

FEMALES PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF ILU

ABA BORA ZONE:

BY

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Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Declaration

The researcher here by declares that the thesis on the title, "Females Participation in Educational Leadership in secondary schools of Ilu Aba Bora Zone zone:" is her original work and that all sources that have been referred to and quoted have been dully indicated and acknowledged with complete references.

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Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

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Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Table of contents

| Topic | Pages |
|---|----------|
| Acknowledgements | I |
| Table of Content | II |
| List of Tables | V |
| List of Figures | VI |
| Abbreviations and Acronyms | VII |
| Abstract | VIII |
| CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH | 1 |
| 1.1. Background of the Study | 1 |
| 1.2. Statement of the problem | 4 |
| 1.3. Objectives of the Study | 5 |
| 1.3.1 General Objective | 5 |
| 1.3.2 Specific Objectives | 5 |
| 1.4 Significance of the Study | 6 |
| 1.5. Delimitation of the Study | 6 |
| 1.6. Limitations of the Study | 6 |
| 1.7. Definition of Terms..... | 7 |
| 1.8. Organization of the Study | 8 |
| CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE | 9 |
| 2.1. Leadership Defined..... | 9 |
| 2.2. The Concept of Educational Leadership | 10 |
| 2.3. Gender Associations of Leadership | 11 |
| 2.4. Gender and Leadership Styles | 11 |
| 2.4.1 Task-oriented, Interpersonally-oriented, and Autocratic democratic Styles | 12 |
| 2.4.2 Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-faire Styles | 13 |

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 2.5. Leadership from a Feminist Perspective | 15 |
| 2.6. Females and Leadership | 16 |
| 2.7. Women's Qualities | 18 |
| 2.8. Gender Differences in Social Behavior | 20 |
| 2.9. Gender and Educational Leadership Discourse | 21 |
| 2.10. Women in Educational Leadership in the Developing Countries | 22 |
| 2.11. Gender Inequalities in the Work Place | 23 |
| 2.12. The Impact of Gender on Effectiveness of Leaders | 25 |
| 2.13. Gender Stereotyping | 27 |
| 2.14. Affirmative action, Quotas and Targets | 28 |
| 2.15. Major Factors for low Women Participation in Educational Leadership | 28 |
| 2.15.1. Organizational Factors | 28 |
| 2.15.1.1. Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination | 30 |
| 2.15.1.2. Socialization and Sex Role Stereotyping | 31 |
| 2.15.1.3. Hiring Practice and Recruitment | 32 |
| 2.15.2. Individual and Societal Factors as Barriers for Women Advancement to Educational Leadership | 35 |
| 2.15.2.1. Poor Self-Image or Lack of Confidence | 36 |
| 2.15.2.2. Family and Home Responsibilities | 37 |
| 2.15.2.3. Gendered Cultural and Social Values | 38 |
| 2.16. Overcoming the Factors for low Women Participation in Educational Leadership | 40 |
| CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY | 45 |
| 3.1. Research Design | 45 |
| 3.2. Research Method | 45 |
| 3.3. Sources of Data | 46 |
| 3.4. The Study Site | 46 |

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

| | |
|---|----|
| 3.5. Population | 46 |
| 3.6. Sample and Sampling Technique | 46 |
| 3.7. Data Collection Tools | 47 |
| 3.7.1. Questionnaire | 47 |
| 3.7.2. Interview | 48 |
| 3.7.3. Document Analysis | 48 |
| 3.8. Procedures of Data Collection | 48 |
| 3.9. Methods of Data Analysis | 49 |
| 3.10. Validity and Reliability Checks | 49 |
| 3.11. Ethical Consideration | 50 |

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

51

| | |
|--|----|
| 4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents | 52 |
| 4.2. Female Teachers Aspiration for Educational Leadership Positions | 53 |
| 4.3. Trends of Female Teachers Participation in Educational Leadership (2002-2006) | 57 |
| 4.4. Individual related Factors for Low Participation of Female Teachers' in Educational Leadership..... | 60 |
| 4.5 Social-structural related Factors for low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership | 68 |
| 4.6. Major Challenges for Low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership in Rank | 74 |

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION OF THE FINDINGS

| | |
|----------------------------|----|
| | 79 |
| 5.1. Summary | 79 |
| 5.2. Conclusions | 82 |
| 5.3. Recommendations | 85 |

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

References 87

Appendices

Appendix A I

Appendix B VIII

Appendix C IX

Appendix D X

Appendix E XI

LIST OF TABLES

| Tables | Pages |
|---|--------------|
| Table 3.1 Sample and Sampling Technique | 47 |
| Table 4. 2. Characteristics of the Survey Questionnaire Respondents | 52 |
| Table 4 .3.Trends of Female Teachers' Participation in Educational Leadership | 56 |
| Table 4.4 Opinion of Respondents toward Individual Factors Influencing Females' Participation in Educational Leadership | 59 |
| Table 4.5. Opinion of Respondents towards Social-Structural Related Factors for Low Females 'participation in Educational Leadership Positions | 67 |
| Table.4.6. Major Challenges for low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership | 75 |

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure1. Summary of Major Factors for Low Females' Participation in
Educational Leadership.....84

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

- .
- E.C- Ethiopian Calendar
- ETP –Ethiopian Training Policy
- FWTA-Federation of Women Teachers' Associations
- IABEO-Ilu Aba Bora Education Office
- ILM-Internal Labour Market
- MOE- Ministry of Education
- PTA-Parent Teacher Association
- SEEL- Sex Equity in Educational Leadership.
- SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Science
- TDP - Teacher Development Programme
- UK- United Kingdom
- UNICEF- United Nations Children's Fund
- US –United States
- WEO- Woreda Education Office
- WISA-Women in School Administration

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Abstract

This study aimed at identifying the major challenges that result in females' underrepresentation in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora Zone. To conduct this study, descriptive survey method was employed. The participants of this study were 171 out of which 147 teachers were selected by using simple random sampling techniques using lottery method. The 8 school principals and 8 Woreda education officials were also involved by using availability sampling technique. The data were collected by using questionnaire, interview and document reviews. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis were employed in order to reach at the findings. Finally, the research came up with the following major findings. The involvement of female teachers in educational leadership seems to show an insignificant increment each year in the last five years. There are different factors that have narrowed females' partaking in educational leadership. These factors are generally categorized into two major parts namely individual and socio-structural. To begin with, the lack of confidence because of the social back ground in the culture of the community in general, females are not leaders; they are followers rather. As a result of lack of confidence, they are not aspired to become leaders. In addition, females do not have opportunities to gain bottom experiences in educational leadership that would help them for further advancement because the school leadership is men dominated in tradition. It can be said that socio- structural factors are the sources of individual factors that caused females' underrepresentation in general. The gender balance in the secondary school teaching staff should be increased as the more the number of female teachers exists in the staff is the more female competent may exist for educational leadership positions. In addition, the Woreda Education Office has to work jointly with other offices and politicians to bring attitudinal changes in the communities to evade the stereotypic misconception about women. Finally, the organizational policies and practices which give golden opportunities for females should be fully implemented so as to attract as many female candidates as possible for enhancing their involvement in educational leadership positions.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

1.1 Background of the Study

Education is basic means of economic, social and political development for all society. It is widely recognized as one indicator of development. One of the basic purposes of education is to produce trained human resources which can overcome development impediments of a given country. As to Gunter (2001) the purposes of schools and schooling are to educate as well as train, and enable children to engage in the theory and practice of what it means to be a citizen in an unfolding and reforming democratic project.

It is generally believed that the society's future depends on the success of schools. The success of schools, however, depends on various school related factors. As to (Rimmer, 2003) school leadership is the most important activity next to class room instruction to improve student learning. Therefore, to address the multivariate needs for school success sound understanding of the nature of the leadership practices is indispensable. The concept of leadership itself has been understood in a number of different ways that resulted in hundreds of definitions. To this end, it is hardly possible to come up with one and agreed upon definition of the concept. However, it is so important to look into various definitions provided by different scholars to better understand how leadership has been viewed. As to Hallinger & Heck (1999) School leadership is simply the vision, skills, and leadership capabilities that superintendents and principals need to possess to build and maintain their school. Those some educational leadership qualities are used to attract talented teachers, and create educational programs that can provide children with a superior academic environment.

Yukl (2006 :8) define leadership as" the process of influencing all employees to understand and agree about what needs to be done and then process of coordinating individual and collective efforts to accomplish organizational objectives". Others such as, Sexily and Starke (1995: 39), define leadership as "the ability to influence others to pursue the goals the leader thinks is important and desirable. Leadership also involves many specific activities such as creating a vision which motivates followers to action." Koontz, et al. (cited in, MOE, 2004, p:2). Forward the most comprehensive

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

definition of leadership as "...the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals".

Harris and Chapman (2002) stated that research findings from diverse countries and different school contexts have revealed the powerful impact of leadership in securing school development and change.

To improve the quality and equity of education many countries attempt to undertake education reform and restructuring. One of such strategies has been adoption of integrating women into school leadership and management. In many countries, the participation of women on decision making position is linked to school leadership. This is because, in most countries, men are more likely to be a leader in education and elsewhere (Gold, 1996).

The presence of women in leadership roles at secondary school level and above contributes to sensitivity with in schools for the well being of adolescent girls and provides girls beginning to consider career choices with role models of decision makers and leaders (Sperandio, 2006).

Regan and Brooks (1995) acknowledge the differences in women and men in leadership. They describe women's leadership styles as attributes of relational leadership, which comprises collaboration, caring, courage, intuition and vision. Some literature suggests that women and men have innately different managerial dispositions (Billing and Alvesson, 2000).

Related to this, psychologists reported that when women cogitate, they gather details somewhat differently than men. Women integrate more details faster and arrange these bits of data into more complex patterns. As they make decisions, women tend to weigh more variables, consider more options, and see a wider array of possible solutions to a problem. Women tend to generalize, to synthesize, to take a broader, more holistic, more contextual perspective of any issue (Helen, 1999)

Besides, according to social scientists and business analysts, women are better able to tolerate ambiguity—a trait that most likely stems from their ability to hold several things simultaneously in mind. Women have other skills that enable them to lead. An exceptional female talent is the ability to find the right word rapidly—basic articulation (Helen, 1999).

However, universally men had been running the leadership career in any organization. Holtkamp (2002) notes that "leadership roles have been held by men". Men have dominated management and leadership positions in education. A recent study by Enomoto (2000) revealed that little has changed in this regard over the past few decades. The study reveals that, despite their large number in teaching

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

and in school leadership preparations programmers, women remain under-represented at higher levels of administration (Enomoto 2000: 375). Her study confirms earlier findings of Kearney and Ronning (1996: 15) which indicated that men with similar qualifications and experiences generally meet with greater career success and participate more fully in the management process than their female counterparts.

Similarly, research over the previous century has largely been male dominated thereby perpetuating the myth that management and leadership are essentially male phenomena (Enomoto, 2000).

Women have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life because of the social attitude women have been reluctant to pursue educational administrative positions (Holtkanm, 2002).

In educational setting while women hold the teaching staff position, men dominates the highest position of educational leadership (MoE, 2008). Therefore, it is to be high lightened that due to low educational attainment, societal stereotypes institution barflies that hampers the upward movement of women within organizations, one could hardly find women holding a management and decision making positions. This would retrain many women from facing the challenge and exercise decision making role (Meron, 2003).

The number of women in administrative and leadership positions in Ethiopia remains extremely low in all administrative areas in general and schools in particular. For example, in the case of school leadership, it goes decreasing as one move from primary to secondary schools and institutions of higher learning (ESDP-IV, 2010). This deprives female students the opportunity of looking up to role models. Also male teachers are educated and qualified than female teachers this let them to be less competitive to decision making positions. The proportion of females among the total teaching staff remains limited, despite the policy to attract 50% of female into teachers training. Similarly, females are grossly underrepresented in positions of educational leadership and management as well as office expertise at all level of educational institutions including secondary school principals, supervisors and other administrative bodies (ESDP-IV, 2010).

In Ilu Aba Bora Zone there are 24 secondary schools with 24 principals, 38 vice principals and 24 cluster supervisors. According to Ilu Aba bora Zone Education Office (IABEO, 2012) report, the proportion of women in educational leadership position is 1.49%. This indicates that they are underrepresentation(less inclusion in leadership). As far as the knowledge of student researcher is

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

concerned, no study was conducted in Ilu Aba Bora Zone to investigate the status of female participation in educational leadership positions and hindrance of the expected success. Therefore, the researcher is interested in assessing the major factors for low females' participation in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora Zone of Oromia Regional State.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

It is believed that women hold half of the world population statistically. This logic should have let them possess high proportion in different administration echelon so that they could play significant role in economical, social, cultural and political development of a country. However, the reality is the opposite in most cases. They are underrepresented in much status posts (Ababayehu, 1995:1).

Women's scarcity in managerial and decision making sphere is global phenomena. However, one obvious destination between developed and developing region lies on women access to education. In most countries where feminism has the most impact, women account for no more than 10% managers and 3% of company director and this issue has received the attention of international organizations (Onsong ,2004). Several reports and research findings noted that there are women who have succeeded in their school leadership roles and initiated other women to be outstanding role models among teachers of adolescent girls that have contributed to the unpopularity of teacher as career choice. Sister Katherine, an example of feminist educational leadership has contributed a lot for advancing women in school leadership (Bacon, 2008).

It is a very much exposed secret that women have been much marginalized (left aside) from higher managerial and technical positions than men workers. Women in those managerial or administrative and technical and scientific positions are very low (Jayaweera, 1997; Ababayehu, 1995).

Yalew (1997: 65) also states that it is well-known global fact that women's proportion in leadership positions is very small in relative to their statistics in the world population. And the researcher believes that Ethiopia is not free of this defect.

Ethiopia also has similar back ground with other countries in relation to the underrepresentation of women in status posts in general and educational leadership in particular. In order to understand the extent to which women are excluded from educational leadership in Ethiopia, it is imperative to see the proportion of women's share in the teaching force. In Ethiopia, out of 55,353 male and 9,763 females' secondary school teachers at national level, the statistics shows that 14.99% of the teachers are female. Similarly, in Ilu Aba Bora zone there are 1019 secondary school teachers holding 152 females (Education statistics Annual Abstract, 2005)

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

However, the proportion of women principals and assistant principals in secondary schools is all scant relatively to their figure. With the exception of one female assistant principal, out of the 24 secondary schools available in Ilu Aba Bora Zone, the remaining 23 secondary schools are all run by men.

According to Abebayehu (1995) the effect of women's family commitments were not evidenced as so severe as had been conceived in blocking their initial entry to educational management. However, family related factors were still influential variables in limiting the up-ward mobility of women who ones secured entry level administrative positions. This research outcome may give some insight about the factors for low participation of women in educational administration in Ethiopia. However, the generalizability of the results is questionable. This is mainly because the research was carried out in Addis Ababa, Hawassa ,Bahir Dar and Harar. In addition it evaluates the effectiveness of female versus male principals in their administrative roles, only leadership styles. But my research focuses on investigating the major factors for the under representation of female teachers participation in educational leadership.

Thus, us the above facts indicate, the problem of underrepresentation of women in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora seems worth stressing. To the researcher's knowledge, no research has so far been conducted in response to this problem in the zone.

Hence, this study is designed to assess the major factors for low females' participation in educational leadership. Accordingly, the study was guided by the following basic questions:

1. To what extent do female teachers aspire for position in educational leadership?
2. How Does the trend of female' educational leadership involvement in the Zone for the last five years (2002-2006 E.C) looks like?
3. What are the major challenges that draw back females from involving in educational leadership?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective;-

- This study attempt to investigate the major factors for low females' participation in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora zone, Oromiya Region.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

1.3.2 Specific Objectives;-

- To assess the aspiration of females' involvement in educational leadership positions in Ilu Aba Bora Zone.
- To assess the trend of females participation in educational leadership positions in Ilu Aba Bora zone.
- To identify the major challenges that draw back females from actively involving in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora Zone.

1.4 Significance of the Study

It is true that women have been stereotyped and considered as dependent, acquiescent and ungifted of leadership qualities. As a result, they are highly ignored from leadership positions and their contribution to the country development in every aspect has been neglected. Nowadays the women in the world, jointly with the governments, are in opposition to struggle for the consideration of equal opportunity of females' participation in different global activities such as social, economical, political, etc. Hence the researcher believes that the findings of the study:

- Create awareness among different level of educational organizations and their stakeholders about the importance of involving females' in decision making positions.
- Stimulate the concerned bodies to give attention to the involvement of female teachers in decision making positions in educational organizations.
- Increase the representation of females in educational leadership.
- Become a base for other scholars who would like to conduct further study on this issue.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

In order to make the study easily managed, the researcher delimited it to investigate the major factors contributing for low females' participation in educational leadership. This could be possible because educational leadership is a broad term that encompasses leadership from lower level of educational institution to the higher one. To delimit the scope of the study, the researcher restricted it to study the factors that contribute for low participation of females' in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora zone.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

Any research study has its own limitations and this study has no exception. However, measures were put in place to safeguard against any demeanours that might have negatively affected the validity of the study. It was difficult for the researcher to get all the questionnaires back from the teachers. Nevertheless, this was possible because she made frequent follow-ups with the coordinating secondary school principals.

In addition, the researcher worried that some respondents would find the study rather sensitive, so they would be reluctant to reveal valuable information on factors that affect females' participation on educational leadership. This was taken care of by the use of multiple methods of data collection. More, the researcher took time to explain to the respondents that their valid and thoughtful response would have very determinant worth for the achievement of the objective of the study.

1.7. Definitions of Terms.

For the purpose of clarity and constancy in the study the following terms carry the perspective operational definitions given below.

Educational leaders:- The term educational leaders' under this paper used to represent the individuals who are in leadership positions of school, school principals, department heads, Unit leaders and clubs heads.

Key Educational leadership Positions:- represent individuals who are in leadership positions of school principals and vice principals.

Gender: - reference to the society and culturally determined differences between males and females.

Glass ceiling: is a term coined in 1970's in US to describe the invisible artificial barriers, created attitudinal & organizational prejudices, which block women from senior executive position

Leaders: - Luba chliwniak(1997) defined leaders as individuals who provide vision and meaning for an institutions and embodies the ideas towards which the Organization strives.

Secondary school: - The term secondary school in the context of Ethiopia has four years duration, consisting of two years of general secondary school which will enable students to identify their interest for further education, for specific training and for the world of work. The second cycle of secondary education and training enables students to choose subjects or areas of training which

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

prepares them adequately for higher education and for the world of work, and it is completed at grade 12 (MoE, 1994). Thus secondary school in this research refers to first cycle secondary schools (from 9 – 10 grades levels).

Sex role: - sex roles are a set of behaviours or characteristics that are standard for each gender in a society. Sex role stereotypes are widely held beliefs about those behaviours and characteristics.

Underrepresentation: is a term used to describe the disproportionate (that is, too small or none) representation of women in educational leadership.

1.8. Organization of the Study

The paper has preliminary parts such as table of content, list of tables, figures, acronyms, acknowledgment and abstract. The rest of the thesis paper was structured as follows. Chapter one presents background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, limitation, delimitation and organization of the study. Chapter two presents conceptual and empirical literature reviews. Chapter three presents research design and methodologies of the study. Chapter four presents results and discussions of the study. Finally, chapter five presents summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Leadership Defined

Leadership has been a topic of interest to historians and philosophers since ancient times but scientific studies began only in the twentieth century. Scholars and other writers have often more than 350 definition of the term leadership (Warren & Bennis, 2009, p: 45). Leadership has been a complex and elusive problem largely because the nature of leadership itself is complex. Some have even suggested that leadership is nothing more than a romantic myth, perhaps based on the false hope that someone will come along and solve our problems (Meindis, et al, 2009:56).

A Google search of articles and books about leadership indicates, Leadership has probably been defined in many ways, and here is several other representative definition of leadership.

- Interpersonal influence, directed through communication to ward goal attainment.
- The influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with directions and orders.
- An act that causes others to act or respond in a shared direction.
- The art of influencing people by persuasion or example to follow a line of action.
- The principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organization in the accomplishment of its objective (Andrew, 2008:17).

This shows that there is no single definition; a major point about leadership is that it is not found only among people in high level positions. Leadership is needed at all levels in an organization and can be practiced to some extent even by a person not assigned to formal leadership position.

According to Kotelniko (2001:1), Leadership is the process of directing the behaviour of others towards the accomplishment of some common objectives; Leadership is influencing people to get things done to a standard and quality above their norm and doing it willingly. Therefore, according to Kotelniko, Leadership is a complex activity involving;

- Process of influence
- Actors who are both leaders and followers.
- Range of possible outcomes, the achievement of goals, the commitment of individuals to such goals and the enhancement of group co-culture.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Others such as, Sexily and Starke (1995:39), define leadership as “the ability to influence others to pursue the goals the leader thinks is important and desirable. Leadership also involves many specific activities such as creating a vision which motivates followers to action.” Koontz, et al. (cited in, MOE, 2004:2) forward the most comprehensive definition of leadership as “...the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals “they put influence as a key Concept in the definition, and state that the source of influence may be the position a person has in a formal organizational structure or recognition and respect given to a person due to his/her professional or social acceptance in a group. Terry and Franklin (2003:327) mention that a leader influences subordinates based on one or more of five source of power: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent. Where the first three are formal organizational factors and the last two are personal elements that contribute to the strength of a leader. All these theories used influence and vision as important aspects of leadership.

2.2. The Concept of Educational Leadership

According to Tarnve (2000) educational leadership is the Continuous work of mobilizing People to believe and behave in regard to shared vision that result in high achievement for every child. It is the ability to support people in doing inquiry about the result of their works honestly, without the fear of blame and judgment. In other words Educational leadership is primarily concerned with educational purpose of guiding and directing teaching and learning to improve educational outcomes for all students (Liyod, 2009).

Besides, educational leadership influences and manages pedagogical goals and Visions undermining instructional program to promote teachers learning and development for students' improvement (Liyod, 2009).

Tarnve in Essayas (2012) further argues educational leadership that enhances students' outcomes through the creation of an environment where learning permits the Organizational culture. Besides he states as: “I believe that the core work of teachers is seeking to promote quality learning for all children that all management tasks serve that core work”. Educational leadership is a connected and crucial issue of what is meant by successful, quality school for the present and future.

Sergiovanni (Cited in Harris, et al, 2003:1), has indicated the dependability of school success on effective leadership and stated that. “Tomorrows schools success will depend up on the ability of leaders to harness the capacity of locals, to enhance sense and meaning and to build a community of responsibility.”

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Again, Warren & Bennis, (2003:54) has argued that thus, one may say that effective leadership is at the core of every successful organization. In broader context, Harris and Chapman (2002:87) stated that research findings from diverse countries and different school contexts have revealed the powerful impact of leadership in securing school development and change.

2.3. Gender Associations of Leadership

Socialization and culture influence perceptions of women's leadership qualification and effectiveness. Eagly and Carli explored the mental associations of leaders based on gender, noting that gender prejudice aligns with social constructions of masculine and feminine based on cultural perceptions and influences. Associations develop, with women often associated with communal qualities of compassion, affection, and gentleness, and men associated with agentic qualities of assertion, self-confidence, and dominance. Prejudices may result when mismatches or role incongruity between stereotyped attributes of women traverse the leadership roles they fill. Thus, favouritism toward male over female leaders may develop.

Women may be accused of being too pushy or too soft. According to leadership research, a woman who leads with behaviours traditionally perceived as masculine may find herself at a disadvantage. Women who are feminine may be perceived as less competent, causing a "double bind" of mutual exclusivity between the two, creating a delicate balancing act. For example, Hillary Clinton, who is often dismissed as being too masculine in her leadership behaviour, has also been criticized for showing emotion, such as during the 2008 New Hampshire primary when she teared up during a question and answer session. Cultural expectations also contribute to the notion that women should be polite in every situation. Furthermore, when an incongruity exists between gender role and leadership role, prejudice often results, which may account for why it is more difficult for women to become leaders and achieve success than for their male counterparts.

2.4. Gender and Leadership Styles

The examination of gender's impact on leadership style is another area that has been widely researched. Much of this research was conducted on the more common distinction between task-oriented styles (or initiation of structure) and interpersonally-oriented styles (also labelled consideration), and the dimensions of democratic versus autocratic (similar to the dimensions of participative and directive). Previously, Eagly and Johnson (1990) cited in Gibson (1995) conducted a meta-analysis of gender and leadership style that examined studies comparing men and women on task and interpersonal styles as well as democratic and autocratic styles. Evidence was found for both

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

the presence and absence of differences between men and women. While the authors concluded that the overall search for sex differences in leader style was not demonstrated, significant gender differences were reported in the use of democratic or participatory styles of leadership. Their research revealed that women leaders are less directive than men.

The study of Druscat (1994) on gender and leadership styles of Roman Catholic Church shows that both women and men leaders were rated to exhibit more transformational leadership behaviours than transactional leadership behaviours. However, women leaders were rated to exhibit significantly more transformational behaviours than men leaders and men leaders were rated to exhibit significantly more transactional behaviours than women leaders. The researcher also added that in all-female contexts, women leaders' exhibit feminine styles of leadership.

Eagly, et al. (2003) cited in Smith, Matkin and Fritz, (2004) shows women to be more transformational than men, suggesting that stereotypes associated with transformational leadership may be less negatively biased against women leaders than stereotypes associated with other leadership styles. Additionally, women may favour a transformational leader style because it provides them with a means of overcoming the dilemma of role incongruity—namely, that conforming to their gender role can impede their ability to meet the requirements of their leader role.

2.4.1 Task-oriented, Interpersonally-oriented, and Autocratic Democratic Styles

In the long-standing tradition of studying leadership style (Bass, 1990, Cited in Eagly and Carli, 2003), most research conducted prior to 1990 distinguished between task-oriented style or initiation of structure and interpersonally oriented style or consideration. A somewhat less popular distinction was between leaders who (a) behave democratically and allow subordinates to participate in decision-making, or (b) behave autocratically and discourage subordinates from such participation. To examine sex differences and similarities in these styles, Eagly and Johnson (1990) reviewed 162 studies that yielded comparisons of women and men on relevant measures. Specifically, in such research, women, more than men, manifested relatively interpersonally oriented and democratic styles, and men, more than women, manifested relatively task oriented and autocratic styles. In contrast, sex differences were more limited in organizational studies, which examined managers' styles. Male and female managers did not differ in their tendencies to manifest interpersonally oriented and task-oriented styles.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Based on analyses of their large database, Eagly and Johnson (1990) concluded that gender-stereotypic sex differences in leadership behaviour were less common in organizational studies than in other types of studies because male and female managers were selected by similar criteria and subjected to similar organizational socialization—forces that tend to equalize the sexes. Among managers, a sex difference was detected only in a narrow range of leadership behaviours assessed by measures of autocratic–democratic (or directive–participative) tendencies, which relate primarily to the exercise of power. These findings illustrate the value of comparing studies of different types: Without the context provided by the laboratory and assessment studies of persons not occupying managerial roles, any conclusion about the lessening of sex differences among managers would not have been convincing.

This meta-analysis included some possible interpretations of the autocratic–democratic sex difference—specifically, (a) the greater social skills of women (vs. men) may have facilitated collaborative, democratic leadership behaviour and (b) such behaviour may have been especially advantageous for women because it placated subordinates and peers who might otherwise have been resistant to female leadership.

Another significant moderator analysis in Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis established that leaders of each sex were especially task-oriented relative to the other sex when their role was congruent (or congenial) with their gender—that is, defined in relatively masculine terms for male leaders or in more feminine terms for female leaders.

2.4.2 Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-faire Styles

Debates about the leadership styles of women and men gained momentum in the 1990s because of new research attempting to identify the styles that are especially attuned to contemporary conditions (Eagly and Carli, 2003).

The new emphasis was on leadership that is transformational in the sense that it is future oriented rather than present oriented and that strengthens organizations by inspiring followers' commitment and creativity. As stated by Bono and Judge (2004) transformational leadership style was initially described by Burns (1978) and elaborated by Bass (1985). Transformational leadership entails establishing oneself as a role model by gaining followers' trust and confidence. Transformational leader's state future goals develop plans to achieve those goals, and innovate, even when their

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

organization is generally successful. By mentoring and empowering followers, such leaders help followers to develop their potential and thus to contribute more effectively to their organization. The study of Rosener (1990) shows that men more likely than women to describe themselves in ways that characterize transactional leadership. According to Rosener, men leaders view job performance as a series of transactions with subordinates-exchanging rewards for services rendered or punishment for inadequate performance. Men leaders are described as they are more likely to use power that comes from their organizational position and formal authority.

Women leaders in his study described themselves in ways that characterizes transformational leadership-getting subordinates to transform their own self interest in to the interest of the group though concern for a broader goal. Rosener called the leadership styles of women as interactive leadership. The justifications given by Rosener to call women's leadership as interactive leadership is that; women leaders actively work to make interactions with subordinates' positive for everyone involved. As stated in Rosener's words, "... women encourage participation, share power and information, enhance other people's self worth, and get others excited about their work." (p. 4).

Leadership researchers: (e.g., Avolio, 1999, cited in Eagly and Carli, 2003), contrasted transformational leaders to transactional leaders, as who appeal to subordinates' self interest by establishing exchange relationships with them. Transactional leadership involves managing in the conventional sense of clarifying subordinates' responsibilities, rewarding them for meeting objectives, and correcting them for failing to meet objectives. In addition, researchers distinguished a laissez-faire style that is marked by an overall failure to take responsibility for managing.

In general, Eagly and Carli (2003) meta-analysis revealed that, compared with male leaders, female leaders were (a) more (significant in general and on all but one subscale) and (b) engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviours (i.e., exchanging rewards for followers' satisfactory performance) that are one component of transactional leadership. In addition, male leaders were more likely than female leaders to manifest two other aspects of transactional leadership: active management by exception (attending to followers' mistakes and failures to meet standards) and passive management by exception (waiting for problems to become severe before intervening). Men were also higher on laissez-faire leadership (exhibiting widespread absence and lack of involvement).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

According to Eagly and Carli, Sex differences in transformational and transactional leadership do have implications for female advantage arguments because researchers defined these styles in an effort to identify effective leadership. Substantiating these claims, a meta-analysis of 39 studies showed positive correlations between effectiveness and all components of transformational leadership as well as the contingent reward component of transactional leadership, the one aspect of transactional leadership on which women exceeded men (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996, cited in Eagly and Carli, 2003).

The worming study of the MLQ measure produced similar effectiveness findings (Center for Leadership Studies, 2003), and in addition, showed negative relations between leaders' effectiveness and two of the remaining measures: (a) passive management by exception, which is one of the components of transactional leadership, and (b) laissez-faire leadership.

In view of these findings, the tendency of women to exceed men on the components of leadership style that relate positively to effectiveness (i.e., transformational leadership and the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership) and the tendency of men to exceed women on the ineffective styles (i.e., passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership) attest to women's abilities. Thus, research on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles does suggest female advantage, albeit a small advantage.

2.5. Leadership from a Feminist Perspective

According to Marshall (1995:484), the feminist paradigm grew from the dominant male and structural-functionalist perspective. Marshall (1995:488) further contends that women who are educational administrators are more attuned to teaching, curriculum and instruction, and children, perhaps because they spend more time as mothers before they become teachers.

Marshall (1995) further contends that when women talk, supervise or lead in ways that are not consistent with the dominant paradigm of leadership, their work is not credited as leadership. The researcher is of the opinion that andocentric philosophy has prejudiced and disadvantaged women who endeavoured to attain leadership positions in organizations such as schools. According to Blackmore (1989:113), feminist reconstruction of leadership would involve women in meaningful discourse of organizational life and values as autonomous individuals rather than as objects of patriarchal discourse, with the focus on relationships between individuals and leadership. The

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

researchers of the opinion; that at least the view should be “Empowering others rather than power over others”.

According to Gossetti and Rusch (1995:1), the power of a feminist paradigm is that it focuses on the gaps and blank spaces of dominant cultures, knowledge bases and behaviours. Using those spaces, feminism can focus on women and their experiences, so that feminist theory can become part of contemporary dialogue and experiences, rather than just an “add-on” to the dominant culture. In the researcher’s opinion, many women leaders see discrepancies between the dominant culture and their own experiences as women leaders. They do not necessarily propose the eradication of current knowledge bases, but to challenge current theories, knowledge and assumptions about leadership, replacing them with dialogue and ideas that are more inclusive, open and democratic. Considering leadership from the foregoing perspectives provides a realistic picture of the various views held by individuals working within schools. What is imperative is that women in leadership provide a different view and interpretation of leadership.

2.6. Females and Leadership

Good school administration is more attuned to feminine than masculine modes of leadership behaviour. Female attributes of nurturing, being sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are increasingly associated with effective administration. While these characteristics are innate and valuable, women possessing the qualities of a good leader still face higher attrition and slower career mobility particularly in educational administration (Porat, 1991).

Data on equality of opportunity in educational administration reveals that gender, more than age, experience, background, or competence determines the role an individual will be assigned in education (Whitaker & Lane, 1990).

Transformational Leadership associated mainly with women are increasingly praised for having excellent skills for leadership and, in fact, women, more than men, manifest leadership styles associated with effective performance as leaders”(Eagly, 2007:1).

Unlike men women have communal qualities, democratic and participatory, typically focusing on relationships and creating positive working atmospheres (Eagly and Johnson, 1990).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Therefore, the researchers strongly support this idea from the fact that if this quality of females' leadership is potentially released to school environment and provided that female access to leadership, they contribute their quality of leadership to schools.

Moreover, writers of popular books on leadership have argued that effective leadership is congruent with the ways that women lead (Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1995). For example, Rosener (1995) labelled women's leadership as interactive, involving collaboration and empowerment of employees, and men's leadership as command and control, involving the assertion of authority and the accumulation of power.

Even though, some writers stated women's 'effective leadership is attributed to a transformational leadership style which frequently brings effective leadership, there is a lack of women in higher level of leadership (Eagly, 2007).

In this regard considerable research could be conducted so as to identify the barriers that cause female underrepresentation in educational leadership. To different authors men and women are quite different in the ways that they lead. While men relying on somewhat antiquated leadership style that does not fit the needs of most contemporary organizations (Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992) described in their book, *Megatrends for Women*, 25 behaviours that characterize women's leadership. The behaviours clustered in six central patterns were identified as behaviours that empower, restructure, teach, provide role models, encourage openness, and stimulate questioning. Gillet-Karam (1994), on the other hand, used four behaviours: (a) a vision behaviour -in this category, women leaders would take appropriate risks to bring about change; (b) a people behaviour- women leaders provide care and respect for individual differences; (c) influence behaviour- women are acting collaboratively; values behaviour in which women leaders spend time building trust and openness (Getskow, 1996).

No matter how the leadership behaviours of women are delineated, the fact is that women do possess the capabilities and skills to be excellent educational leaders. Gross and Trask (1976) listed capabilities of women in leadership• Women principals have a greater knowledge and concern for instructional supervision, supervisors and teachers preferred women over men, Students' academic performance and teachers' professional performance rated higher under women principals. Women were more effective administrators, supervisors and teachers preferred the decision-making and problem-solving behaviours of women, Women principals were more concerned with helping deviant pupils. Women principals placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation (Allan, 2004).

2.7. Women's Qualities

The research and literature cited to this point in this review confirm that women have long been denied their rightful place in administrative positions. If women *should* in fact be in leadership positions, is it fair to ask, "*Do they have what it takes?*" "*Do they have qualities that contribute to success as a principal?*" I believe it is and I believe the answer is women not only have what it takes to be in leadership positions, they have what it takes to do such jobs well.

Characteristics that have been traditionally viewed as being "female" have long been regarded as being less valued than those characteristics traditionally associated with males. Terms such as nurturing, sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are often used when referring to women. Rather than seeing these qualities as being "weak", however, some current leadership theories celebrate this "feminine" model of leadership.

Mahoney (1993) cites Shakeshaft as saying that school environments led by females tend to have a teaching and learning focus, are less concerned with standardized achievement, and tend to be close communities where individuals feel cared about.

Kristjanson, as cited by Mahoney (1993), mentions that empowerment is the main goal of feminist style leadership. Women seem to be used to empowering people, talking to people and allowing them to decide. Many women do not tend to lead by the once favoured autocratic "bossing" style, but rather by inspiring and empowering people to find solutions to problems.

Helgesen (1990) in her insightful book, *The Female Advantage: Women's 38 Ways of Leading*, studied the strategies and organization theories of our successful female leaders. Helgesen proposes that there are several differences in the ways men and women typically approach management. Women see themselves at the center of a network, or "web of inclusion", where communication, or the flow of information throughout the organization, is so vital. They are concerned with keeping relationships in good standing, and are able to pace themselves and integrate their work and home life. Women exhibit strengths in planning and communication, human relations and skills, and the ability to focus on ends as well as means. Women's experiences and expectations as women and mothers, in addition to their acquired management and human relations skills, often make them better managers (Helgesen, 1990).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Helgesen (1990) also discusses how women use the metaphor of voice to depict their intellectual and ethical development. She concludes that women's ways of leading emphasize the role of voice over that of vision. A vision may exist alone in the mind of person and can be a vision without being communicated to anyone else. But a voice cannot be a voice unless someone is there to hear it; it finds its form in the process of interaction. This suggests that women engage in two-way processes of communication by listening and speaking; a process in interaction and interconnectedness, rather than the quest for authority and autonomy.

Shakeshaft (1989) documents the strengths that women offer educational systems: "Women enter education with clear educational goals, supported by a value system that stresses service, caring, and relationships" (p:197). Women are seen to spend more time interacting with students and staff, more time in discussion about programming, viewing their job from the perspective of master-teacher or educational leader as opposed to a managerial-industrial perspective. Their democratic, participatory style of communicating and decision making leads to a greater sense of community and inclusiveness.

Shakeshaft (1989) further explains that women's commitment to education is evidenced by their academic preparation and increased membership in professional associations; their greater knowledge of teaching methods and techniques, and their focus on teaching and learning, methods, techniques, programs and progress that stress achievement within a supportive atmosphere. Because women enter administration later than men, and have generally taught longer than men, female administrators not only have more experience in the classrooms, but they also have more knowledge of curriculum, qualities that are vital for an administrator.

Ortiz and Marshall (1988) summarize extensive research documenting female leaders' strengths in management and teaching and their emphasis on instructional leadership. In a study of 142 female educators aspiring to positions of leadership, the authors note "an overriding concern for children's welfare propels the women in this study to become school leaders." Similarly, Gaskell's (1992) work shows women tend to be more nurturing, less hierarchical and more consultative as administrators. Women are capable in the areas needed to strengthen our educational organizations. Research in the United States has shown that in schools and districts with female administrators, achievement scores in reading and math are higher, there is less violence, and staff morale is higher (Mahoney, 1993). Schuster (1989), in a national study in the U.S., reported data from 183 superintendents in 1986 and compared data from a survey of 762 superintendents in 1984. Female superintendents scored significantly higher than their male counterparts on every measure: better academic preparation, more

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

knowledge of literature, more hours spent on the job, and more teaching experience. Sergiovanni summarizes this nicely when he states, "that while women are under-represented in principal ships, they are over-represented in successful principal ships" (Brandt, 1992:48).

2.8. Gender Differences in Social Behaviour

Expectations for women and men are still so different in some domains that observers are surprised, even shocked, when an individual woman or man "crosses the line" to behave in a way that is thought normative for the other group. Women and men are, in fact, often described as "opposite sexes." How different are we really? A look around Ethiopia quickly shows that, in terms of how we spend our time, women and men are very different indeed: Women do most of the housework, men play most of the football, women do most of the typing, men run most of the corporations, women do most of the child care, and men commit most of the violent crimes. Small wonder if the casual observer were to conclude that human males and females differ dramatically in abilities, motivation, and temperament.

However, an observed gender difference in behaviour can often be shown to result from a complex interaction between characteristics of the individuals involved and characteristics of the social environment. The observation that men commit more violent crimes than women cannot automatically be interpreted as proof that males are always and under all conditions more aggressive than females; the fact that women do most of the child care does not itself prove that women are generally more nurturing than men. This section surveys the research evidence for the existence of gender differences in several areas of social behaviour: aggression, influence ability, dominance, nurturance, empathy, and altruism. These particular behavioural areas are chosen partly because they are all aspects of the qualities stereotypically assigned to women and men in our society.

Men are supposedly more aggressive, dominant, and independent of influence than women are; women are believed to be more nurturing, empathetic, and altruistic than men are. Perhaps because each of these qualities is stereotypically either feminine or masculine, they have been the focus of a good deal of research aimed at exploring gender differences. Our overview of this research will show, however, that while large gender differences sometimes exist in the probabilities that people will perform particular behaviours, sweeping statements about general differences, such as "Women are more altruistic than men," are usually difficult to justify. What do we know about the differences and similarities between women and men? The research provides us with limited answers. Despite the popular habit of referring to women and men as "opposite sexes," psychological research finds little

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

evidence for such dramatic distinctions in many areas of social behaviour. Men are found to be more aggressive and dominant than women, but women are aggressive and dominant too under certain circumstances. Women show a small but reliable tendency to be more easily influenced than men; this difference appears in some situations but not others. Women self-report more nurturance and empathy than men do; no across-the-board differences in behaviour are found, but the range of behaviours studies has been small. Gender differences in altruism seem to depend on the circumstances (Bem, 1993).

2.9. Gender and Educational Leadership Discourse.

With the exception of some literature Alder,et al (1993) when one looked at literature on educational administration and leadership, much of it has been written based on the view of one gender-male.

According to Grace (1995), this patriarchal and male power has shaped the construct of leadership, its culture, discourse, imaging and practice for centuries. This view is also shared by Alder et al (1993) who found that “most of the literature on educational management and on theories of management and organization ignores women, either by making the assumption that all managers are male or by assuming gender-free position” (P:3).

As defined by the international Labour organization Bureau of Gender-equality GENDER, (2000) gender refer to the social differences and relation between men and women which are learned, changeable overtime, and have wide variations both within and between cultures. The differences and relationship are socially constructed and learned through the socialization process and are context specific and can be modified (ILO, 2000; Williams and Sheehan, 2001). Depending on this definition, I tried to explore the role that gender plays in educational leadership discourse. As Blackmore (1989) states:

“Leadership is a concept central to theories of how organizations such as schools and educational institutions work since, historically, schools have been organized in hierarchical ways. Authority is seen to be legitimately accorded to the principal, generally a male. Increasingly the way in which schooling and school knowledge are defined and organized have been contested” (P: 93).

To get a clear picture as to why this has been the case for women in the western world Reiger (1993) gave historical account of gender dynamics of organizations. She looked at how the formation of masculinity and femininity in the eighteenth century, promoted the ideology of separate spheres for

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

women and men based on the bourgeois model of the family. This became institutionalized in modern organizations. Thus, the public sphere was for the male and the private or domestic was for the female (Blackmore, 1993; Reiger, 1993).

Nevertheless, Blackmore (1993) noted “women’s entrance in to the public sphere in the early 20th century, particularly at the top as leaders completely threatened this simple dichotomization of life into the public and private or male and female spheres” (P:134). She argued that the values, ideologies and structures associated with dominant theories of administration and association with cultural practice, famous certain image of masculinity at any one time.

Women moving in to the public sphere treated many of the basic conceptions of the rational bureaucratic world .Thus, steps were taken by top male administrators and male dominated school boards to make ascertain that women administrators were concentrated in the lower administrative echelons and that the male old-boy’s network was promoted (Blackmore, 1993).

Mostly, past theories of educational leadership that developed, have been dominated by one gender, the male and have taken the instance of the male as the norm, public expression and writings has been a chronicle of man’s experiences where their view point’s predominate and their needs are expressed (Marshall, 1984).

In constructing a feminist critiqued of leadership in education, Blackmore (1989) has undertaken a critical analysis “of and a reflection the way women have been displaced from or submerged in both organizational and political theory, and how much of this visibility has permeated the everyday common sense notions of leadership” (P:98).

2.10. Women in Educational Leadership in the Developing Countries

The literature on women leaders with in developing countries is sparse. The knowledge base in educational leadership has developed mainly in Anglo American courtiers, so they lack context, specificity and relevance because educational systems in developing countries may not be similar (Walker & Dimmock, 2002). This can also be said about research on women in developing countries and their leadership experiences. We know very little about the levees and careers of women in educational leadership with in developing countries (Oplatka, 2006).

In developing countries, women are leaders and some times, women are among the most oppressed (Drake & Owen, 1998).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

As identified by Drake & Owen (1998), in developing countries, women are “cast as both bringers of change and guarding of the old culture” (P: 37). For some developing countries like Ethiopia, it is considerable advances which will supposedly improve the economic health and living of the developing countries. At the same time it is through women that family values and traditions are transmitted and maintained.

Advancements in the condition of women have been made in some developing countries (Brown and Ralph, 1996; Drake and Owen, 1998). This involved a strategy that abandoned an old principle of seniority. Promotion was automatically considered for those “for these with most experience at the previous rung of the promotion ladder...this strategy enabled women to rise through the ranks” (Drake & Owen, 1998: 3).

In Uganda, similar strategies were used Brown & Ralph (1996). One such strategy was the sensitization programme which aimed to increase the number of girls and women in education (Brown & Ralph, 1996). This programme run at local level and is aimed at demonstrating to parents the benefits of educating their girl children as well as boys.

In principle, most countries in the developing world are committed to eliminating gender inequalities in education (Brown and Ralph 1996; Morris, 1998, Strachan, 2002) but in reality progress is slow. Some of the reasons outlined for this slow progress is a lack of financial and human resources, and poor planning and policy development and difficulties in data collection (Strachan, 2002).

According to Strachan (2007) “women in developing countries face barriers to accessing leadership not experienced to the same extent or in the same way by women in developed countries”. This is also true especially when looking at the different contexts that women are in and the cultures that are embedded in those societies.

2.11. Gender Inequalities in the Work Place

Because work defines an individual's place in society social standing, life style, prestige, and respect it is not surprising that many of the battles for gender role liberation has been fought in the work place. And the reasons for the battles are many. Historically, women have been kept out of many areas of employment. Women earn less than men in nearly every occupation. Vertical and horizontal occupational segregation of the work force keeps most women in a few low-paid occupations, while men have access to a wider variety of jobs. Occupations with a high percentage of women and minority workers are likely to have a high percentage of low-wage workers. Even in the face of unemployment, women fare worse than men (Blau and Ferber, 1992; Tsehai, 1991).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Although both women and men have always worked, the traditional division of labour in industrialized societies has mandated that they work in different spheres: women in the private sphere of the home, men in the public (and paid) sphere of employment outside the home. Until very recently, when women ventured into the world of paid employment they were automatically relegated to low status, low-paid jobs.

A strong factor in the maintenance of the division of labour along gender lines has been discrimination. Sex discrimination has been manifested in a tendency to pay women less than men for the same or comparable work, to evaluate women's work performance less highly than men's, and to give preference to men over women when hiring. Some research suggests that men also can sometimes be the victims of sex discrimination in evaluation and hiring when the job is defined specifically as female appropriate. Legislation has been introduced to counteract sex discrimination in hiring and to promote pay equity between women and men.

Although these legislative approaches have solved some problems (for instance, by making it more difficult for employers to practice obvious sex discrimination), they have opened the door to others. Controversies now rage about the extent to which male-dominated and female-dominated jobs are comparable in worth, and women who have been hired in to male dominated occupations find themselves dealing with all the pressures that go with token or minority status (see Lott, 1987; Blau and Ferber, 1992; Powell, 1993).

A second factor that helps to maintain gender-based occupational segregation is the assignment of most homemaking and child-care tasks to women, even in dual-career families. Many employed women carry a double burden of responsibility; the consequent stress, fatigue, and time pressure may well limit their capacity to take the steps necessary to move out of female-dominated occupations. However, research indicates that both women and men benefit when they take on a balance of occupational and family responsibilities. A small but growing minority of two-career couples are dividing family tasks more equitably and trying to place equal priority on the careers of both partners. Under pressure from such people, some employers are beginning to make structural changes that acknowledge and allow for the family responsibilities of their employees (Giddens, 2001).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

A third barrier to gender equality in the workplace has been the emphasis on sexuality in male-female relationships. Concern over the development of sexual liaisons at work has been the reason sometimes voiced for resistance to the integration of women into male-dominated occupations. Some people have little practice relating to members of the other gender on an equal footing, in ways that are task-oriented and business like, and they fear the necessity of doing so. When sexual liaisons do develop between people at work, problems sometimes result-and those problems can lead to job loss for the member of the couple (usually the woman) who has the least seniority. Moreover, sexual harassment is a common problem in the workplace, especially for women, and even more especially for women in token or "pioneer" positions. Such harassment can serve to keep the gender-based division of labour in place by forcing the victims from their jobs or interfering with their job performance (Kanter, 1977; Lott, 1987; Fagenson, 1993).

2.12. The Impact of Gender on Effectiveness of Leaders.

In reviewing the literature on gender and Full Range Leadership, an important issue that emerged was leader effectiveness. Transformational leadership, along with the use of contingent reward, is a style significantly related to effectiveness as previously mentioned (Eagly and Carli, 2003; Appelbaum, Auedet and Miller, 2003; Center for Leadership Studies, 2003).

Given these constraints, transformational leadership may be especially advantageous for women (Eagly et al., 2003; Yoder, 2001, cited in Eagly and Carli, 2003) because it encompasses some behaviours that are consistent with the female gender role's demand for supportive, considerate behaviours. The transformational repertoire, along with the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership, may resolve some of the inconsistencies between the demands of leadership roles and the female gender role and therefore allow women to excel as leaders. Fortunately, for women's progress as leaders, this positive, encouraging, inspiring style appears to have generalized advantages for contemporary organizations. This idea is supported by Appelbaum, Auedet and Miller (2003: 49). "Women's styles are not at all likely to be less effective; in fact, they are more effective within the context of team based, consensually-driven organizational structures that are more prevalent in today's world".

Eagly and Carli (2003) has tried to show how leadership effectiveness varies between men and women leaders in different situations. According to these researchers, women are relatively less effective in leadership roles defined in especially masculine terms and more effective in roles defined

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

in less masculine terms. The following findings were consistent with these expectations: (a) women were less effective than men to the extent that leadership positions were male dominated; (b) women were less effective relative to men as the proportion of male subordinates increased; (c) women were less effective relative to men the greater the proportion of men among the rates of leader effectiveness; (d) women were substantially less effective than men in military organizations, a traditionally masculine environment, but modestly more effective than men in educational, governmental, and social service organizations; (e) women fared particularly well in effectiveness, relative to men, in middle-level leadership positions, as opposed to line or supervisory positions.

The meta-analytic study of Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), regarding on measures of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership style, which were designed to predict effectiveness show similar results to other studies, yet another pattern appeared. According to these researchers, female leaders exceeded male leaders especially on female stereotypic transformational dimension of individualized consideration and were higher than men two additional subscales of transformational leadership as well as on the contingent reward scale transactional leadership. In contrast, men exceed women on the active and passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire subscales. Based on the above findings of their study, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (P: 787) they argue that, "It is likely that the greater effectiveness of female than male in this sample of managers reflected the negative relationships between passive management by- exception and the laissez-faire styles to effectiveness and the positive relationship of transformational and contingent reward to effectiveness". The finding of Ekore and Attah (2007: 161-162) on Influence of Sex-Role Expectations on Perceived Work Performance among Employees in Multinational Corporations in Nigeria has shown that "Sex role expectations have a significant influence on perceived work performance.

Specifically, employees with male expected characteristics were found to perform better than those with female expected characteristic". Although, not part of the major finding of the research works, the researchers found that experience on the job significantly influences performance among employees used in this research work.

2.13. Gender Stereotyping (*The Glass Ceiling*)

Ashmore and Del Boca (1979), after reviewing various definitions of gender stereotyping, tried to incorporate the idea of all with a single and simple statement. They define *stereotype* as a „structured set of belief about the personal attributes of a group of people“. Whereas, *sex stereotype* or *gender stereotype* is, a structured set of belief about the personal attribute of males and females.

Powell (1993) in his book of “Women in Management”, explaining what this set of beliefs incorporate, defines gender stereotype as a belief that sees men to be high in “masculine” traits such as independence, aggressiveness, and dominance, and women to be high in “feminine” traits such as gentleness, sensitivity to the feelings of others, and tactfulness. Powell (1993), further explaining about this belief mentions that beliefs about sex differences appear to have remained essentially the same since the late 1960s, despite the increased attention given to gender stereotypes in the popular media and the considerable changes that have taken place in the work world since then.

A Glass Ceiling is a metaphor introduced in 1986 by writers of the Wall Street Journal to explain the contradiction of an increasing number of women entering the labour market and their persistently limited access to leadership positions (Black and Rothman, 1998; Oakley, 2000; Weyer, 2007).

The metaphor portrays the difficulty that women in the corporate world face, in order to attain positions of higher levels, although these appear to be attainable, given their achievements in education and abilities. So, it looks as if they were falling on an invisible wall, since the difficulties are not very clear and evident at first sight. The glass ceiling, thus, constitutes an invisible barrier for women and minority groups, preventing them from moving up the corporate ladder (Weyer, 2007).

The phenomenon has been explained in many ways, including corporate practices, such as recruitment (Powell, 1987), retention, remuneration and development (Witt and Nye, 1992), structural and cultural factors, as prescribed by feminist theory (Robeyns, 2003; Noble and Moore, 2006) and behavioural causes, such as stereotyping and preferred leadership. Of the above mentioned, Gender role Stereotypes is the major reason for the existence of the Glass ceiling. As mentioned earlier, Gender stereotypes are common beliefs about character traits that describe men and women. Indicatively, characteristics such as self-reliance, independence and aggressiveness, which are thought of as male characteristics, are usually attributed to *successful leaders*. On the other hand, traits such as non-aggression, spiritual values, artistic inclinations and concern for others are mostly attributed to women. Therefore, the existence of gender stereotyping puts women with power in a

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

disadvantaged position compared to their male counterparts, exactly because their gender stereotype conflicts with the leadership stereotypes. (Galanaki, et al, 2009).

2.14. Affirmative action, Quotas and Targets

Affirmative action (AA) is a change intervention promoted in equity driven political agendas. Programmes include organisational goals for increasing the representation of historically excluded groups, timetables for their achievement and the introduction of strategies and practices to support targets (Konrad and Hartmann, 2001). Quotas and targets can be perceived as discriminatory (in this case against men) or as risking causing backlash and accusations of tokenism (Baez, 2003; Lihamba et al, 2006; Morley et al, 2006).

Conversely, they can be seen as necessary and suitable, particularly in areas where gender segregation is entrenched, and can compensate for and tackle gender bias in recruitment and selection (OECD, 2008). They were a contentious topic in Lord Davies' (2011) UK report on women on boards. However, Norway introduced quotas in 2008 mandating at least 40% of each sex on publicly listed boards. Since then other European countries have, or are considering, legislation in the form of quotas (e.g. Spain, Iceland, Finland, France, Netherlands, Belgium and Italy). Case Study 4 illustrates an AA intervention that has produced auditable change.

2.15. Major Factors for Low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

In this section, several research studies confirm with the factors for low participation of Women in educational leadership. For instance, female administrators in educational leadership are underrepresented as gender given that they make up the whole teaching profession (Gregory 2000).

For their underrepresentation, they list several factors that are related to Organizational, and individual factors.

2.15.1. Organizational Factors

Since the mid-1980s, studies have continued to report that women believe that negative stereotypes of women by superintendents and school board members are a barrier. Reportedly, some persistent stereotypical and inaccurate views held by gate-keepers about women are their perceived inability to discipline students, supervise other adults, criticize constructively, manage finances, and function in a political frame (Folmar, 1989).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Young and McLeod (2001) stated, “many school board members, search consultants, search committee members, practicing administrators, and private citizens continue to believe old myths that have prevented women from becoming educational leaders in the past” (p. 494). Assumptions about appropriate activities relate to concerns about whether or not a woman can do the job. For example, the school board may lack confidence in a female superintendent's competency to oversee the construction of a new building, and when she completes the task successfully the board is surprised. Logan (1999) also found that women were still perceived as lacking the ability to handle discipline at school.

Skrla et al (2000) reported that school boards and other administrators believe that women are malleable. The authors described malleable personalities as referring to school board perception of women superintendents as easy to direct just because they are female. If women turn out not to be malleable, the reaction is much more negative for women than for men.

Most research studies conclude that the biggest barriers to career advancement among women are beyond their personal control. The Glass Ceiling Commission indicts Organizational and structural barriers as the most predominant barriers toward women's upward climb in the career ladder (Wood, 1994).

Berman (1999) opined that Organizational structures especially job assignment are designed to prevent women from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for career advancement of women to advance to the leadership position in school as organization. Organizational structure “steer away” women's potential for upward mobility by confining them to work roles that are considered to be “Women's occupation”.

To this end, the quickest way to the top of management level is placement in functional areas or crucial job assignment that leads to the accomplishment of critical organizational tasks Berman (1999:88). Women are there to teach the learners and men are there to run or manage the schools. The term teacher is associated with a woman and the term principal with a man (Greyvenstein 2000: 30).

From the researcher point of view this is the traditional assumption that made men to be privileged in holding the position of Educational leadership undermining female teachers in Educational leadership. If female are given the opportunity to lead school yes they can lead.

Since men have traditionally dominated leadership positions in all spheres, it follow that research has been male-gendered (Enomoto 2000: 377). In this way, organization research and theory became male-biased oriented to male ways of knowing. Acker (1989: 36) further noted that the early work on

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

teachers' careers either ignored gender differences or explained them in terms of women's deficiencies. Thus, it is possible to see how the field of management itself could be seen as male gendered and imbued with the "culture of masculine" (Acker, 1989:36).

2.15.1.1. Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination

In the opinion of Morgan, King and Robinson (1981:467) "discrimination, refers to the behaviour of treating a person or group in an unfavourable or unfair way. Naturally, prejudice often leads to discrimination. But prejudiced people sometimes do not behave in accordance to their attitudes either because they have no opportunity to or because they are afraid to." Women, as people of the weaker sex, are often the ones most likely not to react when discriminated against for fear of being harmed or further victimised. Putting the issue of women discrimination into context, Ouston (1993:5) says that "men are still the prime barrier to women in management. Despite some progress, old fashioned sexist attitudes are still common and represent a real, not imagined, barrier to the progress of women." Discrimination that rests on any assumed differences between men and women is both ill grounded and immoral, since human beings by their nature are capable of learning. In other words, women as members of the human species are also endowed with the potential to learn, for through learning a man can adapt to new situations.

Grogan (1996:137) furthermore, enlightens by arguing strongly that "leadership in dynamic organisations and schools is a shared phenomenon. If we subscribe to the notion that virtually everyone has some potential for leadership, schools can be extraordinary places for expanding opportunities for leadership." This view surely covers women as well. Equality, and not discrimination, rests on strong democratic beliefs, beliefs that are further based and supported by such compelling views, as for example, the argument that says "there is something peculiar to human beings and common to human beings without distinction of class, race, or sex, which lies deeper than all differences" (Dowling, 1995:23).

Discrimination against women that is based on untested grounds and perceptions no doubt constitutes unfairness. The components of administrative work, as well as the perceived and real male defined environments in which many women administrators must work, shape women's perceptions of the desirability of administration. The perceptions that women hold of what leaders Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999) found that the job stress of women was higher than that of men when working in a predominantly or traditionally male environment.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000) described organizational contexts in which men used intimidation and silence to discourage women. Intimidating tactics and behaviours of board and community members included name-calling, rumours, and overt lies. Additionally, male subordinates were intimidating, at times indicating directly that they did not want to work for a woman. Logan (1999) also supported this finding in a study of educational leadership.

Lange (1995) in his study revealed that Women had been sexually harassed by a higher status male and that sexual bribery by higher status male co-workers was a problem. Silence as a form of sexism was represented in personal silence about gender issues while in the superintendence and the feelings of not being heard. The women teachers studied by Hewitt (1989) were discouraged from applying for administrative positions because of their understanding of the definition of the job of the principal. They did not perceive this definition as flexible or open for social construction. Principals studied by Colemens (1989) noted that supportive work environments were essential in choosing to become principals. Wynn's (2003) study of teachers with leadership skills determined that women chose to stay in the classroom, rather than move into administration, partly because of their negative perception of the job of the principal. They identified student discipline as one of the negative dimensions of the principal ship.

2.15.1.2. Socialization and Sex Role Stereotyping

Organizational socialization is the process by which new leaders become integrated into the formal and informal norms, as well as the unspoken assumptions of a school or a district. Because traditional stereotypes cast women as socially incongruent as leaders, they face greater challenges becoming integrated into the organization (Hart, 1995, Braithwaite 1986) attributed women's failure to advance to upper level leadership positions in schools to oversaturation with the "cultural message of female inferiority within male systems" (p. 16). This marginalization results in women not only being expected to "behave like men," but also on being judged on how "womanly" they are.

Furthermore, Hill and Ragland (1995) indicated that colleagues might say such things as "the man is firm, but the female is stub-born," and school boards are more likely to negatively evaluate women superintendents who portray decisiveness, assertiveness, and directness (Bell, 1995).

Another form of sex stereotyping reported by Irby and Brown (1995) related to societal perceptions that women work on an emotional level. Langford (1995) indicated that it is perceived that because women are intuitive (akin to the emotional work response), they cannot be natural, logical decision makers.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Kamler and Shakeshaft (1999) supported these findings, pointing out the existence of the myth that “women are too emotional and can't see things rationally and so that affects their decision making” (p. 56). Christman (2003) indicated that there exists a societal climate of unexpectation for women who hold administrative positions. Perhaps due to this “unexpectation,” a more difficult socialization process into the profession occurs with women as opposed to men.

Carr (1995), Reese (1993), and Christman (2003) indicated one of the reasons for the difficult socialization process is male dominance of the profession. Studies of women found the double womanly of negative stereotypes, first about being female and then about ethnic background (Prescott-Hutchins, 2002; Trujillo-Ball, 2003).

2.15.1.3. Hiring Practice and Recruitment

The way an organization makes decisions about hiring, promotions and paying women leaders is strongly influenced by its culture and the gender stereotypes that underlie it (Howard and Wellins 2009). These assumptions and biases can result in employers overlooking talented candidates and limiting their access to the talent pool (Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency 2008b). Hurdles to women's advancement in leadership are encountered in recruitment and hiring processes, and in job assignment, training and promotion activities in unjustified assumptions (Palermo, 2004).

These assumptions include that women have less career ambition and diminished loyalty to their employers because of their more significant caring and household responsibilities (Howard and Wellins, 2009). Gender stereotyping excludes women from leadership roles (Piterman, 2008).

Research indicates that employers avoid recruiting women. Women are less likely to be considered for leadership roles and are segregated into marginal roles that do not lead to positions of influence. Women are not encouraged to take operating roles that might lead them to positions of influence, and are not being offered challenging assignments (Chief Executive Women, 2009).

Recruitment problems, and in particular the selection and appointment process, was identified as a significant barrier for women seeking principal ship. According to Sinclair (1998: 33), part of the problem is what is defined as leadership behaviour: When women exhibit what, in a man, would be judged as leadership behaviours, they are judged as something less than, or other than, leaders. Rhode (2002) argues that this lack of recognition is due to women's lack of mentors and access to informal

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

networks of advice and contacts. This reinforces Ehrich (1994: 5), who reported that Women in a variety of professions such as management, academe, and education continue to experience a lack of mentoring opportunities.

With regard to women seeking principal positions in primary schools, Power (2002: 93) describes the role of recruiting and hiring committee on selection panels as one of 'gatekeepers to leadership. The influence on the interviewing usually a non educationalist and members of the local community who may also be non educationalists are causes of unpredictability for applicants. It may seem logical to think that lay women would have replaced women when principal ships became available, but statistics show an increase in males appointed. In summary, socialization and stereotyping of women, individual barriers, and organizational/system barriers, combine to make appointment to principalship more difficult for women. They perceive their capacity to remain authentic and build cultures of shared leadership to be an uphill battle. This is an important barrier limiting women's advancement beyond low-paying jobs. Such practices, in conjunction with the difficulty of changing career paths once employed in an organization, perpetuate the existence of female job ghettos that are low-paying and cut off from mobility channels (O'Farrell and Harlan ,1984; Roos and Reskin, 1984).

Hiring practices in entry level jobs determine access to ladders. Complex organizations contain many subsystems of job ladders (pipelines) to which different rules and procedures apply (Osterman, 1984).

Employers typically recruit applicants for a specific job within a company. Just as in hiring decisions, recruitment strategies for entry-level non-management and nonprofessional jobs rely on traditional sources that yield a homogeneous set of applicants.

Similarly, vocational education programs and business colleges supply women to meet employers' demand for clerical workers (Giese 1989; Vetter 1989). Personal networks of friends and relatives are another common way that people find out about entry-level jobs

Employers use administrative rules and procedures to regulate hiring, promotion, and wage systems in the "internal labour market"(ILM) of organizations (Osterman 1984). The ILM theory is useful in analyzing more formally and precisely the notion of the "pipeline" for career advancement. Ideally, a job ladder that links steps in a logical progression of skill, knowledge, and experience acquired on the job characterizes an ILM. Formal rules govern who is eligible to move up the ladder and how promotion decisions are made.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

The external barriers to career advancement for women are pervasive. Grady cites Timpano (1992) as maintaining that sex discrimination is practiced through «filtering methods" that filter out qualified women. Timpano's filtering methods include: «Recruiting filters "limiting job opening announcements to "within the district" when few if any women are certified as administrators; "Application filters" ,downgrading an applicant for a top administrative position by suggesting that she apply for a lesser administrative or teaching position; «Selection criteria filters" applying dual selection criteria by allowing men to skip one or more rungs on the career ladder but requiring women to climb each step concerned about returning home alone late in the evenings from meetings?"; and lastly, "Selection decision filters" rejecting a woman because she is aggressive, but hiring a man for the same reason. Research and statistics indicate that sexual discrimination, whether covert or overt, does exist in hiring practices in educational administration (Grady, 1992).

Mahoney (1993) cites Christianson in pointing out that when such selection boards have to choose between a man and a woman, both equally competent, it is more likely the man will be chosen. In addition to these «filters", women face selection criteria, overt discrimination, and dual-work role expectations (Cairns, 1975).

Dopp and Sloan (1986) found lack of female role models, resistance from persons in the community, and lack of central office experience to be common external obstacles to women aspiring to superintendent status. Shapiro (1987) offers more insight into the topic by suggesting that low levels of encouragement for women to enter administrative posts, a limited number of role models, lack of networks and discriminatory hiring and promoting are important barriers to women seeking administrative placement in school systems.

One of the external barriers that continues to reinforce the status quo is the hiring practice that still tends to be highly subjective and directed at those who appear to fit into the "old boys" network. This "Old boy's network" has been used to recruit, train and replace men in administration (Pigford and Tonnsen, 1993). Women are not privy to these "locker room discussions" where these networks are developed and where informal decisions and important contacts are made. With this lack of networks, women often do not face the same kind of encouragement to apply for administrative posts. It has been said that men often act as "gatekeepers" to the profession, excluding women: Through all the stages of preparation- from encouraging teachers to seek administrative positions to final selection of administrative candidates- the chances are that a man will be preferred to a woman (Hawthorne. and Henderson, 2000).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Researchers have also examined institutions of learning, and why advancement for women in this realm of education may be limited. Watkins (1998) points out that anti-nepotism policy are widespread in institutions of learning. These policies appear to be inordinately discriminatory to wives, usually due to the fact that husbands are employed first, and many institutions forbid the hiring of any relative.

In addition to discriminatory hiring practices, and lack of networks, the lack of role models has been cited as another impediment. Women do not have access to a large number of appropriate role models, and, as a result, women may not even give administrative posts consideration (Cooper Jackson, 2001).

As Restine (1993) noted, "Women's paths into administration are often unplanned and unexpected". Having female role models would definitely help to encourage other young aspirants to follow suit. Coleman (1996) helps explain the barriers to women's career progress as constraints experienced through socially defined roles outside the work situation. The constraints considered in this regard arise from the socially defined expectations that women will take responsibility for domestic matters including childcare.

Schmuck, as cited by Coleman (1996) refers to the "gender overlay" of schools that subtly favours young male teachers. For example, male principals interact more with young male than young female teachers, and young men tend to be given more opportunities to serve on committees and, therefore, begin to "exhibit those qualities that will recommend them for further responsibility" (Coleman, 1994:185). Coleman also observes that male teachers may also benefit more from an informal level of "mentoring" than their female equivalents. Male principals tend to sponsor male teachers. Additionally, many school boards and selection teams are male-dominated.

2.15.2. Individual and Societal Factors as Barriers for Females' Advancement to Educational Leadership

Shakeshaft (1989) refers to internal or psychological barriers as "those that can be overcome by individual change whereas external barriers require social and institutional Change" (p. 82). Some of the internal barriers ascribed to women includes the following: lack of confidence, motivation, and aspirations; deficiencies in credentials and experience; and Socialization and gender stereotyping. Each one of these will be reviewed in greater depth.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

2.15.2.1. Poor Self-Image or Lack of Confidence

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

Women may be aspiring to leadership Positions, but systemic barriers can prevent them from acting upon these aspirations. Women being deficient in credentials and experience have often been cited as an influencing factor in women's underrepresentation in educational leadership, even though, time and again, research illustrates what a fallacy this is. In the past, women 'slack of credentials may have been factor. However, the number of women in graduate school implies an increase in confidence, motivation and credentials. More and more women are becoming better qualified for the job but, unfortunately, this is not necessarily securing them positions in the administrative field. Grady's (1992) article "Women and Educational Administration: Certified, But Not Employed", cites studies that indicate the number of women in graduate programs in educational administration approaches or exceeds the number of male graduate students.

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

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Women who aspire to become administrators are more likely to report lowered aspiration or lack of confidence than women who have become administrators. In studies of females aspiring to become administrators, Brown and Irby (1995) found a marked lack of self-confidence. On the other hand, female Secondary school teachers who had been tapped for the principalship but who didn't want to become administrators exhibited no signs of low self-esteem or lack of confidence according to Hewitt (1989). Although, Walker (1995) and Gupton (1998) both noted that female administrators rarely see themselves as experts, often expressing a lack of confidence about seeing themselves at the top, women superintendents studied by Lutz (1990) reported no internal barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence. Rogan (1996) found the superintendent aspirants in her study to be very confident of their abilities and qualifications to lead School districts.

Similarly, Grogan and Brunner (2005a, b) report that 40% of women in senior central office positions feel competent to take on district leadership positions. Low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence may be different than leadership identity, which is the feeling of belonging to group of leaders or to a specific level of leadership and of feeling significant within that circle (Brown & Irby, 1996). Lack of leadership identity can lead to a feeling of isolation and the feeling of being an outsider (Chrisman, 2003). In their findings related to superintendents and aspiring superintendents, Walker (1995) and Scherr (1995) indicated that women lack a sense of themselves as leaders and perceive that they have further to go in developing this leadership identity than do men. Perhaps it is this lack of leadership identity, rather than low self-esteem that also perpetuates the perception of women that they must get more information, more education, and more experience in the classroom prior to seeking an administrative position (Grogan & Brunner, 2005a, b; Young & McLeod, 2001). Or perhaps it is the reality that for a woman to be considered equal, she must be better prepared than the man with whom she is competing for a job.

2.15.2.2. Family and Home Responsibilities

Family and home responsibilities, place bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments. According to Shakeshaft (1985), a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility 1993 (Kamler and Shakeshaft, 1999) and the study documented family responsibilities as one reason why women teachers were not choosing to enter administration.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

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

2.15.2.3. Gendered Cultural and Social Values

A major obstacle to women's access to leadership positions in school refers to the cultural and social structure that bifurcate the society into male and female arenas. Entrenched norms inscribed in the culture of many developing countries (such as, Turkey, China, Islamic countries) attribute certain tasks and spheres of responsibility to each gender, assuming that one must behave in accordance with the social expectations of one's gender (Celikten, 2005; Suet al., 2000; Sidani, 2005). Leadership positions, in this sense, "belong" to male members of the society and women should refrain from attempting to attain this kind of position. Otherwise they are susceptible to various social sanctions, such as reduced chances to marry (Cubillo and Brown, 2003). In the traditional Chinese culture, for illustration, women have always been in the submissive roles both at home and in society (Suet al, 2000).

The cultural and social assumption that women are less strong than men and therefore cannot hold managerial positions is common in many developing countries (Calvert and Calvert, 1996).

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

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

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Grady (1992) cites Lyman Speyer as saying that few women have been socialized to have a clear sense of a career track to develop their leadership skills. They have also been denied the support, opportunity, and experience given to men. The findings from Grady's study suggest that there remains psychological barrier, a subconscious occupational ceiling that prevents women from actively pursuing success in the non-traditional roles of school administration. Thus, proportionately fewer women than men seek administrative positions, tending to disguise their ability and eliminate them from competition in a larger occupational sphere (Johnston, Yeakey, & Moore, as cited by Grady, 1992).

Socialization and gender stereotyping have also been regarded as additional internal barriers faced by women. Mahoney (1993) cites Witaker and Lane as saying women are limited by social expectations, parental guidance and self-aspiration. Men are more often socialized to persevere and seek professional success while women are socialized to nurture and support others as they assume the traditional role of mother and caretaker of the home (Brown & Irby, 2006).

An abundance of literature indicates that the socialization process of females perpetuates notions of the inferiority of the female gender. Mahoney also cites Slauen white and Skok who contend that women have been socialized not to pursue a higher education, since society tends to believe they do not require as high an education as men. They continue that textbooks, the nature of student-teacher interaction and the different treatment that girls receive in comparison to boys, are some of the things that condition a woman to be cooperative, nurturing and dependent. Women have typically been perceived as being weak, and generally not robust enough for the difficult, intensely political nature of educational administration. It is encouraging, if not ironic, to note that some of these very qualities once seen as deficiencies are now being spouse as qualities of effective administrators.

In addition to socialization, society seems to use a double standard in describing female characteristics. Men might be called absentminded, but women are scatterbrained; men might be described as intellectually curious, but women are nosy; men are planners, but women are schemers; men are sensitive, women are emotional; men are managerial, but women are manipulative. Faced with attitudes such as these, it is no wonder it has been difficult for women to break through the glass ceiling into higher educational administrative positions. It is of critical importance that women be allowed to nurture the strengths they have (Write, 2001).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Female principals cannot be clones of their male counterparts. It is time to look at the strengths of both and detuning how those strengths can help both men and women become the instructional leaders our schools so desperately need.

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

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

2.16. Overcoming the Factors for Low Women Participation in Educational Leadership

To this point, this literature review has been focused quite extensively on both internal and external barriers that influence the representation of women in educational leadership. Some of these barriers, while not completely removed, are beginning to crumble. A number of ways to overcome those barriers have been noted and one of these ways is for female aspirants to have a mentor.

Holt (1981) suggests that mentors, both male and female, may be the single most important factor in an administrator's career development. "Mentors can suggest strategies for career mobility, open doors, initiate contact, and make recommendations" (p: 23). Despite the benefits of mentoring, research indicated that there seems to be a lack of available male or female mentors for women. When males do act as mentors, they tend to sponsor male, or someone who is most like them (Erich, as cited by Coleman, 1996).

One reason why mentoring may not be readily accessible to women may be that women don't "fit" into the comfort zone of male mentors, Fleming (1991). Another reason may be that women are still the unknown quantity and are not perceived by some men as loyal or trustworthy and, therefore, maybe seen as a great risk factor for the mentor. Fleming points out another problem of men choosing

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

women as protégés is the sexual connotation that is attached to this relationship or the threat of actual sexual harassment in the form of sexual bribery.

In addition, research does indicate that male teachers may benefit more from an informal level of "mentoring" than their female equivalents. Clearly, mentoring when it does happen is one way to break down the barriers that women face, but it is not such a simple matter. Another way of overcoming barriers that is suggested in the literature is through networking. Networks provide a widening circle of personal and professional references that can assist in the promotion of women as candidates for positions. Networks can provide information through newsletters or word of mouth on systems that have job openings and contacts, offer advice on benefits of positions, salary, history and background of school boards (Rees, 1992).

Women need to actively seek out networks with men and other women to gain visibility, information, advice and receive moral support as they pursue their careers (Rees). Various American networks such as Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (SEEL) and Women in School Administration (WISA) have been established. In Canada, the Federation of Women Teachers' Association (FWTA) provides different types of networking opportunities ranging from courses to prepare for the different leadership positions, to conferences, resource booklets, and a regular newsletter.

Additionally, The Canadian Teachers' Federation organizes an annual Status of Women conference. As Irby and Brown (1998) stated in their study of women's support organizations, "women need time to grow together professionally and to learn from other women". Schmuck as cited by Irby and Brown (1998) suggests that there is something special and celebratory for same sex members of all races and ethnic groups to come together. Perhaps one of the most compelling and powerful experiences that women have in the conferences and workshops for women is the camaraderie, the shared unspoken assumptions, and the revelation of one's experience which is understood (Brown, 1998:61).

Gaining academic credentials is another way for women to overcome barriers to moving up the administrative ladder. Evidence suggests that women are attending graduate school in record numbers. Preparing for the role of principal, especially in higher institution, has been identified as a key in breaking down the barriers facing women. Hopefully, the trend of increased enrolment in graduate programs by women will begin to have an effect on the serious under-representation of women in leadership. It is important to remember, however, that to date the results have not been that encouraging Holt (1981). A more formal way to decrease the barriers facing women seeking advancement in educational leadership is through employment equity programs or affirmative action

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

initiatives. Employment equity programs involve the systematic monitoring of who holds what jobs so that areas of concern, such as fair and representative work force and equality of treatment and outcome, become public (Dotzler, 1993).

It is important to note that although hiring can be mandated by institutions, acceptance cannot. Promoting gender equity in the classroom is another way to help remove barriers for women. Girls are under-represented in compensatory educational programs and extracurricular programs. They are misrepresented and under-represented in co-curricular activities such as school club head, texts, department head, unit-leader, vice-principal and school Principal (Dotzler, 1993).

Moreover, educators must be cognizant of the "hidden curriculum" and the devastating effects that gender inequality in school can have on girls. Flynn and Chambers (1996) outline various steps to a bias-free classroom. Some of them include: set and enforce rules so boys do not monopolize attention and dominate all co-curricular activities. Thus, the researcher has made an attempt to discuss the issues of the underrepresentation of females in educational leadership integrating the existing literature with Ethiopian Education Policy context.

In Ethiopia context, policy environment on female leadership in education system have a sufficient scope to the needs, concerns and safety of females while bringing them to leadership position. To this end several documents have been issued by the federal government. Among the documents issued, the first unquestionably is the education and training Policy (ETP), 1994 states female education and female Educational leadership with the provisional: "Educational management will be democratic professional, coordinated, efficient and effective and will encourage the participation of women" (ETP: 3.8.2)

Thus the policy has done much in guiding the entire education system with the fact that one would argue that this would have been much better if there was a strategy in quantities terms that would put quantitative parameters to the ensuing change as a result of such a policy. Yet, many administrative guidelines issued at several stages mainly the ESDP series phases could be taken as augmenting the implementation of this policy.

Compared to the document of the education and training policy, the Ethiopian Teachers Development Program (TDP); Blue print, 1999E.C in its objectives of selection of candidates also puts that female candidates will be given attention. Very important strategy document the National Female Strategy, 2002E.C. focuses on the enhancement of female Educational participation. First, it has its sole inspiring statement that has a direct response to the policy by providing a strategies intervention:

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

“Provide continuous capacity building training to female leaders assigned as supervisors or school leaders, etc, for enriching their educational leadership and enabling them to be effective in their duties (NFS.P:55)”.

On these instances, the ESDP IV has emerged with clearly pronounced expressions of the current status and further trends of female leadership in Ethiopia Education System. ESDP IV has taken gender and education as one of the eight cross cutting issues of the education system (ESDP IV; P:7 and 13). Describing achievements with respect to narrowing the gender gap in education system since ESDP III, it did not forget to detect the fact that “the number of females in administrative and leadership position remains low---this deprives female students of the opportunity of looking up to role models” (ESDP IV; P:70). As one of the main challenges within the spectrum of gender and education, the ESDP IV declares that:-

“Females are grossly underrepresented in the positions of educational leadership and management as well as in teaching profession to higher institution” (ESDP IV: P:70)

The document continues to forge its expected outcomes in a way that “the number of female administrator, supervisors and directors at all levels increased” (P: 70), however, it does not specify by how much or to what percentage the increase will be. The same is true in its key outcome targets only promising that the share at all levels “will increase. In one way or another, this living document is essential in both recognizing the current low level of female representation in educational governance and in the state of future trend it has outlined for female leadership; In addition to their policy provisions, ministries also provide several administrative or implementation guidelines to their respective regional bureaus.

The ministry of Education send many of them at internal of time. Another is the ministry of civil service and in tune to this some of the regional bureaus have made it a rule that women stand as one significant part of the society who deserve unreserved service to affirmative action. Specifically, in its sub article 5.6.1 a and b of the Civil servant a Recruitment (Hidar, 2000), the ministry has made it clear that among others women applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and if the difference of result in competition, they have in average score is not more than 3% that the ones not entitled to affirmative action, they will be given the priority for recruitment.

The ministry in the civil servants proclamation (No. 515/2006) has enacted that there shall be no discrimination among job seekers on the ground of sex --(Article13,a,); and also that in recruitment, promotion and deployment preference shall be given to women among others (Articles 13,c,a,).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

However, as a researcher having such all privileges, females' advancement to school leadership position was not realized. The policies and guide lines with its implementation procedures could practically stand for inclusive leadership that participate female teachers Educational leadership. This study puts more emphasis on how effective these strategies in bringing more female to leadership position.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This part of the research presents the methodological aspects of the research, which includes research design, research method, study population, sample size and sampling technique, data collecting instruments, data analysis and interpretations and also ethical considerations.

3.1. Research Design

Research design is the plan of action that links the philosophical assumptions to specific methods Creswell & Planoclark (2007). The purpose of this study is to assess the major factors that contribute for low females' participation in educational leadership at secondary schools of Ilu Aba Bora Zone. Hence, descriptive survey design is employed in under taking the study. Descriptive survey is preferred over other design as it enables to make investigations with predictions, narration of events, and drawing of conclusions based on the information obtained from relatively large and representative samples of the target population (Kothari, 2005).

Moreover, Prakash (2005) described that a survey research is important to collect a detailed descriptions of existing phenomena with the intent of employing the data to justify current conditions and practice or to make more intelligent plans for improving social, economic, or educational conditions and process.

3.2. The Research Method

The method employed in this research is both quantitative and qualitative research method. Since the research is survey it more emphasizes quantitative research approach. Using multiple approaches can capitalize on the strengths of each approach and offset their different weaknesses and provides a better understanding of the research problems than either approach alone. It could also provide more comprehensive answers to research questions going beyond the limitations of a single approach Creed, Freeman, Robinson & Woodley (2004). It also practical in the sense that the researcher is free to use all methods possible to address a research problem (Cresswell, 2006). Furthermore, triangulation strategy was employed to confirm, cross-validate or corroborate findings with in a study.

3.3. Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources of data were collected. The primary data sources were principals, teachers, and woreda education officials of secondary schools. The decision to use these subjects as a source of primary data is based on the expectation that they have better information on the factors that contribute for low females' participation in educational leadership at secondary schools. The secondary sources of data were unpublished documents such as annual reports obtained from government offices and schools.

3.4. The Study Site

Ilu Aba Bora is one of the 24 Zones in Oromia Regional State, which is found in the South Western part of Ethiopia. It has a total area of approximately 16,555 km² and lies between longitudes 33⁰ 47' W and 36⁰ 52' E and latitudes 7⁰ 05' S and 8⁰ 45' N. It is bordered in the South by Kefa Zone, in the West by Gambella Regional State, in the North by West Wollega and in the East by Jimma Zone. Mettu is the capital city of this zone. It is found on 600 KM distance from Addis Ababa. Ilu Aba Bora Zone comprises twenty four Woredas and two towns. (Source: geographical information system)

3.5. Population

"Population is the entire group of people to which a researcher intends the results of a study to apply (Aron, & Coups, 2008, p: 130)." Therefore, the population of this study is staffs in 24 secondary schools of Ilu Aba Bora Zone; specifically, secondary school teachers (1019), principals (24), and head of woreda education office (24), a total of 1067.

3.6. Sample and Sampling Technique

The main purpose of this research is to assess the major factors that contribute for low females participation in educational leadership at secondary schools in Ilu Aba Bora Zone. For the case of this study, both probability and non probability sampling technique were used to obtain the representative sample units for this research. First, out of 24 secondary schools in the Zone, 8 (33.33%) were taken by using simple random sampling technique. The researcher thought (judged) that this amount of woredas were enough to represent the zone. The sample will be drawn from eight woredas found in Ilu Aba Bora Zone. The total population of teachers in the sample schools were 367. The sample size 147 (40%) of teachers were taken by simple random sampling technique based on the researcher judgement. The number of teachers in each school varied due to the number of students as well as the

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

broadness of the community served by the school. Thus making proportional allocation to teacher in each school equalizes the representativeness of the larger as well as the smaller secondary school for the study. To determine the total sample size of teachers to be drawn from the selected schools, the researchers used the formula of William(1977:75): For details information see appendix E.

$$P_s = \frac{n}{N} \times \text{Number of teachers in each school}$$

Where, P_s = Proportional allocation to size

$$n = \text{Total teachers' sample size (367)}$$

$$N = \text{Total number of teachers' in the eight selected sample schools (147)}$$

Table3:1. Population and Sampling Technique.

| No | Participants | Population | Sample | % | Sampling technique |
|----|---------------------------------|------------|--------|--------|------------------------|
| 1 | School | 24 | 8 | 33.33 | Simple random |
| 2 | Head of woreda education office | 24 | 8 | 100% | Availability Sampling |
| 3 | Principals | 24 | 8 | 100% | Availability Sampling |
| 5 | Teachers | 1019 | 147 | 40% | Simple random Sampling |
| 6 | Female teachers | 152 | 8 | 16.32% | Purposive sampling |

3.7. Data Collection Tools.

The researcher used questionnaires as instrument of data collection from 147 teachers out of which 32 were female and 115 were male teachers. In addition semi- structured interviews were also used as instrument of data collection from principals, Head of woreda education office and female secondary school teachers and document review was also used as additional instrument of data collection.

3.7.1. Questionnaire

To secure the reliability and adequacy of information, questionnaire comprising both open and close ended questions were collected from sample secondary school teachers. This is because questionnaire is convenient to collect large amount of information from large number of respondents with in short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way. It allows the respondents to give information with no threat. In line with this, it makes likely an economy of time and expense and high proportion of usable response (Best & Kan, 2003).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

The questionnaire has two parts. The first part is about background information of the respondents. The second part of the questionnaire contain items on characteristics of females' leadership, the aspiration of female to hold educational leadership positions, status of women participation in educational leadership position, others perception towards female leadership and challenges of female educational leadership. In this part each items was prepared in the form of five scale likert type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree that will help to measure the level of conformity of the respondents.

3.7.2 Interview

Besides questionnaire, semi- structured interview questions were conducted with principals, head of woreda education office and female teachers of secondary schools. The main reason to select the semi-structured interview is because it helps to find out different persons perspectives and views deeply and to triangulate the validity of the information with the questionnaire.

3.7.3. Document Analysis

Data concerning the current level of women's involvement in educational leadership position and the trend of women leadership for five consecutive (2002-2006) academic years were obtained from sample woreda education offices and secondary schools through direct access to records.

3.8. Procedures of Data Collection

To answer the research questions raised, the researcher goes through a series of data gathering procedures. These procedures help the researcher to get authentic and relevant data from the sample units. Thus, after having letters of authorization from Jimma University and Zone Education office (for additional letters towards Woreda and schools) for ethical clearance, the researcher directly went to Hurumu and Burusa secondary schools to pre-test the data gathering instruments. At the end of all aspects related to pilot test, the researcher has been contact to Woreda education offices and the principals of respective schools for consent. After making agreement with the concerned participants, the researcher was introduced his objectives and purposes. Then, the final questionnaires were administered to sample teachers in the selected schools. The participants were allowed to give their own answers to each item independently and the data collectors was closely assist and supervise them to solve any confusion regarding to the instrument. Finally, the questionnaires were collected and make it ready for data analysis.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

The interview was conducted after the participants' individual consent was obtained. During the process of interview the researcher was attempt to select free and clam environment to lessen communication barriers that disturb the interviewing process.

3.9. Methods of Data Analysis.

Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis method were employed in order to answer the basic research questions and to achieve the objectives of the study. In the case of quantitative data analysis, the data from the questionnaire was entered into computer using statistical package for social science (SPSS) version 16 computer programs for data analysis and quantitatively analyzed by using descriptive statistics such as percentage , frequency and mean. The independent sample T=test was also applied to test whether there is any significant difference happened in the response of male and female teachers. Thus, the frequency and percentage was derived from the data as it well serves as the basis for interpretation of the data as well as to summarize the data in simple and understandable way (Aron et al, (2008). Qualitative data was analyzed by transcribing respondent's idea and views through narrations, descriptions, and discussions to help capture aspects of the study that could not be done through the quantitative method and to triangulate research findings derived from the literature review and primary sources. Finally, conclusions were drawn from the major findings and possible recommendations were suggested for solutions.

3.10. Validity and Reliability Checks

Checking the validity and reliability of data collecting instruments before providing to the actual study subject is the core to assure the quality of the data (Yalew, 1998). To ensure validity of instruments, the instruments were developed under close guidance of the advisors and also a pilot study was carried out on 25 teachers of Hurumu and Burusa secondary schools to pre-test the instrument. The pre-test was providing an advance opportunity for the investigator to check the questionnaires and to minimize errors due to improper design elements, such as question, wording or sequence (Adams et al., 2007).

After the dispatched questionnaires' were returned, necessary modification on 7 items and complete removal and replacement of 4 unclear questions were done. In addition, the value of cronbach alpha was computed to check the reliability of the instrument that valued 0.89 which implies that 90.95 % respondents were able to understand to fill the questionnaires. As suggested by Cronbach (as cited by Tech-Hong & Waheed, 2011), the reliability coefficients between 0.70–0.90 are generally found to be internally consistent.

3.11. Ethical Consideration

Research ethics refers to the type of agreement that the researcher enters into with his or her research participants. Ethical considerations play a role in all research studies, and all researchers must be aware of and attend to the ethical considerations related to their studies. Therefore, there are a number of ethical considerations were made during the study. Voluntary participation of respondents is encouraged. Responding to interviews and filling of questionnaires required significant time and energy and its participation could disrupt the respondents' regular activity. For this reason, the researcher explained the objectives and significance of the study to the respondents and allowed them to exercise their right to voluntary participation. To avoid any psychological harm, questions are framed in a manner that is not offensive and disturb their personality. They are assured that the information they provide would be kept confidential. To ensure this, the researcher removed information that requires identification of names of respondents. Furthermore, the first page of the questionnaire displays an opening introductory letter that requesting the respondents' cooperation to provide the required information for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered by different instruments, mainly questionnaire and semi-structured interview. The summary of the quantitative data has been presented by the use of tables. On the other hand, the collected data through interview and open-ended questions were analyzed qualitatively. These tools were used to triangulate the consistencies and variations of the result obtained.

As mentioned earlier, among various data collecting instruments, questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used to collect the relevant information for this study. Thus a total of 147 questionnaires were distributed to the selected secondary school teachers. Unfortunately, only 139 (94.55%) of them were properly filled and returned to the researcher. Some questionnaires were lost and some were incomplete because of the reluctance of the respondents. Among 24 interview respondents (eight heads of WEO, eight secondary school principals and eight secondary school female teachers) and 23 (95.8%) have properly participated and gave the required information on the issue under investigation. In general, 95.19% of respondents have participated as respondents to the issue raised through questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Therefore, the total response rate was sufficient and safe to analyze and interpret the data.

Item scores for each category were arranged under five rating scales. The range of the rating scales were strongly agree=5, Agree =4, Undecided =3, Disagree =2 and strongly disagree=1. For the purpose of analysis, the above 5 rank responses of closed ended questionnaires were grouped and labeled in to three categories i.e. agree, undecided and disagree. In categorizing the rating scales, the frequency and percentage results of 'Strongly agree' and 'agree' were combined in to 'Agree' and the results of 'strongly disagree' and 'Disagree' merged to 'Disagree'.

Accordingly, the overall results of the issue investigated as well as respondents' personal background or profiles were clearly presented below.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

In this part, the characteristics of the respondents were analyzed and discussed in terms of frequencies and percentage as follows.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of the Survey Questionnaire Respondents

| Sex | Frequency | Percent | Age | Frequency | Percent | Service year | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------|---------|--------------|-----------|---------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| Male | 107 | 76.9 | 20-30 | 35 | 25.2 | 1-4 | 31 | 22.3 |
| Female | 32 | 23.1 | 31-40 | 103 | 74.1 | 5 and above | 108 | 77.7 |
| | | | 41 and above | 1 | 0.7 | | | |
| Total | 139 | 100 | Total | 139 | 100.0 | Total | 139 | 100 |

Regarding the background information of respondents, table 2, indicates that 32 (23.1%) are females and the remaining 107 (76.9%) of them are males. This indicates that there is less number of female teachers at secondary schools in comparison to that of males. However, this number is adequate for female teachers to be involved in educational leadership positions even if there are no affirmative actions taken in favour of them.

The above table indicates that 35(25.2%) of the respondents are between 20 and 30 aged where as 103(74.1) of them are between 31 and 40 age i.e. the age at which people are expected to become a leader in general. There is only one respondent whose age ranges between 41 and 45.

The table above indicates that 31(22.3) of the respondents are below four in service whereas 108(77.7%) of them have the service years ranging between five and above. This shows that most of the teachers at secondary schools are capable of competing for leadership positions in education in terms of service years according to the current Ethiopian government criteria of selecting teachers for key educational leadership positions.

4.2. Aspiration of Female teachers for Educational Leadership Positions

As indicated in table 4 below, majority of the respondents 130(93.5) agreed that female teachers have less aspiration to be an educational leader whereas some of them numerically 9(6.5%), ranged their responses under disagreement about this idea.

Similar views were forwarded through the interview presented to the principals and WEOs. According to these officials, there are different factors that impede female teachers' participation in educational leadership. Among these, lack of their personal preparation for the posts has been mentioned as one of the major challenges that have slowed down female teachers' right of entry to school leadership positions.

In addition to that, eight female teachers were also interviewed to find out to what extent they aspire to participate in educational leadership positions. As a result, few female teachers said that they would like to be club leaders. But most of them said that they would never like to participate in educational leadership positions. From this finding one can conclude that the extent to which female teachers are motivated to be educational leader is very low as based on the response of female teachers' interviewees. This similarity of the responses through both the interview for female teachers and the questionnaire in general confirms that female teachers' extent of aspiration to involve in leadership posts is very low. As a reason for their less aspiration they said that they think they would not be successful if they come to positions.

The assessment made regarding the level of women's aspiration to positions based on the response obtained from female teachers' needs great caution. As the above results indicate, generally whereas women show low interest to leave teaching and join educational leadership, this self limiting response of female teachers may be the outcome of both personal and social structural factors.

At individual level, it has been evidenced that the traditional role definition and the job requirement associated with managerial positions exclude women from such roles and, thus, affect their aspiration level.

At macro level, the preceding results of this study evidenced various institutional barriers (such as lack of female role models, differential treatment at anticipatory socialization, lack of mentoring and support systems etc.) which, in one way or the other, discourage women from aspiring for positions. Thus, owing to the aforementioned factors, female teachers seldom apply for positions. However, this tendency of female teachers should not be interpreted for lack of internal motivation, or indifference to educational leadership. It should be noted that the existence of socio structural factors provide some explanation on how women perceive that constraints could prevent realization of their

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

aspirations which in effect implies lack of access than lack of internal motive. Thus, in looking for the antecedent causes for women's low aspiration level, the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation as instigated more by factors outside of women's self concepts need to be understood. With respect to this, Kanter's argument (cited in Shakeshaft, 1989: 91) "things may become evaluated as less desirable as they become less likely" may in fact explain why women preferred to remain in their present teaching position.

From the researchers' point of view, this tendency of female teachers to hold down themselves from educational leadership may also be attributed to the following reasons. For one thing, when they come to positions, there is a felt increment in responsibility and this may pose fear of failure among female teachers. Similarly, since women tend to underestimate their own values, this low self concept may result in de motivating them from aspiring to top positions in general.

Different scholars put different ideas to show the reasons for lack of aspiration. For example, the perceptions of lack of aspiration may also result when teachers fail to apply for leadership positions because their personal values are not aligned with those of the organization (Lacey, 2003).

Scherr (1995) determined that women's failure to aspire to the superintendence might be a result of their experiences working with male superintendents, role models whose leadership behaviours may not be compatible with women's preferred ways of leading. As a confirmation to this point, the female interviewee said that they are not interested in being educational leader because of different reasons exceptionally-few said that they like to be head of the department. The first and major reason they mentioned not to be a leader is that the school society considers females as incompetent to meet educational leadership positions.

In the works of Yelfign (1990), Stracher (1993) women are evidenced to underestimate their own values even in situations where their performance is much better than that of their male counterparts. This comes from the social background that females are considered as followers rather than as leaders. This means that the observed low level of female teachers' "aspiration" for educational leadership positions may arise from different societal factors.

For example, the other scholars also say that, at individual level, female teachers' "aspiration" to educational leadership positions is generally frustrated by societal expectation of appropriate gender role. For most women, on top of economic pressure, teaching is a job that complements their

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

expectation of nurture and traditional helpmate. However, women suffer from many "legitimation gap" as they aspire for roles in traditional masculine area such as leadership. The finding that disclosed women's high conformity to stereotypes that identify them with teaching but not with educational leadership and the ones which revealed their conformity to proper gender role are quite concordant with this result. In both cases, the self concepts and aspirations of female teachers are influenced by expectations presupposed to what a male and a female should be (Ababayehu, 1995). Generally lack of aspiration affects females' involvement in educational leadership positions.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Table 4.2: Trends of Female Teachers' Participation in Educational Leadership (2002-2006)

| Year | sex | Leadership positions | | | | | | | | | | Total Leadership positions | |
|------|-----|----------------------|------------|------------------|------------|--------------|------------|-----------------|------------|------------|------------|----------------------------|------------|
| | | Club heads | | Department heads | | Unit leaders | | Vice Principals | | Principals | | Number | Percentage |
| | | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| 2002 | M | 88 | 95.65 | 54 | 100 | 16 | 100 | 9 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 175 | 97.76 |
| | F | 4 | 4.35 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 4 | 2.24 |
| | T | 92 | 100 | 54 | 100 | 16 | 100 | 9 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 179 | 100 |
| 2003 | M | 86 | 93.48 | 55 | 100 | 16 | 94.12 | 9 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 174 | 96.13 |
| | F | 6 | 6.52 | - | - | 1 | 5.88 | - | - | - | - | 7 | 3.87 |
| | T | 92 | 100 | 55 | 100 | 17 | 100 | 9 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 181 | 100 |
| 2004 | M | 87 | 92.55 | 58 | 98.30 | 19 | 95 | 9 | 90 | 7 | 87.5 | 180 | 94.24 |
| | F | 7 | 7.45 | 1 | 1.7 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 12.5 | 11 | 5.76 |
| | T | 94 | 100 | 59 | 100 | 20 | 100 | 10 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 191 | 100 |
| 2005 | M | 91 | 91 | 58 | 96.67 | 23 | 95.83 | 9 | 90 | 8 | 100 | 189 | 93.56 |
| | F | 9 | 9 | 2 | 3.33 | 1 | 4.17 | 1 | 10 | - | - | 13 | 6.44 |
| | T | 100 | 100 | 60 | 100 | 24 | 100 | 10 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 202 | 100 |
| 2006 | M | 95 | 91.35 | 63 | 94.03 | 27 | 93.11 | 10 | 90.91 | 8 | 100 | 203 | 92.69 |
| | F | 9 | 8.65 | 4 | 5.97 | 2 | 6.89 | 1 | 9.09 | - | - | 16 | 7.31 |
| | T | 104 | 100 | 67 | 100 | 29 | 100 | 11 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 219 | 100 |

4.3. Trends of Female Teachers Participation in Educational Leadership (2002-2006)

As the above table indicates, throughout the educational system for the last five years (2010-2014/2002-2006 EC) the females' involvement in educational leadership positions at secondary schools was negligible.

For example, in 2010, 95.65% of the club coordinators, 100% of the department heads, 100 % of the unit leaders, 100% of the vice principals, and 100% of the principals were male teachers whereas only 4.35%, of them were the female club heads. Ninety seven point seven six percent (97.76%) of the general educational leadership positions were occupied by male teachers whereas only two point four percent of them were female teachers led in this academic year in general. Similarly, in the year 2011, 93.48% of the club coordinators, 100% of the department heads, 94.12 % of the unit leaders, 100% of the vice principals and 100% of the principals were male teachers whereas only 6.52% 5.88% of the club heads and unit leaders respectively were the female teachers. Generally, 96.13% of the positions were occupied by males, but only 3.87% of them were occupied by female teachers in this year.

More, in 2012, 92.55% of the club coordinators, 98.30% of the department heads, 95% of the unit leaders, 90% of the vice principals, and 87.5% of the principals were male teachers whereas only 7.45%, 1.7%, 5%, 10%, and 12.5% of the club heads, department head, unit leaders, vice principals and principals respectively were the female teachers. Generally, 94.24% of the positions were engaged by males, but only 5.74% of them were occupied by female teachers in this year.

Moreover, in the year 2013, 91% of the club coordinators, 96.67% of the department heads, 95.83% of the unit leaders, 90% of the vice principals, and 100% of the principals were male teachers whereas only 9%, 33%, 5%, 4.17%, and 10%, of the club heads, department head, unit leaders, vice principals and principals respectively were the female teachers. In general, 93.56% of the positions were engaged by males, but only 6.44% of them were occupied by female teachers in this year.

Furthermore, in the year 2014, 91.35% of the club coordinators 94.03% of the department heads, 93.11% of the unit leaders, 90.91% of the vice principals, and 100% of the principals were male teachers whereas only 8.65%, 5.97%, 6.89%, 9.09%, and 0%, of the club heads, department head, unit leaders, vice principals and principals were the female teachers respectively. Thus, 92.69 % of the positions were engaged by males, but only 7.31% of them were occupied by female teachers in this year.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Generally, the involvement of female teachers in educational leadership seems to show an increment each year in the last five years. However, the increase/ rate are insignificant and not promising that there will be gender balance in the educational leadership positions in Ilu Aba Bora Zone in near future.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Table 4:3. Opinion of Respondents toward Individual Factors Influencing Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

| No | Items | Response | | | | | |
|-----|---|----------|------|------|------|-------|-----|
| | | 1(SD) | | 2(D) | | 3(UD) | |
| | | No | % | No | % | No | % |
| 1. | Female teachers have less aspiration to be at the level of top educational leadership positions. | 5 | 3.6 | 4 | 2.9 | - | - |
| 2. | Female educational leaders lack confidence to show leadership role. | 2 | 1.4 | 10 | 7.2 | 2 | 1.4 |
| 3. | Females fail to be patient and are antagonistic than their men counterpart. | 4 | 2.9 | 27 | 19.4 | 5 | 3.6 |
| 4. | Women in the professions and educational leadership do not dedicate to their work the same number of hours as their male counterparts | 35 | 25.2 | 78 | 56.1 | 3 | 2.2 |
| 5. | Females in educational leadership positions are frequently worried with family and extra work responsibilities. | 2 | 1.4 | 19 | 13.7 | 1 | 0.7 |
| 6. | The decision making and problem solving behaviour of women is preferable than that of men in the school community and organizations. | 14 | 10.1 | 43 | 30.9 | 1 | 0.7 |
| 7. | Female educational leadership positions are not successful in gathering data and facts that would help them to make decision. | 12 | 8.6 | 72 | 51.8 | 5 | 3.6 |
| 8. | Female teachers fear additional responsibilities that will increase pressure on them. | 1 | 0.7 | 3 | 2.2 | 1 | 0.7 |
| 9. | Females encourage others to develop their leadership skills more than their male counterparts. | 1 | 0.7 | 4 | 2.9 | 2 | 1.4 |
| 10. | Females have the behaviour of leading organizations the way they lead their own family than males. | 2 | 1.4 | 1 | 0.7 | 5 | 3.6 |
| 11. | Females exhibit better interpersonal relationship in the work place than male educational leaders. | 2 | 1.4 | 3 | 2.2 | 2 | 1.4 |
| 12. | Females are more skilled than men at running mutual or shared work efforts. | 16 | 11.5 | 3 | 2.2 | 1 | 0.7 |
| 13. | Female teachers are poor at networking skills both in the work place and leadership hierarchy. | - | - | 18 | 12.9 | 1 | 0.7 |
| 14. | Female educational leaders serve as a role model apart from gender concern. | 2 | 1.4 | 31 | 22.3 | 3 | 2.2 |
| 15. | Female educational leaders lack delegation skill. | 29 | 20.9 | 85 | 61.2 | 2 | 1.4 |
| 16. | Female teachers fail to hold educational leadership position because of lack of sufficient qualification. | 28 | 20.1 | 92 | 66.2 | 1 | 0.7 |

SA= Strongly Agree AG= Agree UN=Undecided D= Disagree SD=Strongly Disagree
 significant at $\alpha=.05$ level.

The mean difference is

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

4.4. Individual Related Factors for Low Participation of Female Teachers in Educational Leadership

The above table generally contains the information about the individual factors that might have contributed to the under representation of female teachers in educational high posts. Each of these factors is discussed below.

In item 2 of table 4 majority of the respondents 125(89.9%) agreed that female educational leaders lack confidence to show leadership roles.

In addition to this the researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents to see the mean difference between them .As a result, the test value $t(137) = .30, p=0.76$. This indicates that, there is no significant difference in the response of male and females. Regarding this, research reported by Shakeshaft (1993) supports the perception that females tend to receive less constructive criticism than males in carrying out their work. As a result, it is suggested that they are less able to deal with negative comments, in effect taking them too personally and allowing their confidence to be unnecessarily damaged. Some would suggest that these psychological, internal or intrinsic barriers, however, are seldom more prevalent for women than for men, and it is not usually the woman's psyche at fault, but the social structure of society that is the root cause of the inequities (Shakeshaft, 1989). In relation to this, the result of the interview also revealed that females lack confidence in involving in leadership positions. The female teachers who were interviewed said that not because of personality but because of the deep rooted inequities of social structure, female teachers lack confidence of being a leader in general, and as a result, they do not aspire too.

Consequently, it can be said that lack of confidence can affect females not participate in educational leadership. And this defect arises not from nature but from historical back ground that females came up with. As the society does not prepare its daughters for management or leadership but for household activities, the children (daughters) do not develop confidence of being a leader.

For the item number three, 31(22.3%) and 103(74.1%) of the respondents disagreed and agreed respectively on the issue that says females are less patient and antagonist. Besides the mean ratings comparing between the responses of male teachers and females with respect to item given, the result shows that at $df=137$, and at the level of significance 0.05, the calculated t-value $-.135$ and there is no significance difference between responses of the male and female teachers. Regarding this, Irby and Brown (1995) related to societal perceptions that women work on an emotional level. Langford

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

(1995) indicated that it is perceived that because women are intuitive (akin to the emotional work response), they cannot be natural, logical decision makers.

The fourth item is about the dedication of female teachers in the profession to educational leadership positions compared to their male counterparts. Under this issue, majority of the respondents 113(81.3%) disagreed that females do not dedicate to their work the same number of hours as males. In addition to this the researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents to see the mean difference between them. As a result, the test value $t(137) = .34$, $p=0.73$. This indicates that, there is no significant difference in the response of male and female teachers.

The female interviewee also confirmed that females are capable of effectively accomplishing any leadership responsibilities if they are engaged in the positions. They said that there is nothing that females cannot manage in leadership positions. This can be interpreted that females have no weaknesses in investing the same number of hours in official work places if they are able to break hampering snare and are engaged in leadership positions equally with their male counterparts. Regarding this, Camerer in the Citizen (2000:12) are pertinent when she says “**those women who break through the glass ceiling** have succeeded either because someone gave them the opportunity to test their abilities, or they were courageous, or visionary, or naive, or took a view that they will redefine who they are in society.” This again indicates the degree of struggle, coupled with determined effort, dedication and courage successful women had to endure or wage before they could make it to the top positions.

In relation to item five, 21(15.1%) of the respondents disagreed that females are over worried with extra responsibilities at home, but the rest 117(84.2%) respondents agreed on the idea. According to Shake shaft (1985), a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility. This indicates that females are overloaded with other home responsibilities that might discourage them from being keen to be educational leader as this may also make additional pressure on them.

The researcher compared the responses of males and female respondents. Thus, the mean value of male respondents is 3.91 whereas the female respondents possess the mean value of 3.8 and the test value $t(137) = .62$, $p=0.53$. This indicates that, there is no significant difference in the response of male and females.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Likewise, 57(41%) of the respondents disagreed that females' decision making is preferable in comparison to that of males', but 81(58.3%) of them agreed to the idea of item six. This finding was supported by the findings of Gross and Trask (1976) who suggested that women have capabilities and qualities of leadership that exhibit better technical skill in decision making and problem solving behaviours whereby administrators, supervisors and teachers preferred their technical skill for leadership when they are in the post.

In addition, 84(60.4%) of the respondents disagreed on item number seven that says female educational leadership positions are not successful in gathering data and facts that would help them to make decision. However 50 (36%) respondents still showed their agreement that female leaders lack success in gathering data and facts that would help them in decision making. This indicates that females' under representation in educational leadership positions is not because of lack of success in gathering data and facts that would help them in decision making. There is no evidence that a female has been fired from position because of this problem. By supporting this finding, psychologists reported that when women cogitate, they gather details somewhat differently than men. Women integrate more details faster and arrange these bits of data into more complex patterns. As they make decisions, women tend to weigh more variables, consider more options, and see a wider array of possible solutions to a problem. Women tend to generalize, to synthesize, to take a broader, more holistic, more contextual perspective of any issue (Helen, 1999).

The researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents. As a result, the mean value of male respondents for the items 6 and 7 is 2.07 and 3.69, whereas that of females' is 2.18 and 3.68 and the t-value (137) = -.482 and .018 and P=.63 and .98 respectively. This indicates that there is no significance difference between the two respondents.

More, according to 134(96.4%) of the respondents, female teachers fear additional responsibilities that would increase pressure on them. In relation to this, Holtkanm (2002) and Gidesn (2005) suggested that women have been reluctant to pursue educational administration because of the fact that women have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life.

In item 9 of table 4 majority of the respondents 132(95%) agreed that females encourage others to develop their leadership skills more than their male counterparts. This finding indicates that, those females who are fortunately engaged in the educational leadership positions are interested in bringing

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

up others to positions as much as possible. By supporting this finding, Blackmore (1989:113), feminist reconstruction of leadership would involve women in meaningful discourse of organizational life and values as autonomous individuals rather than as objects of patriarchal discourse, with the focus on relationships between individuals and leadership. The researchers of the opinion; that at least the view should be "Empowering others rather than power over others".

For item number ten which says that female have the behaviour of leading organizations the way they lead their own family than males, majority of the respondents 131(94.3%) agreed on the issue.

In addition the researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents. As a result, the mean value of male respondents for the items 8,9 and 10 is 1.84, 4.24 and 3.71, whereas that of females' is; 1.87, 4.31 and 3.78. And the t-value (137) = .553, -.495 and -.315 and P=.58, .621 and .75 respectively. This indicates that there is no statically significance difference between the responses of male and female teachers. Regarding this issue, Marshall (1995) further contends that when women talk, supervise or lead in ways that are not consistent with the dominant paradigm of leadership, their work is not credited as leadership. The researcher is of the opinion that andocentric philosophy has prejudiced and disadvantaged women who endeavoured to attain leadership positions in organizations such as schools. Besides, Gaskell's (1992) work shows women tend to be more nurturing, less hierarchical and more consultative as administrators. Women leaders are concerned with keeping relationships in good standing, and are able to pace themselves and integrate their work and home life.

Concerning the item number eleven which is about the quality of females in making interpersonal relationship in the work place, 5(3.6%) of the respondents disagreed that females are good at this practice. In contrast to this response, 132(95%) of the respondents agreed that females are good makers of interpersonal relationship at work places. The implication is that females are good makers of interpersonal relationship in the work place if they are engaged in educational leadership positions. Towards this, women exhibit strengths in planning and communication, human relations and skills, and the ability to focus on ends as well as means. Women's experiences and expectations as women and mothers, in addition to their acquired management and human relations skills, often make them better managers (Helgesen).

Regarding item number twelve majority of the respondents agreed 119 (85.61%) that females are more skilled than men at running mutual or shared work efforts. The calculated $t(137)$ -value=.167, p =.868 and the mean value of male and female respondents is 4.24 and 4.21 respectively. This indicates that there is no significance difference between the two respondents.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

This indicates that females can effectively work jointly with others for the success of their organization. It also shows that they are good at delegating power through sharing the work efforts and their leadership can be taken as a model. In supporting this issue, Rosener (1990) called the leadership styles of women as interactive leadership. The justifications given by Rosener to call women's leadership as interactive leadership is that; women leaders actively work to make interactions with subordinates' positive for everyone involved. As stated in Rosener's words, "... women encourage participation, share power and information, enhance other people's self worth, and get others excited about their work." (p. 4).

In item 13 of table 4, the majority of the respondents 103(74.1%) agreed that female educational leaders serve as a role model apart from gender concern. The computed t values (137)= .132, P= .895 at 0.05 significant levels the mean value of male and female is 3.74 and 4.71. This implies that there was no significant difference between the responses of the two groups of respondents.

Item number fourteen was about whether female teachers are poor or not at networking skills both in the work place and leadership hierarchy. Accordingly, 120(86.4%) of the respondents agreed that females are poor at networking skills in both work place and leadership hierarchy. The computed t values (137) = -.608, P= .544 at 0.05 significant levels and the mean value of male and female is 4.14 and 4.21. This implies that there was no significant statistical difference between the responses of the two groups of respondents.

Supporting this some scholars say that interaction patterns between many men and women in male gender-typed work environments are of a substantively different quality from those that occur between and among male employees.

Research indicates that not only do women encounter more difficulty forming social connections at work than men do, but they reap fewer benefits from the relationships that they do form. Analyses of social networks reveal that men have more extensive social networks that include influential organizational members than do women (Ibarra, 1992). Working women also report more difficulty establishing mentoring relationships with male colleagues than do men (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Even when women do find mentors and develop social networks, these relationships are less strongly associated with positive career outcomes such as promotions and compensation than are men's relationships (Eddleston, Baldrige & Veiga, 2004; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Lyness & Thompson,

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

2000). From this point, it is deducible that if females are poor at networking, they are in lack of information that might help them to come to the opportunity of leadership positions. For this reason, it can be said that lack of networking skills can be the other considerable factor that impedes female teachers' participation in educational leadership positions. It may also contribute to the less advancement of those females who are in the track of lower leadership positions in general.

Item number fifteen raises the issue of female educational leaders' delegation and empowerment skills. Under this item, 114 (82.1%) of the respondents disagreed to the idea that says female educational leaders do not have delegation and empowerment skills. Besides the responses of male and female respondents were compared with mean value, accordingly, both of the respondents disagreed in the stated issue with mean value 1.57 and 1.50 respectively. The t value (137) = .628, $p = .531$ at $\alpha = .05$ level reveals that there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents concerning the issue.

Regarding this, Kristjanson, as cited by Mahoney (1993), mentions that empowerment is the main goal of feminist style leadership. Women seem to be used to empowering people, talking to people and allowing them to decide. Many women do not tend to lead by the once favoured autocratic "bossing" style, but rather by inspiring and empowering people to find solutions to problems.

For item number sixteen, 120 (86.3%) respondents disagreed that female teachers fail to hold educational leadership positions because of lack of sufficient qualification. On the other hand, 18 (12.9%) of them agreed that lack of the required qualification is the reason for female teachers to fail to hold educational leadership positions. In addition the responses of male and female respondents were compared with mean value, accordingly, both of the respondents disagreed in the stated issue with mean value 2.01 and 2.03 respectively. The t value (137) = -.123, $p = .902$ at $\alpha = .05$ level reveals that there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents concerning the issue.

Regarding this, Gross and Trask (1976) listed capabilities of women in leadership. Women principals have a greater knowledge and concern for instructional supervision, supervisors and teachers preferred women over men, Students' academic performance and teachers' professional performance rated higher under women principals. Women were more effective administrators, supervisors and teachers preferred the decision-making and problem-solving behaviours of women, Women principals were more concerned with helping deviant pupils. Women principals placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

(Allan, 2004). Hence, lack of qualification is not the matter for the females under representation in educational leadership positions

Generally, for all the items under the factors related to the females themselves to be the reasons for their under representation in educational leadership the data was collected, analyzed and interpreted and supported by related literatures.

The other data was collected in relation to the social-structural factors that decreased the females' participation in educational leadership. This data was displayed in the following table and analyzed as follow.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Table.4:4. Opinion of Respondents toward Social-Structural Related Factors for Low Female participation in educational leadership positions.

| No | Items | Response | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|----------|------|------|------|-------|-----|------|--|
| | | 1(SD) | | 2(D) | | 3(UD) | | 4(A) | |
| 17. | In our culture, females are appreciated more for their outward show and good character (behaviour) than for their competence and intellectual skills. | 21 | 15.1 | 20 | 14.4 | 3 | 2.2 | 64 | |
| 18. | Women are not perceived to be as powerful on the educational leadership position as men. | 8 | 5.8 | 32 | 23.0 | 1 | 0.7 | 75 | |
| 19. | The school society does not perceive women as good leaders. | 1 | 0.7 | 21 | 15.1 | 1 | 0.7 | 70 | |
| 20. | Cultural attitude of our school society encourages women to assume on key educational leadership position. | 42 | 30.2 | 74 | 53.2 | 1 | 0.7 | 11 | |
| 21. | Subordinates of female educational leaders are not comfortable with their power. | 1 | 0.7 | 38 | 27.3 | - | - | 77 | |
| 22. | Socialization plays a significant part in packing women into relatively low- paying and low-status jobs. | 1 | 0.7 | 22 | 15.9 | 2 | 1.4 | 89 | |
| 23. | Female teachers have equal access to participate in decision making process of educational dealings. | 31 | 22.3 | 82 | 58.9 | 7 | 5.0 | 18 | |
| 24. | Affirmative action laws have adequately helped to provide women with opportunities for career advancement. | 1 | 0.7 | 34 | 24.5 | 2 | 1.4 | 72 | |
| 25. | Female teachers have the same opportunity to hold key educational leadership positions. | 33 | 23.7 | 82 | 59.0 | 1 | 0.7 | 21 | |
| 26. | Female teachers have access to information to compete for top educational leadership positions. | 54 | 38.8 | 82 | 59.0 | 1 | 0.7 | 1 | |
| 27. | Female teachers lack opportunity to gain bottom experiences in types of positions that would help them for further advancement. | 2 | 1.4 | 18 | 12.9 | 1 | 0.7 | 76 | |
| 28. | The managerial man (superiors) usually prefers a male Candidate to a female. | 1 | 0.7 | 22 | 15.8 | - | - | 77 | |
| 29. | Female educational leaders are preferred over men by subordinates. | 23 | 16.5 | 70 | 50.4 | 2 | 1.4 | 36 | |
| 30. | Most of the educational leadership positions are occupied by males in schools so that females couldn't get opportunities to show their talent. | 1 | 0.7 | 32 | 23 | 1 | 0.7 | 50 | |
| 31. | Female teachers do not get adequate mentoring service in their staff. | 3 | 2.2 | 35 | 25.2 | - | - | 79 | |

SA= Strongly Agree AG= Agree UN=Undecided D= Disagree SD=Strongly Disagree

Note: Values in parenthesis () represented the scores of Likert scaled attitude indicators.

4.5. Social-structural Related Factors for Low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

As observed in the above table, the responses to each item range from strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, strongly agree and agree for the socio- structural factors that impede female teachers' participation in educational leadership.

Thus, according to item number seventeen, which is about females' outward show and good character appreciation versus their competence in intellectual skills, majority of the respondents 95 (68.3%) agreed that the culture of the people appreciate females for their appearance and behaviour than for their mental ability in general. The result of t value (137)= .479, P=.633 and the mean value of male and female respondent was 1.56 and 1.50 indicates that there is no significant difference among the mean scores of the two groups at $\alpha = .05$.

Similarly in item 18, 98(70.5%) of the respondents agreed that females are not as influential as males counter parts in the educational leadership positions. The computed t value (137) =-.065, P=.949 at significant level of 0.05 and the mean value of male and female teachers is 3.67 and 3.68 respectively which shows that there was no significant statistical difference between the responses of the two groups.

In the case of item number 19, 116 (83.5%) of the respondents agreed that females can't be good leaders because they do not have the talent in nature. The computed t value (137) is 0 .055, P=0 .956 at significant level of 0.05 and the mean value of male and female respondents; 3.26 and 3.25 shows that there was no significant difference between the responses of the two groups. Regarding this, writers of popular books on leadership have argued that effective leadership is congruent with the ways that women lead. (Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1995). For example, Rosener (1995) labelled women's leadership as interactive, involving collaboration and empowerment of employees, and men's leadership as command and control, involving the assertion of authority and the accumulation of power.

Another item is the one related to whether the cultural attitude of the school society encourages women to represent on key educational leadership position or it does not. According to item 20, thus, 116 (83.4%) of the respondents did not agree that the female teachers are encouraged by the school

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

society. In addition the compared mean of male and female respondents (3.67 and 3.78) and the t-value (137)= -.481,P=0 .631. This indicates that there is no significant difference between the two respondents.

Towards this, research over the previous century has largely been male dominated thereby perpetuating the myth that management and leadership are essentially male phenomena (Enomoto 2000). Besides, the cultural and social assumption that women are less strong than men and therefore cannot hold managerial positions is common in many developing countries (Calvert and Calvert, 1996). The result of the interview also approved that the school society does not trust the female teachers' leadership positions and this is not because of tangible practice but because of the cultural background of the people. There is a saying that a female bears a leader but she does not lead. The school society also has this idea in mind. The school principals and WEOs also confirmed this response.

Besides, item number 21 raised the question of feelings of subordinates on the female leaders' power. Concerning this, 100 (72%) of the respondents agreed that subordinates of women leaders are not comfortable with their power. Besides the mean value of male and female (3.67 and 3.71) and the t-(137) value=-.202,P=0.840 Shows that there is no significance difference between the two respondents. Regarding this, Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000) described organizational contexts in which men used intimidation and silence to discourage women. Intimidating tactics and behaviours of board and community members included name-calling, rumours, and overt lies. Additionally, male subordinates were intimidating, at times indicating directly that they did not want to work for a woman. Logan (1999) also supported this finding in a study of educational leadership.

Item number 22, shows that majority of the respondents, 114 (82.01%) agreed that socialization plays a significant role in packing women into relatively low- paying and low-status jobs. More, the mean value of male(3.68) and female teachers(3.78) . The computed value of analysis of t-test (137) =-.446, p=0.657 at $\alpha = .05$)also revealed that there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents.

Regarding this, scholars say that women moving in to the public sphere treated many of the basic conceptions of the rational bureaucratic world .Thus, steps were taken by top male administrators and male dominated school boards to make ascertain that women administrators were concentrated in the lower administrative echelons and that the male old-boy's network was promoted (Blackmore, 1993).

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Moreover, according to item number 23, 113 (81.3%) of the respondents disagreed that females have equal access to participate in decision making process of educational dealings. In addition the mean value of male (3.56) and female teachers (3.51) . The computed value of analysis of t-test (137) =.263, $p=0.793$ at $\alpha= .05$) also revealed that there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents.

This shows that respondents are not satisfied with the access which is provided for female teachers to participate in decision making of educational dealings. The researcher believes that this would happen because of old boys' network in the schools. As the school leadership is already male-dominated, these male leaders attitudinally prefer male teachers to participate in decision making discussions. They do not believe that females have acknowledgeable ideas in discussions, and this is the result of societal attitude in general.

Likewise, the item number 24 inquired if women are being helped by the affirmative action laws that provide them with the accesses that advance their career. On this point, 102(73.4%) of the respondents agreed that affirmative action laws have adequately helped to provide women with opportunities for career advancement by giving priority for females if they have the same performance with the male competent. In addition the compared mean of male and female respondents (3.84 and 3.18) and the t-value (137)= 0.202, $P=0 .840$. This indicates that there is no significant difference between the two respondents.

Quotas and targets can be perceived as discriminatory (in this case against men) or as risking causing backlash and accusations of tokenism (Baez, 2003; Lihamba et al, 2006; Morley et al, 2006). Conversely, they can be seen as necessary and suitable, particularly in areas where gender segregation is entrenched, and can compensate for and tackle gender bias in recruitment and selection (OECD, 2008).

Similarly, 115(82.7%) of the respondents disagreed that females have the same opportunity to hold key educational leadership positions and 23 (16.6%) of the respondents agreed to the item number 25. By supporting this the compared mean of male(1.57)and female (1.50)respondents disagreed with the issue of the item. The computed tvalue(137)=0.553, $P=0.581$ shows that there is no significant difference between the response of the two groups.

Item number 26 also tried to assess the females' access to information to compete for top educational leadership positions. In view of that, 136 (97.8%) of the respondents disagreed that females have

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

access to information to compete for the post. With regard to this, male and female teachers shown their disagreement with mean value of (2.05 and 2.15 respectively) about the issue. The results of t-value (137) = -492, $P=0.623$ at $\alpha= .05$ level) implies there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents. This implies that, lack of opportunity and information are significant factors for the low participation of females in educational leadership positions. From the researchers' point of view, the reason for lack of opportunity is resulted from lack of information as the second idea is the base for the former one. As females are poor at net working, they cannot get adequate information that may help them to proceed to opportunity tracks for leadership positions. Information is the backbone to make someone ready for further opportunities in his life track, and this does so for females to participate in the case of educational leadership positions.

By supporting this, Grady (1992) cites Lyman Speyer as saying that few women have been socialized to have a clear sense of a career track to develop their leadership skills. They have also been denied the support, opportunity, and experience given to men. The findings from Grady's study suggest that there remains psychological barrier, a subconscious occupational ceiling that prevents women from actively pursuing success in the non-traditional roles of school administration. Thus, proportionately fewer women than men seek administrative positions, tending to disguise their ability and eliminate them from competition in a larger occupational sphere (Johnston, Yeakey, & Moore, as cited by Grady, 1992).

In addition to that, according to item number 27, 118 (84.9%) of the respondents agreed that females lack opportunity to gain bottom experiences in types of positions that would help them for further advancement. Nonetheless, 20 (14.4%) of the respondents, disagreed to this idea. In addition the compared mean value of male and female (4.12 and 4.21) and the t-value (137)=-.514, $p= .608$. This indicates that there is no significance difference between the two groups of respondents. In relation to this, the interview made with the school principals, female teachers and WEOs also approved that female teachers are not involving in bottom educational leadership positions such as department head, unit leader, etc. From this, it is deducible that females are in lack of opportunities to develop leadership experiences at lower level positions that would in turn help them for further leadership advancement. So, lack of areas to practice leadership skills considerably affects female teachers' involvement in the educational leadership positions at advanced level. Different scholars say that experience is the best teacher. Thus, blocking females from practicing leadership skills at bottom educational leadership positions is one of the glass- ceilings holding them down from the further hierarchy.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Regarding this, Berman (1999) opined that Organizational structures especially job assignment are designed to prevent women from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for career advancement of women to advance to the leadership position in school as organization. Organizational structure “steer away” women’s potential for upward mobility by confining them to work roles that are considered to be “Women’s occupation”. To this end, the quickest way to the top of management level is placement in functional areas or crucial job assignment that leads to the accomplishment of critical organizational tasks Berman (1999:88). Women are there to teach the learners and men are there to run or manage the schools. The term teacher is associated with a woman and the term principal with a man (Greyvenstein ,2000: 30).

The other was about the preference of the managerial person (superiors) comparing a male candidate against a female. Therefore, majority of the respondents, 116 (78.4%) agreed that the managerial person (superiors) usually prefers a male candidate to a female. In this connection, the mean value of male (4.11) and female (4.03), had the opinion that superiors prefer male candidate against female. The calculated t-value of (137) = 0.654 and $P=0.514$ at $\alpha= .05$ level) suggest that, there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents. The result of the interview also showed that female competent do not have special consideration in the recruitment process. One female vice principal, even, reported that she equally competed with male competent with the same criteria and won the competition to hold the post. Enomoto 2000: 375). Her study confirms earlier findings of Kearney and Ronning (1996: 15) which indicated that men with similar qualifications and experiences generally meet with greater career success and participate more fully in the management process than their female counterparts.

More to the points, item number 29 dealt with the question whether subordinate prefer women over males. In relation to this 93 (66.9%) of the respondents disagreed that women are preferred over men by subordinates. In relation to this, the mean value of male (3.69) and female (3.78), disagreed that subordinate prefer women over male. The calculated t-value of (137) = $-.402$ and $P=0.689$ at $\alpha= .05$ level) suggest that, there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents. From this, the researcher assumes that the subordinates do not have the beliefs “Females can do.” This may be because they have not been led by female leaders at school in their experience. They rather have the belief of cultural proverb which says ‘the women leadership leaves the door closed!’ This means that the females’ leadership is rigid and does not have freedom for the subordinates. From this one can observe that sex discrimination is significantly affecting the participation of female teachers in educational leadership positions.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Further, question number 30, dealt with the leadership positions occupation level that might have challenged the females not to show their talents. Consequently, 105 (75.6%) of the respondents agreed that most of the leadership positions are occupied by males in schools so that females couldn't get opportunities to show their talent, but, 33 (23.7%) of the respondents agreed to this idea. In addition to this, the mean value of male (3.67) and female (3.68), agreed that most of the leadership positions are occupied by males in schools. The calculated t-value of (137) = $-.065$ and $P=0.949$ at $\alpha= .05$ level) suggest that, there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents. Towards this, women moving in to the public sphere treated many of the basic conceptions of the rational bureaucratic world. Thus, steps were taken by top male administrators and male dominated school boards to make ascertain that women administrators were concentrated in the lower administrative echelons and that the male old-boy's network was promoted (Blackmore, 1993).

Furthermore, the item number 31 was concerned with the extent of mentoring service that female teachers get in their staff. As a result, 101 (72.6%) of the respondents agreed that female teachers do not get mentoring service in their staff. Besides the compared mean value of male and female (3.68 and 3.68) and the t-value (137) = $-.023$, $p= 0.982$. This indicates that there is no significance difference between the two groups of respondents. Regarding this, despite the benefits of mentoring, research indicated that there seems to be a lack of available male or female mentors for women. When males do act as mentors, they tend to sponsor male, or someone who is most like them (Erich, as cited by Coleman, 1996).

The above finding indicates that the socio structural factors are the reasons for the under representation of females in educational leadership. Male dominated leadership positions affect the participation of female teachers to be educational leaders. In the belief of the researcher, these socio-structural factors emerge from each other. For instance, the preference of males to females by the already leading males results in male dominance in educational leadership positions so that females are underrepresented. Likewise, in the case of lack of mentoring service for females in their own staff, the researcher likes to forward two ideas. The first is that male mentors like to mentor male mentees thinking that males are fast at easily acquiring advices and guidance so that they do not impose their mentors by asking them for consecutive helps. Vis-à-vis this, scholars say that when males do act as mentors, they tend to sponsor male, or someone who is most like them, (Erich, as cited by Coleman, 1996).

On the other hand, the researcher from her experiences also believes the female mentees themselves do not like to approach mentors for help because of the inferiority complex they have already acquired as a result of societal attitude. Even though they may be better than their male counter parts

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

in their performance, they fear that their mentors in the mentoring processes may criticize their little weak side and expose them to the rest staff members.

4.6. Major Challenges for Low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership in rank

All the factors discussed above through the questionnaire analysis were presented under item 32 to the respondents so that they would put them in order from the level of difficulty these challenges have in negatively affecting the females' participation in educational leadership. Accordingly, influence of society attitude is the main factor to cause the problem as 69 (49.6%) of the respondents gave the rank. In addition to that, stereotypes (sex-biased discrimination) gets the second rank as 24 (17.3%) of the respondents indicated in the table. Similarly, male dominance of key educational leadership position over females is another and the third major factor in being the cause for female teachers' under representation in educational leadership positions as shown in the above table by 22(15.8%) of the respondents . More, 20 (14.4%) of the respondents gave the fourth rank for female teachers' lack of aspiration to be the reason for their under representation in the educational leadership positions. The rest challenges such as lack of role model, family responsibilities and lack of self confidence were ranked fifth, sixth and seventh as 5 (3.6%), 1(.7%) of the respondents indicated respectively, whereas less affirmative action law for females and their lack of skills to become a leader are the reason for the problem to happen in general. The summary of this discussion is presented in the table below.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Table 4.5: Major Challenges for Low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership in Rank.

| No | Items | Responses | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|-------|------|
| | | 1(11) | | 2(12) | | 3(13) | | 4(14) | | 5(15) | | 6(16) | | 7(17) | | 8(18) | | 9(19) | |
| | | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % |
| 1 | Male dominance of key educational leadership position over women. | 22 | 15.8 | 16 | 11.5 | 50 | 36.0 | 23 | 16.5 | 10 | 7.2 | 10 | 7.2 | 6 | 4.3 | 2 | 1.4 | - | - |
| 2 | Lack of aspiration to be a leader. | 20 | 14.4 | 47 | 33.8 | 12 | 8.6 | 15 | 10.8 | 22 | 15.8 | 14 | 10.1 | 9 | 6.5 | - | - | - | - |
| 3 | Lack of role model. | 5 | 3.6 | 2 | 1.4 | 7 | 5.0 | 44 | 31.7 | 27 | 19.4 | 22 | 15.8 | 30 | 21.6 | 2 | 1.4 | | |
| 4 | Family responsibilities. | 1 | 0.7 | 1 | 0.7 | 20 | 14.4 | 12 | 8.6 | 31 | 22.3 | 43 | 30.9 | 26 | 18.7 | 5 | 3.6 | | |
| 5 | Lack of self confidence. | 1 | 0.7 | 5 | 3.6 | 3 | 2.2 | 27 | 19.4 | 25 | 18.0 | 34 | 24.5 | 38 | 27.3 | 5 | 3.6 | 1 | 0.7 |
| 6 | Stereotypes (sex-biased discrimination). | 24 | 17.3 | 23 | 16.5 | 29 | 20.9 | 13 | 9.4 | 16 | 11.5 | 13 | 9.4 | 20 | 14.4 | - | - | 1 | 0.7 |
| 7 | Influence of society attitude. | 69 | 49.6 | 45 | 32.4 | 15 | 10.8 | 5 | 3.6 | 4 | 2.9 | - | - | 1 | 0.7 | - | - | - | - |
| 8 | Less affirmative action law | - | - | 1 | 0.7 | - | - | - | - | 4 | 2.9 | 2 | 1.4 | 7 | 5.0 | 9 | 71.2 | 2 | 18.6 |

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

In the questionnaire, open ended questions were also presented to the respondents in order to help them write their responses to the item the way they think. So for question number 33, the respondents said that the reasons why females are underrepresented in educational leadership are as follows.

Firstly, there are no female role models in educational leadership positions that would encourage female teachers to aspire for posts. Secondly, attitude of the school society does not enhance female teachers to become a leader. Because of this, female teachers are not interested to be involved in educational leadership positions. This means female teachers do not have confidence that their leadership service is valued by the school society and the subordinates. In addition, the key educational leadership positions have been already occupied by well experienced male leaders. This means there is over dominance of males in the key educational leadership positions and even in the bottom leadership areas such as department head, club leaders, etc.

The respondents also said that the school principals even do not like to delegate powers and works to the female teachers as they do not trust females to accomplish responsibilities timely and effectively. This implies that females do not have opportunities to gain experiences in educational leadership. Others said that females are over burdened by home responsibilities such as child care and other routine house works, and this are not culturally shared by males. As a result, female teachers may not be interested to be involved in educational leadership as it is difficult to hold house simultaneously with official works.

More, they said that there is also shortage of female teachers at high school levels. More or less, the influence of the nominating bodies or leaders at the top level is another factor for females' under representation because they prefer males to females in the recruitment processes.

Generally, from all the discussions, anyone can understand that there are different factors that have lessened females' participation in educational leadership. These factors are generally categorized into two major parts namely individual and social-structural as already discussed before in general.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

According to the researcher's point of view, they are resulted from each other and impede females' participation in educational leadership. For example, the reason why females are not confident is because of the social background they have as discussed earlier. In the culture of the community in general, females are not leaders; they are followers rather. As a result of lack of confidence, they are not aspired to become leaders. It can be said that socio- structural factors are the sources of individual factors that caused females' underrepresentation in general.

As suggestions, to increase females' participation in educational leadership positions, the respondents also forwarded the following ideas under the item number 34 and in the interview part of the tools. Accordingly, female teachers should be assigned at the bottom educational leadership positions such as department head, unit leader, club coordinator and PTA so that they would get bottom experiences that will help them for future leadership positions advancement. In addition to that, the society and the female teachers themselves should get awareness through different trainings and workshops about the equality of females and males to alleviate the inequity matter (gender stereotype or sex discrimination) in bringing females to the educational leadership positions. This will help the females to be confident and to aspire for leadership positions. Increasing the gender heterogeneity in the secondary school teaching staff is another suggestion because the more the number of female teachers exists in the staff is the more female competent may exist for educational leadership positions. The respondents also said that female role models should be put in the educational leadership positions and male dominance should be minimized.

Different education administrative bodies need to play their own roles in enhancing females' participation in educational leadership. The majority of the respondents voiced that: schools need to encourage female teachers to come to educational leadership areas, schools may give chances to female teachers to participate in decision making positions such as school committees, unit leaders, heads of department, mentors, and internal supervisors and so on: schools recommended to have women empowering strategies like short and long term training: giving recognition and encouragement to better performing female teachers and female students at school level: and schools need to do much work on awareness creation about sex equality among the school communities.

In addition, the respondents suggested that the woreda education office is another determinant body that can play great role in increasing females' involvement in educational leadership. According to the respondents, the office has to work jointly with other offices and politicians to bring attitudinal changes in the communities to evade the stereotypic misperception about women: They said that

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

the WEO has to empower and assign female teachers in different levels of educational leadership areas such as principals, education office experts, etc.

More, the zonal education office can also play a very vital part in bringing female teachers to power according to the respondents' suggestion. For instance, they said that, the zonal education officers need to create a tie relation with REB, WEO and with other concerned bodies and prepare different educational and other training opportunities for female teachers to upgrade and update their capacity so that they would fully involve in educational leaderships positions. Generally, they said that, proper implementation of affirmative action policies is necessary to increase females' participation in educational leadership.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION OF THE FINDINGS.

This unit deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study in general. Therefore, general conclusions were drawn on the bases of the findings and recommendations were given to the concerned educational leadership bodies to minimize the factors for low women participation in secondary schools of Ilu Aba Bora Zone. These all contents are found below.

5.1 Summary

To improve the quality and equity of education many countries attempts to undertake education reform and restructuring. One of such strategies has been adoption of integrating women into school leadership and management. In many courtiers, the participation of women on decision making position is linked to school leadership. This is because, in most courtiers, men are more likely to be a leader in education and elsewhere. The presence of women in leadership roles at secondary school level and above contributes to sensitivity with in schools for the well being of adolescent girls and provides girls beginning to consider carrier choices with role models of decision makers and leaders.

Despite the enormous contribution that the women make to development, they couldn't share the fruit of development equally with their male counter parts. Traditionally, as was the case elsewhere women in Ethiopia were socialized for domestic life of child rearing, home management, and the care of sick and elderly. Male were prepared for the public arena. The decision making capacity expected to be exercised in their roles as elder wife, mother, mothers in law; midwives and nurses.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Women have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life because of the social attitude women have been reluctant to pursue educational administrative positions.

Ethiopia also has similar back ground with other countries in relation to the underrepresentation of women in status posts in general and educational leadership in particular.

However, the proportion of women principals and assistant principals in secondary schools is all scant relatively to their figure. Thus, as the above facts indicate the problem of the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership. In Ilu Aba Bora seems worth stressing. .

Hence, this study seeks to investigate the current major factors for low women participation in educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora Zone. Accordingly, the study aimed at assessing the major challenges that caused female teachers under representation in Educational leadership in Ilu Aba Bora Zone. In order to meet this purpose, the following basic questions were designed to guide the study.

- To what extent do female teachers aspire for positions in educational leadership?
- What is the trend of women leadership involvement in the Zone for the last five years (2001-2005 E.C)?
- What are the major challenges that draw the females back from actively involving in educational leadership?

To answer these research questions, descriptive survey method was employed. To this effect the study was conducted in 8 randomly selected secondary schools of Ilu Aba Bora Zone. A total of 147 teachers were selected through stratified random sampling technique, especially lottery method, to participate in the study. Furthermore, 8 principals, 8 Woreda education officers were selected by availability sampling, and 8 secondary school female teachers were selected purposively, since the researcher believed that she could get valid information especially concerning the aspiration of female teachers to participate in educational leadership positions. To gather necessary information on the issue, 147 questionnaires were distributed to teachers, and only 139 were properly filled and returned. In addition, semi-structured interview was conducted with 8 school principals, 7 woreda education officers (but one woreda education officer did not participate since he was absent during the data collection period) and 8 female secondary school teachers, to extract in-depth information regarding challenges that impede female teachers involvement in educational leadership.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Accordingly, the data collected from teachers through closed ended questionnaire was analyzed and interpreted by using percentage. The analysis of the quantitative data was performed in the help of SPSS version. The data gathered through open ended questionnaire and semi-structured interview was analyzed qualitatively using narrations to support the result obtained from quantitative analysis. After all the research came up with the following major findings.

- Majority of the respondents 130(93.5) believes that female teachers have less aspiration to be an educational leader. The level of women's aspiration for positions in educational leadership was low. The study revealed: Only few female teachers showed interest in leaving teaching and join educational leadership. Furthermore, it was disclosed that as the position increased in hierarchy, the number of female aspirants decreased. Eventually, a close look to the low level of women's aspiration to positions revealed the adverse effect of external limiting variables. At institutional and societal levels, the study evidenced barriers, such as, lack of encouragement and support systems for women, the lesser access to pre-administrative training, the job definition and requirement of educational administration, etc. as threatening women's aspiration to educational leadership.
- The involvement of female teachers in educational leadership throughout the educational system for the last five years (2010-2014/2002-2006 EC) was increased by 5.07 it seems to show an insignificant increment each year in the last five years.
- Majority of the respondents 125(89.9%) perceived that female educational leaders lack confidence to participate in educational leadership positions.
- Most of the respondents 134(96.4%) believed female teachers fear additional responsibilities that would increase pressure on them. In relation to this, Holtkanm (2002) and Gidesn (2005) suggested that women have been reluctant to pursue educational administration because of the fact that women have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life.
- As 116 (83.5%) of the respondents perceived that females can't be good leaders because they do not have the talent in nature.
- Regarding the cultural attitude of the school society 116 (83.4%) of the respondents responded that female teachers are not encouraged by the school society to represent on key educational leadership position.
- Influence of society attitude is the main factor to cause the underrepresentation of females in educational leadership positions as 69 (49.6%) of the respondents gave the first rank.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

- Stereotypes (sex-biased discrimination) gets the second rank as 24 (17.3%) of the respondents indicated it as another and the Second major factor in being the cause for female teachers' under representation in educational leadership positions.
- Male dominance of key educational leadership position over females is another and the third major factor in being the cause for female teachers' under representation in educational leadership positions
- The individual and social structural factors are resulted from each other and impede females' participation in educational leadership. For example, the reason why females are not confident is because of the social back ground they have as discussed earlier. In the culture of the community in general, females are not leaders; they are followers rather.
- It can be said that social- structural factors are the sources of individual factors that caused females' underrepresentation in general.

5.2. Conclusions

Depending on the finding of the study, it is possible to draw the following conclusions.

Throughout the educational system for the last five years (2010-2014/2002-2006 EC) the females' involvement in educational leadership positions at secondary schools was negligible. It seems to show an increment each year in the last five years; one can safely conclude that the increase is insignificant and not promising that there will be gender balance in the educational leadership positions in Ilu Aba Bora Zone.

Obviously women's aspiration level to positions in educational leadership is generally low. Yet it is not clear whether the observed low level of aspiration is a response to the limited opportunity accompanying discrimination or a choice on the part of women in response to society's expectation for their role. It is not clear, for instance, how women will respond when opportunity is increased, suggesting an area for further research.

Moreover, as evidenced in this study, individual female characteristics variables are not significantly related with aspiration level. This may further suggest social structural factors as more important to determine women's aspiration to educational leadership .

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

There are different factors that affect female teachers, involvement in educational leadership. These factors are generally classified into two namely individual factors and socio-structural factors in general. Among the individual factors, lack of their personal preparation for the posts has been mentioned as one of the major challenges that have slowed down female teachers' right of entry to educational leadership positions. One can conclude that this tendency of female teachers to hold down themselves from educational leadership may also be attributed to the following reasons.

For one thing, when they come to positions, there is a felt increment in responsibility and this may pose fear of failure among female teachers as they are also overburdened by home responsibilities than males obviously. Similarly, since the school society considers females as incompetent to meet educational leadership positions, women tend to underestimate their own values; this low self concept may result in de motivating them from aspiring to top positions in general. Certainly, lack of confidence can significantly affect females' participation in educational leadership. And this defect arises not from nature but from historical back ground that females came up with. As the society does not prepare its daughters for management or leadership but for household activities, the children (daughters) do not develop confidence of being a leader.

To see broadly, there is lack of female role models in educational leadership positions that would encourage female teachers to aspire for posts. Secondly, attitude of the school society does not enhance female teachers to become a leader. Because of this, female teachers are not interested to be involved in educational leadership positions. This means female teachers do not have confidence that their leadership service is acknowledged by the school society and the subordinates. In addition, the key educational leadership positions have been already occupied by well experienced male leaders. This means there is over dominance of males in the key educational leadership positions and even in the bottom leadership areas such as department head, club leaders, etc. The school principals even do not like to delegate powers and works to the female teachers as they do not trust females to accomplish responsibilities timely and effectively. Consequently, females do not have opportunities to gain experiences in educational leadership. More or less, the influence of the nominating bodies or leaders at the top level is another factor for females' under representation because they prefer males to females in the recruitment processes.

Generally, there are different factors that have lessened females' participation in educational leadership. These factors are categorized into two major parts: individual and social-structural as already discussed in detail. In the researchers' point of view, these factors emerge from one another

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

and impede females' participation in educational leadership. For example, the reason why females are not confident is because of the social background they have as discussed earlier. In the culture of the community in general, females are not leaders; they are followers rather. As a result of lack of confidence, they are not aspired to become leaders. Thus, it can be said that socio-structural factors are the sources of individual factors that cause females' underrepresentation in educational leadership in general.

As a conclusion; the diagram below gives clear image about this idea.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

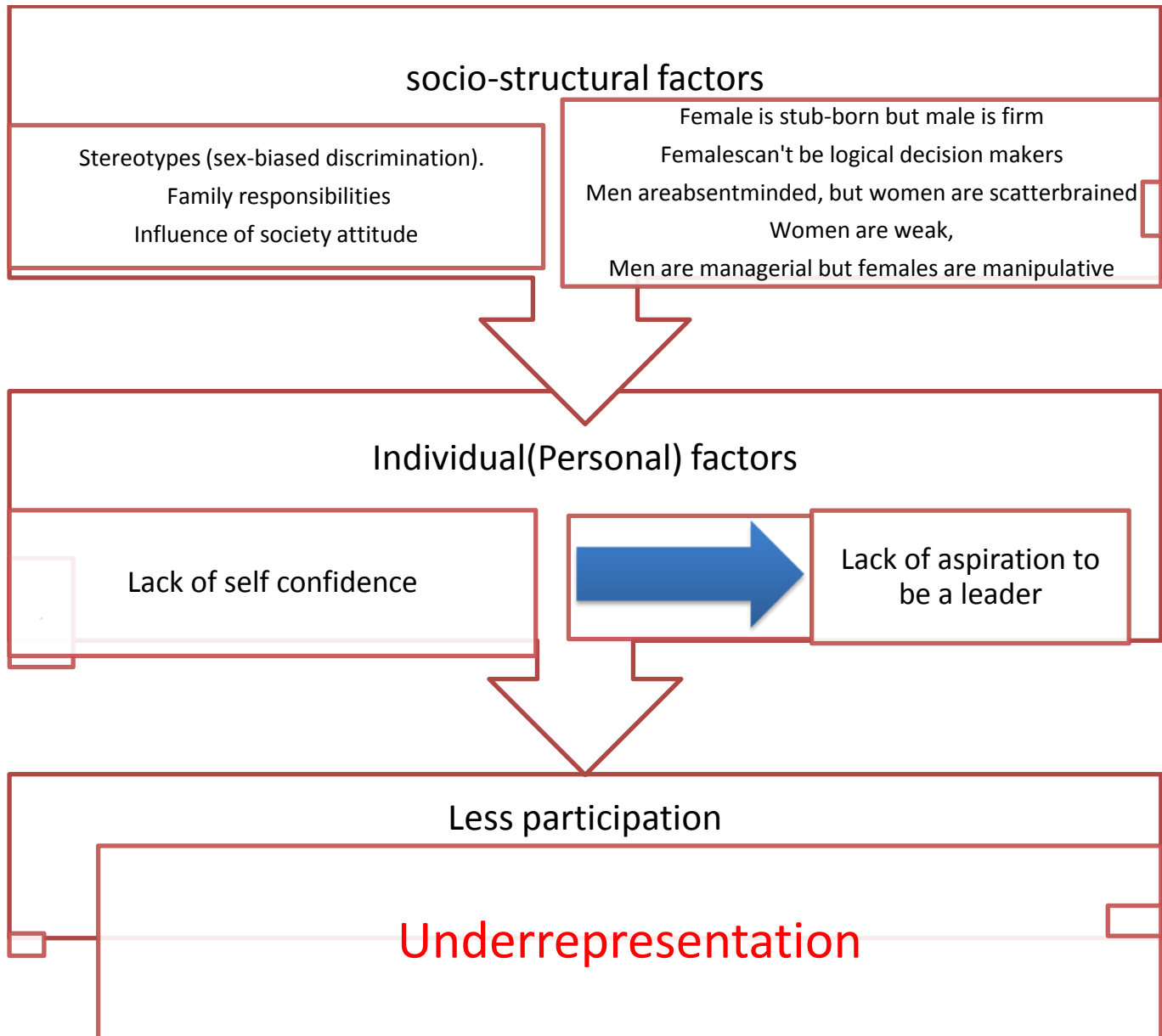


Figure: 5.1: Summary of Major Challenges that Affect Females' Participation in Educational Leadership.

5.3. Recommendations

In order to increase females' participation in educational leadership positions, some important recommendations are found below based on the finding of the study.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

1. Female teachers should be assigned at the bottom educational leadership positions such as department head, unit leader, club coordinator and PTA so that they would get bottom experiences that will help them for future leadership positions advancement.
2. Giving awareness for females on the concept that 'leading is not something unachievable' can plant motivation to be a leader. Then bringing some well achieving female teachers to positions would help to produce female role models for the rest ones.
3. The society and the female teachers themselves should get awareness through different trainings and workshops about the equality of females and males to alleviate the inequity matter (gender stereo type or sex discrimination) in bringing females to the educational leadership positions.
4. The gender heterogeneity in the secondary school teaching staff should be increased because the more the number of female teachers exists in the staff is the more female competent may exist for educational leadership positions.
5. Female role models should be put in the educational leadership positions and male dominance should be minimized. In line with this, different education administrative bodies need to play their own roles in enhancing females' participation in educational leadership. For example, schools need to encourage female teachers to come to educational leadership areas; schools have to give chances to female teachers to participate in decision making positions such as school committees, unit leaders, heads of department, mentors, and internal supervisors, etc. In addition, schools have to design women empowering strategies like short and long term trainings, giving recognition and encouragement to better performing female teachers and female students at school level. More, schools need to do much work on awareness creation about sex equality among the school communities.
6. The woreda Education Office has to work jointly with other offices and politicians to bring attitudinal changes in the communities to evade the stereotypic misconception about women: It has to empower and assign female teachers in different levels of educational leadership areas such as principals, education office experts, etc.

Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

7. The zonal education office also has to play a very vital part in bringing female teachers to power. For instance, it needs to create a bind relation with REB, WEO and with other concerned bodies so as to prepare different educational and other training opportunities for female teachers to upgrade and update their capacity. Generally, building the capacity of female teachers through different strategies, bringing attitudinal change in the community concerning the gender stereotype and proper implementation of organizational policies and practices such as affirmative action is necessary to enhance females' participation in educational leadership.

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