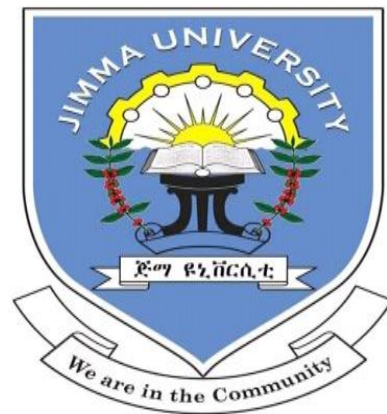


**PRACTICES AND CHALLENGES OF FEMALE TEACHERS'
PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY
SCHOOLS OF JIMMA ZONE**

By

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JIMMA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

NOVEMBER, 2021

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

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ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS

E.C	Ethiopian Calendar
ESDP	Education Sector Development Program
ETP	Education Training Policy
FWTA	Federation of Women Teachers' Associations
GTP	Growth and Transformation Program
ILM	Internal Labor Market
MoE	Ministry of Education
NPAEA	National Plan of Action on Education for All
PTSA	Parent Teachers Students Association
SEEL	Sex Equity in Educational Leadership.
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TDP	Teacher Development Program
UK	United Kingdom
UNICE	United Nations Children's Fund
UNWPP	United Nation World Population Perspective
USA	United States of America
WCA	Women and Children Affairs

ABSTRACT

This study aimed at assessing the practices and challenges of female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership in Jimma Zone. To conduct this study, descriptive survey research design a quantitative and qualitative methods were employed. The participants of this study were 337 out of which 168 teachers were selected by using lottery method of simple random sampling techniques. Eight members of PTSA and school board, 8 school principals and vice principals, 8 school supervisors, 8 Woreda education head and 4 Zone Education Department officials were also involved through availability sampling technique. Data were collected by using questionnaire, semi-structural interview and document reviews. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis were employed. Data obtained through questionnaire were analyzed using statistical tools. Accordingly, frequency counts, standard deviation. Mean scores and t-test were used while data obtained through semi-structured interview, document review and open-ended items were qualitatively analyzed to support quantitative findings. Finally, the research came up with the following major findings. The involvement of female teachers in school leadership was found to be insignificant at the bottom while relatively ignored at the top level during the last five years. These major factors that impeded their participation included socio- cultural beliefs and practices as well as organizational and personal related factors. Moreover, it was found that female teachers themselves had low aspiration and were also found to be reluctant to become school leader. The study revealed that the influence of cultural ideology affected female teachers participation in leadership, i.e., societal view that females are not leaders, but are followers still influences female teachers' participation in secondary school of Jimma zone. Furthermore, lack confidence, absence of impactful female local role model in secondary school leadership, limitations in decisions about hiring, promotions and provision of affirmative action affected female participation in secondary school of Jimma zone. Socio-cultural and gender stereotypes like family and home responsibilities make females is also still affecting their opportunity to gain bottom experiences in school leadership that would help them for further advancement because the school leadership is men dominated. In conclusion, female teachers' participation in leadership in secondary schools of Jimma zone is below the current day's expectation. That is, the available policies and strategies which offers golden opportunity for females are not fully implemented so as to attract as many female candidates as possible for enhancing their involvement in secondary school leadership of Jimma zone. So, it is, generally strongly recommended that all concerned bodies work on it as per the policy provision to bring about the expected difference.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This section discusses the statement of the problem, basic research questions, objectives of the study (general objectives and specific objectives), significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, definition of key terms, and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the study

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 educations 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 knowledge how leadership has been viewed. As to Hollinger&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) defines 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 definition of leadership as the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and actively 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 females in leadership roles at secondary school level and above contributes to sensitivity within 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).

Leadership has generally been associated with men and male characteristics of behavior, and as a consequence the perception of a leader is dominated by male stereotypes (Klenke, 1996). Broadbring (2007) advanced a view that there is a gender difference in leadership and that women bring different qualities to leadership and management positions, which help schools to maintain competitive advantage. Roemer’s (1990) study of female and male administrative with similar backgrounds concluded that women tended to manage in different ways than men. The study found that female managerial was more interested in transforming people’s self-interest into organizational goals by encouraging feelings of individual self-worth, active participation, and sharing of power and information. The qualities stated above are correlated to successful achievements in students’ learning, which may explain the success of most women leaders in educational organizations (Agezo, 2010). A feminine style of leadership is often motivational than the masculine style of leadership which tends to emphasize individualism, duty and rules (Shakeshaft, 1998).

Similarly, Engcobo (1996) reported that teachers tended to accept female leaders as school principals, because they had good relations with staff, they were efficient organizers, self-disciplined and the ability to bring about positive change often democratically. Furthermore, Lad (2000) noted that female principals were better than males in the area of communicating school goals, supervision and evaluation of instruction, coordinating curriculum, maintaining high visibility, promoting professional development and providing incentives for learning.

In African societies, it is believed that men lead and females follow (Ngcongco, 1993: Grant, 2005). In this context, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today (Kiamba, 2006). Similarly, Hojgaard (2002) notes that societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally excluded females and top leadership was viewed as a masculine domain. This traditional perceptions of women as inferior to men also continue to prevail as many people invoke the preservation of African culture to justify the subordination of women. The division of labor for women and men resulted in discriminating women in the work place. Research finding in East Africa especially show that female's representation is mainly in positions like secretaries, office attendants and data entry clerks (MOE,2005) and until recently, 95% of all secretaries, stenographers and typists were women.

In management positions the number of women participation remains negligible, less than 10% and the factors that contribute to gender inequality is the fact that men and women perform different jobs in category of "men jobs" and "women jobs ". While women jobs are often associated with lower value in terms of skill requirements and are lower paid, "men jobs" are often considered as higher value and higher paid (Rely, 2005). To this effect, in many organizations we find positions such as secretaries, typist and janitors being occupied by females whereas managerial positions that are better and are often entertained by men (Melzer, 1992).females in Ethiopia are mainly limited to shoulder the hard and unpaid household responsibilities such as Child rearing and feeding the family, farming and taking care of domestic animals. Unfortunately, both culture and religion played significant roles in limiting the positive roles that females could have played.

The fact that females are inadequately represented in the educational leadership as well as in the teaching force in the country shows a considerable gender disparity in the ministry in terms of numbers, position held, benefits and influence. In school leadership gender gap has been a global outcry, and particularly in Ethiopia. For example an investigation by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (1999) showed that although the number of women employed in the education sector is relatively high, they are under-represented in educational leadership in most countries of the world. In support of this point Davies (1992), in her study on females in educational leadership in third world countries, observed that the proportion of female head teachers, supervisors, or senior ministry personnel bears no relation to their proportions in the teaching force. She concluded that females are under-represented in school leadership in third world countries.

Different researchers identified the causes of females's under representation. For instance, Beruk (2004), in many parts of the world, females are either excluded or marginalize from higher level political, social, economic and cultural arrangements. females are undoubtedly under represented within different organizations and institutions. the reality is that social, organizational, cultural and education (Moges,2013). On other hand, it's possible to infer that these factors are positive or negatively impacting the female's participation in educational leadership. Consequently, Moges, (2013) added that women's participation in educational leadership is lowered by lack of education and cultural influence. This practically applies to majority of women who are facing enormous challenges in leadership position of higher educational institutions in Ethiopia, particularly in Furthermore, Asfaw and Okumo (2014) indicate that some few women had been seen in leading educational sectors. In light of this, the authors however recommended that an empowerment is needed for women to equally compete with men in educational leadership in Ethiopia. Challenges to women's lack of opportunities to reach higher positions in educational sector have also been documented by (Cvancaraetal.2007). These factors included women's negative perception toward themselves. And low participation in school leadership position. 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, in educational setting while females hold the teaching staff position, men dominates the highest position of educational leadership (MoE, 2011). Therefore, it is to be high highlight due to low educational attainment and societal stereotypes that hinder the upward movement of female within organizations, one could hardly find females holding a management and decision-making positions. This would retrain many women from facing the challenge and exercise decision-making role (Meron, 2003).

Gender equality was already a major priority area and a cross-cutting issue in ESDPIII as a consequence of determined action such as affirmative action (entry requirements, and financial support such as a pilot scholarship program and tutorial support programs) and overall expansion the gender parity index (GPI) has considerably improved in favor of females. In addition to the focus on trained man power, females are not penetrate the gender gap in the participation of educational leadership, as their representation is currently increasing in the executive branch(minister) of the government of Ethiopia. Obviously, the underrepresentation of females in educational leadership particularly in school leadership such as (principals, vice principals, supervisors, unit leaders, department heads and clubs).is even more visible.

For example, in 2019/20, the total number of primary school principals and vice principals are 44,694, from which only 12.4% of them are females and from 6,374 cluster supervisors reported in primary schools with only 4.6% of them are females, in secondary schools, the number of principals and vice principals are 5,571 across the country. From which, the female share is only 7.5% (MoE, 2019/20,; 82).Similarly, Jimma Zone educational office report (2012 E.C) reveals that the proportion of women principals from 103 secondary school principals 103 (100%) of them are male, from 94 vice principals 12(12%) are female and out of 24 secondary school supervisors 24(100%) or all of them are male . Generally from these (221) school leaders (supervisors, principals and vice principals) females are only 12(5.4%) currently leading School. Therefore, based on these facts and the scarcity of related research on the zone, the researcher was initiated to find out hidden practices and challenges that affect females to come to school leadership positions in secondary schools of Jimma zone.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

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 economic, social, cultural and political development of a country. However, the reality is the opposite in most cases women account for no more than 10% managers and 4% 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). The number of women in administrative and leadership positions in Ethiopia remains extremely low in general and in schools in particular. For example, regarding school leadership, it goes decreasing as one move from primary to secondary schools and institutions of higher learning (MoE, 2012).

This deprives female students the opportunity of looking up to women role models. Also male teachers are educated and qualified than female teachers which makes 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 experts at all level of educational institutions including secondary school principals, supervisors and other administrative bodies (ESDP-V report, 2012). It was observed earlier that educational leadership is dominated by men even in areas where women form the majority of the teaching staff and more qualified than the men. For instance, females have been observed to be powerfully taken up with family household tasks, with little chance of being educated or involving in decision-making, and some women are more willing to be housewives (MoE, 2010).

The Ethiopian government has authorized a number of legal documents aimed at reducing discrimination against women. One such document is the Gender Equality which was put into effect. (United Nations, 2007). The government approved the National Plan of Action on Education for All (NPAEA), which aims at achieving gender equality in education by 2015. The national goal of the strategy is to improve females' quality of material and spiritual life, as well as establishing the conditions necessary for women to enjoy their fundamental rights, and fully and equally involve in and benefit from all aspects of politics, economy, culture and social areas (United Nations, 2007).

According to National Plan of Action on Education for All (NPAEA), Numbers of Secondary School Principals and Vice Principals in Oromia Region, 2011 E.C.(2018/19) 2386 from this number Male 2291, Female only 95 (4.1%) . In order to bridge the gap of accessing up-to-date information/data for policy makers, planners and researchers, different Development Partners supporting the country in developing Preliminary Gender Profile to assess the situation of females and gender equality in Ethiopia and to consequently identify key areas of a comprehensive gender profile that will be disaggregated by regions. Such kind of Gender Profile assessment will help the Government to empower females in bringing them to leadership and filling the gap of gender equality. (Ministry of Education, 2020:79)

One of the specific objectives of the strategy is the Ethiopian government's commitment to increase the number of females in leadership positions at all levels and in all education sectors. However, the plan has not been fully implemented to upgrade women top levels of management and educational leadership positions. Within the wider Ethiopian culture and Africa in general, people tend to perceive men as being competent, skillful, aggressive and able to get things done; and thus assign leadership to men, while women are observed as warm, expressive, quiet, gentle and lacking confidence (UNICEF, 1990; Tanye, 2008). Resultantly, most Ethiopian women are largely considered to be suitable for the role of housewives, meant to take charge of domestic duties and hence, given less opportunities to exercise leadership skills in the work place. While schools provide a fertile training ground for society's future leaders, as such school leadership practices should be reflective, responsive and sensitive to that challenge.

This may involve advocating for the valuing of diversity of leadership styles (Rosener, 1990), a feature that may support and nurture women leadership in schools. The inequality is especially stark in administration and management sphere. As rightly argued by Blackmore and Kenway (1993) in Ashibir (2014) administration and policy-making in education have been, and still are, the jurisdiction of men although women make up a large proportion of educational workers. This means that men administer or lead in education but women teach. The participation of women in development especially in developing countries is usually ignored and underestimated. They are in disadvantaged position in terms of participation. Moreover, Davies and Guna wardena (1992) pointed out that women in some communities are constrained by certain attitudes that regarded them as inferior and being suited only to housekeeping, child rearing, cooking and serving their husband. Like the case in many other countries, FDRE (2004) reported that men and women have equal right to own or lead, although it has not been practically done.

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.(MoE,2012). Similarly, in Jimma Zone there are 2153male,531female and total 2684 secondary school teachers from which 19.5%arefemales (Annual Abstract statistics of Jimma Zone, 2012).moreover, all principals of103 secondary schools in Jimma zone are male, from 94 assistant principals 82 male, only12(12.7%) are female and all(24)secondary school supervisor 24(100%) are males. Generally, from 221secondary school principals, vice principals and secondary school supervisors only 12(5.7%) are female.

As a researcher believe that, females' participation to educational leadership position was not realized. The policies and guide lines with its implementation procedures could practically stand for inclusive leadership to participate female teachers in school leadership but practically oppose each other. The above plentiful researches gave more emphasis to women's participation in educational leadership. However, According to Jimma zone specially ruler area, secondary school leadership level had not been assessed.

For instance, Lemessa,(2014) in the same study conducted on factors affecting women participation in educational leadership in Jimma town primary schools also,Ashibir (2014) found out that the under-representation of women in educational leadership is even more visible in Majang Administrative Zone of Gambella People's National Regional State . For example, in his studies - he argued that the statistical data for the Zone Education Office of Gambella 2005 indicates that there is no woman leader in Zonal Education Office , no woman found to lead Woreda Education Office, his study is one of its kinds carried out on female participation in leadership of educational sector both at the higher leadership level such as at zonal and Woreda education and in primary school as well. Ashibir's studies focused on Zone, Woreda and in primary schools in Majanger Administrative zone.Thus, as the above facts indicate the problem of underrepresentation of females in school leadership in Jimma Zone Secondary schools worth stressing and male dominated leadership. To the knowledge of the researcher, no research has so far been conducted in this area of interest especially in secondary schools of Jimma zone. Because majority of studies focused on factors affecting the participation of women's leaders in primary schools also not assess or conducted in rural area. Hence, that is why the researcher is interested to conduct to fill a research gap in the practices and challenges of low females' teachers' participation in school leadership in Secondary schools of Jimma Zone. Based on these issues raised, the researcher had presented the following research questions below.

- 1.What is the current practice of female teacher's participation in secondary school leadership in Secondary schools of Jimma zone ?
- 2.What are the major organizational, personal and socio-cultural challenges that hinder female teachers' participation in school leadership position in secondary schools of Jimma zone?
- 3.To what extent do female teachers aspire to participate in school leadership position in Secondary schools of Jimma zone?
4. What strategies can motivate females to come to the school leadership position in secondary schools of Jimma zone?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

This study is to assess the current secondary school leadership practices and major challenges of female teachers' participation in Secondary schools of Jimma Zone.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

With regard to the specific objectives, the research attempts:

- To identify the situational practices and challenges that affect female teachers' participation in school leadership positioning in Secondary schools of Jimma zone.
- To identify the major organizational, personal and socio-cultural challenges that hinder female teachers' participation in Secondary schools of Jimma zone.
- To assess the aspiration of females 'involvement in Secondary schools leadership position of Jimma zone.
- To examine what strategies are motivate female teachers' participation in school leadership in Secondary schools of Jimma zone.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study has both theoretical and practical dimension. Theoretically, to fill research and knowledge gap on creating awareness among different level of educational organizations and their stakeholders about the importance of involving female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership, particularly to the context of Jimma zone. It is also enhance the beneficiaries (female teachers) to have an insightful understanding as well as to bring about change of attitudes in the society. Also, it may serves as a base for other scholars who would like to conduct further study on this issue. Practically, it is also help the Woreda and zone education office to take corrective measures.

It will further attempt to generate possible evidence based recommendations and this will help the entire communities of Jimma zone and other partners to draw a policy concerning how female teachers shall be participate in school leadership such as,(principals, vice principals, supervisors’, unit leaders, department heads and clubs) to equally assume the leadership with men.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

Though the researcher believes to conduct the research in all parts of Oromia regional state .Thus to make it manageable, the study is delimited to Jimma Zone, mainly in eight woredas that includes eight government secondary schools (9 – 10 and 9 – 12) which were found in Manna , Sakka ,Omo Nadda , Sakoru,Gomma,Agaro,Limmu Gannet and Limmu Sakka woredas of jimma zone. it was delimited to practices and challenges of female teachers’ participation in school leadership in Secondary schools of Jimma Zone. To this end, an attempt was made to study the current practice of female teachers’ to involve in secondary school leadership position, major organizational , personal and socio-cultural factors that affect female teachers’ participation in secondary school leadership of Jimma zone in line to these, traditional outlooks that hinder their participation, the pressure of home responsibility and the perceptions that hinder their participation in secondary school leadership, strategies and procedures for recruitment and its implementation discriminatory or not are a major focus of the study.

1.6 Limitation of the Study

Whatever research may be conducted, the researcher encounters a number of limitations in his study. For this study, the researcher encountered certain problems which are considered as a limitation of the study. Among other things some school principal, did not show willingness to give information and become halfhearted to deliver right information. How ever, the researcher solved the problem in designing several strategies. The researcher reacted with officials wherever the environment is conducive for the respondents. As far as the organization of the fragmented information is concerned, the researcher took the advice of senior researcher as an input to minimize limitations and effectively utilized time for the research.

1.7. Operational Definitions

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

- **Aspiration:-** ambition of an individual, in educational usage usually seen as academic, social, occupational, and concerned with performance, prestige and status.(Jon Mertz August ,2015) .
- **Educational leaders:-**the term educational leaders‘ under this paper used to represent the individuals who are in leadership positions of school, school principals, supervisors, department heads, Unit leaders and clubs heads.
- **Participation:-** the act of sharing in the school activities of a group, the condition Share in common with others (followers or partner....etc).
- **Practice:** The application of knowledge to effect change in teaching and learning process.

1.8. Organization of the Study

The paper has preliminary parts such as table of content, list of tables, acronyms, acknowledgment and abstract. The rest of the thesis paper was presents background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, limitation, delimitation and organization of the study. ,conceptual and empirical literature reviews, research design and methodologies of the study., 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 responds in a share 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 behavior 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 follower

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.

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 argentic 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, favoritisms 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 behaviors 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 behavior, has also been criticized for showing emotion, such as during the 2008 New Hampshire primary when she tired 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 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 behaviors than transactional leadership behaviors. However, women leaders were rated to exhibit significantly more transformational behaviors than men leaders and men leaders were rated to exhibit significantly more transactional behaviors than women leaders. The researcher also added that in all-female contexts, women leaders ‘exhibit feminine styles of 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, &-niam, 1996, cited in Eagly and Carli, 2003).

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 and centric philosophy has prejudiced and disadvantaged women who endeavored 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 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 behavior's. 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.

2.5.1. Females and Leadership

Good school administration is more attuned to feminine than masculine modes of leadership behavior. 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). 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) labeled 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.

No matter how the leadership behaviors 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 behaviors 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).

2.6. Female's Qualities

The research and literature cited to this point in this review confirm that females have long been denied their rightful place in administrative positions. If Females 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 Females 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 Shake shaft 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 favored autocratic "bossing" style, but rather by inspiring and empowering people to find solutions to problems. 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. Shake shaft (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, 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 behavior 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 behavior: aggression, influence ability, dominance, nurturance, empathy, and altruism. These particular behavioral 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 behaviors, 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 evidence for such dramatic distinctions in many areas of social behavior. 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 behavior are found, but the range of behaviors studies has been small. Gender differences in altruism seem to depend on the circumstances (Bem, 1993).

2.7. Gender Differences in Social Behavior

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 behavior 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 behavior: aggression, influence ability, dominance, nurturance, empathy, and altruism. These particular behavioral 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.

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2.8. Female in Educational Leadership in the Developing Countries

The literature on female 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 females 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).

As identified by Drake & Owen (1998), in developing countries, female 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 females that family values and traditions are transmitted and maintained. Advancements in the condition of females 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 these with most experience at the previous rung of the promotion ladder...this strategy enabled females to rise through the ranks (Drake & Owen, 1998: 3).

In Uganda, similar strategies were used Brown & Ralph (1996). One such strategy was the sensitization programmed which aimed to increase the number of girls and women in education(Brown & Ralph, 1996). This programmer run at local level and is aimed at demonstrating to parents the benefits of educating their girl children as well as body. 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 reason out lined for this slow progress is a lack of financial and human resources, and hoc planning and policy development and difficulties in data collection (Starchan, 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.

2.9. 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. Defector 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).Although both women and men have always worked, the traditional division of labor 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).

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).

2.10. 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 behaviors that are consistent with the female gender role's demand for supportive, considerate behaviors. 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.

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

2.12. Affirmative action, Quotas and Targets

Affirmative action (AA) is a change intervention promoted in equity driven political agendas. Programmed include organizational 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. participatory style of communicating and decision making leads to a greater sense of community and inclusiveness. Shake shaft (1989) further explains that females' 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, tech ght 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 behavior 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 behavior: aggression, influence ability, dominance, nurturance, empathy, and altruism. These particular behavioral 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 behaviors, 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 evidence for such dramatic distinctions in many areas of social behavior. 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 behavior are found, but the range of behaviors studied has been small. Gender differences in altruism seem to depend on the circumstances (Bem, 1993).

2.13. Major Factors for Low female's 'teachers Participation in school Leadership

In this section, several research studies confirm with the factors for low participation of females 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.

2.13.1. 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).

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 females 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 female's upward climb in the career ladder (Wood, 1994).

Berman (1999) opined that Organizational structures especially job assignment are designed to prevent females from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for career advancement of females 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 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).

2.13.1.1. Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination

In the opinion of Morgan, King and Robinson (1981:467) discrimination, refers to the behavior of treating a person or group in an unfavorable or unfair way. Naturally, unfairness 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 sexual category, are often the ones most likely not to react when discriminated against for fear of being harmed or further mistreated. Putting the issue of women bias into context, Ouston (1993:5) says that men are still the prime barrier to women in management. Despite some progress, old fashioned chauvinist 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 organizations 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.

Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000) described organizational contexts in which men used intimidation and silence to discourage women. Intimidating tactics and behaviors 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.

2.13.1.2. 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. Kamler and Shake shaft (1999) supported these findings, pointing out the existence of the myth that women are too emotional and can't see things rationally so that affects their decision making(p. 56). Chrisman (2003) indicated that there exists a societal climate of expectation for women who hold administrative positions. Perhaps due to this expectation, a more difficult socialization process into the profession occurs with women as opposed to men. Carr (1995), Reese (1993), and Chrisman (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).

2.13.1.3. 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 behavior: When women exhibit what, in a man, would be judged as leadership behaviors, 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 networks of advice and contacts. This reinforces Ehrlich (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 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 principal ship 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. 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.

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). 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 favors 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.

2.13.2. Individual and Societal Factors as Barriers for Females' Advancement to School Leadership

Shake shaft (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.

2.13.2.1. Poor Self-Image or Lack of self 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 (Shake shaft, 1989). Research reported by Shake shaft (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 (Shake shaft, 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).

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 principal ship 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.

2.13.2.2. 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.

Hewitt (1989) Personal and family impacts 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.

2.13.2.3. 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).

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 spoused 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).

Culturally, the Ethiopian society is most limiting world religion.. It portrays women as inferior to men and the division of labor 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.

2.14. Overcoming the Factors for Low Female teachers' Participation in School Leadership

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 females. Hopefully, the trend of increased enrolment in graduate programs by female will begins to have an effect on the serious under-representation of female in leadership. It is important to remember, however, that to date the results have not been that encouraging Holt (1991). A more formal way to decrease the barriers facing female seeking advancement in school leadership is through employment equity programs or affirmative action 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 females. 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, 1998).

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 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 (NFSP:55)l.

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:7and 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 create 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 sends 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

According to Laliftu,(2014) stated Trends of Female Teachers Participation in Educational Leadership throughout the educational system the females' involvement in educational leadership positions at secondary schools was negligible. This finding supports the above as the same as Trends of Female Teachers Participation in school leadership throughout the educational system for the last five years (2008-2012E.C)the females' involvement in educational leadership positions at secondary schools of Jimma Zone decreasing from higher leadership position towards lower leadership position. The female teacher's participation in every aspect of leadership position it seems to show currently at 5.1%.

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 school administration in Ethiopia.

However, based on literatures review, the policy is not implemented; also different barriers have hindered women's participation to school leadership positions. Moreover, through my experience and knowledge these studies indicate that challenges to personal, organizational, and socio-cultural factors which can be resulting to poor participation in school leadership. So, in Jimma zone now a day low participation of female teachers in school leadership in secondary schools critical issue especially in rural area of Jimma Zone.

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, Validity and Reliability Checks, Procedures of Data Collection, Methods of Data Analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1. Research Design

The purpose of the study was to assess the practices and challenges that affect female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership in Jimma zone. The descriptive survey design was employed in the study. This design was selected because it is helpful to show situations as they currently exist (Gay, 2000) since it enables to describe the existing situations both quantitatively as well as qualitatively which eventually help draw valid general conclusion.

3.2. Research Method

The method employed in this research is both quantitative and qualitative research method. Since the research is descriptive, 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 is 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 within a study.

3.3 Sources of Data

In order to secure sufficient and relevant information, the researcher was use two sources of data: primary and secondary sources.

3.3.1 The primary sources

Of data were collect from parent teacher association, school board, Supervisors, principals and teachers of secondary schools, Woreda and Zonal education officials. The decision to use these subjects as a source of primary data is based on the expectation that they have better information on the practices and challenges of female teachers' participation in school leadership in secondary schools.

3.3.2 The secondary sources

The secondary sources of data were used to strengthen the primary sources. These include unpublished documents from schools, policy documents and annual statistical abstract from the Zone Education Department and Woreda Education Officers. Such documents were used during data collection to examine with review of the literature as well as whether government policies in relation to affirmative action were implemented.

3.4. Population, sample and sampling technique

3.4.1. 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 were teachers in 103 secondary schools of Jimma Zone; specifically, principals vice principal, Secondary school supervisors ,head of Parent teachers association and school board , 21 head of woreda education officials and 4 Zonal education department officials.

3.4.2. Sample and Sampling Technique

The main purpose of this research is to assess the practices and challenges of female teachers' participation in secondary schools in school leadership in Jimma Zone. For the case of this study, both probability and non-probability sampling technique is used to obtain the representative sample units for this research. The target populations in this research were teachers, principals, supervisors in secondary schools of Jimma zone, Woreda and zone education officers. The sample of the study was selected based on their geographical location selects 2woredas from eachcluster: Manna& Sakka, Omonadda & Sakoru, Gomma & Agaro, Limmugannet & Limmu sakkares reactively by lottery method of simple random sampling technique 8 Worad as were selected. Then, the researcher selects 1(one) school from each woreda, totally 8schools was selected. The total populations of teachers in the sample schools were 337. According to Gay (1981), to take the acceptance sample size for descriptive research sample of 10% of the population is considered

minimum and for a small population 20% may be required. Due to this to determine the sample size of teachers from the total target populations (337) of 8 sample schools, the researcher selected (50%) teachers as representative for this study were taken by simple random sampling technique. The number of teachers in each school varied due to the number of students as well as the 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 number of secondary school for the study, the following stratified formula of William (1977) was utilized.

$$n_h = \frac{N_h n}{N}$$

where, n_h = sample size of school h

N_h = population of school h

n = total sample size (168)

N = total population of sampled schools(337)

Based on the above stratified formula, sample size of teachers in each secondary school would be computed. Therefore the subjects of the study include 168 teachers,8 principal and vice principal), 8supervisor, 8WEO head,4 ZEO Officials, 8school board and parent teachers association. Generally, a total of 204 respondents were selected and took part in this study. (For details see table 1 below)The principals, supervisors, Zonal education officials and school board and parent teachers association were selected for interview.

The Population, Sampling and Sampling Technique are presented as follows as indicated in table

Table1:Summary of Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques

No	Name of school & types of respondents	Population size		Sample size	%	Sampling techniques	Instrument of data collection
		M	F				
1	Yebbu 2 ^{ary} school teachers	23	11	17	50	By Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
2	Sekka2 ^{ary} school teachers	16	12	14	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
3	Gembe2 ^{ary} school teachers	21	13	17	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
4	Agaro2 ^{ary} school teachers	26	17	16	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
5	Asendabo2 ^{ary} school teachers	48	15	31	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
6	Sakoru2 ^{ary} school teachers	31	15	23	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
7	LimmuGannat2 ^{ary} school teachers	41	31	36	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
8	Atinago2 ^{ary} school teachers	24	3	14	50	Simple random sampling techniques (lottery method)	Questionnaire
9	Zone Education Depa.Officials	4		4	100	availability sampling	Semi structured Interview
10	Head of Woreda Education Office	8		8	100	availability sampling	Interview
11	School Principals	8		8	100	availability sampling	Interview
12	Sch.Vice principals	8		8	100	availability sampling	Interview
13	Supervisors	8		8	100	availability sampling	Interview
14	PTsA head	8		8	100	availability sampling	Interview
15	Schoolboard head	8		8	100	availability sampling	SemistrucluredInterview
	Total	373		204	53 %		

As shown in the Table above, from the teachers' population, 168 teachers (50%) from all schools were selected randomly as a sample. Regarding, the principals, supervisors, Jimma Zone education office officials, head of Woreda education, Heads, PTSA and all of them (100%) were included to the samples for this study

3.5. Data Gathering Tools.

As indicated earlier, the objectives and basic questions of this study required the use of both quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, The researcher used questionnaires as instrument of data collection from 168 teachers out of which 37 were female and 131 were male teachers. In addition semi-structured interviews were also used as instrument of data collection from principals, Supervisors, head of school board and parent teachers association, Head of woreda education office and Zonal Education officials and document review is also used as instrument of data collection.

3.5.1. Questionnaire

To gather primary data for the study, questionnaire was developed based on review of the literatures. 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 expanse and high proportion of usable response (Best &Kahn, 2003).

The questionnaire prepared for secondary school teachers which has 40 items. They contained six parts designed to address the variables of the study that relate the specific objectives of the study.. The first part is about background information of the male and female teacher respondents...The second part of the questionnaire contain 4 items on the current practice of females participation in school leadership positions,

Part III contains about personal, organizational and socio-cultural factors for low females participation in school leadership has 22 items, Part IV females aspiration to hold school leadership contains with 6 items and each items was prepared in the form of five Likert type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree as well as Part V “yes “or “no” regarding to implementation of strategies contains 5 item. The last part is (VI) opinion /suggestion all about the above major factors for low female teachers participation open-ended contains 3 fill and sub question help to measure the level of conformity of the respondents.

3.5.2 Interview

Besides questionnaire, semi- structured interview were prepared by the researcher. Thus, interview guide (a written list of questions consists of 8 items, with key informants were 8 principals, 8 supervisors, 12 head of zone and woreda education office, 8 school board and parent teachers association 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. Interview have been described by Cantrell (1993) as allowing the researcher to gather descriptive data in the subject’s own words and to access the unobservable; to walk in the head, so to speak. She further described them as the backbone of qualitative research. Sherman and Webb (1988) said that in- depth interviews of the participants led meaning to their observed experiences. The interview was conducted in English and translated to Afan Oromo through taking hand writing notes. It was informal to allow collection of more realistic information concerning factors affecting the participation of female teachers in school leadership in Secondary schools of Jimma zone. Each in the selected schools was interviewed for maximum twenty minute.

3.5.3. Document Review

These include, education and training policy documents, annual statistical abstract from the Zone and Woreda Education Offices and unpublished documents from schools for the last five years were used as secondary source of data were provide a supporting role to quantitative items. Especially, for question item 1(current practice of female teachers participation in school leadership position). data of each school studied were collected and compiled to calculate the proportion of woman in leadership as compared to men.

3.6. 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 Serbo 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 2 items and complete removal and replacement of 4 unclear questions were done.

Additionally, the reliability of the instrument was measured by using Cronbach alpha method with help of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Based on the reliability coefficient (alpha) the average of the reliability result was found to be (0.883) which implies that respondents were able to understand to fill the questionnaires so. it was reliable. That is the instrument generally found to be internally consistent as statistical literature recommended a test result of 0.70-0.90 is reliable (Tavakol, 2011). To this end, 32 item questionnaires were distributed to teachers of secondary school.

3.7. 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 Serbo Secondary Schools to pre-test for 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 her 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 were closely assist and supervise them to solve any confusion regarding to the instrument. also, interview were conducted after the participants' individual consent were obtained. During the process of interview the researcher were attempt to select free and calm environment to lessen communication barriers that disturb the interviewing process. Finally, the questionnaires were collected and make it ready for data analysis.

3.8. Methods of Data Analysis and interpretation.

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 close-ended questionnaire was entered into the computer using statistical package for social science (SPSS) computer programs and quantitatively analyzed by using descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean and independent sample t-test was also applied to test whether there was any significant difference between in the response of male and female teachers at the critical t-value $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. Thus, the frequency and percentage were used to analyze various characteristics of the sample respondents and derived from the data 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 The data collected from the semi- structured interview, the open ended and closed ended questionnaires and document review were analyzed and interpreted qualitatively. The hand written notes during interview was transcribed and compiled in to themes to triangulate research findings derived from the literature review and primary sources, as well as to strengthen the primary data. Finally, conclusions were drawn from the major findings and possible recommendations were suggested for solutions.

3.9. 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, ethical considerations were taken care of during the study.

Voluntary participation of respondents was encouraged. Responding to interviews and filling in 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 were framed in a manner that is not offensive and disturb their personality. They were 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 requesting the respondents' cooperation to provide the required information for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

That means data obtained through the close-ended questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively while those obtained through open-ended questionnaire, semi-structure interviews and document analysis were analyzed qualitatively.. This tools were used to triangulate the consistencies and variations of the result obtained. Thus a total of 168 questionnaires were distributed to the selected secondary school teachers. Unfortunately, only 162 (96.43%) 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 36 interview respondents (four Zonal education department officials, eight heads of WEO ,eight school supervisor, eight secondary school principals and vice principals, eight school board and PTSA heads) and 32 (95.2%) have properly participated and gave the required information on the issue under investigation. In general, 95.8% 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. Accordingly, the overall results of the issue investigated as well as respondents 'personal background or profiles were clearly presented below.

4.1. Characteristics of Respondents

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

Table 2: Characteristics Of The Respondents

No	Variable	Category	Total Respondents																	
			Teachers		ZEO		WEO		Supervi		Princip		V.Pri		Sch.bo		PTsA		Total	
			Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%	Fr	%
1,	Gender	Male	125	77.2	1	50	8	100	6	100	4	100	3	75	3	75	3	75	153	78.9
		Female	37	22.8	1	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	25	1	25	1	25	41	21.1
2.	Marital status	Married	95	58.6	-	-	8	100	6	100	4	100	4	10	4	100	4	100	125	78.4
		Unmarried	67	41.4	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	69	35.6
3.	No of Children	No child	33	20.4	-	-	2	25	1	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	25	37	19.1
		1-3 Child	104	64.2	1	50	4	50	5	82	2	50	2	50	2	50	1	25	121	62.4
		above3	25	15.4	1	50	2	25	-	-	2	50	2	50	2	50	2	50	36	18.5
4.	Qualification	Dipiloma	107	66.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	107	55.2
		Digiri	47	29.0	1	50	4	50	1	18	1	25	2	50	3	75	1	25	60	30.9
		MA	8	4.9	1	50	4	50	5	82	3	75	2	50	1	25	-	-	23	11.9
5.	Field of Study	Natural Sc	94	58.0	-	-	1	13	2	36	1	25	1	25	-	-	-	-	99	51
		Social Sc	68	42.0	2	100	7	87	4	75	3	75	3	75	4	100	1	25	92	47.4
6.	Experience	1-10 yrs	92	56.8	-	-	2	25	1	18	1	25	1	25	1	25	-	-	98	50.5
		11-20 yrs	63	38.95	1	50	4	50	3	50	2	50	2	50	1	25	1	25	77	39.7
		above 21 yrs	7	4.3	1	50	2	25	2	36	1	25	1	25	2	50	-	-	16	8.3
	Total																	194	95.1	

Regarding sex of the respondents, Item 1 of Table 2, indicates that 41 (21.1%) were females where as 153 (79%) were males. This indicates that there is less number of females at secondary schools in comparison to males. However, this number is adequate for female teachers to be involved in School leadership positions .Gender inequality is clearly seen here as their number in leadership position even from the presented number is much fewer when compared to males. Vice principal X while responding to interview, revealed the presence of a chance of separate quota for females to compete among themselves and with an additional chance to compete with male competitors to promote the participation in school leadership. But 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).The finding is supported by Rosen (1989), men perceived as efficient, competent and successful while women are perceived as inadequate, incompetent and inefficient in leadership activities by society, Due to this problem their current participation seems to be affected.

With respect to marital status, Item 2 of Table 2,125(78.4%) of the respondents were married while 69(35.6%) of them were unmarried. Whether or not, having children and family responsibility could have significant impact on their aspiration to assume school leadership. Item 3 of Table 3, 121(62.4%) had 1-3 children whereas36 (18.5%) had above 3 children. In line with this one of the interviewees respondents suggested that “female teachers face many challenges starting from family and home responsibilities related duty to external community, bad perception of society that dominate female (female for house hold duty & care givers for her child, for her husband and related family) as a cause of underrepresentation for leadership position.

More over as one of the interviewees explained, the domination of men over women is yet prevailing specially in the leadership positions. In this respect, the interviewee argued that cultural perceptions that says “ a women is less than men embodied in our culture affect their exposure to the public sector “. In addition, home responsibilities such as child care and other routine house works are not culturally shared by males. Most husbands do not want their wife to be a leader. They complain their wives as if not paying attention to their family”.

This may imply that men are assumed to be the rightful leader and this system of male domination and supremacy may affect female teachers participation in school leadership position. Regarding the qualification of the respondents, 107(55.2%),60(31%), and 23 (12%) are qualified in diploma, first degree and second degree respectively. From this we can see that majority of female teachers were graduated with diploma and first degree respectively. This shows that most of the teachers at secondary schools are not capable of competing for top school leadership positions. However, Women principals placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation(Allan, 2004). Hence, lack of qualification is not the matter for the females under representation in school leadership positions. On the other hand, Education and training policy (ETP: 1994) states that the financial support given for women as a mechanism or strategy to build their capacity through training. Particularly, article (3.9.5:32) stated that the government will give financial support to raise the participation of women in Education and training policy is very general with promising statement as the strategy. The emphasis given by Ethiopian education and Training Policy (1994) to support women financially have its own implication. As Shake shaft (1985) stated women, more than men, referred to lack of finances as a reason for being un able to continue administrative training. It can be noted that women have tended to sacrifice financially for their families and, therefore, cut short their educational opportunities.

One interview wee lea driveled that females are reluctant to accept responsibility of school leadership and females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience, due to this female have less involvement in top to down educational leadership position than males. As it can be seen in Item of 5 of the Table3, 99 (51%) and 92(47.4%) of the respondents are graduated in natural science and social science respectively. From this we can see that respondents were from different discipline which may have effect on their aspiration. Moreover, item 6 , indicate that 98(50.5%),77(39.7%) and 16(8.3%) of the respondents have 1-10, 11-20 and >20) service(experience) years in their profession respectively. This reveals that the majority of the respondents were experienced who are expected to be active participants in all spheres of leadership positions. But not as expected still females are underrepresented.

4.2. Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of The main Data

To examine female's participation in educational leadership four major items were considered into table and respondents were asked to rate the current practice(challenges) level by a five liker point scale (i.e Agree (SA)=5, Agree(A)=4, Undecided(UN)=3 disagree(D)=2 and strongly Agree(SA)=1 For the purpose of analysis, the obtained mean scores were interpreted as follows. If the mean value is <2.49 = 'Low effect', 2.50-3.49 = 'Moderate effect', and if >3.50= 'High effect'

4.2.1 The current practice of female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership position

This part of the research question presented to the respondents were items related for identification of the practice of female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership position specifically the number of females teachers at what position their participation was affected ,(the balance of female with male) in school leadership. Thus, the subsequent Table 4 with the qualitative data acquired discusses the results.

Table 3: The current practice of female teachers' participation in school leadership position

NO	Items	SD	D	UN	A	SA	Independent t-test					
							se x	N	M	SD	T-V	P-V
1	Leadership is more appropriate to male than females	F					M	125	3.5	1.18	-	-
		R	46	29	63	14	10	F	37	3.68		
	% 29.4	17.9	38,9	8.60	6.20							
2	Females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position(club heads department and unit leader)	F					M	125	2.69	1.38	0.05	0.96
		R	20	33	26	42	41	F	37	2.68		
	% 12.3	20.4	16	25.9	25.3							
3	High number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position	F					M	125	2.58	1.31	-	0.63
		R	15	34	26	47	40	F	37	2.70		
	% 9.3	21	16	29	24.7							
4	Both males and females teachers equally participate in school leadership position	F					M	125	3.53	1.20	0.31	0.76
		R	42	48	40	23	9	F	37	3.46		
	% 25.9	29,6	24.7	14.2	5.6							

<2.49= Below Average, 2.50-3.49 = Average, >3.50= Above Average . The mean difference is significant at $\alpha=0.05$ level.

With regards to response Item 1 of Table 3 respondents rated the idea that leadership is more appropriate to male than females. The mean score of responses was ($M=3.5$) with standard deviation of ($SD=1.12$), which are in the scope of above average level. This reveals that the participation of females in school leadership was still minorities which coincide with of the finding of (Hart, 1995) because of traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as social incongruent as a leader. Thus, the individual mean score of responses was 3.5, male whereas the female respondents possess 3.68 with standard deviation of ($SD=1.18, 1.13$), respectively. This reflects that both male and female teachers rated the issue as 'high level'. This means that both group disagreed but, more females disagreed with the idea that leadership is more appropriate to male than females.

In addition to this the researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents. As a result, the test result was ($t=-0.84$, $p=-.040$). The p-value 0.40 is greater than alpha value (0.05) that implies there is no existence of statistically significant difference between the two groups disagreement between male and female teachers. This indicates that, there is no significant difference in the response of male and females. The t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. Moreover, The interviewee further remarked that, 'female assume that the system keeps women at the margin of school leadership'. Furthermore, The interviewee pointed out that, "not all female teachers are interested to take up leadership position, and most even feel comfortable in the lower ranks".

As Item 2 of Table 3, the respondent replied that females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower (unit leader, department heads and club heads in the school). The mean score of responses was ($M=2.69$) and with standard deviation of ($SD=1.38$).

By supporting this the compared mean of male (2.69) and female (2.68) and with standard deviation of ($SD=1.38, 1.38$) similarly both respondents agreed with the issue of the item. The t-test value of this item also indicated at 0.05 level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=.05$, $p=.96$). This reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups of respondents.

This indicates that, even though both groups of respondents have rating the issue moderate level of agreement to the item. In other words, both groups agreed that females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower (unit leader, department heads and club heads in the school). were as a moderately affect the participation of female to school leadership which could be arisen for current low level of female teachers' participation in school leadership position.

The finding is supported by Rosen (1989) there is lack of female role models in educational leadership positions that would encourage female teachers to aspire for posts. Similarly in item 3 of Table 3, respondents were asked to respond whether high number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position. The mean score of responses was ($M=2.64$) and with standard deviation of ($SD=1.32$). This indicates that, both groups of respondents have rating the issue moderate level of agreement to the item. The researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents ($M=2.58, 2.70$) male and female with standard deviation of ($SD=1.31, 1.33$) respectively.. As t-test value of item calculated the t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t= -0.48, p=0.63$). This reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups of respondents.

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 school 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.

With respect to item 4 of table 3, the respondents were rated The mean score of responses ($M=3.5$) and with standard deviation of ($SD=1.16$) disagreed level in the question they requested to answer whether both females and males equally participated in school leadership.

Thus, the mean value of male and female respondents on the item result is ($M=3.53, 3.46$) with standard deviation ($SD=1.2, 1.12$). To see whether there was significant difference or not between two groups of respondents the independent sample t-test was computed. The t-test result was greater than the critical t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=-.31, p=.76$). This means, both females and males do not equally participate in school leadership. This reflects that male teachers rated it as a 'high level' disagreement while female teachers rated the issue as 'Moderate level'. Interviewee 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 overburdened 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 school 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.

The researcher believes that this would happen because the current practice in the school leadership shows that it is already male-dominated. Male teachers may benefit more than female teachers from every aspects of gaining chance.

Similarly, the data obtained by document analysis from the sample secondary school of the Zone revealed that the last five years teachers’ involvements in various leadership was decreasing from higher leadership position towards lower leadership position. To detail information see under the data gathered from eight selected sample schools of secondary school.

Table 4a: The past five years trends of Female Teachers’ Participation in secondary School Leadership.

Year	Frequency	School leadership position																				
		Club head ship			Department head ship			Unit leader ship			Vice principal ship			Principal ship			Super visor			Total		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
2008	Sex																					
	No.	39	9	48	40	-	40	16	-	16	23	1	24	16	-	16	8	-	8	142	10	152
	%	81.25	18.75	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	96.4	4	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	93.4	6.57	100
2009	No.	42	6	48	34	1	35	16	-	16	16	1	17	16	-	16	8	-	8	132	8	140
	%	87.5	12.5	100	97.3	3	100	100	-	100	94.6	6	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	94.3	5.7	100
201	No.		5	45	32	-	32	16	-	16	15	1	16	16	-	16	7	-	7	126	6	13

0	o.	40																			2	
	%	88.9	11.1	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	94	6	100	-	100	100	-	100	95.5	4.5	100	
2011	N o.	40	6	46	32	-	32	16	-	16	24	-	24	16	-	16	8	-	8	136	6	142
	%	86.9	13	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	95.8	4.2	100
2012	N o.	42	6	48	32	-	32	16	-	16	16	-	16	15	-	15	8	-	8	129	6	135
	%	87.5	12.5	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	95.6	4.4	100
Total	N o.	203	32	235	170	1	171	80	-	80	94	3	97	79	-	79	39	-	39	665	36	701
	%	86.4	13.6	100	99	1	100	100	-	100	97	3	100	100	-	100	100	-	100	94.8	5.1	100

As the above table indicates, throughout the school system for the last five years (2008-2012 EC) the female teachers' involvement in Secondary school leadership positions was negligible. For example, in 2008, 81.2% of the club headship, 100% of the department headship, 100% of the unit leadership, 96% of the vice principalship, 100% of the principalship and 100% of the Supervise positions were held by males. The data showed that only 18.2%, females were heading co-curricular clubs followed by 4% of who were vice principalship. Similarly, in the year 2009, 87.5% of the club coordinators, 97% of the department headship, 100% of the unit leadership 100% of the vice principalship and 100% of the principalship were male teachers whereas only (12.5%) of the club headship and department headship respectively were the female teachers. Generally, 94.3% of the positions were occupied by males, but only 5.7% of them were occupied by female teachers in this year. More, in 2010, 89% of the club coordinators, 100% of the department headship, 100% of the unit leaders, 94% of the vice principalship, 100% of the principalship and 100% of the supervisors were male teachers whereas only 11%, of the club headship, and (6%) vice principalship respectively were the female teachers. Generally, 95.5% of the positions were engaged by males, but only 4.5% of them were occupied by female teachers in this year.

Moreover, in the year 2011, 86.9% of the club coordinators, 100% of the department headship, 100% of the unit leadership, 100% of the vice principal ship, 100% of the principal ship and 100% of supervisors were male teachers whereas only 13% of the club headship, was the female teacher. In general, 96.8% of the positions were engaged by males, but only 4.2% of them were occupied by female teachers in 2011 year. Furthermore, in the year 2012, 87.5% of the club coordinators 100% of the department headship, 100% of the unit leadership, 100% of the vice principal ship, 100% of the principal ship and 100% of the supervisors were male teachers whereas only 12.5%, of the club headship, were the female teacher. Thus, 95.6% of the positions were engaged by males, but only 4.4% of position was occupied by female teachers in the year This means that, they are less assigned as department headship, unit leadership, vice principal ship and also in different committee in the schools that helps them as leadership experience. Therefore, one may concludes that lack of work experience affect the involvement of female teachers in School leadership. This finding is supported by Ouston (1993) and Abebayehu (1995) argue that women are less likely to be given the opportunity to take on informal leadership within the school than men. Depending on the table above 4, the summary results indicated bellow to understand the past five years trends of female teachers' Participation in secondary school leadership Throughout the educational system for the last five years (2008- 2012 EC)

Table 4b: Summary of The Leadership Postions in Secondary Schools of Jimma Zone

Gender	2008 E.C	2009 E.C	2010 E.C	2011 E.C	2012 E.C	2008-2012 E.C
Male	93.4%	94.3%	95.5%	96.8%	95.6%	94.9%
Female	6.6%	5.7%	4.5%	4.2%	4.4%	5.1%

The above summary results indicate, in 2008 E.C year ,93.4% of the secondary school leadership positions were occupied by male teachers whereas only 6.6% were female teachers. This means from 48 club coordinators only 9 of them are females. And from 24 vice principals only 1 of position was occupied by female teachers in the year. Similarly, in the year 2009, 2010 and 2011 the involvement of female teachers in school leadership it seems to show keeps female teachers at the margin of school leadership.

But in 2012 year females participation increase is insignificant or lower than at higher level of leadership positions, like leading principal than coordinating different clubs, It seems to show decreasing top to bottom level in each year. The rest leadership positions such as, supervisors, principal , department head and unit leadership in every sample secondary schools of Jimma zone leadership positions were engaged by male in the last five years. Generally, one can safely conclude that the female teachers' participation in school leadership positions at secondary schools was negligible in the last five years in the school leadership positions of Jimma Zone.

Concerning this, literature in the area substantiate that organizational structure especially job assignment are designed to prevent females from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for career participation of females to participate to the leadership position in school as organization. Organizational structure" steer way" females" potential for upward mobility by confining them to work roles that are considered to be "Females 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 Bergmann (1986:88). Also, according to Enomoto (2000:377), since men have traditionally dominated leadership position in all spheres, it follows that male gendered.

Regarding this, Holtkanm (2002) and Gidesn (2005) suggests 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. Similarly, the qualitative response from all respondents reflects similar views. However, the interviewee portray the reason why female teacher are reluctant to pursue school leadership is not because of the problem of lack of self-confidence but their too much home responsibility.

Table5: Organizational related factors that affect female teachers to participate in school leadership.

N O	Items	Independent t-test												
		SD	D	U N	A	SA	Sex	N	M	SD	T-V	S-V		
1	Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership	F	12	18	39	49	44	M	125	3.50	1.15	-	1.00	0.32
		R	7.4	11.1	26.2	28.2	27.2	F	37	3.73	1.41			
2	Assigning tasks and delegation of authority in school do not encourage female teachers to come to leadership position	F	10	15	35	51	51	M	125	3.58	1.19	-	1.05	0.30
		R	6.2	9.3	21.6	31.5	31.5	F	37	3.81	1.22			
3	Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership positions in the education system of the zone	F	8	14	39	56	45	M	125	3.62	1.11	-	0.63	0.53
		R	4.9	8.6	25.2	33.4	27.8	F	37	3.76	1.16			
4	Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leaders	F	9	21	50	40	42	M	125	3.47	1.19	-	1.10	0.28
		R	5.6	13	30.9	24.7	25.9	F	37	3.70	1.10			
5	Institutions/Schools/ leadership style attract females to participate in secondary school leadership	F	17	32	26	57	30	M	125	3.06	1.20	-	1.13	0.26
		R	10.5	19.8	16	35.2	18.5	F	37	3.32	1.31			
6	Lack of Females role models in educational Leadership affects their participation	F	25	23	37	39	38	M	125	3.22	1.31	-	0.74	0.46
		R	15.4	14.2	22.8	24.1	23.5	F	37	3.41	1.57			

Key:* $P > 0.05$

SD= Strongly Disagree, DA= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree
1-2= Below Average, 3= Average, 4- 5= Above Average

4.2.2. Organizational Factors that hinder Female Teacher's Participation in School

Leadership

The result of the item 1 in the above table 5, show that of respondents (male and female teachers) the mean score and standard deviation of this response were ($M=3.6$) and ($SD=1.28$) respectively. This implies that they agreed at average level with job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership.

In relation to this, the researcher compared the mean value of individual male (3.5) and female (3.7) respectively and its standard deviation is ($SD=1.15$ male and 1.41females) this means it has moderate effect on their participation.

Therefore, from the above finding it can be calculated job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership. The t-test result of this item was ($t=-1.00$ $p=0.32$) which above significance level. This means there is no difference in their response.

Supporting this, Roos and Reskin, (1994) Job recruitment and hiring practices used by employers often result in females being placed in jobs that have short or nonexistent job ladders. This is a serious of challenge that limiting females participation.

Item number 2 Table 5 the issue of female school leaders 'assigning and delegation and authority the respondents agreed to the idea that Assigning tasks and delegation of authority in school do not encourage female teachers to come to leadership position. Besides the responses of male and female respondents were compared with mean value, accordingly, both of the respondents agreed in the stated issue with mean value 3,38 and 3.8176with standard deviation of 1.19and1.22, respectively.

This shows that assigning tasks and delegation of authority in school do not encourage female teachers to come to leadership position it influence highly their participation. The t value -1.05) $p=0.30$ at $\alpha= .05$ level reveals that there is no significant difference among the two groups of respondents concerning the issue.

As the response given to Item 3 of the Table 5, respondents replied that in the education system of the zone, there was lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position. But, only 22 responded disagree to the question in saying that there is special support.

The mean score is 3.62 and 3.76 with standard deviation of 1.11 and 1.66, this indicates a 'major cause' which is in the high level affects female teachers' participation. The t-test (-63, $p=0.53$) which revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers. This indicates that a 'major cause' for limiting female teacher's participation

Supporting this, most of the interviewed female vice principal state as female teachers does not apply for managerial posts in the assumption. Moreover, they assume that the system keeps women at the margin of school leadership and some of the respondents also indicated that not all women teachers were interested to take up leadership position, most female teachers feels comfortable in the lower rank.

Item 4 of Table 5, related with gender bias during selecting school leader. In this regard, the respondents replied as higher officials make gender bias during selecting school leader. The mean score and standard deviation of this item were ($M= 3.4$) and (3.7) and with standard deviation of 1.19, 1.10. This shows that selection of female teachers for school leadership was bias. The t-test (-1.1, $p=0.28$) which revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers.

Data obtained from interview, whereas female teachers show low interest to leave teaching and join school leadership, this self-limiting response of female teachers may be the outcome of personal and socio-cultural factors. The finding that disclosed female's high conformity to stereotypes that identify them with teaching but not with school 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 motivation of female teachers are influenced by expectations presupposed to what a male and a female should be (Abebayehu, 1995). This finding was cognizant to the finding of (Hart, 1995) because of traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as social incongruent as a leader. 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.

The concern of Item 5 of Table 5 was whether institutional leadership style attracts females or not to participate in school leadership. The mean score is 3.06 and 3.02 and with standard deviation of 1.2,1.31 this indicates a 'major cause' which is in the high level affects female teachers' participation. The t-test $-1.13, p=0.26$) which revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers. This finding is supported by 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 behaviors may not be compatible with women's preferred ways of leading.

In relation to item 6, respondent were requested on lack of women role models in educational institutions The mean score is 3.22 and 3.41 and with standard deviation of 1.31,1.57 this indicates as 'major cause'. This means that lack of women role model was highly affect women' participation in school leadership. The t-test $-0.74, p=0.46$) which revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers. Therefore, one may conclude that lack of role model is one of the factors to women entry into and advancement in school leadership. Generally, average mean for all items in the table 6 which indicate that organizational factors are the major causes for female's low participation in school leadership.

Thus, one may conclude from the findings that, lack of females role models, lack of visibility, lack of mentors and support system and lack of commitment to apply affirmative actions are the major causes for female teacher's underrepresentation in school leadership in Jimma Zone.

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. The finding is supported by Shekeshaft(1989), lack of opportunity to see other female teachers in variety of administrative position, to hear how these women describe their lives, and to compare themselves with women just one step farther up the hierarchy have been sighted as reasons women have to move into administrative position in large number. 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).

Table 6: Personal Related Factors that Affect Female Teacher's Participation

NO	Items	SD	D	UN	A	S A	Independent T-test						
							S ex	N	M	SD	T-V	S-V	
1	Females are reluctant to accept responsibility	FR	18	19	27	50	48	M	125	3.46	1.35	-	0.05
		%	11.1	11.7	16.7	30.9	29.6	F	37	3.92	1.19		
2	Females can make strong decision and be committed to the organization and their careers	FR	26	29	37	39	31	M	125	3.10	1.33	0.34	0.74
		%	16	17.9	22.8	24.1	19.1	F	37	3.19	1.43		
3	Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience	FR	22	26	40	37	37	M	125	3.26	1.39	0.19	0.85
		%	13.6	16	24.7	22.8	22.8	F	37	3.22	1.18		
4	Females are better leaders than men	FR	18	18	40	45	41	M	125	3.42	1.31	0.08	0.94
		%	11.1	11.1	24.7	27.8	25.3	F	37	3.41	1.21		
5	Females have less involvement in socio-economic development than males	FR	17	22	31	47	45	M	125	3.45	1.29	-	0.36
		%	10.5	13.6	19.1	29	27.8	F	37	3.68	1.38		
6	Females have necessary skill to discipline student, supervise other adults and criticize constructively in secondary school	FR	12	23	48	40	39	M	125	3.36	1.23	-	0.13
		%	7.4	14.2	29.6	24.7	24.1	F	37	3.70	1.13		
7	females have capability to lead secondary school	FR	20	23	46	37	36	M	125	3.24	1.32	-	0.43
		%	12.3	14.2	28.4	22.8	22.2	F	37	3.43	1.24		

Key:*P>0.05

SD= Strongly Disagree, DA= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree
1-2= Below Average, 3= Average, 4- 5= Above Average

4.2.3 Personal Factors that Affect Female Teacher's Participation in School Leadership

This part of the analysis attempted to investigate personal related factor that prevent female teachers from assuming secondary school Leadership position. The majority of factors were listed, presented and rated by the respondents using the likert type scale; strongly Agree (SA)=5, Agree(A)=4, Undecided(UN)=3 disagree(D)=2 and strongly Agree(SA)=1

In responding to Item 1 of Table 6, The respondents agreed the mean score and standard deviation of this response were (M=3.69) and (SD=1.27) respectively. This indicates that females are reluctant to accept responsibility. The calculated individual mean scores of male and female teacher respondents are (M= 3.46 and 3.92) with standard deviation of (SD= 1.35,1.19) respectively. This indicates that a 'major cause' for limiting female teacher's participation in school leadership.

The t-test result was (t=-2.02, p=.05) which revealed as there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in their response.

This finding is supported by the finding of Coleman (2001) which states that for life, they are reluctant to progress to other positions. She further argued that women might not apply for a job, unless they truly believe they have all of the qualifications, whereas men might apply, even if they do not believe they have all of the qualifications. Similarly, Holtkanm (2002) and Gidesn (2005) suggest that females have been reluctant to pursue educational administration because of the fact that females have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life. To the contrary, one interviewee explained that the reason However, the interviewee portray the reason why female teacher are reluctant to pursue school leadership is not because of lack of self-confidence but their too much home responsibility. In addition, one other interviewee, with regard to women reluctance to accept school leadership, said,

"society views men to be superior to women in terms of leadership. Members of the society feel that men make better leaders than women. Therefore, where a leader is to be elected, people will prefer electing a man rather than a woman."

Item 2 of Table 6, the respondents were requested to reply how females can make strong decision and committed to the organization and their career. With regard to this, respondents showed that females can make strong decision and committed to the organization. The researcher compared the responses of male and female respondents. The mean score were (3.1 and 3.26) with standard deviation (SD=1.3 and 1.4) respectively. The calculated t-value was at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=.34$, $p=.74$). Interview respondents expressed that the fact that female are careful in planning and implementing school programs, not self-centered and give priority to their tasks to achieve the stated goal of the organization .

In addition to this, they are punctual have high tolerance ,never expose to corruption and administer the school in democratic way, so they have double responsibility ,through this confusion stressed and added conflict with family in school leadership position.

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 androcentric philosophy has biased and disadvantaged women who endeavored 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.

While responding to Item 3 of the Table 6, the respondents were replied that females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience. But 40 are not decided in this issue. The mean score (3.26,3.2) and standard deviation of this response were (SD=1.39,1.38)male and female teachers respectively. This implies that the confidence of females in their capabilities, qualification and experience was below average. The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the result was ($t=0.19$, $p=.85$) which show as there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers.

Therefore, one may conclude from the finding that female lack self-confidence have been among the challenge faced to participate on leadership position in educational institution. In relation to this, the result of the interview also revealed that females lack confidence in involving in leadership positions.

The female vice principal teacher 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. Regarding this, Kristiansen, 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 favored autocratic "bossing" style, but rather by inspiring and empowering people to find solutions to problems.

This finding is similar with Brown (2003) and Oplatka (2006) study, which describe that women do not apply to be principals, even when they are as well qualified as the male applicants, at least in part, because they have negative self-perceptions and lack confidence in their capabilities, qualifications and experience. Moreover, as the result of their socialization process and sex role stereotyping, majority of women lack self- confidence to be school leader (Pig ford & Tonson, 1993:11).

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 behaviors of women, Women principals were more concerned with helping deviant pupils.

In their reaction to Item 4 ,the respondents were agreed that females are better leader than males. The mean score this item was (M=3.42,3.41) with its standard deviation (SD=0.31,1.21), which are in the range average of effectiveness. The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=08, p=.94$) which reveals that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers. Davidson & Burke, (2000) and Mattis, (1994) support this finding since their finding revealed that women managers were creates greater job satisfaction in organization and they have able to implement flexible working hours than men.

With regarding to Item 5 of Table 6, respondents were agreed that females have less involvement in socio-economic development than males. The mean score value of this item is (3.45 ,3.68) and its standard deviation (SD=1.29,1.38). which are in the range average as a major cause for female teachers low participation.

The t-test value of the item also indicated at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and result was ($t=-0.93$, $p=.36$) which tell us as there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers. With substantiating this MOWA, (2006), stated that both culture and religion played major roles in limiting the positive roles that women could have played. They have been oppressed in many respects in their capacity as being women and lack of involvement in the male dominated socioeconomic infrastructures and as member of oppressed Class. With regard to the finding of Item 6 of Table 6, the respondent undecided but 79 agreed at the mean value of ($M=3.36$ and 3.70) with its standard deviation ($SD=1.23$ and $SD=1.13$), agreed that females have necessary skills to discipline students, supervise other adults and criticizes other constructively in their work place.

The calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. The t-test result was ($t=-1.52$, $p=.13$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers. This finding was supported by findings of Gross and Trask (1976) which suggests that women have capabilities and qualities of leadership that exhibit better technical skill in decision making and problem solving behaviors.

In Item 7 respondents were agreed that females have capability to lead secondary school. The individual mean score value of the item ($M= 3.24,3.43$) and its standard deviation ($SD=1.32$ and 1.24) respectively. As well the t-test value of the item is at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=-0.79$, $p=.43$). This implies that female teachers have capability to lead secondary school if they hold position. 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 behaviors of women, Thus, this indicates that consideration of females themselves to have low level of acceptance than male is one of the major factors hindering female's participation in school leadership which may be the result of the societal culture and attitudes.

Therefore, one may conclude from the finding that females under estimate their abilities due to the impact of culture. It reduces their ability to actively and effectively participate in decision making and to lead. This finding is again supported by the findings of Strachan et.al (2010) concluded that gender and culture are interwoven and reduce women participation in teaching area than leadership position.

Table7: Socio-cultural related factors affecting female teacher’s participation

No	Items	SD	D	UN	A	S A	Independent t-test						
							Sex	N	M	SD	T-V	S-V	
1	Female and male are socialized differently to assume different roles in our society	FR	17	27	34	49	35	M	125	3.24	1.32	-0.70	0.49
		%	10.5	16.7	21	30.2	21.6	F	37	3.43	1.24		
2	People have bad perception	FR	14	31	35	45	37	M	125	3.34	1.25	-0.49	0.63
		%	8.6	19.1	21.6	27.8	22.8	F	37	3.46	1.35		
3	The religion (cultural) ideology that dominates the culture, which affect 's females participatio	FR	18	24	34	42	44	M	125	3.36	1.35	-1.27	0.21
		%	11.1	14.8	21	25.9	27.2	F	37	3.38	1.23		
4	Some people still think that the decision-making power rests with the men in our society	FR	16	31	40	33	42	M	125	3.30	1.33	-0.52	0.60
		%	9.9	19.1	24.7	20.4	25.9	F	37	3.43	1.28		
5	Males feel more competent, capable and efficient in leadership than Female.	FR	15	24	42	38	43	M	125	3.41	1.33	-0.44	0.66
		%	9.3	14.8	25.9	23.5	26.5	F	37	3.51	1.10		
6	Female responsibilities in the family and home affect their participate	FR	13		2948	29	43	M	125	3.31	1.25	-1.08	0.28
		%	8	17.9	29.6	17.9	26.5	F	37	3.57	1.32		
7	Female role as mothers and care givers in the family affect their involvement in educ	FR	21	32	44	39	26	M	125	3.10	1.26	-0.17	0.87
		%	13	19.8	27.2	24.1	16	F	37	3.14	1.29		
8	Female are more responsible for household work or family related duties	FR	19	33	31	47	32	M	125	3.14	1.32	-1.86	0.05
		%	11.7	20.4	19.1	29	19.8	F	37	3.59	1.19		
9	Female lack of support from other family members in Jimma zone affects their active in evolvment in educ	FR	27	24	38	39	34	M	125	3.08	1.38	-1.77	0.08
		%	16.7	14.8	23.5	24.1	21	F	37	3.51	1.28		

Note: *P>0.05

Key: A= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree

<2.49 = 'Low effect', 2.50-3.49 = 'Moderate effect', and if >3.50= 'High effect'

4.2.4.Socio-Cultural Related Factors for Low Females' Participation in School Leadership

The predominant assumption in the society and school communities about women and their skill have been evidenced as determinant factor to female teacher's participation in educational leadership roles. In this section of the paper, an attempt is made to investigate whether societal factors such as assumptions and prejudice exists affect female's level of participation in school leadership roles. Therefore, the following table presents the major societal factors believed to have affected female teachers participation in educational leadership and the findings were discussed here under The mean difference is significant at $\alpha=.05$ level. As can be observed from the data in Table8, the responses to each item range from strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree and strongly agree regarding the socio- cultural factors that impede female teachers' participation in School leadership.

As the response to Item 1 of Table7,shows, that both groups of male and female respondents viewed that early socialization, where male and females were raised and socialized differently to assume different roles and expectations in the society was seen as one of the major social factors preventing female's entry into leadership roles. The individual mean scores of both groups were 3.43 and 3.24 with its standard deviation (SD=1.32 and SD=1.24), respectively rating the issue as a 'major cause'. The t-test revealed that the significance level ($p=.49$) is greater than 0.05, which shows that there is no statistically significant difference in perception between male and female teachers about the item. this indicates that, the respondent agreed that gender socialization affects female teacher's participation in secondary school leadership whereas some of the respondent expressed their disagreement, that gender socialization limit the entry of women to school leadership position and 34 respondents however, couldn't make decision. So, based on the responses of the majority one may conclude that gender socialization could be major factor that hinders female teacher's participation in secondary school leadership.

The supervisor who was 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. This finding is supported by Genet (1998), which revealed that females and males socialized differently to assume different role and expectations. In supporting the qualitative finding, one interviewee explained that, "In the culture of the community in general, females do not lead; are expected to follow rather which could lead to of lack of confidence which, in turn their aspiration to become leaders. As the socio- cultural factors are the sources of individual factors that contribute to females 'underrepresentation in general and in secondary school eldership in particular.

Item 2 on Table 7, respondents agreed that people think female teachers do not have the ability and skill to be a leader and some respondents disagreed that people perception on female lack of skill to lead. This is another misconception of society that considers female as lack of the ability and skill to be a leader. The individual mean scores of both groups were 3.34 and 3.46 with its standard deviation ($SD=1.25$ and $SD=1.35$), for male and female teachers respectively. This indicates the item rated as 'major cause' that hinders women's participation in educational leadership.

The t-test revealed that the significance level ($p=0.63$) this shows there is no statistically significance difference between male and female teachers views regarding women as lack of the ability and skill to be leader. Information obtained from the interview confirms the finding. For instance, one of the female principals said that "mostly our community said that 'women and children leads people to the cave' that reflects women do not have the ability to lead".

As indicated on item 3, respondents were asked to rate their views on the influence of religion (cultural ideology) adversely affect women from entering the leadership position. This factor ranked first with average mean score of 3.37 rating it as a 'major cause'. The individual mean scores of both groups of respondents were 3.36 and 3.38 with its standard deviation ($SD=1.35$ and $SD=1.23$), for male and female teachers respectively. The t-test revealed that the significance level ($p=21$) is greater than 0.05 this shows there is no significance difference piton between male and female teachers regarding ideology. One may conclude from the finding cultural ideology hinder female from seeking to leadership positions. Because, men are assumed to be the rightful leader and this system of male domination and supremacy affects female's self-confidence.

With substantiating this MOWA, (2006), stated that both culture and religion played major roles in limiting the positive roles that women could have played. They have been oppressed in many respects in their capacity as being women and lack of involvement in the male dominated socioeconomic infrastructures and as member of oppressed Class.

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. Data gathered through interview confirmed that the domination of men over women is yet prevailing specially in the leadership positions. In this respect, Meron (2003) argued that cultural perceptions that say a women is less than men embodied in our culture that affect their exposure to the public sector.

As indicated on Item 4 Table 7 the concept Some people still think that the decision-making power rests with the men in our society. Both respondent groups with their individual mean scores of 3.30 and 3.43, with its standard deviation (SD=1.33and SD=1.28),for male and female teachers respectively. rated the factor as a 'major factor' that some people still think that the decision making power rests with the men in our society.

The t-test revealed that the significance level ($p=.60$) greater than 0.05 this shows there is no significance difference between teachers and educational leaders views regarding the item.

In Item 5 respondent agreed that male feel more competent, capable and efficient in leadership hinder females participation in school leadership .Both respondent groups with their individual mean scores of 3.41 and 3.51, with its standard deviation (SD=1.33 and SD=1.1),for male and female teachers respectively. rated the factor as a 'major factor' disagreed that male feel more competent than females hinder the entry of female teachers to the position.

The finding is supported by Rosen (1989), men perceived as efficient, competent and successful while female are perceived as inadequate, incompetent and inefficient in leadership activities by society.

The items have average mean values above 3.41 and females 3.51 that rated socio cultural factor is major causes that hinder the participation of female. Therefore, one may conclude from the finding socio-cultural factor is one of the major causes which prevent females entry to the position due to gender socialization, ideology and society think that females are incompetent, inefficient and decision making power still reset with men. The findings of Onyangoet.al. (2011) and Shakeshaftet.al (2007) support the finding of the study.

As could be seen on item 6, respondents asked to rate family and home responsibility affect the participation of female teachers. In respect to this the respondent agreed that family and home responsibility affect the participation of female teachers to school leadership. The individual mean scores of the two groups of respondents are 3.31 and 3.57 with its standard deviation (SD=1.25and SD=1.32),for male and female teachers respectively.

Therefore, both groups of respondents rated it as a ‘major cause ‘for the underrepresentation of female teachers. T-test was employed to check if there is significant difference in perception between the two groups of respondents. The p-value obtained (0.28) is greater than the alpha value (0.05). Thus, this implies that there is no statistically significant difference in perception between male and female teachers.

Therefore, one may conclude that female’s home and family responsibility affect their participation on school leadership position. These, the finding supported by Shake shaft et al., (2007), that “family and home responsibilities are more likely to affect the career patterns of women than of men”

According to Table 7, item7, respondents asked to rate Female role as mothers and care givers in the family affect their involvement in school leadership position

The individual mean values for the two groups were 3.10and 3.14 with its standard deviation (SD=1.26 and SD=1.29),for male and female teachers respectively.

Therefore, both groups of respondents rated it as a ‘major cause’. Therefore it is possible to conclude that female’s childbearing and taking care of family affect the participation of female teachers.

T-test was computed for the item and the p-value obtained (0.87) is greater than the alpha value (0.05). Therefore, the comparison of the two means indicates that no statistical significant difference in perception between the two groups of respondents towards the item.

So, I conclude from the finding that female's role of child bearing and taking care of the family was a major cause that block their involvement to the field.

Concerning Item 8 on Table 7, respondents were asked to rate their perception to rate the idea that women are more responsible to home and family related issues than men.

The individual mean scores of the two groups was 3.14 and 3.59 with its standard deviation (SD=1.32 and SD=1.29), for male and female teachers respectively. Thus, all rated the issue as a 'major cause' for the underrepresentation of females. The comparison of the two mean was tested using t-test to see if there was any significant difference regarding perception between the two groups. The obtained-value is greater than alpha value (0.05). Therefore, the test revealed that there is no statistical significant difference observed on the issue between male and teachers. Based on the findings generally it is safe to conclude both groups of respondents agreed that female are more responsible to home and family related issues and this is a major factor hindering female's entry to school leadership position.

In relation to Item 9, on Table 7, Female lack of support from other family members in Jimma Zone affects their active involvement in school leadership position. The individual mean values are 3.08 and 3.51 with its standard deviation (SD=1.38 and SD=1.28), for male and female teachers respectively rating the item as a 'major cause' for the under representation of female in school leadership. This implies that absence of support from family especially partner is a major cause for female's scarce in the school leadership positions. T-test was employed to check if there is significant difference in perception between the two groups of respondents.

The p-value obtained (0.08) is greater than the alpha value (0.05). Thus, this implies that there is no statistically significant difference in perception between teachers and school leaders. In respect to this, less number of respondents does not give their decision to this item. With regard to this, interviewees were asked to give their opinion. They explained that, "support from husband is determinant. Except few, most husbands do not want their wife to be a leader. They accuse their wives as if not paying attention to their family"

In general, the average mean for all items in the above table was 3.50 rating family and home responsibility as a major cause for women's under representation in leadership roles. This implies that male expected to give time for their family.

Thus, one may conclude from the above finding family responsibility affects females involvement in position due to lack of support from partner, responsibility to family related issues and childbearing and taking of family care. The finding supported by Marshal (1985) home and family responsibility on women is also another factor for low participation to educational leadership.

The result obtained from PTSA and school board that females in the society to assume different roles expectation based on the sexes. Regarding this Newman (1995) stressed that despite the iterance of females in paid of force in unprecedented numbers, they tend to occupy low status job that are typically considered "female". Mend tend to old occupational position that confer more wealth and power than those typically held by women

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. Consequently, it can be said that lack of confidence can affect females not participate in school 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.

Table 8: The Extent Female teachers' aspiration

N O	Items	SD		DA	UD	A	S A	Independent t-test					
		FR	%					Sex	N	M	SD	T-V	S-V
1	Females have less aspiration (ambition) to become school leader.	FR	18	22	44	50	28	M	125	3.24	1.25	-1.13	0.26
		%	11.1	13.6	27.2	30.9	17.3	F	37	3.49	1.15		
2	Men continue to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership	FR	42	31	35	40	14	M	125	2.60	1.31	-1.95	0.06
		%	25.9	19.1	21.6	24.7	8.6	F	37	3.08	3.32		
3	Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school if they are a leader	FR	29	32	52	28	21	M	125	2.84	1.29	-0.68	0.50
		%	17.9	19.8	32.1	17.3	13	F	37	3.00	1.20		
4	Both females and males teachers do not want to work under females	FR	44	15	43	42	18	M	125	2.74	1.40	-1.75	0.06
		%	27.2	9.3	26.5	25.9	11.1	F	37	3.19	1.22		
5	Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader	FR	21	22	31	56	32	M	125	3.33	1.31	-0.32	0.75
		%	13	13.6	19.1	34.6	19.8	F	37	3.41	1.28		
6	Females do not seek leadership positions in education.	FR	18	33	39	52	20	M	125	3.06	1.21	-1.52	0.13
		%	11.1	20.4	24.1	32.1	12.3	F	37	3.41	1.17		

Note: *P>0.05

Key: A= Disagree, UN= Undecided, AG= Agree, SA= Strongly Agree
1-2=Minimum, 3=Average, 4-5=Maximum

4.2.4. Aspiration of Female teachers for secondary school Leadership Positions

Since the ultimate objective of this study was to assess the participation of females in school leadership, it is important to measure extent female teachers' aspiration to participate in secondary school leadership position. In order to analyze this, the data acquired on the expectation of male and female teachers concerning the capacity of female leaders, the interest and motivation of females to be a leader, the assumption of female to be successful leader and self-confidence of females in their leadership ability were presented and discussed in the table above.

Regarding Item 1 of Table 8 the respondents agreed that less aspiration of female teachers to become a leader affects their participation for a position while Forty four of the respondents could not make decision. however The average mean value of the two groups which means female and male teachers were 3.37, with its standard deviation (SD=1.25 and SD=1.5), for male and female teachers respectively. this indicating a rating of 'moderate level aspiration'. From the responses of the majority, one can understand that female teachers have 'moderate aspiration' to become leaders in secondary schools.

In this regard, the t-test revealed that the significance level ($p=0.26$) is greater than 0.05 This shows there is no significant difference between the two respondent groups regarding average aspiration of female teachers to become school leaders. The interview conducted with one expert from WEO, and ZEO head, as well as a female member of PTSA confirms the above findings. That means, female teacher's aspiration has somewhat decreased currently in to assume school leadership maybe because of fear of societal attitudes, fear of competition. This might be caused by different reason like lack of appropriate practical attention for female teachers to assume secondary schools leadership area. Societal attitudes avoid fear of competition and address the problem of lack of self-confidence. This finding is similar with that observed by Brown (2003) and Oplatka (2006) which portray as females do not apply to be principals, even when they are as well qualified as the male applicants, at least in part, because they have negative self-perceptions and lack confidence in their qualifications and experience.

The respondent result in Item 2 of the Table 8, indicate that respondents is agreed that men are consistently to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership qualities. The average mean score of these responses is (M=2.84) and with its standard deviation (SD=1.31 and SD=1.32), for male and female teachers respectively. Since the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance, the t-test result was ($t=-1.95$, $p=.066$). This result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female respondents. This means that females also have leadership quality if they hold apposition.

The research and literature cited to this point in this review confirm that females 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 females not only have what it takes to be in leadership positions, they have what it takes to do such jobs well.

In item 3 of table 8, the respondents confirmed that females assume that they will not be successful in leading school they disagreed on the issue. The mean score of the teachers' responses is (M=2.9) and female (3;00) and with its standard deviation (SD=1.29 and SD=1.20), for male and female teachers respectively. and the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level significance, the t-test result was ($t= - 68$, $p=.5$).The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female teachers response. This means it is not a major factor because if they lead they are successful leader.

Concerning this issue Jordan et al. (1999:234) state that the problem of females to seek leadership position is fear of success, which jeopardizes the female's personal lives. Working with high achievement females and men, she worries the anticipation of negative consequence, for example, social rejection, disapproval and loss of femininity.

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 females. Rather than seeing these qualities as being "weak", however, some current leadership theories celebrate this "feminine" model of leadership.

Mahoney (1993) cites Shake shaft 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. On Item 4 of the Table 8, respondents were requested to give their opinion whether or not they believe that both female and male teachers do not want to work under females. Accordingly, the respondents showed their agreement as they did not want to work under female leaders.

The mean score of this item is (Mal 2.74 and female,3.19) and with its standard deviation (SD=1.4and SD=1.22), for male and female teachers respectively. Which indicate that female and male teachers were not willing under female leadership position in school. As t-test value indicated that, since the calculated t-value at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance, the t test result was ($t=-1.75$, $p=.06$). The result revealed that there was no statistically a significant difference between male and female respondents

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.

Regarding this, Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000) described organizational contexts in which men used intimidation and silence to discourage women. Intimidating tactics and behaviors of board and community members included name-calling, rumors, 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 school leadership.

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 females are less strong than men and therefore cannot hold managerial positions is common in many developing countries (Calvert and Calvert, 1996).

Regarding Item 5 of Table 8, respondents were requested to give their opinion whether or not females do have plan and set goals to be school leaders. The mean score of the male and female response is (M=3.3 and 3.41) and with its standard deviation (SD=1.31 and SD=1.28), for male and female teachers respectively. The t-test result was ($t=-32$, $p=.75$). The result revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in the idea of females were not estimated to lead school. Substantiating this issue Gupton & Slick, (1996) state as many women have not carefully planned their way up to the top management. Moreover, supporting this finding, different literature have also described that there is a strong correlation between woman's lack of career advancement and their lower career goals. They pursue their options in unplanned manner, as simply opportunities emerged (Addisu, 2001:32),

Regarding Item 6 of Table 8, concerning female's do not seek leadership position in school. The researcher compared the response by mean score accordingly male teachers rated the item (M=3.41, and female teachers rated the item (M=3.02) and with its standard deviation (SD=1.31 and SD=1.28), for male and female teachers respectively indicating a rating of 'moderate aspiration'

The t-test revealed that the significance level ($p=0.34$) is greater than 0.05 this shows that there is no statistically significant difference in perception between male and female teachers this means the above findings of the respondent agreed that female teachers do not seeking for leadership position affect their participation whereas some disagreed on the item the rest respond undecided. From the above analysis, one may conclude that female teacher's do not seeking for leadership position in education moderately affects their aspiration to become school leader this is due to fear of competition and lack of self-confidence.

As information obtained from interviews this may be due to their own self-concept, such as underestimation of their ability, fear of competition and lack of commitment affect their aspiration for a position.

Generally, 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 school 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, PTSA member for female teacher was also interviewed to find out to the reason why not they aspire to participate in school leadership positions. As a result, said that they would like to be club leaders. But most of them said that they would never like to participate in school leadership positions. From this finding the researcher conclude that the extent to which female teachers are motivated to be school leader is very low as based on the response of PTSA and vice principal 'interviewees. This similarity of the responses through both the interview for PTSA member female teacher and principals 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. as experience view of researcher even nowadays they are not happy.

Thus, in looking for the antecedent causes for female's low aspiration level, the discrepancy between aspiration and expectation as instigated more by factors outside of female's self-concepts need to be understood. With respect to this, Kanter's argument (cited in Shake shaft, 1989: 91) "things may become evaluated as less desirable as they become less likely" may in fact explain why females preferred to remain in their present teaching position. From the researchers 'point of view, this tendency of female teachers to hold down themselves from school 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 female's 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 female teacher's failure to aspire to the superintendence might be a result of their experiences working with male superintendents, role models whose leadership behaviors may not be compatible with female teacher'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 school leadership positions.

In the works of Yelfign (1990), Stracher (1993) females 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 school 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 expectation of nurture and traditional helpmate. However, women suffer from many "legitimizing gap" as they aspire for roles in traditional masculine area such as leadership.

There for according to the researcher view and the above analysis the social attitude (socio-cultural) towards females took place which is rated as first for interest of female related factors, lack of role models took the second place which rated on most of male and female teachers. as third, gender inequality in work place (institution not giving a chance) by respondents factors respectively; affecting female's leadership .

In addition to this, though they are not as serious as the above three mentioned factors such as routine house works, occupational segregation and discrimination, and government policy towards women up-ward mobility can be considered. According to the rating, the issues ranked first, second and third required serious attention. This was also supported by the school supervisors and principals through their interviews to conclude shortly the above challenges and practices show that make them under presented even they are discriminated in the school leadership for secondary schools of Jimma Zone .

4.2.5. Strategies to promote female teachers to participation in secondary school leadership

The results presented in The upcoming table deals with strategies that help promote female teachers to participate in secondary school leadership Questions items raised relate to guidelines that schools use for school leader selection, assertive training programs provided for female teachers and special material and moral support offered for female teachers.

Table:9 Strategies to promote female teachers participation

Items	Yes	No
The availability of recruitment guidelines had made it clear that among others female applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and be given the priority for recruitment	72	90
	44.40%	55.60%
The school provides capacity building training to promote female teachers" participation in secondary school leadership	90	72
	55.60%	44.40%
The schools involves the gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual for leadership including women	77	85
	47.50%	52.50%
Giving a chance of separate quota tofor female teachers among themselves and with an additional chance to compete with male competitors	80	82
	49.40%	50.60%
Allocation of financial resources for female capacity building training to promote their participation in secondary school leadership	77	85
	47.50%	52.50%

One of the open ended questions were also presented about the strategies in place to promote female teachers" participation to secondary school leadership areas. Respondents were asked to give a "yes" or " no" answer were asked to state how their performance was improved or not.

The Item 1 of Table9,relates to whether or not the availability of recruitment guidelines had made it clear that, among others female applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and be given the priority for recruitment. In this regard 90(55.6%) of the respondents replied that their schools had recruitment guidelines not guaranteed to affirmative action and do not give the priority for recruitment female teachers affirmative action during recruitment time.

Hiring practices at entry level jobs determine access to move up the leadership ladder. 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. With regard to Item 2 of table 9, 90(55.6%) of the respondents replied that, The presence of capacity building (training) programs that were designed as part of the initiative to promote female teachers" to leadership position.

The result of this finding indicates that school had attractive mechanisms that were in place to promote the participation of female teachers in secondary school leadership. Recruitment problems, and in particular the selection and appointment process, were identified as significant barriers for women seeking principal ship. According to Sinclair (1998: 33), part of the problem is what is defined as leadership behavior: When women exhibit what, in a man, would be judged as leadership behaviors, 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 networks of advice and contacts. This reinforces Ehrlich (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.

While responding to In Item 3 of Table 9, 85 (52.50%) of the respondents reported that there were no gender unit oarswomen's office, representatives among school committee established for the recruitment, training and development who could responsibly work for and encourage females participation in secondary school leading . The way an organization makes decisions about hiring, promotions and paying female 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 females in the Workplace Agency 2008b).Hurdles to female'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 females from leadership roles (Piterman, 2008). Research indicates that employers avoid recruiting females. Females are less likely to be considered for leadership roles and are segregated into marginal roles that do not lead to positions of influence. Females 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). In their reaction to item 4 of table9, 80(49.4%) of the respondents replied the presence of giving a chance of separate quota for females to compute among themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male competitors to promote the participation of female teachers" in school leadership.

While the major respondents 82(50.60)said ,no additional chance bet wean two groups. 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).On the other hand, as the responses to of Item 5 of the Table9, indicate significant majority [85 (52.50%)] of them expressed that their schools had not allocate financial resources for female capacity building training to that would have helped in getting promoted to secondary school leadership. Regarding this however, Education and Training Policy (ETP: 1994) states that financial support will be given for women as a mechanism or strategy to build their capacity through training. Particularly, article 3.9.5:32 states that the government will give financial support to raise the participation of women which really was a promising statement as the strategy. as support tag women financially have its own implication. As Shakeshaft (1985) stated women, more than men, referred to lack of finances as a reason for being unable to continue administrative training. It can be noted that women have tended to sacrifice financially for their families and, therefore, cut short their educational opportunities.

According to the finding, however, the provision in Education and Training Policy that encourages women's participation in secondary school leadership was hardly implemented. Consequently, this lack of proper implementation of the strategies affected female's participation in secondary school leadership. Such lack of careful monitoring and evaluation of the policy implementation affected women's participation in educational leadership in general and in secondary schools in particular of Jimma Zone. Finally, lack of equal opportunity to education and training in the past was a major cause of women's underrepresentation in educational leadership. Therefore, one may conclude that inequalities of women in educational opportunity in the past possibly limited the number of educated females that results in underrepresentation of female teachers in secondary school leadership positions to day. 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. 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..

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This unit deals with the summary of major findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. 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 female teacher's participation in school leadership in secondary schools of Jimma Zone. These all contents are found below.

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 female in Ethiopia were socialized for domestic life of child rearing and home management. Male were prepared for the public arena. The decision making capacity expected to be exercised in their roles as female have been playing traditional role of home makers while men remaining a leader in every sphere of life because of the social attitude female have been reluctant to pursue educational administrative positions and secondary school leadership position particularly.

However, the participation of female teachers in school leadership in secondary schools is all scant relatively to their figure. Thus, as the above facts indicate the problem of the underrepresentation of female teachers in secondary school leadership in Jimma zone seems worth stressing. Accordingly, the study aimed at assessing the current practice and major challenges that caused female teachers under representation in school leadership in secondary schools of Jimma Zone. In this study attempts had been made to answer to the following basic questions:

1. What is the current practice of female teacher's participation in school leadership Secondary schools of Jimma zone ?
2. What are the major organizational, personal and socio-cultural challenges that hinder female teachers' participation in school leadership position in secondary schools of Jimma zone?
- 3 To what extent female teachers aspire to participate in school leadership position in Secondary schools of Jimma zone?
4. What strategies are motivate females to come to the school leadership position in secondary schools of Jimma zone?

To seek answers to these questions and to achieve the study objective descriptive survey method was used. With the intention to address the questions the researcher reviewed relevant literature and prepared questionnaires and interview guides for the participants of the study. Accordingly, open and close ended questionnaires were prepared for teachers.

These questionnaires were commented by the research advisors and colleagues and pilot tested to check validity and reliability. And after the necessary correction and modifications, the questionnaires were duplicated and distributed to 168 teachers.

Besides, to gather more detailed information and to substantiate the information acquired through questionnaire, interview was conducted with selected school principals (principals and assistance principals), Supervisors, Zone education bureau officials, Woreda education officials, PTSA and school board heads. Moreover, document analysis was made.

Quantitative Data . Frequency and percentage distribution were used to analyze various characteristics of the sample population such as sex, marital status, number of children, academic qualification. 2. Frequency, mean score, and independent sample t-test was employed to see the statistical difference of the response of the two groups (male and female) respondents.

Qualitative Data The data collected from the semi- structured interview, the open ended and close ended questionnaires and document review were analyzed and interpreted qualitatively. The hand written notes and discussion during interview was transcribed to strengthen the quantitative data.

5.1 Summary of major findings

- As analysis in the background information of the respondents, main focus of the study it was found that there was less female participant in secondary school leadership of Jimma Zone only 22.8% of females in the teaching staff participated. In secondary school leadership position still females participation seems minimal (21.1) as compared to male (78.9)
- In terms of marital status, 34(87%) of the female teachers were married this indicates that, having children and family responsibility could have significant impact on their aspiration to assume secondary school leadership. The result of study revealed that the dominion of men over women is still prevailing specially relating to assuming leadership positions. In this respect, the data showed that cultural perceptions that women are less than men affect their exposure to the public sector. In addition, home responsibilities such as child care and other routine house works, are not culturally shared by males. Most husbands do not want their wives to be a leader. They accuse their wives as if not paying attention to their family. That men are assumed to be the rightful leader and this system of male domination and supremacy affect female teachers participation in secondary leadership.
- The finding of the study indicates that females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads, department heads and unit leader) Both female and males ($M=3.5$) and ($SD=1.15$) rated the issue as 'high level'. This means that both group disagreed but, more females disagreed with the idea that leadership is more appropriate to male than females. The t-test value of this item also indicated at 0.05 level of significance and the t-test result was ($t=.05$, $p=.96$). This reveals that there is no significant difference between the two groups of respondents.
- The qualitative data shows that, throughout the educational system for the last five years(2008-2012 E.C) the females' involvement in educational leadership positions at secondary schools was negligible. It seems to show that (5.1%) not promising that there will be gender balance in every aspects of the secondary school leadership positions in Jimma Zone.

- With regard to the major factors that hinder female teachers to participate in school leadership is such as organizational factors, it was revealed that (M=3.69) and (SD=1.2) ,The t-test result showed (t=-1.05, p=.30). assignment of tasks and delegation of authority in secondary schools of Jimma zone did not encourage female teachers to come to leadership position. In terms of personal related factors, In the responses of the respondents the mean score and standard deviation of this response were (M=3.69) and (SD=1.27) respectively. This indicates that females are reluctant to accept responsibility. The t-test result was (t=-2.02, p=.05) which revealed as there was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in their response. Showed that females who identified themselves were reluctant to accept responsibility which is supported by Coleman (2001) that, for life, females are reluctant to progress to other positions. As coleman (2001) further noted females might not apply for a job unless they truly believe they have all of the qualifications where as men might apply even if they do not believe they have all of the qualifications. 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 this case, there are no female role models in school leadership positions that would encourage female teachers to aspire for posts. Similarly, the interviewee reveal that the reason why female teacher have less aspiration to become school leader is not because of the problem of lack of self-confidence but their too much home responsibility. Secondly, attitude of the school society does not enhance female teachers to become a leader In addition, the key secondary school leadership positions have been already occupied by well experienced male leaders. This means there is over dominance of males in the key secondary school leadership positions and even in the bottom leadership areas such as department headship, club leadership, etc.

- With regard to Socio-cultural factor hindrances to female teachers' participation secondary school leadership, the results of the study revealed that, the influence of religion (cultural ideology) affected women from entering to leadership position. This factor was ranked first with average mean score of 3.4 rating it as a 'major cause'. The individual mean scores of both groups of respondents were 3.36 and 3.38 respectively. The t-test revealed that the significance level (p=.21) which is greater than 0.05 showing that there is no significance differ perception between male and female teachers regarding ideology.

The problem of females to working with high achievement females and men, she worries the anticipation of negative consequence, for example, social rejection, disapproval and loss of femininity. The result of the interview also approved that the school community does not trust female teachers' leadership positions because of the cultural background of the people. There is a saying that a "female bears a leader but she does not lead".

- Regarding to strategies the factor that hinder female teachers participation in secondary school leadership were the improper implementation of the provision of strategies which in turn was not successful in bringing more female teachers" in school leadership. This could be manifested by the strategies to do so. Thus, the ineffectiveness of recruitment guide line to make clear that among other female applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and be given the priority for recruitment it was found from the responses at 90 (55.6) that there was recruitment guideline in place although it did not give priority for female teachers' affirmative action during and recruitment time strategies incorporated in the Education and Training Policy (1994) was not successfully implemented .Also, the school principals even do not like to delegate powers and works to the female teachers by encourage them to accomplish responsibilities timely and effectively.

5.2 Conclusions

Based on the finding of the study the following conclusions

1. One of the major intentions of this study was to assess the practice of involving female secondary school teachers in leadership position. The finding of the study indicated that from the available leadership position in secondary school of Jimma Zone, only few were found to be held by female teachers. Consequently, it could be concluded that, even though Policy provision, clear strategies and relevance guide lined, and actual national practice, female teachers are still underrepresented in secondary school of Jimma zone clearly implying the very existence of policy –practice gap various literature that are available thus far show that different factors affect female teachers assuming of leadership position in secondary school. The researcher had the intention to explore which factors, from among those in the literature, affect female teachers’ participation in secondary school leadership in Jimma zone Accordingly based on the result it could be concluded that such factors as socio- cultural attitudes like females cannot lead men are rightful leaders male domination in actual work environment .
2. Female’s participation in school leadership is hindered by their less aspiration to apply for school leadership positions. So, one may conclude from the finding females have low intrinsic motivation to leadership position due to different factors such as lack of self confidence and fear of competition were prevent to aspire to leadership position.
3. As per policy provision and available strategies as well as formal or in formal promotions to enhance female secondary school participation in leadership practically they don’t even have the aspiration to become in leader for reassures.
4. Strategies meant for enhance female participation in Educational leadership in general and secondary school leadership in particular is far from being properly implemented.

5.3. Recommendations

Leadership does not belong to a single principal or administrative team. Instead, leadership must be seen as the responsibility of everyone in the school. These include school principals, teachers, staff, students, parents and community members. In order to increase females 'participation in secondary school leadership different education administrative bodies need to play their own roles in enhancing females 'participation in educational leadership in general, and secondary school in particular. In line with this based on the findings and the conclusions, some important recommendations are forwarded below.

1. The researcher recommended to Secondary school leaders and for local administrators Female teachers /women could be assigned at the bottom educational leadership positions such as different committees, unit leadership, department headship, mentors, internal supervisors, club coordinator so that they would get bottom experiences that help them for future leadership positions.
2. Women serving in key leadership roles need to talk about and think creatively with other women about ways to successfully balance family responsibilities and job demands (Grogan, 2005). And advised to strive for breaking the bondages that hindered them from participating in the leadership position in secondary school avoid the inferiority complex and submissiveness that might have emanated from the societal attitudes and attempt to benefit from the sound policies of the country like men. They need to develop self-confidence, the help one another to break the silence so that their voices are heard better.
3. The ZEO advised to that female secondary school of Jimma zone given continued awareness that leading is not something unachievable and motivation them to be a leader. Bringing some well achieving female teachers to positions would help produce female role models for the rest of females and girls too and forum for female teachers could be established in secondary schools of Jimma zone as this would help to identify each other's' needs, share experiences and develop the culture of mentorship and networks in a way it would benefit female secondary school leaders in addition to these it would be good if the pool of female teachers in the secondary schools of

Jimma zone would be increased because the more the number of female teachers exists, is the more female competent may exist for leadership positions

4. The Woreda Education Office and ZEO advised to work jointly with other relevant offices including political body to bring attitudinal changes in the communities to avoid the stereotypic misconception about women it is recommended they continuously empower and assign female teachers in different levels of leadership such as principalship, WEO experts, etc. similarly, Woreda Education Office is strongly advised to backup females who are in different school leadership positions; provide opportunity based on equity to open doors for the involvement of women in school leadership so that they would be initiated to aspire for assuming leadership positions.

5. Finally, as both the result of the study and researcher's experience showed strategies provided in Education and Training Policy to enhance the participation of women in leadership has not been successfully implemented. Hence, it is strongly advised that Policy implementers pay attention to and properly implement Policy provisions. Otherwise, including an implantable strategy into Policy document would not help female secondary school teachers to aspire for leadership. All concerned bodies, generally are strongly advised to be committed to implement Education and Training Policy strategies properly and translate their plan into action in order to address gender disparity in secondary school leadership of Jimma zone.

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Appendix-A
Jimma University
College of Education and Behavioral Studies
Department of Educational Planning and Management

Questionnaire to be filled by teachers

General Direction

The ultimate purpose of this study is to assess the major challenges that affect female teacher's participation in secondary school educational leadership in Jimmazon (worada schools). The information collected through this questionnaire will be used purely for academic purpose. Your response will be kept confidential and you are kindly requested to complete the questionnaire carefully. Please, read the instruction and each item in the questionnaire carefully before you give your response. If you want to change any of your response, please make sure that you have cancelled the undesired ones.

N.B

- No need to write your name
- There is no need of consulting other to fill the questionnaires.

Thank You Very much for your patience and dedication to respond to the entire question

PART-I-Background Information of the Respondents Please, put a mark (√) in your choice among the following alternatives with respect to background information on the space provided in the box for each item below.

1. Sex: Male Female

2. Marital Status: Married Unmarried

3. No of Children: No child 1-3 Children children

4. Qualification: Certificate Digiri others

5. Field of Study: Natural Science Social Science others

6. Experience: 1-10 years 11-20 years above 21 years

PART-II Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives that represent closed ended question regarding to the current practice of female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership position.

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

No	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	Leadership is more appropriate to male than females					
2	Females participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads department and unit leader)					

3	High number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position					
4	Both males and females teachers equally participate in educational leadership position					

PART-III Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following given alternatives that represent closed ended question regarding to organizational, personal and socio cultural related factors for female teachers’ participation in secondary school leadership areas.

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree NO

No	Items	Rating scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	1.organizational related factors					
	Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership					
2	Assigning tasks and delegation of authority in school do not encourage female teachers to come to leadership position					
3	Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership positions in the education system of the zone					
4	Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leaders					
5	Institutions/Schools/ leadership style attract females to					

	participate in secondary school leadership						
6	Lack of Females role models in educational Leadership affects their participation						
	2.Personal Related Factors						
7	Females are reluctant to accept responsibility						
8	Females can make strong decision and be committed to the organization and their careers						
9	Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience						
10	Females are better leaders than men						
11	Females have less involvement in socio- economic development than males						
12	Females have necessary skill to discipline student, supervise other adults and criticize constructively in secondary school						
13	females have capability to lead secondary school						
	3.Socio-cultural factors affecting female teachers participation in secondary school						
14	Girls and boys are socialized differently to assume different roles (gender role socialization) in our society						
15	People have the perception that females do not have the potential and skills to be leaders						
16	The religion (cultural) ideology that dominates the culture, which affect 's females participation in educational leadership in Jimma zone						
17	Some people still think that the decision-making power rests with the men in our society						
18	Males feel more competent, capable and efficient in leadership than Female.						
19	Female responsibilities in the family and home affect their participation in educational leadership						
20	Female role as mothers and care givers in the family						

	affect their involvement in educational leadership					
21	Female are more responsible for household work or family related duties					
22	Female lack of support from other family members in jimma zone affects their active involvement in educational leadership					

PART-IV

Please put a mark (√) to indicate the degree to what extent you agree on the following question regarding to related factors that affect female teachers’ aspiration to participate in secondary school leadership areas.

Key: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Undecided, 4-Agree, 5- Strongly Agree

No	Items	Rating scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Females have less aspiration (ambition) to become educational leader.					
2	Men continue to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership					
3	Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school if they are a leader					
4	Both females and males teachers do not want to work under females					
5	Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader					
6	Females do not seek leadership positions in education.					

PART-V Please put a mark (√) to indicate the possible answer for the following ‘‘Yes’’ or ‘‘No’’ alternatives question regarding to strategies are in place to promote female teachers’ participation to secondary school leadership areas.

No	Item	yes	No
1	The provision of recruitment guidelines had made it clear that among others female applicants are guaranteed to affirmative action and be given the priority for recruitment		
2	The school provides capacity building training to promote female teachers’ participation in secondary school leadership		

3	institution /schools involves the gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual or leadership		
4	Giving a chance of separate quota to compute among for female themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male counterpart competitors		
5	Allocation of financial resources for female capacity building training to promote their participation to secondary school leadership		

PART-VI, Write your opinion /suggestion for the following open-ended questions.

1. What are the major factors that affect female teachers" participation in Secondary School leadership in your zone? _____

2.What are other factors (If any) that affect female teachers" participation in secondary school leadership in your zone_____

3. In order to enhance/motivate female teachers" participation in secondary school leadership in your school, what measures should be taken by:-
Female teachers themselves:

Schools:

Zone Education Office:

Societies:

APPENDIX-B

Jimma University

College of Education and Behavioral Studies

Department of Educational Planning and Management

Interview Questions for parent teachers, school board, School Principals,
supervisors, zoneand woreda Education Officials

Dear Participants,

The ultimate purpose of this study is to assess the major factors that affect female teachers' participation in secondary school leadership in Jimma zone.

I am studying Master of Educational Leadership at the University of Jimma, Ethiopia, and this research is part of the degree and I hope that you will be willing to help me. The information collected through this interview will be used purely for academic purpose. Your response will be kept confidential and you are kindly requested to give your response carefully.

1. Please share with me some of your background information in terms of marital and education status,
2. Please tell me how you got this position. What did you think when you decided to take this role?
3. What major organizational, personal and socio cultural factors you think that affect female teachers participation in secondary schools educational leadership in your areas? Would specify in terms of hiring and recruiting practices that are exercised in your area?
4. It is said that females are reluctance to accept school leadership. What is your point of view about this perception?
5. Could you specify other factors that challenge female teachers' participation to educational leadership position? Would you specify with respect to cultural believes and values?
6. It is said that leadership is more suitable for men in our culture. What is your point of view about this perception?
7. How do you evaluate female teachers' involvement in your school leadership? And have you seen any improvement?
8. What mechanisms are in place to increase the participation of female teachers to educational leadership

Appendix- C

The past five year’s quantitative data on teacher’s involvement in school leadership by document review

ye ar	Frqu ency	Co- curricular activities and leadership																				
		Club head			Departm ent head			Unit leader			Vice principle			Principal es			Super visor			Total		
	Sex	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
20 08	No.																					
	%																					
20 09	No.																					
	%																					
20 10	No.																					
	%																					
20 11	No.																					
	%																					
20 12	No.																					
	%																					
To tal	No.																					
	%																					