government and others) to speed up socio-cultural transformations so that women enjoy fruits of development on equal bases with men and gender equality will be attained in occupations (management and others) and other development endeavors. Government bureaus and offices and stakeholders need to create favorable policy environment and mobilize the society to ensure positive socio-cultural change.

Last, but not the least, if current trend continues it would take too long time to eliminate challenges of women managers and ultimately to realize the concept of "good governance" in Oromia Region. It also implies that the conventions ratified by the country and adopted by the Regional government are not practiced fully. Therefore, the regional government, international institutions, regional executive branch bureaus and offices, the civil society, women and men managers as well as their subordinates, women's associations and other stakeholders ought to work collectively in an integrated manner, use available opportunities and correct identified

problems timely to realize gender equality in managerial jobs and other development activities in general.

Furthermore, recommendations made by respondents such as adequate training and development opportunities for women employees and managers, enforcing gender policies effectively, women's personal psychological readiness to have and investment in right education, more societal support to compensate the loss due to past discrimination, provision of adequate support for women managers, periodic review of women managers' success in management and timely corrective action against deviations, sustained commitment and support of top officials and regional government, and creating and using available opportunities should be given due attention to eliminate challenges facing women managers in the executive bureaus and offices of the Regional State named Oromia. Moreover, the regional government, executive branch bureaus and offices and other potential institutions ought to initiate and encourage more research work in the area and make use of the findings to minimize and eliminate gender discrimination in occupations and development process in general.

**The End, But the Starting **

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declared that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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