



Ethiopian Civil Service University

Building Capacities in the Public Service



College of Leadership and Governance

Institute of Leadership and Good Governance

FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN ACADEMIC
LEADERSHIP POSITIONS:-THE CASE OF SELECTED PUBLIC
UNIVERSITIES IN ETHIOPIA.

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work, prepared under the guidance of Asst. Professor Seifu Bekuretsion. All sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged. I further confirm that the thesis has not been submitted either in part or in full to any other higher learning institutions for the purpose of earning any degree.

Name

Signature

Ethiopian Civil Service University, Addis Ababa May, 2023

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Table of Contents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
List Of Tables	iv
Acronyms	Error! Bookmark not defined.
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	2
1.3. Research Questions	2
1.4. Objectives of the Study	2
1.5. Significance of the study	3
1.6. Scope / Delimitation of the study	3
1.7. Limitation of the study	4
1.8. Organization of the paper	4
1.9. Definitions of key terms	4
CHAPTER TWO	6
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	6
2.1. Theoretical framework	6
2.1.1. Leadership	8
2.1.2. Empowerment	10
2.1.3. Education and Women's Empowerment	10
2.1.4. General Situation of Women in Ethiopia	11
2.1.5. Gender Equality	13
2.1.6. What are Gender Inequalities?	14
2.1.7. Gender Inequality in Ethiopia	14
2.1.8. The costs of Gender Inequality in Education to Productivity and Economic Growth	15
2.1.9. Women's Participation in Leadership Positions	15
2.1.10. History of Women Participation in Leadership	16
2.2. Empirical Literature	30
2.3 Conceptual Framework	33
CHAPTER THREE	35
METHODOLOGY	35

3.1. Methodology of the Research	35
3.2. Design of the research	35
3.3. Target Population	35
3.4. Sampling Techniques	35
3.5. Instruments of Data Collection	36
3.6. Validity and Reliability	36
3.7. Method of Data Analysis.....	36
3.8. Ethical Considerations.....	36
CHAPTER FOUR.....	37
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	37
4.1 Response Rate	37
4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	37
4.3 Descriptive analysis.....	40
4.4 Inferential Analysis	60
CHAPTER FIVE	71
FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	71
5.1 Findings.....	71
5.2 Conclusions	72
5.3 Recommendations	75
REFERENCES	77
APPENDEX.....	84
APPENDEX I.....	84
APPENDEX II	88

List of Tables

Table 4.1 Response Rate of Respondents-----	37
Table 4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents-----	38
Table 4.3 Mean Score Interpretation Model-----	40
Table 4.4 Personal Barriers-----	40
Table 4.5 Institutional Barriers-----	44
Table 4.6 Societal Barriers-----	48
Table 4.7 Strategies at Personal Level-----	51
Table 4.8 Strategies at Institutional Level-----	53
Table 4.9 Strategies at Societal Level-----	57
Table 4.10: KMO and Bartlett's Test-----	61
Table 4.11: Eigen Values of the Actual Data and the Monte Carlo Simulative Data-----	62
Table 4.12: Total Variance Explained-----	64

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to find out the factors that affect women's participation in Academic Leadership Positions the Case of Selected Public Universities in Ethiopia. Even though the number of both female and male academicians increases over time the participation of women in academic leadership positions are very minimal when compared to male academicians. In order to come up with a suitable affirmative action and to enhance women involvement in higher positions Public Universities need to identify the factors that affect women participation in academic leadership positions. The study considered factors which are Personal factors, Institutional factors and societal factors. The study had employed both quantitative and qualitative research approach. The researcher used descriptive and correlational research design in order to describe the characteristics of the variables and to study a relationship between dependent and independent variables. 233 academicians were selected using sample size determination. Purposive sampling technique was employed in admitting the questionnaires. In addition 12 academic leaders were purposively selected to interview the factors. The research finding revealed that Using explanatory factor analysis there are 4(four) factors identified which affects women participation in academic leadership positions. These factors are Personal, Institutional, Societal and Management factors. The study recommends that the government should have will to change the status of women, since it enhances the participation of women especially at top academic leadership position women to participate in academic leadership position they should be represented in university board membership to be voice of academic women's.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
GAD	Gender and Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	Ministry of Education
REWA	Revolutionary Ethiopian Women's Association
WEP	Women's Empowerment Program
WID	Women in Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents background of the study, background of the organization, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope/delimitation of the study and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Gender equality and female empowerment are now universally recognized as core development objectives, fundamental for the realization of human rights, and key to effective and sustainable development outcomes. No society can develop sustainably without increasing and transforming the distribution of opportunities, resources, and choices for males and females so that they have equal power to shape their own lives and contribute to their communities (USAID, 2012). In contrast to this reality gender inequalities exist in higher education management worldwide, supporting this idea Anteneh (2017) stated that in many countries, female participation in higher education is generally low, and their participation in higher education management is strikingly low. In the area of higher education, both in teaching and management, women are still a long way from participating on the same footing as men (UNESCO 2002). The underrepresentation of women in academic and administrative leadership roles is a global phenomenon. Absence of women from decision making levels of higher education has been attributed to the challenges that women in academia are likely to face, such as discouragements over career advancements, personal circumstances, and invisible rules within institutions (Alomair, M. O. 2015).

In Ethiopia, women have made some progress in achieving parity in teaching but are grossly under-represented in higher education management (MoE 2014). Similarly Gojjam & Singh (2015) indicated that Women are resentfully under-represented in positions of academic leadership and management as well as in teaching professions of higher learning institutions. Despite gender equality commitments and women's educational attainment, still, women are disproportionately underrepresented in higher education management (Anteneh, 2017). Bezawit & Singh (2019) articulated that Despite the progress in higher education regarding female advancement, gender discrepancies are evident based on women in higher education are underrepresented in leadership positions and women in higher education tend to hold lower academic ranking than men. In general, despite various policy reforms, gender

inequalities in Ethiopian higher education are still paramount; and hence this research aiming at investigating the same.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Despite the vast expansion of higher education institutions and the efforts underway in Ethiopia, females remain chronically underrepresented in higher education and academic leadership (Tebeje, 2012). The Ethiopian Training and Education Policy (TGE, 1994) and Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE, 2009) promote gender equality in education and training at all levels. Despite these opportunities, there are still challenges constraining women and girls' equal participation in the social, economic and political spheres of the country. This is also reflected in the higher learning institutions of the country. There are also gender gaps in academic promotion, leadership and research and publication. So my research interest is in the area of participation of women in the management of public institutions because I have found it very minimal, especially in the Ethiopian Higher Education; hardly few female presidents and Vice presidents. Upon completion of my study in Leadership and Good governance, I have a plan of voraciously working on seeing Ethiopian women taking over significant Leadership positions in public institutions especially in the higher education sector as this is the base for the overall human resource development of the nation. Therefore, the study wants to closely explore academic women's leadership position in Selected Public Universities in Addis Ababa by taking as cases Civil Service University and Kotebe Education University.

1.3. Research Questions

In light of this the study intends to answer the following basic questions.

1. What is the current status of women in university management in the Selected Public Universities?
2. What are the major factors that affect women's academic leadership position in public universities of Ethiopia?
3. Do the universities Under Study have a detailed strategy of increasing the representation of women in higher education management?

1.4. Objectives of the Study

This study aims at exploring gender equality of women's academic leadership position in order to ensure equal participation and benefit of women with men in public universities of Ethiopia. Specific objectives

1. To examine the current status of women in university management in Selected Public Universities in Ethiopia as Compared to men.
2. To identify factors that affect women's academic leadership position in public Universities of Ethiopia.
3. To identify the Universities policies and strategies to promote representation of women in higher education management.

1.5. Significance of the study

Addressing gender issues will directly facilitate better contribution to development efforts by women through empowerment. So this study helps policy makers and the universities under the study in one or more ways as follows:

1. Provide relevant information about factors that affect women's academic leadership position in public Universities of Ethiopia.
2. Give feedback on the effectiveness of the existing gender-related programs and projects in the public Universities of Ethiopia.
3. Inform Policy makers about key areas of academic women's underrepresentation in leadership position and to make immediate and progressive interventions to bridge the gaps in the public universities of Ethiopia.
4. Recommend better ways of enhancing academic women's leadership representation in the public Universities of Ethiopia.

1.6. Scope / Delimitation of the study

There are a number of factors can cause low participation of women in academic leadership positions but the study focuses only on the three factors that affecting the participation of women in academic leadership positions like Institutional factors, psychological factors and Societal factors. However, the study didn't analyse other factors even though they directly or indirectly affect women's participation in academic leadership positions. Geographically, the study was delimited to the geographical area of public universities in Addis Ababa the study was delimited to Civil Service University and Kotebe Educational University. Hence, other Public universities in Addis and Public Universities outside were not considered for this study. Methodologically, the study was based only on leadership participation of women not men. Finally, the data collection time was scheduled between March 2021 and May 2021. Hence, the research was delimited periodically between the aforementioned time intervals, Therefore, the findings of this study will be only directly applicable to Women academic staff

in these universities. Of course the study can have implications to similar situations in other universities.

1.7. Limitation of the study

The main limitation of the study is a problem of representation. The public universities in Addis Ababa cannot represent the other public universities regarding expected outcome. For a more conclusive result, all the public universities outside Addis Ababa should be studied.

1.8. Organization of the paper

This research was organized in five chapters. Chapter one is about introduction of the study which contains background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, objective of the study, significance of the study and scope/delimitation of the study and limitation of the study and also definition of key terms. chapter two is about review of related literature; chapter three is about methodology of the research, design of the research, target population of the research, sampling techniques, instruments of data collection, validity and reliability, method of data analysis and ethical considerations. Chapter four of the study is on data presentation and analysis of the study, results and discussion of findings of the study. And the last chapter presents summary of the findings conclusions and recommend based on the research investigation.

1.9. Definitions of key terms

Sex and Gender: According to Lagarde, M. (1994), cited in Alfaro (2000), sex refers to the set of hereditary biological characteristics organizing individuals in to two categories: female and male. Whereas, each society and each culture has given a distinct value and meaning to our sex differences and has formulated ideas, conceptions and practices about being a woman and being a man. This set of social economic, political, cultural psychological and legal characteristics and norms are called gender. Disch (1996) argued that from the time we are born until we die, gender socialization is a constant part of our lives. And also Leach (2004) argued that our gender identity has been formed during our early years and largely determines how we perceive the social world and how we are perceived by others. Of course, gender construction varies from one place/culture to another and also changes over time within that culture, and dependence in each person's subjective and objective conditions.

Participation: participation is defined in many ways. But the term participation defined in this research is simply to mean the provision of equal opportunity to women to take part in the leadership of higher education institutions in Ethiopia.

Leadership: Rost (1993) defined leadership as the influencing relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their shared purpose. Iowa state university (1976) also defined leadership as “the interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals”. The term leadership in this research is refers to women with an influencing relationship among leaders and followers to bring about changes in higher education.

Gender Equality versus Gender Equity: Leach (2004) indicated that gender equality refers to the norms, values, and attitudes that allow for equal status between women and men without ignoring biological differences. Whereas gender equity refers to fairness in women’s and men’s access to resources. This does not mean that everyone should be treated the same, or that it is necessary to have equal number of women and men in any institution or profession.

Gender Inequalities

Gender inequalities are the obvious or hidden disparities among individuals based on sex, female or male. It is a familiar fact that women’s lives have long been, and to some extent still are, led through socially defined roles, to which women are committed not by choice of their own but by the circumstance of their sex (Macklem,T.,2003).

Empowerment

Women’s empowerment is an intrinsic human rights goal that has implications for the health and well-being of women and their children. The major objectives of the Women’s Empowerment Program (WEP) in Ethiopia include fostering an environment that calls forth women’s leadership and agency at the local level as well as expanding economic opportunities for women in rural households. USAID invests in empowering women and girls in Ethiopia by promoting equal access to education, health, and economic opportunities. Empowering women to participate fully in economic life across all sectors is essential to build stronger economies, achieve internationally agreed goals of development and would improve the quality of life for women, men, families and communities (Beyene Seleshi, 2019).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with theoretical framework, overview of leadership, general situations of women in Ethiopia, history of women participation in leadership, factors that affect women's participation in leadership, strategies to enhance participation in leadership and Empirical framework of the study.

2.1. Theoretical framework

The research will employ feminist theory. The theory recognizes the pervasive influence of gender divisions on social life and tries to understand women's marginalization and the structures in society that espouse this subjugation and subordination. The feminist perspective, looking at the many similarities between the genders, concludes that women and men have equal potential for individual development. Differences in the realization of that potential, therefore, must result from externally imposed constraints and from the influence of social institutions and values (Nzomo 1995 cited in Osongo, 2004). Osongo noted that feminist theory highlights three broad perspectives in trying to explain the absence of women from senior management in any organization. The first perspective is personal factors in which the paucity of women in management positions is attributed to the psychosocial attributes, including personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves. Among personal factors that affect women to take leadership positions, are self-esteem and self-confidence, lack of motivation and ambition to accept challenges "to go up the ladder", women's low potential for leadership, less assertiveness, less emotional stability and lack of ability to handle a crisis are identified (Bond 1996). In addition, Singh and Shahabudin (2000) stated a personal factor that affects women to take leadership positions are assertiveness, confidence, resourceful creativeness, loyalty and trustworthiness which could help women to ascend to senior management positions. Furthermore, a number of other researchers have identified a number of factors that function as barriers to women's career advancement. Zhong (2006) mentioned glass ceiling, gender discrimination and sexual harassment, organizational culture, and work and family conflict as major barriers. The glass ceiling refers to invisible, generally artificial, barriers that prevent qualified individuals, e.g. women, from advancing within their organizations and reaching their full potential (Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999). Other barriers stifling women to assume leadership roles have also

been identified. Lack of education, sexual harassment, lack of mentor, lack of role model, inadequate knowledge/competence, lack of work support, family responsibility, and lack of equity in pay and training as are identified major barriers (Zhong, 2006). Osongo (2004) also cited that nepotism, political affiliation, networking, ethnicity, qualification, administration experience, willingness to take position, assertiveness, self-confidence, and self-esteem are the major factors affecting women to advance in their career ladder. Bello (1992) also described several obstacles that prevent women from advancing to senior management positions. The study indicated the socio-cultural beliefs as the major barriers in this regard. These beliefs emphasize the superiority of men and the inferiority of women. They form an integral part of the socialization process and the gender education and training most men and women are exposed to from childhood. Based on the concept of role expectancy, an individual develops through the years his or her own set internalized values, beliefs, attitudes, ideals and aspirations. Another barrier is the institutional framework guiding the gender division of labor, recruitment and upward mobility. Moreover, Olojede (1990) affirms that since men dominate public decision-making bodies, it is the male values that are reflected in these decision-making bodies. Gender and leadership remain highly gendered. The differential relations of women and men to leadership and management are a key question for both theory and practice. There is a male dominance among managers and management is thus male gendered both symbolically and practice. Okafor et al. (2011) identified the barriers to the career advancement of women to top management positions as lack of mentoring; fewer opportunities for training and development of women; low aspiration level of women managers and gender stereotypes. To the other end, this research based on leadership theories especially on transformational leadership. Rost (1993) defined leadership as the influencing relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their shared purpose. Similarly Iowa state university (1976) also defined leadership as “the interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals”. According to Dubrin and Miller (2006), cited on Hin Chow et al. (2019) some of the definitions of leadership are; Interpersonal influence, directed through communication toward goal attainment, The influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with directions and orders and An act that causes other to act or respond in a shared direction But John Maxwell (1993) sums it up the best: Leadership is influence. It is nothing more or less. This is true as leadership is an art of getting followers and the ability to influence them toward a shared worthwhile goal. It is not only important to stimulate the followers to achieve goals but it is

also essential to be able to influence the followers to embrace change if needed for a common good. Change is one of the most common variables when there is a discussion on leadership. Dubrin, Dalglish, and Miller (2006) define a good leader as someone that is able to facilitate changes while Daft (1999) states that an important part of leadership is to influence the followers to bring change to a desirable outcome. Maxwell (1993) declares that the ultimate test of a leader is to create positive change. If leaders resist change, they are no longer leading. Hence, once a leader can differentiate the different between novel change and needed change, then he/she is ready and must become a change agent. To conclude, the rationale for this research is to explore to what extent the above mentioned factors such as Personal, Institutional & Social affecting women's participation in academic leadership positions in Ethiopian public universities.

2.1.1. Leadership

Literature on leadership is very large and ideas about leadership have been discussed for centuries, no unifying definition on leadership has emerged that satisfies all researchers. This is due to searching for a single definition of leadership may be in vain since the correct definition of leadership depends on the interest of the researcher and the type of problem or situation being studied (McCleskey, 2014 cited in Zewuditu, 2020). Some of the definitions discussed below;

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According to Stogdill (1974) asserts leadership, has as many definitions as there are persons who attempted to define the concept. It is the process of influencing a group of followers, adding value, and helping the community adapt to change. It is also the quality exhibited by those who lead. Leadership is a dynamic relationship based on mutual influence and common purpose between leaders and collaborations in which both are moved to higher level of motivation and moral development as they affect real intended change (Stogdill, 1974).

Zeitchik (2012) defined leadership as it is inspiring others to pursue our vision within the parameters we set, to the extent that it becomes a shared effort, a shared vision, and shared success. Kotter (1996) showed that leadership is a set of processes that wishes the effectiveness of organization and modifies them according to changing process to make their performance effective.

Allio (2003) defined leadership as speaking, listening and acting in a way that mobilizes self and other to take effective action to realize visions and possibilities. Leadership occurs when one person induces others to work toward some predetermined objectives. Leadership is the ability of a superior to influence the behavior of a subordinate or group and persuade them to follow a particular course of action. Leadership is about creating a future that requires the mobilization of others for its realization (Allio, 2003).

According to Liu and Fang (2006) leadership concerns the ability to influence the behavior of others to closely accord with the desires of the leader. It is then inevitable that leadership concerns interpersonal relationship in the pursuit of organizational and individual goals and therefore involves power exercising by the leaders.

Leadership is a process by which one person influences the thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors of others (Yalem, 2011). Leaders set a direction for their followers. They help to see what lies ahead; they help to visualize what we might achieve; they encourage and inspire followers. Yukl (2006) also defines leadership as the process of influencing others to understand and

agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, as well as the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives.

Davis and Newstrom (1989) also defined leadership as the process of encouraging and helping others to work enthusiastically toward objectives. It is the human factor that helps a group identify where it is going and then motivates it towards its goals. Without leadership, an organization would be only a gathering of people and machines, just as an orchestra without a conductor would be only musicians and instrument. Hence, for this study the definition of leadership as a process of encouraging and helping others to work actively toward objectives is considered since the meaning of leadership is taking into consideration as facilitator (transformational leadership style) not as a power (transactional leadership style). Their study focused on personality factors, like intelligence, ambition, and aggressiveness; others examined physical characteristics like height, build and attractiveness. However, no consistent agreements that are stable across groups and tasks have emerged despite continued attempts (Davis and Newstrom, 1998)

2.1.2. Empowerment

Women's empowerment is an intrinsic human rights goal that has implications for the health and well-being of women and their children. The major objectives of the Women's Empowerment Program (WEP) in Ethiopia include fostering an environment that calls forth women's leadership and agency at the local level as well as expanding economic opportunities for women in rural households. USAID invests in empowering women and girls in Ethiopia by promoting equal access to education, health, and economic opportunities. Empowering women to participate fully in economic life across all sectors is essential to build stronger economies, achieve internationally agreed goals of development and would improve the quality of life for women, men, families and communities (Beyene Seleshi, 2019).

2.1.3. Education and Women's Empowerment

Malhotra, Pandey, and Grown (2003) indicate that the data around the world show that the increased education is associated with the empowerment of women. Educated women are more effective at improving their own well-being and that of their family. They are better equipped to extract the most benefit from existing services and opportunities and to generate alternative opportunities, roles and support structures. These empowering effects of women's education are manifested in a variety of ways, including increased income-earning potential,

ability to bargain for resources within the household, decision making autonomy, control over their own fertility, and participation in public life. And also UN Millennium project (2005) pointed out that the impact of women's education is greater in settings that are already relatively equal. Under such conditions even modestly educated women are more likely to participate in important family decisions, to work in non-farm occupations, and to control economic resources.

2.1.4. General Situation of Women in Ethiopia

Women comprise about 50% of the estimated Ethiopian population of 50 million. Among the total heads of households, 25.5% are females with 23% of them in rural and 39% in urban areas (Yalem, 2011). Like their counterparts in developing countries, women in Ethiopia face a set of multiple, cross cutting and interrelated problems. These problems limit Ethiopian women's access to services, productive and educational and employment opportunities. Hence most of them do not participate in decision making (Yalem, 2011).

In general, Women in Ethiopia occupy low status in the society. In spite of their contributions to the wellbeing of their family and community affairs in general, women experience lower socioeconomic status as a whole and hence is marginalized from making decisions at all levels. Women are facing multiple forms of deprivation. Gender based discrimination, lack of protection of basic human rights, violence, lack of access to productive resources, education and training, basic health services, and employment are widespread (Singh & Shahabudin, 2000).

Ethiopian women are actively involved in all aspects of their society's life. Women are both producers and procreators and they are also active participants in social, political, and cultural activities of their communities. However the varied and important roles they play have not always been recognized. The discriminatory political, economic and social norms and regulations prevailing in Ethiopia have barred women from enjoying the fruits of their labour. Without equal opportunities, they have lagged behind men in all fields of self-advancement (Hargwoin & Embet, 2003).

Economic development is impossible without the participation of women. In some economic sectors women even constitute a proportionally larger group of the labour force than men. However, because their participation in the economy has not been valued, Ethiopian women have not received their fair share of the nation's wealth (FDRE Ministry of Women's Affairs, 2007).

Although women have made substantial contributions to the struggle Ethiopian people have waged to ensure their rights and freedoms, their struggle up to now has not been sufficiently institutionalized. Women issues do not only concern women. Women's problems cannot be solved by women alone, but by the coordinated efforts of the society as a whole, including the government. Careful planning in full consultation with women is essential, drawing lessons from past failures and experiences (Chalichisa & Emnet, 2013).

Women's demand to participate actively in national development and to exercise their right to enjoy its fruits is now receiving support in government and local communities. One effect has been the creation of a modus operandi which is increasingly free from partiality and sexual discrimination. Of course there is still a long way to go (MoWCA, 2006).

However, Ethiopian women suffer from work stereotype and gender distribution of labor, more are occupied in economically invisible work. Women experience lower socioeconomic status in general and hence remain marginalized from making decisions at all levels. Nonetheless, women are poor in terms of access to resources, services and employment. Women are underrepresented in the formal sector of employment. The survey conducted by the Central Statistical Authority (CSA, 2007) showed that women account for less than half (43%) of the total employees in the country.

Considering the percentage of female employees from the total number of employees by employment type, the highest was in domestic activities (78%) and followed by unpaid activities (59.3%). In other types of formal employment (e.g. government, NGOs, private organizations), the percentage of female workers is less than 35. On the other hand, the survey showed overrepresentation of female workers in the informal sector. About 58% of working women work in the informal sector whereas the percentage of working men in the informal sector was 37.7 % (CSA, 2007). The breakdown of the federal government employees by occupational groups also indicated gender disparity. Women underrepresentation in administrative and professional and scientific job categories, respectively, is indicating that upper and middle level positions are overwhelmingly dominated by men (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005). This concentration of women in the informal sector and low level positions has implication on their earnings. In this regard, the survey showed four out of ten women civil servants earn Birr 300 a month compared to two out of ten for men (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005).

2.1.5. Gender Equality

According to the UN (2002) cited in Caren Grown (2003), equality is the cornerstone of every democratic society that aspires to social justice and human rights. And gender equality means women having the same opportunities in life as men, for instance equality of access to education and employment, which does not necessarily lead to equality of outcomes. The United Nations Human Development report (1995), cited in Caren Grown (2003), refers to gender equality in terms of capabilities (education, health, and nutrition) and opportunities (economic and decision-making). Similarly the World Bank (2001), defines gender equality in terms of equality under the law, equality of opportunity (including equality of rewards for work and equality in access to human capital and other productive resources that enable opportunity), and equality of voice/the ability to influence and contribute to the development process.

Caren Grown (2003) pointed out three components or domains of equality between women and men: capabilities, access to resources and opportunities, and agency or the ability to influence and contribute to outcomes. The capabilities domain refers to basic human abilities as measured through education, health and nutrition. It is the most fundamental of all the three domains and is necessary for achieving equality in the other two domains. Access to resources and opportunities, the second domain, refers primarily to equality in the opportunity to use or apply basic capabilities through access to economic assets (such as land and property) and resources (such as income and employment). The third domain, agency, is the defining element of the concept of empowerment and refers to the ability to make choices and decisions that can alter outcomes. Gender equality in this domain can only result from an equalizing in the balance of power between women and men in the household and societal institutions. These three domains of equality are inter-related. Progress in any one domain to the exclusion of the others is insufficient to meet the goal of gender equality (Caren Grown, 2003).

Gender inequalities exist because of discrimination in the family and societal institutions, and social, cultural and religious norms that perpetuate stereotypes, practices and beliefs that are detrimental to women. Human rights conventions provide redress for discrimination. Among these, the convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), adopted by the U.N. General Assembly in 1997, cited in the Caren Grown (2003), is the most universally accepted instrument for realizing gender equality and influencing cultural and traditional definitions of gender roles and family relations.

2.1.6. What are Gender Inequalities?

Gender inequalities are the obvious or hidden disparities among individuals based on sex, female or male. It is a familiar fact that women's lives have long been, and to some extent still are, led through socially defined roles, to which women are committed not by choice of their own but by the circumstance of their sex (Macklem, T., 2003).

According to Rita F.N. (2008) the dichotomous nature of gender leads to the creation of inequality that manifests in numerous dimensions of daily life. These include economic, political, social-cultural, and roles played or assigned to individuals in the society and more. The direct effect of gender inequalities are gender roles which are defined as a set of perceived behavioral norms associated particularly with males or females, in a given social group or system. It can be a form of division of labor based on gender. As the roles are assigned based on gender, the inequality sets because of the perceived norm that certain roles should be played based on the biological makeup of the individual.

Bem, S.L. (1993), cited in the Rita F.N. (2008) noted that gender inequalities are typically attributed to one or the other of two casual factors. Either women are being denied access by policies and practices that intentionally discriminate against even those women whose situations are most similar to men's in which case the government must step in to remedy the situation; or alternatively, women's biological psychological, and historical differences from men lead them to make the kind of choices that are inconsistent with building the kind of career as men, in which case, there is no one to blame for gender inequality.

2.1.7. Gender Inequality in Ethiopia

According to UNFPA (2008), the issue of gender inequality can be considered as a universal feature of developing countries. Unlike women in developed countries who are, in relative terms, economically empowered and have a powerful voice that demands an audience and positive action, women in Ethiopia are generally silent and their voice has been stifled by economic and cultural factors. Economic and cultural factors, coupled with institutional factors dictate the gender-based division of labor, rights, responsibilities, opportunities, and access to and control over resources. Education, access to media, employment, decision making, among other things, are some of the areas of gender disparity. Concerning this issue Haregewoin & Emebet (2003) also states that Ethiopia is a patriarchal society that keeps women in a subordinate position. Similarly Hirut (2004) found that women are docile, submissive, patient, and tolerant of monotonous work and violence, for which culture is used as a justification.

2.1.8. The costs of Gender Inequality in Education to Productivity and Economic Growth

According to Knowles, Lorgelly, and Owen (2002), and Klasen (2001), cited in the UN Millennium project (2005), research on education and economic growth has shown that failing to invest in girls' education lowers gross national product. And also Hill and King 1995, cited in the UN Millennium project (2005), estimate that everything else being equal, countries in which the ratio of girls to boys enrolment in primary or secondary education is less than 0.75 can expect levels of growth national product that are roughly 25 percent lower than countries in which there is less gender disparity in enrolments.

Abu-Ghaida and Klasen (2002) pointed out that countries that fail to meet the goal of gender parity in education will face considerable costs, both in forgone economic growth and reductions in fertility, child mortality, and malnutrition. And without appropriate action, these costs will increase overtime. They estimate that countries that are off-track in female primary and secondary school enrolment might lose 0.1-0.3 percentage point in annual economic growth between 1995 and 2005 and an average of 0.4 percentage point between 2005 2015.

2.1.9. Women's Participation in Leadership Positions

The contemporary world is male dominated in which gender-power relations are clearly adjusted in favor of men. The prevailing internationalized patriarchal system excluded women from every sphere of public life including leadership and decision making structures (Hirut, 2004). One of the areas of disparity between male and female is related to the difference in their employment status which is manifested by occupational segregation, gender based wage gabs, and women's disproportionate representation in informal employment, un paid work and higher unemployment 12 rates (UNFPA, 2005). This disparity shows that as women have low states in the community, the activities that they perform tend to be less valued and women's low status is also perpetuated through the low value placed on their activities (Marshal et.al, 1999). The problem of gender in equalities discussed above is very much prevalent in, and relevant to Ethiopia. Ethiopia is a patriarchal society that keeps women in a subordinate position. There is a belief that women are docile, submissive patient, and tolerant of monotonous work and violence, for which culture is used as a justification (Hirut, 2004).

The socialization process which determines gender roles is partly responsible for the subjugation of women in the country. Ethiopian society is socialized in such a way that girls

are held inferior to boys in the process of upbringing, boys are expected to learn and become self-reliant, and responsible in different activities, while girls are brought up to conform, be obedient and dependent, and socialized indoor activities like cooking, washing clothes, fetching water, caring for children etc (Hirut, 2004).

As most managers of organizations are men, it is important to consider the role of women managers and investigates the constructions of women identities in male dominated working environment. Despite some measures taken by the state governments, there is still small percentage of women participating in public decision making roles, especially in top managerial positions. Even in the traditionally women dominated professions; women are in the secondary position compared to men (Haregewoin & Emebet, 2003).

Many scholars cited the role of women in economic, political and social process of their country. The contributions of women in the development of the country are immeasurable. Even though, their contribution in all sphere of life is increasing from time to time, their participation and representation in managerial position and decision making role is insignificant.

2.1.10. History of Women Participation in Leadership

2.1.10.1. Global Level

Since ancient Greek surviving sources are overwhelmingly written indicates temples, buildings and battle memorials all speak of a man's world. Even Athenian democracy which the modern Id celebrates, denied women the power of making decisions by disallowing the fundamental right to choose their leaders through the right to vote. The range of female influence and experience in ancient history has slowly been brought to the fore; between the fall of Athens in 404 BC and the rise of Alexander the Great in 330s BC. A social aspect of the woman's role in ancient Greek was of divine power as priests or gods. Plato (1976) explains the economic and cultural roles of women during this time to have changed with the changing political epochs. In the middle Ages, Klapisch (1994) stated that a period of European history between the 5th and 15th century, the positions of women were initially limited to being a wife, mother, peasant, artisan, spinner and nun. The men wielded legal power over women and heard their confessions, and assailed them with endless treatises and sermons. This suggests that, women were ensnared in webs of rules so constraining that they could not utter a word or move a muscle.

However in modern periods particularly during world war one (WWI) and world war two (WWII), women took on the work of men out of necessity. Women took on male traditional roles out of their gender expectations with an agreement that they would lose these jobs once the men returned from war. During these wars the role of women to become indispensable means for total mobilization of societies' resources. Few women managed to enter male dominated professions but for the most part remained in duties at home and women's work.

After the end of WWII issues concerning women have taken new dimensions and received varied treatments by the United Nations (UN). The organization has recognized the principle of equality of men and women since 1945. This is to be seen in the United Nations Charter and subsequently the 1948 Declaration of Human Rights. In spite of these international declarations, of which Ethiopia is a signatory, affirming the legal rights and equality of men and women still constitute a disproportionately small percentage of those participating in public decision making. Many global conferences have recognized that, despite the progress made globally in improving the status of women, gender disparities still exist, especially in regard to participation of women in decision making. Conferences such as the 1979 convention on elimination of all forms of 18 discrimination against women (CEDAW) provides the basis for the realization of equality between women and men. This is to be achieved through the women's equal access to resources and equal opportunities in the political and public sphere –though not any but also the right to vote and to stand for election, as well as education, health and employment.

Another historical perspective of efforts to develop women's participation in decision making saw the rise of two organizations; the Women In Development (WID) and the Gender and Development (GAD). By the 1970s, it became unmistakable that women were left out of the developmental process and benefited negligibly from the country's development and in some cases their status in society was worsened by the country's development. The WID identified the exclusion of women from developmental programs as the main problem coupled with the oblivion to women's contributions to development of the country. WID saw women as a group lacking opportunities to participate in development. The solution to this crisis was the integration of women into development processes, a cause WID supported. The focus tended to be on the provision of women's basic needs in terms of food, shelter, income, health care and other such provisions.

GAD emerged in the 1980s marking equitable sustainable development. GAD focuses on the impact of development on both men and women. It intends to ensure the participation and profiting of both sexes from development and therefore emphasized the equality of benefits and control. GAD recognizes that while women contributed significantly to development in Ethiopia, they did not benefit from it. Because of this, a new focus on gender was developed by women concerned with the perceived difficulties emerged.

2.1.10.2. Women participation in Leadership in Ethiopia

Before the 1974 revolution, Ethiopian society has a strong religious base and the political culture has derived its strength from those religious beliefs. Orthodox Christianity was the dominant religion at the time forming the ideological base of the ruling monarchs. Within the stratification system, women were not only placed at the lowest hierarchical level, but were also expected to show utmost respect and submission to men and never question the motives of their husbands, fathers or male relatives. Over centuries, such indoctrination became further integrated as part of culture. In this manner, women's inferior status became established unchallenged as universal within the traditional patriarchal ideology. The Emperor had no agenda and did not consider women's advancement as an issue. There were women's organized activities run mainly by non- 19 governmental (NGO's) bodies such as the Ethiopian Women's Welfare Association, the Ethiopian Officer's Wives Association, and the Ethiopian Female Students' Association. Most of the educated women were also not sensitive to their own problems and could not walk further than functioning as part of the society, abiding by their feminine roles. Even though the first parliament was established in Ethiopia during Haile Selassie's regime, no woman had been given a chance of nomination. Latter, only 2 women in 1965 and 5 women in 1969 have occupied the imperial's parliament and the senate which had 250 and 125 seats, respectively (Yalem, 2011). When the Dergue, which was military regime, took political power in the country in 1974, it dramatically changed the political course from monarchy to a communist orientation. The Revolutionary Ethiopian Women's Association (REWA) was established by proclamation, but this organization was too monolithic and too close to the Dergue to be of any real use to women. The purpose of its establishment was, in fact, the consolidation of the Dergue's power. Promoting the interests of women was not high on its agenda nor was it designed to influence government policies or help women benefit from development programs. As a result, there was little improvement in the lives of Ethiopian women, whether in the social, economic or political sphere, especially of those who lived in the rural areas (Yalem, 2011). Later on it

assumed complete monopoly on the emancipation of women, dictating its course and actions from a distorted woman question paradigm. Dergue representing all women in the country, namely the Revolutionary Ethiopian Women's Association (Biseswar, 2011).

It was during 1991 when EPRDF took political power in the country in which things looked more promising when the EPRDF in 1991. Many new laws replaced the abundance of state proclamations of the Dergue, creating opportunities for society. Initially, these laws promised much freedom and space to the people (Biseswar, 2011). The ruling party set up its own national women's machinery in the form of Women's Affairs Offices (WAO) and bureaus to enhance women's actions. Beside to this, EPRDF government also initiated numerous other wellintended efforts to enhance the rights of women. These include the promulgation of constitution containing women's explicit rights, the signing of international treaties regarding women's rights and the introduction of affirmative measures to promote women's advancement (Yalem, 2011).

The Federal Constitution of Ethiopia was promulgated in 1995 which has renewed the commitment to the gender policy and clearly expressed legislative support for women through its 20 various articles. For example, Article 7, 25, 33, 35, 38, 42 and 89 prohibits discrimination on grounds of gender and protection of the rights of Ethiopian women. Beside local efforts, the government in Ethiopia has always been among the first to become a signatory to the many international conventions. It did not stop there. It was quite promising to see that the ruling party included an article in the constitution meant to domesticate these international treaties. In addition several steps undertaken by the EFDRE government on women's rights include revision of the family law in 2000; revision of the penal code in 2004; revision of the labor law; launching of a social welfare policy in 1997; an educational policy; the formulation of a national health policy in 1993; the promulgation of a national population policy, an HIV/AIDS policy, and many more (Yalem, 2011).

The Civil Service Reform Programs also contributed a lot to women's participation in decision making. Article 13 (1) of the Civil Service Proclamation No.262/2002 prohibits discrimination among job seeker on the basis of sex. The proclamation also incorporates an affirmative action by stating that preference shall be given to female candidates who have equal or close scores to that of male candidates. As a result, the number of women indifferent decision making position has increased significantly.

2.1.11. Women in Higher Education

UNESCO (1993) pointed out that increase in education is one of the major avenues through which women are empowered. And also states that the gender gap in access to education is one of the areas that differentiate economically advanced from developing countries. Indeed, despite lingering restrictive factors, by and large women in industrialized countries have been immensely benefiting from the expansion of educational opportunities. In contrast, in developing countries especially in Africa, there are still historical, cultural, and economic factors that have been hindering women's chances for access to and benefits from formal education especially at the tertiary level.

As Ajayi et al. (1996) indicated that, currently the percentage of women in higher education level institutions in Sub-Saharan Africa is only 25 percent of total enrolment. This gender-based unequal distribution is a reflection of profound structural problems. Furthermore, the research findings on universities indicate that the lower representation of women both as students and staff, particularly the academic staff, in Sub-Saharan Africa remains a crucial problem regarding women's participation in teaching research and academic administrative positions of high status. In addition to their small and at times truly negligible, numbers; they tend to be clustered in the lower levels of the academic occupational ladder (Humm, 1996; Quina, Cotter & Romenesko, 1998; Eholie, 2007; Houphouet Boigny & Koblavi Mansilla, 2007; Meena, 2007) cited in UNESCO 2006.

2.1.12. Women and Higher Education Management

Anteneh (2017) stated that in many countries, female participation in higher education is generally low, and their participation in higher education management is strikingly low. In the area of higher education, both in teaching and management, women are still a long way from participating on the same footing as men (UNESCO 2002). In Ethiopia, women have made some progress in achieving parity in teaching but are grossly under-represented in higher education management (MoE 2014).

2.1.13. Barriers to Women Participation in Higher Education Management.

Women are underrepresented in university management in Ethiopia and in other parts of the world (Yousaf & Schmiede 2017). Anteneh 2017, Bezawit & Singh (2019), UNESCO (2006), support this idea and the barriers are categorized in to Personal, Institutional and Social factors.

Personal Barriers It includes personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves. Among personal factors are lack of self-esteem and self-confidence; limited aspirations in the field of management, lack of motivation and ambition to accept challenges to go up the ladder; women's orientation to interpersonal relations with peers which could impede their upward mobility; promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership, being less assertive, less emotionally stable and lacking ability to handle a crisis (Bond, 1996).

Institutional Barriers It is the disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure. This indicates that few numbers, little power, limited access to resources. The underlying premise of this perspective is that men and women are equally capable and committed to assuming positions of leadership; but the problem is vested in the structure and the remedy is a fundamental change to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in institutional policies and practices. Among structural factors that contribute to inequality are discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; male resistance to women in management positions; absence of policies and legislation to ensure participation of women; and limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence as a result of the power structure in the workplace (Bond, 1996).

Societal Barriers It is the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities, and expectations to women and to men. These gender based roles, irrelevant to the work place, are carried in to the workplace. Higher education institutions therefore reproduce gender differences via their internal structures and everyday practices because of the cultural perceptions which determine the attitudes and behaviors of individual men and women and form barriers to the equal participation of women in senior management (Smulders, 1998).

2.1.14. Strategies that Can Be Used to Enhance Women's Participation in University Management

Various strategies have been formulated to increase the participation of women in education, decision-making and development activities in general. The strategies suggested are increasing women's participation in education at all levels so as to raise the number of women from which able managers could evolve; formulating equal opportunity policies, changing the environment in which women work, and the attitudes towards educated women, flexibility in working hours, and reviewing of recruitment and promotion policies in higher education (Osongo, J., 2004) And also there are several strategies that have been advanced by

scholars as a means of trying to advance women's participation in leadership positions. Some of the intervention strategies discussed below:-

2.1.14.1. Breaking through the Glass Ceiling

The glass ceiling is costly, resulting in lost productivity by employees who are demotivated due to lack of advancement in their careers and high turnover costs (Ragins, Townsend & Marttis, 2008). In order to remove the "glass ceiling" that many women stumble upon corporate leaders need to have a thorough understanding of the barriers faced by women. Further, an understanding of the organizational environment women work in also has to be taken into consideration when formulating the strategies. The gender strategies must be formulated with the main priority of assisting the empowerment of women and assisting them in their advancement (Ragins, 1998). So women are constantly looking for new and innovative ways to adapt to the workplace so that these barriers are overcome. The various strategies that can be utilized to empower women in the workplace will now be examined.

2.1.14.2. Adapting to the Workplace

Consistently exceeding performance expectations was the top ranking strategy used by successful senior executives (Gazso, 2004). Working long hours and developing unique skills and expertise are some of the other tactics that were also used. Women also face the daunting challenge of ensuring that their management style is not masculine or too feminine. They have to ensure that they have a management style that is acceptable to their male colleagues, supervisors and subordinates. Women have to find an appropriate style that will not threaten their male peers or make them uncomfortable (Ragins, 1998). Women become more aggressive and competitive in the workplace and they also try to be "one of the boys". As a result women in senior management positions resemble men in their personality and behavior characteristics (Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002).

2.1.14.3. Mentoring

Vinnicombe and Singh (2003) states that mentors can play various roles including career advisor, counselor, friend, coach on management techniques and advocate. Mentors also assist women in developing their managerial identity. Individuals who have a mentor are likely to receive more promotions, have more career mobility and advance at a faster rate than those that lack a mentor (Nicholson, 1996). Mentors that are part of old boy networks can provide valuable information and contacts to their female protégés and can facilitate

access to membership for their protégés (Vinnicombe& Singh, 2003). However there is a serious shortage of female mentors (Ragins, Townsend &Mattis, 1998). If the number of female role models are increased this will ensure feminine management styles are more acceptable in the workplace (Vinnicombe& Singh, 2003). Initiatives must therefore be taken increase the pool of female mentors.

2.1.14.4. Succession Planning

Succession planning for women employees can be achieved by assisting women to overcome their lack of confidence. This will improve the number of women in various employment categories. Companies should be encouraged to introduce development career planning for both managerial and non-managerial women. These plans should include development, career planning, workplace culture and flexible working arrangements (Vander Colff& Van Scheers, 2004).

2.1.14.5. Training and Education

It is the woman's responsibility to ensure that she takes the necessary steps to overcome the deficiencies in her attributes. Studies proved that men moved into senior positions much faster than females. Women are most likely to leave the organization for a promotion due to barriers encountered whereas men will be promoted within the public institutions (Simpson, 1997). Thus, training and development must be based on developing skills for the new economy that is thinking of the future. This training must not only teach women how to think about business but also how to manage business practically (Simpson, 1997). Management development programs could also assist women to cope with the problems with their jobs (Veale & Gold, 1998). Thus, human capital investments are vitally important for ushering females into positions of authority (Smith, 2002). Therefore corporate organizations need to invest in training and development and inculcate a culture of lifelong learning.

2.1.14.6. Networking

Increased visibility, engaging in more networking, working on a significant project and making an impact are some of the initiatives females need to take to increase their chances of being promoted (Liff & Ward, 2001). Having an early opportunity to work close to senior people can give future female managers access to a network of influential contacts. These contacts can expose young managers to how an organization operates both on a formal and informal basis, thus providing valuable business insight. Visibility is a key to more

challenging and higher profile jobs and inevitably opens the doors to many future opportunities (Smith, 2002). Networking amongst women could assist women in their career development as their peers can provide them with support and guidance and hence breakdown the isolation they feel. Women need to think more strategically when developing their circle of influence as these associates can play a pivotal role in their advancement and success (Volpe & Nicholson, 2004).

2.1.14.7. Family Support

The relationship a female manager has with her partner plays a vital role in her career development and stress levels. A supportive partner and family will assist a female manager in balancing the demands of full-time work and child care. It is important for women to understand that their dual roles need to be managed. As more men share in family and home responsibilities and more children are raised by women who have professional lives, gender role socialization will shift to a more androgynous process where boys and girls are equally introduced to possibilities of their roles in societies (Wrigley, 2002). 27

2.1.14.8. Challenging Assignments

In order for women to be given the required recognition they have opted to take on highly visible assignments. These assignments will provide them with professional growth and learning challenges, serve as grooming exercise for succession planning and also give them exposure to key decision makers and influential mentors in the public institutions. These challenging assignments also assisted women in expanding and challenging their abilities and to realizing their full potential. These assignments gave the protégés confidence in their ability as well as increased their visibility to a wider range of senior managers. Unlike male counterparts who are offered key assignment women have to convince management that they are ready and able to take on these assignments (Veale & Gold, 1998).

2.1.14.9. Family Friendly Policies

Flexible work arrangements could assist women in overcoming the many obstacles they encounter at work. Some of these arrangements include flexible working hours, after school clubs and after care facility (Veale & Gold, 1998). Organizations need to develop more flexible practices such as maternity and paternity leave and flexible working hours. These family friendly policies will only assist women in reaching their maximum potential in the workplace (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003).

2.1.15. Policies on Mainstreaming Gender Issues in Education

March, Smyth, and Mukhopadhyay (1999) indicated that the issue of gender equality has become an area of concern in development planning during the last few decades. The marginalization from development programs of women for a long period of time is challenged with changing policy perspectives from Women in Development(WID), which aims to include women in development projects in order to make the latter more effective to Gender and Development(GAD) , which aims to address inequalities in women's and men's social roles in relation to development. Gender mainstreaming, the integration of gender issues in to every aspect of development programs, is aimed at empowering women to enable them participate in and benefit from the programs equally as men, being supported by international and national policies (March et al. , 1999).

According to UNFPA, (2008), global efforts had been underway to alleviate the low status of women since the 1990s. In the fame work of the general conferences held in Cairo (1994) and in Beijing (1995), direction was set and recommendations were made targeting mainly the removal of all the obstacles to gender equalities. The outcomes of these conferences recognized that the integration of gender issues in to the general development plan and program of a country is crucial and unavoidable step for over all sustainable development and that needs to get proper attention by governments.

Again UNFPA (2008), indicated that at international level, the convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing plat form for Action (BPA), and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are the main strategies and conventions introduced for the achievement of gender equality. CEDAW incorporates the following measures that governments have to take to guarantee gender equality: elimination of discrimination against women in employment opportunities and benefits of service; ensuring gender equality in all areas of socio-economic life such as legal rights to contracts and property, and access to financial credit; equality of women in national constitutions; and abolishing existing laws, regulations, customs and practices that discriminate against women. The measures that are included in the Beijing plat form for Action (BPA) are ensuring women's equal rights and access to economic resources; elimination of occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination and promoting women's access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over resources; facilitating women's equal access to markets, trade, information, and technology; promotion of

harmonization of work conducting gender based research and dissemination of its result for planning and evaluation(UNFPA, 2008).

One of the key commitments of governments and other development partners set in the MDGs include gender quality and women's empowerment. As a result Ethiopia adopted this agreement to promote gender equality and improve the lives of women. As a means to implement this global agreement, different policy and legislation have also enacted (UNFPA, 2008).

According Jelaludin et al., (2001), the national policy on women, introduced in 1993, was the first policy that is specifically related to the affairs of women. The objectives of the policy include facilitating conditions conducive to the speeding up of equality between men and women; so that women can participate in the political, economic and social life of their country on equal terms with men; ensuring that their right to own property as well as their other human rights are respected and that they are not excluded from both the enjoyment of the fruits of their labor or performing public functions and participating in decision making.

The 1994 Education and Training Policy affirmed the importance of girls' education. It focused on the reorientation of the attitude and values of the society towards recognizing the roles and contributions of women in development. The policy included gender equality issues such as increasing girls' school enrolment ratio, preparing gender sensitive curriculum and reducing girls' dropout and repetition rates (FDRE, 1994).

According to FDRE, (1997), in an attempt to address customary practices and backward traditions that undermine the roles of women in society, the National Cultural Policy was enacted in 1997. The main objectives of this policy are to ensure equal participation in and benefit from cultural activities, and to abolish traditional harmful practices that violate the rights of women such as early marriage, female genital mutilation and abduction.

According to FDRE (1995), in addition to the aforementioned national policies gender equality is guaranteed by the constitution of the country. Article 25 of the FDRE constitution states that all persons are equal before the law and prohibits any discrimination on grounds of gender. In article 35, equality in matters related to employment, equality in acquisition and management of property, equal participation in policy and decision making, and right of women to plan families are stated to ensure gender equality. Similarly, Article 42 states the right of female workers to equal pay for comparable work. When we summarize, despite the fact that Ethiopia adopted global agreements and endorsed country-specific laws and policies, but there are gaps and limitations in implementation, as a result of which the status of women in the country remained very low.

Similarly the Ethiopian Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE, 2003), also further articulated the need to implement affirmative action for women students with disabilities and native students of disadvantaged regions as entry assessment or admission procedures designed for any female, disabled student, a student who completed high school education in a developing region and who is native of the nationality of such region or student from nationality whose participation in higher education is low shall be different from others. They shall, during their stay in the institution, get special support; particulars of such support shall be determined by the Ministry (Article 6:3).

2.1.16. Females' Education in Ethiopia

According to Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation (2001), women constitute half of the country's population and are involved in 50-80 percent of the economic development and social welfare activities. However they do not benefit from the nation's wealth. This could possibly be understood if one takes in to account the economic and socio-cultural setting in the vis-à-vis women. Women's lack of access to economic resources and the various obstacles preventing them from benefiting from the fruits of their labor, it can be estimated that the majority of the people, 27 million living in chronic poverty in Ethiopia are women. In particular the situation of women living in rural area is humiliating. The fact is that females are underprivileged and underrepresented in development.

According to Konjit (1995), traditional education was controlled by the church in the Christian areas and by the mosque in the Muslim areas. Moreover, the traditional education system was the monopoly of the clergy and the exclusion of women was part of ecclesiastical life of the society.

Furthermore, Seyoum (1996) pointed out that although modern education was introduced in Ethiopia at the turn of the twentieth century, its development was cautious and gradual, particularly with regard to the education of women. Even though Empress Menen established a school for girls in 1931, the number of students was not more than a token. The countries education policy at no time has made a distinction based on gender; however evidences still confirm the superiority of males in an indirect way. Formal and non-formal curriculum and traditional teaching portray this image (Konjit, 1995).

MOE (2005) describes the pattern of enrolment and participation of Ethiopian women in education is similar to that of many African Countries. Statistics reveals that the number of female students enrolled in elementary, secondary and higher education is not equal to that of male students. For example, female students' enrollment in primary (1-8) and secondary (9-

10) accounted for 59.1% and 15.9% in 2003/04 academic years, respectively. In other words gender parity Index (GPI), which is the ratio of female to male enrollment rates, at the same year, shows that GPI is 0.8 at the national level. This indicates that girls' participation is lower than that of boys.

According to World Development Indicators(UNDP, 2001), adult illiteracy rate for males in Ethiopia for the years 1990 and 1999 are 64% and 57%, while that of female are 80% and 68%, respectively. This reveals that though more than half of both males and females are illiterate, the illiteracy rate for female is much higher than that of males for several years.

2.1.17. Where do Inequalities Really Exist in Higher Education?

According to UNESCO (1998), in higher education specific inequalities lie in the following areas.

Absence of enabling conditions: This indicates that access to appropriate qualifications and training (sponsorship for female academic staff for Ph.D. training), job openings; access to management structures; gender perspectives in courses; gender on the agenda for all seminars, workshops; monitoring processes to track progress; an action plan with measurable indicators of the increasing presence of women on campus. The need for improving women's access to an enabling environment is highlighted in research on specific preparation and sponsorship for management roles. Fewer women participate in leadership training, are awarded overseas scholarships and get less opportunity for job related administrative training (UNESCO, 1998).

Discriminatory salary scales, and fringe benefits (Housing or cost of living allowances): This indicates a view that women are less suitable to be appointed to these positions. Evidence from South Africa points out that the same level of education does not bring the same return to women and men (Budlender and Sutherland, cited In the UNESCO, 1998).

Publishing productivity: A study in the United States by Creamer (1998) provides a synthesis of research on gender differences in publishing productivity. Also Gardner et al (1998), Australian study of early career researchers reported that female academics in general publish less over time than male academics.

Recruitment policies: Data from the University of Malaya indicate that women are recruited in greater numbers as assistant registrars and financial assistants. The practice of

appointment of the vice-chancellor and deputy vice-chancellors by the minister of education also inhibits as all involved in the appointment process are male (Asmah omar, 1993).

Segregation: Some countries segregate women in schooling and exclude women from professional and administrative areas which limit opportunities for management roles for women. In such contexts women are limited in the experience they can gain of wider educational planning and can never take a central role in important decision-making about education (UNESCO, 1998).

Cultural and structural barriers: These are the overt and covert factors that hinder women's career paths. These include: male managerial styles, discourse and language that make women down, informal organizational cultures, women's reluctance to self-promote their achievements and capabilities making them institutionally invisible; the persistence of cultural values and attitudes that strongly support women's child care, family and domestic responsibilities as priority over career aspirations (Luke, 1999).

2.1.18. Importance of Higher Education for Development

According to World Bank (2003), growth derives from skilled human resources and national productivity increases leading to greater country competitiveness in the regional and global economy. And also productivity gains are generated by national innovation systems in which tertiary education institutions play a fundamental role. Similarly these institutions determine levels of capability with in the country's pool of higher level managerial, scientific and technical expertise; the effectiveness with which global knowledge is accessed and applied in the solution of local development problems; and the standards of quality with in lower levels of education. Supporting this idea Teferra and Altbach (2004) stated that higher education institutions are recognized as a key force for modernization and development, especially in developing countries.

Also Grunberg (2001) noted that higher education institutions are the major means of empowerment through which both men and women could realize their potential. Higher education is one of the most important sectors of human resource formation especially in a developing world. It is an area where philosophers, technicians, scientists, and humanities are formed and produced. In principle, with their specialized and general knowledge, skills, research and innovative capacities, these actors can be considered as the primary agents or engines of social, political and economic progress in any given society, especially in the context of a globalized economy (Assie-Lumumba, 2007).

Meena (2007) states that lack of access to higher learning leads to even more serious implications by way of depriving young women of an opportunity to optimize their self-realization and full participation in the development process. And also Daddieh (2007) indicates the weak foundation for female participation in tertiary education as a major culprit regarding women's under representation in high level positions within or outside academia, or their concentration in disciplines that lead to careers that can be more easily reconciled with their domestic roles later in life.

According to Mlama (2007), Higher education institutions have made a significant contribution to gender studies in the area of research and by producing gender experts, which in turn, have contributed to the improvements in gender mainstreaming in government development policies and plans, as well as the incorporation of the gender dimension in the development processes. Similarly Malma criticized the failure of African higher education institutions to seize the leadership in educational reforms from a gender perspective. Specifically, higher education institutions in many African countries have not taken sufficient measures to reform their institutions to be gender respective, they do not have gender responsive policies and plans and still maintain gender non-responsive curricula. Such reforms would thus produce experts in the form of economists, engineers, teachers, planners, scientists, doctors, and others who then go to lead professional development sectors without the necessary skills to mainstream gender in the development processes.

Finally Morely (2005) pointed out that despite compelling empirical evidence and intensified advocacy coupled with high level political commitment expressed by way of policies and legislatives, gender inequality is pervasive in higher education. This indicates that without gender equity in higher education institution, there is no development.

2.2. Empirical Literature

There is a growing literature dealing with women participation and decision making in leadership and factors that affect women participation in leadership in Ethiopia. Thus, some of these studies are summarized as follows

Bezawit and Singh (2019) study on Women Empowerment in Public Higher Education Institutions in Ethiopia revealed that women who are working in a higher public institution in Ethiopia highly affected by personal, institutional and social factors. Lack of confidence or poor self-image, psychological glass ceiling, and socialization process of females that

considers as Personal factors significantly affect women empowerment in public higher education institution in Ethiopia

Organizational glass ceiling, Working conditions and sex discrimination, Organizational socialization and sex-role stereotyping and human resources practices and hiring process are institutional factors those tremendously affected women empowerment in public higher education institution in Ethiopia. Also, the study revealed that work and family conflict, gendered cultural and social values, the relationship dynamics, male-dominated power structure, gender stereotypes and access to resources extremely hinder women empowerment in higher public education institution as social factors.

Anteneh (2017) study on women participation in Higher Educational Management in Ethiopia show that women are indeed underrepresented in the management of universities in Ethiopia. There are several factors at the personal, institutional and societal levels preventing women from ascending to management positions in universities. It also revealed that policies of recruitment and promotion; family commitments, lack of motivation, lack of confidence and aspiration and cultural constraints such as discrimination against women; lack of support from spouse and family etc were considered as the core reasons of females' limited access to higher education management. Male administrators were found to be more biased. These biases and stereotypes might be the major cause of gender gap in higher education management as they dominated in numbers and authority. Females' broadened access to education, training and research opportunities and discouraging the stereotypes and legislative and governmental support can facilitate more women to come up to take positions in higher education management and thus flourish their abilities as well as serve the nation.

Gudeta and Moges (2016) on their study on assessment of women empowerment in public institutions in Benishangul Gumuz regional state found that there is less emphasis for women empowerment in the organizations. In addition, the cultural and organizational factors affect women in leadership position. It is also further analyzed that even though women had confident for becoming leaders, there is no concern for mentoring, coaching, and training made by the organizations

Gojjam and Menjit(2015) study on factors that facilitate or constrain women to participate in leadership and management in selected public higher education institutions in Amhara region revealed that self-confidence, networking opportunities, self-esteem, conducive

organizational working environment, and assertiveness are found to be the most important factors pulling women into leadership. To other end, Stereotyping, Patriarchy, Lack of support system at work, Low academic qualification and Lack of role model are the major barriers stifling women to assume leadership positions. Moreover, the affirmative action policy put in place for action is not bringing the desired change yet as there are several misconceptions about it.

Woyneshet (2015) study on factors affecting women's participation in leadership position in Dashen Bank in Adiss Abeba revealed that the major identified factors were the perception of top management that men are better leader than women, highly linked male networks and alliance with the management, attitudes of top management, inconsistency or unfair promotional policies and inhospitable and discouraging corporate cultures are the most listed factors. The study concludes that the Bank does not encourage women's to promote equally with men. Furthermore, no clear promotions and appointments

Uki, Chalchissa, Kaushik and Geremew (2015) study on assessment of the factors affecting women participation in managerial position in public organizations in Jimma Zone. Shown that even though, the number of women increases in public organizations, their participation in managerial positions is still affected by several factors. Low participation of women in managerial positions results in serious consequences like job dissatisfaction, employee turnover, low productivity and absenteeism and minimizes various benefits that the organizations enjoy from their participations

Endale(2014) study on factors that affect women participation in leadership position in Bedele town revealed that majority of women were having an educational status of diploma and lower, holding lower non decision making and leadership positions, and observed major barriers 28 hindering women from public leadership and decision-making positions include: Socio-cultural attitudes and lack of acquisition of the necessary experience for taking part in public decisionmaking, Over burden of domestic responsibilities continuation of the negative attitudes regarding women's ability to lead and govern, Lack of role models of women leaders for young women and girls and the like can be stated

Birkiti(2014) study on Assessment of Factors Affecting Participation of Women in Management Position: The Case of Ethio Telecom Company showed that women are highly underrepresented in higher level positions due to some factors such as educational gap, socio-cultural attitude; organizational culture and company recruitment and promotion practice are

the major ones. Due to this women's are unable to get role model and less confidence for the position

Getachew (2014) study on opportunities and challenges of women's empowerment in leadership position in Endamehoni Woreda, Tigray regional state, Ethiopia revealed that, even though there is a little bit progress, women's empowerment in leadership position growth rate is insignificant compared to the growth rate of women in expert staff. It was further identified that the major causes that hinder women's having leadership position were socio-cultural, personal and institutional barriers, like home and family responsibility, lack of self-confidence, lack of monitoring and evaluation and related issues. The main mechanisms which for women empowerment rate in leadership position are developing self-confidence, pursuing higher education, developing strong women's network, avoiding meritocracy and using quota system.

Miressa (2012) study on practices and challenges of women in leadership and development activities of some selected woredas of Bench Maji Zone revealed that effects and sensitivities of women in leadership and development activities were high. The progress of women in leadership and development activities over the last five year was fast. However, still there is a gap when compared with men counterparts. Today women under representing in leadership position in almost all sectors due to relatively women have less freedom because of their family responsibility and lack of necessary qualifications and skills to fill position of responsibility. Major challenges influencing women were cultural issues and lack of parental involvement which were common in female headed institutions. Better activities were done regarding eradicating extreme poverty and hunger and achieving universal primary education.

Even though many studies conducted in factors affecting women's participation in Leadership positions in public universities revealed different results. My study specifically focused on factors affecting women's participation in academic Leadership positions not all women's holding leadership positions in public universities of Ethiopia. This gap may differ from other studies and that is why I want to explore this gap and searching for findings.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

This study is directed by the following conceptual frame work, which used to explain the interrelationship between the variables. The suggested model describes the relationship

between the factors and Women Participation in academic leadership positions is dependent variable.

Independent Variables

Dependent Variable

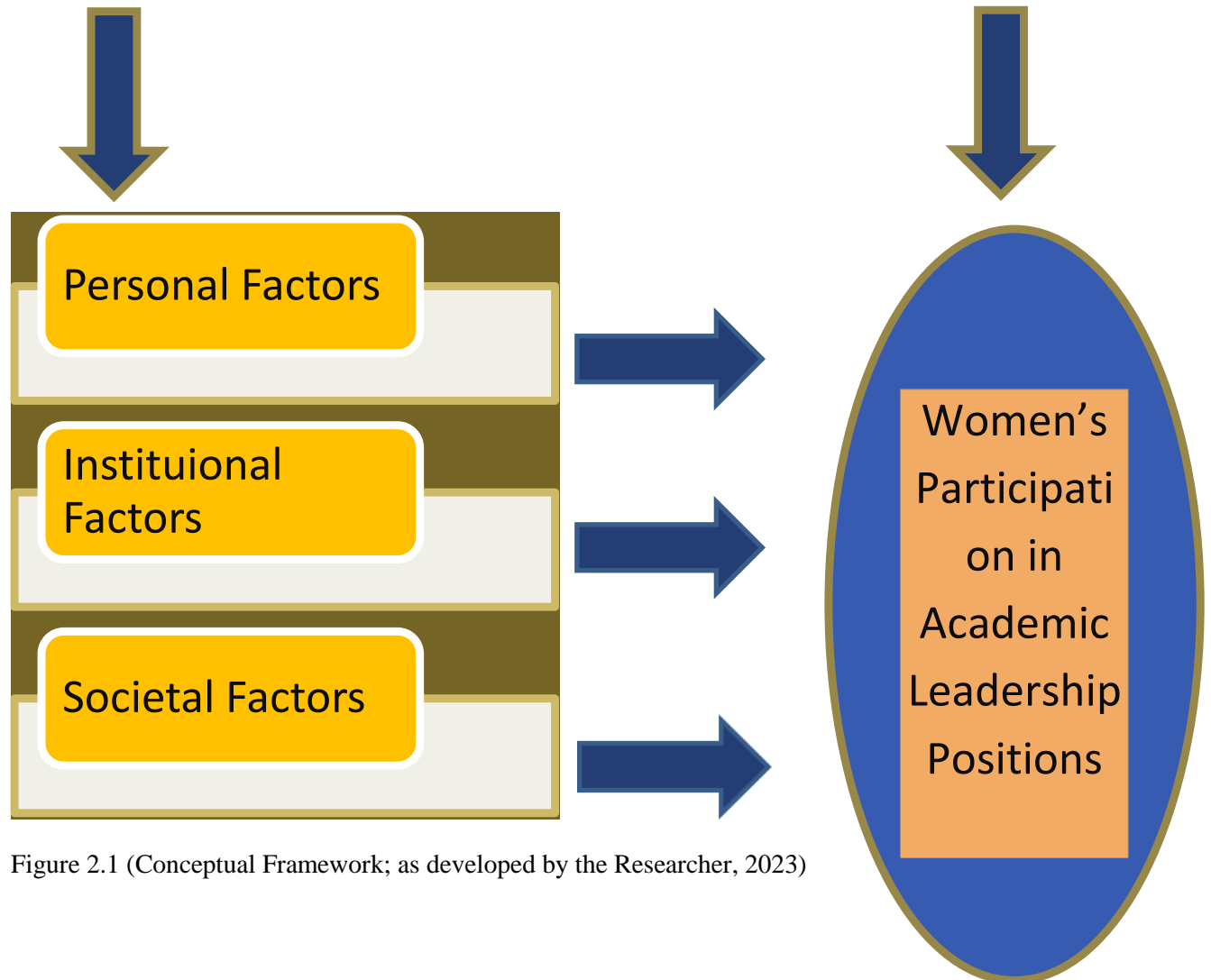


Figure 2.1 (Conceptual Framework; as developed by the Researcher, 2023)

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents about methodology of the research, design of the research, target population of the research, sampling techniques, instruments of data collection, validity and reliability, method of data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1. Methodology of the Research

In this research, a concurrent mixed research design was employed to investigate Factors affecting women's participation in academic leadership positions. It is appropriate to use such research approach because both qualitative and quantitative data was collected and compared (Creswell, 2009). Hence, the research was collected both types of data simultaneously and compare the result to use the findings and their validation.

3.2. Design of the research

Descriptive and Correlational research method was employed in this study

3.3. Target Population

This research was conducted in two Ethiopian Public Universities namely, Civil Service University and Kotebe Education University. This study was conducted on female and male academic staff of the above mentioned universities.

3.4. Sampling Techniques

A multi-stage sampling method was used to select respondents and Purposive sampling method was used to select the study area based on proximity to my work environment and diversity. Since when we say diversity Ethiopian Civil Service University is research University but Kotebe Education University is educational University. These universities are believed to be representatives of all higher governmental educational institutions in Addis Ababa. The respondents were selected using stratified random sampling and purposive sampling for both the women and male leaders. Then the sample size was decided using Yamane's (1967) simplified formula. The formula is as follows $n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$ where: n is the sample size, N is the population size, and e is the acceptable sampling error. **The 0.05 alpha probability levels were used.**

3.5. Instruments of Data Collection

This study primarily used the following data gathering instruments: questionnaire, interview, and review of documents. Questionnaires were envisaged to gather respondents' subjective opinions and judgments regarding Gender inequality on a 5 point scale Likert Scale Ranking. Interview was meant to consolidate and triangulate the data sought using questionnaire. Those key informants who do not have time to fill the questionnaire were briefly being interviewed at their convenience. Document review, finally was supplement the data gathered through questionnaire and interview by providing quantitative and factually documented events and reports pertinent to Gender inequality.

3.6. Validity and Reliability

The questionnaires that were used in the study are standard questionnaires whose validity and reliability was tested by its developer. Also the questionnaire was evaluated by conducting pilot test, advised and evaluated by some professionals who have academic and research background to assess the questionnaires.

3.7. Method of Data Analysis

The data collected was analysed by quantitative and qualitative methods. After the completion of data collection, coding and organizing, facilitating data for the analysis purpose was utilized. For the purpose of data analysis for quantitative method, Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) model was used. The research design basically focused on descriptive analysis. The results of the study were expressed in terms of number, percentage and qualitative expression.

3.8. Ethical Considerations

When conducting this research ethical considerations were taken into account. Adequate care was taken to select appropriate time to distribute questionnaires and to conduct interviews. The questionnaire was provided respondents general information about the purpose of the study. In addition to that it indicates that the respondents need not mention their name in the questionnaire and it insures confidentiality. And also the researchers guarantee that such type of study will not cause any risk of physical or psychological harm to the respondents.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals presents a detailed analysis of data collected from questionnaire and interview. It aims to present the findings from the data collected and align towards the research objectives, questions and hypothesis. The collected data were classified, organized and analysed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) 20 software version. The last part of the chapter describes interview questions conducted on factors affecting women’s participation in academic leadership positions.

4.1 Response Rate

Table4.1 Response Rate of Respondents

No.	Data Collection Tools	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires (filled and Returned)	Response Rate (in %)
1.	Questionnaire	233	220	94.4
2	Interview	12	12	100%
Total		245	232	97.2

Source Own Survey, 2023

A total of 233 questionnaires were prepared and distributed to 233 sampled respondents. And also 12 sampled respondents interviewed. However 220 questionnaires were properly filled and returned as well 12 sampled respondents interviewed properly. In general the response rate counts 97.2. Therefore, the researcher believed that it was possible to summarize, analyse and conclude based on the collected data as there was high response rate for the study.

4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

In this section, the socio-demographic characteristic of sample respondents including sex, age, education level, position, marital status and service years in public universities in Ethiopia.

Table4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

		Count	Column N %
1 Sex	Male	112	50.9
	Female	108	49.1
	Total	220	100.0
2 Age	Under 30	37	22.3
	31-40	80	48.2
	41-50	32	19.3
	Above 51	17	10.2
	Total	166	100.0
3 Educational Level	BA/BSC	44	21.6
	M.A./M.SC	106	52.0
	PhD	54	26.5
	Total	204	100.0
4 Position	Head of Department	20	11.5
	Coordinator	53	30.5
	Director	56	32.2
	Vice Dean	6	3.4
	Dean	4	2.3
	Vice President	4	2.3
	President	2	1.1
	Lecturer	29	16.7
	Total	175	100.0
5 Marital Status	Married	117	63.2
	Single	59	31.9
	Divorced	6	3.2
	Widowed	3	1.6
	Total	185	100.0
6 Service years	1-5 years	31	16.8
	6-10 years	72	38.9
	11-15 years	52	28.1
	16-20 years	20	10.8
	Above 21 years	10	5.4
	Total	185	100.0

Table 4.2. Source: Own survey data (2023)

With regard to sex composition of sample respondents as to the finding of the study indicated in the above table 4.2, 112(50.9%) of respondents were male while the rest 108 (49.1%) of them were female. From this we can conclude that the total proportions of females are fairly lower when it compared with the proportion of male.

The sample population age distribution shows that out of 220 respondents 80 (48.2%) fall under the age between 31- 40 followed by 37 (22.3%) with in the age group of under 30, then 32 (19.3%) with in the age of 41- 50 and 17 (10.2%) above the age of 51. From this we can conclude that the majority of the respondents were middle age adults.

With regard to education level of respondents the highest number respondents, 106 (52%) were M.A. / M.S.C degree followed by 54 (26.5%) PhD degree holders and 44 (21.6%) were BA/BSC degree. From this data we conclude that the majority of respondents were well educated.

According to the job position shown on the table 56 (32.2%) are directors job positions and the second higher positions 53 (30.5%) are coordinators, 20 (11.5%) are head of department, 6 (3.4%) vice Dean, 4 (2.3%) are Dean, 4 (2.3%) are vice Dean then 2 (1.1%) are university presidents, 29 (16.7%) are lecturers.

As presented on the above table 117 (63.2%) of the respondents are married, which are followed by 59 (31.9%) of the respondents are single and 6 (3.2%) are divorced and finally 3 (1.6%) of the respondents were widowed. From this we can conclude that majority of the respondents were married.

When looking at the service years of the respondents, 72 (38.9%) of the respondents were who have service year 6-10 years followed by 52 (28.1%) of the respondents fall under 11-15 years, 31 (16.8%) of the respondents were categorized under the range of 1 – 5 years, 20 (10.8%) of the respondents were categorized under the range of 16- 20 years of service and finally 10 (5.4%) of the respondents were fall under the age of above 21 years. From this we can conclude that the majority of the respondents were who have the service years of 6- 10.

4.3 Descriptive analysis

Descriptive analysis were used to analyse the results of descriptive statistics to describe statistics results which presented by tables with frequency distribution percentage and mean score of each variables.

Table 4.3 Mean Score Interpretation Model

Mean Score	Interpretation
1.00-1.80	Very Low
1.81-2.60	Low
2.61-3.20	Medium
3.21-4.20	High
4.21-5.00	Very High

Source: Moidunny (2009)

According to Moidunny (2009) the mean score between 1.00 and 1.80 was considered as very low, the mean score from 1.81-2.60 was considered as low, the mean score between 2.61 and 3.20 was taken as medium mean score, the mean score from 3.21-4.20 was considered as high mean score and the mean score between 4.21 and 5 considered as very high mean score.

Factors affecting women's participation in academic leadership positions

Personal Barriers

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Mean
	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	
1. Lack of self-confidence and willingness	38	16.7	59	26.0	55	24.2	48	21.1	27	11.9	2.85
2. Women don't aspire higher	28	12.3	56	24.7	74	32.6	38	16.7	31	13.7	2.95
3. Lack of motivation	21	9.3	69	30.4	48	21.1	60	26.4	29	12.8	3.03
4. Lack of ambition	24	10.8	58	26.1	58	26.1	60	27.0	22	9.9	2.99
5. Lack of family support	18	8.1	43	19.3	58	26.0	63	28.3	41	18.4	3.30
6. Lack of effective communication among women	23	10.2	47	20.8	58	25.7	62	27.4	36	15.9	3.18
7. Family commitment	15	6.6	41	18.1	55	24.3	77	34.1	38	16.8	3.36

8. Promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership	15	6.7	47	21.0	74	33.0	58	25.9	30	13.4	3.18
9. Low self-assertiveness	22	9.7	51	22.5	60	26.4	64	28.2	30	13.2	3.13
10. Lack of emotional stability	27	11.9	63	27.9	58	25.7	58	25.7	20	8.8	2.92
11. Psychological glass ceiling	20	8.8	44	19.4	75	33.0	57	25.1	31	13.7	3.15
12. Poor self-image	23	10.3	54	24.1	64	28.6	51	22.8	32	14.3	3.07
13. Socialization and gender structure	17	7.5	36	15.9	63	27.9	76	33.6	34	15.0	3.33
14. Lack of role model	22	9.9	48	21.5	57	25.6	71	31.8	25	11.2	3.13
15. Lack of experience	21	9.3	49	21.6	55	24.2	71	31.3	31	13.7	3.19

Table 4.4. Source: Own survey data (2023)

The first item of table 4.3 based on the respondents' opinion to lack of self-confidence and willingness of women 27(11.9%), 48(21.1%) agree and strongly agree. But on the other hand 55(24.2%) neutral, 59(26%) disagree and 38(16.7%) strongly disagree. From this data we can conclude that women have self-confidence and willingness.

On the other hand on item two of table 4.3 based on the respondents' opinion to women do not aspire higher 31 (13.7%), 38 (16.7%) responded agree and strongly agree. And 74(32.6%) responded as neutral, 56(24.7%), 28 (12.3%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree. Since most of the response of the respondents responded to greater or equal to neutral, it can be said that women do not aspire higher the leadership positions.

The third item of table 4.3 based on the respondents' opinion to lack of motivation of women the majority 89 (39.2%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 48 (21.1%), responded as neutral, 69(30.4%) responded as disagree and 21(9.3%) responded as strongly disagree. From this data we can say that lack of motivation is a personal barrier for women to hold academic leadership positions. .

On the other hand the fourth item of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion on lack of ambition, the majority 140(63%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral. And also 58(26.1%) respondents responded as disagree and 24(10.8%) responded as strongly disagree. From this we can conclude that as the majority responded lack of ambition is a personal barrier for women to hold academic leadership positions.

Concerning the fifth item on table 4.3 personal barrier of the respondents on the lack of family support the majority of the respondents responded 104(46.7%) as agree and strongly

agree, 58(26%) as neutral, 43(19.3%) and 18(8.1%) as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. From this we can conclude that lack of family support is the personal barrier for women participation in academic leadership positions.

The sixth item of table 4.3 personal barrier based on the respondents opinion to lack of effective communication among women the majority 156(69%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 47(20.8%) as disagree and 23(10.2%) as strongly disagree. This implies that lack of effective communication among women is a personal barrier for women participation in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item seven of table 4.3 personal barrier based on the respondents opinion to family commitment the majority 115(60%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 55(24.3%) neutral, 41(18.1%) disagree and 15(6.6%) as strongly disagree. From this idea we can conclude that family commitment is a personal barrier that affects women participation in academic leadership positions.

Concerning item eight if table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership the majority 162(72.3%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral. Whereas 47(21%) responded as disagree and 15(6.7%) as strongly disagree. Based on the data we conclude that promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership is a personal barrier for women to hold academic leadership positions.

The ninth item of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to low self-assertiveness the majority 154(67.8%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 51(22.5%) and 22(9.7%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. Based on this we conclude that low self-assertiveness is a personal barrier which affects women participation in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item ten of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to lack of emotional stability the majority 136(60.2%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral. And also 63(27.9%) responded as disagree and 27(11.9%) as strongly disagree. When we conclude we can say that lack of emotional stability is the personal barrier which affects women participation in academic leadership positions.

Concerning item eleven of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to psychological glass ceiling the majority 163(71.8%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and

neutral. On the other hand 44(19.4%) responded as disagree and 20(8.8%) as strongly disagree. To conclude psychological glass ceiling is a personal barrier which affects women participation in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item twelve of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to poor self-image the majority 147(65.7%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 54(24.1%) as disagree and 23(10.3%) as strongly disagree. This implies that women have poor self-image to participate in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item thirteen of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to socialization and gender structure the majority 173(76.5%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 36(15.9%) disagree and 17(7.5%) responded as strongly disagree. This implies that socialization and the gender structure or the sexual role of division of role between male and female prevents women from holding academic leadership positions.

In connection to item fourteen of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to lack of role model the majority 153(68.6%) of the respondents are responded agree, strongly agree and neutral. Then 48(21.5%) and 22(9.9%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree. When we conclude this idea women lack role models to participate in higher ladder of academic leadership positions.

And lastly item fifteen of table 4.3 based on the respondents opinion to lack of experience the majority 157(69.2%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 49(21.6%) and 21(9.3%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. From this we generalize that the majority of women academician do not have the required experience to hold academic leadership positions.

Institutional Barriers

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Mean
	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	
1. Few numbers of women	17	7.5	37	16.2	64	28.1	74	32.5	36	15.8	3.33
2. Discriminatory appointment and promotion practices	14	6.2	46	20.3	73	32.2	58	25.6	36	15.9	3.25
3. Male resistance to women in management positions	14	6.2	53	23.5	58	25.7	61	27.0	40	17.7	3.27
4. Absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women	19	8.3	58	25.4	59	25.9	64	28.1	28	12.3	3.11
5. Low academic qualification	23	10.2	47	20.9	63	28.0	60	26.7	32	14.2	3.14
6. Inadequate job knowledge/competence	21	9.4	59	26.5	56	25.1	58	26.0	29	13.0	3.07
7. Unclear appointment and promotion criteria	9	4.0	45	20.0	76	33.8	67	29.8	28	12.4	3.27
8. Patriarchal culture in academia	8	3.6	40	17.9	73	32.7	79	35.4	23	10.3	3.31
9. Nepotism (based on political affiliation, ethnicity, etc.)	18	8.1	54	24.4	62	28.1	53	24.0	34	15.4	3.14
10. Stereotyping (associating leadership with men)	14	6.4	40	18.2	61	27.7	76	34.5	29	13.2	3.30
11. Lack of support system at work	11	5.0	48	21.9	51	23.3	75	34.2	34	15.5	3.33
12. Management position dominated by men	14	6.4	37	17.0	53	24.3	74	33.9	40	18.3	3.41
13. Poor implementation of affirmative action	14	6.3	57	25.8	53	24.0	66	29.9	31	14.0	3.19
14. Lack of support and guidance from mentors	8	3.7	40	18.6	64	29.8	67	31.2	36	16.7	3.39
15. Limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence	7	3.2	48	21.6	58	26.1	76	34.2	33	14.9	3.36
16. Perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals	17	7.7	54	24.3	55	24.8	58	26.1	38	17.1	3.21

Table 4.5 Source: Own survey data (2023)

The first item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to few number of women in institution the majority 174(76.4%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 37(16.2%) and 17(7.5%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude this idea as majority responded above there are few numbers of women academic staff, so this is the barrier to hold the academic leadership positions equal to men in Ethiopian public universities.

On the other hand item number two of table 4.4 based on the opinion of respondents to discriminatory appointment and promotion practices the majority 167(73.7%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 46(20.3%) and 14(6.2%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. From this we conclude that the institutions of public universities are biased in appointment and promotion of women carrier for academic leadership positions which favor the male academicians.

Regarding the third item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to male resistance to women in management positions the majority 159(70.4%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 53(23.5%) responded as disagree and 14(6.2%) responded as strongly disagree. This implies that the male workers and leaders resist the women leaders to work with them especially at top leadership positions due to male negative attitude towards female leaders.

The fourth item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women in institution the majority 151(66.3%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 58(25.4%) responded as disagree and 19(8.3%) responded as strongly disagree. It can be said that there is absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Concerning the fifth item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to low academic qualification of women the majority 155(68.9%) of the respondents responded to agree, strongly agree and neutral, 47(20.9%) and 23(10.2%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude women have low academic qualification to participate in academic leadership positions when compared to male.

On the other hand item six of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to inadequate job knowledge/competence the majority 143(64.1%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 59(26.5%) and 21(9.4%) of the respondents responded as disagree

and strongly disagree respectively. The finding implies that inadequate job knowledge or competence hinders the women from participation in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item seven of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to unclear appointment and promotion criteria the majority 171(76%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 45(20%) disagree and 9(4%) strongly disagree. This implies that there is an unclear appointment and promotion criterion which hinders the women from participating in academic leadership positions.

Concerning item eight of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to patriarchal culture in academia the majority 102(45.7%) of the respondents responded to strongly agree and agree, 73(32.7%) responded as neutral, 40(17.9%) responded as disagree and 8(3.6%) responded as strongly disagree. To conclude there is patriarchy or male dominance in academia this affects women from holding academic leadership positions.

The ninth item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to nepotism (based on political affiliation and ethnicity) 87(39.4%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree and 62(28.1%) responded as neutral whereas 54(24.4%) and 18(8.1%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This implies that there is a presence of nepotism in some or moderate amount which prevents women from holding academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item tenth of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to stereotyping (associating leadership with men) the majority 166(75.4%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral. Whereas 40(18.2%) disagree and 14(6.4%) strongly disagree. To conclude society assumes the leadership positions for male but in reality the academic leadership is both for male and female.

The eleventh item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to lack of support system at work 109(49.7%) of the respondents agree and strongly agree, 51(23.3%) neutral, 48(21.9%) disagree and 11(5%) responded as strongly disagree. To conclude there is no strong support system at work to empower women.

Concerning item twelve of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to management positions dominated by men the majority 167(76.5%) of the respondents agree, strongly agree and neutral, 37(17%) and 14(6.4) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. It can be said that almost all the leadership positions are dominated by men. This might hinder

the participation of women at academic leadership positions because of absence of female representatives at top management levels.

Regarding item thirteen of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion on the table to poor implementation of affirmative action 97(43.9%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 53(24%) neutral, 57(25.8%) disagree and 14(6.3%) strongly disagree. This implies that there is implementation of affirmative action in public universities to empower women at leadership positions but this is not enough to bridge the gap between male and female leaders, there should be better strategies to balance the gap.

The fourteenth item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to lack of support and guidance form mentors the majority 167(77.7%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 40(18.6%) and 8(3.7%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. The finding shows that women lack support and guidance from female role models to participate in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item fifteen of table 4.4 based on the respondents' opinion to limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence the majority 167(75.2%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 48(21.6%) responded as disagree and 7(3.2%)responded as strongly disagree. The finding shows that there is a limited opportunity for women for leadership training and also lack opportunity to show or demonstrate their ability or competence with in there, so this hinders their participation to leadership positions.

The sixteenth item of table 4.4 based on the respondents opinion to perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals the majority 151(68%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 54(24.3%) and 17(7.7%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude there is a prevalence of perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organizations overall goals. These unrealistic thoughts prevent women to participate in academic leadership positions.

Ssocietal Barriers

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Mean
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	
1. Sexual harassment	24	11.3	45	21.1	60	28.2	58	27.2	26	12.2	3.08
2. Discrimination against women	16	7.2	57	25.8	61	27.6	62	28.1	25	11.3	3.10
3. Women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it	17	7.7	54	24.4	72	32.6	59	26.7	19	8.6	3.04
4. Fewer opportunities for women in education	8	3.6	55	25.0	63	28.6	62	28.2	32	14.5	3.25
5. Men are seen as decision makers	11	5.0	46	20.7	67	30.2	60	27.0	38	17.1	3.31
6. Society condemns women to subordinate status	12	5.6	42	19.4	60	27.8	73	33.8	29	13.4	3.30
7. World male dominance	14	6.4	28	12.8	60	27.4	87	39.7	30	13.7	3.42
8. Motherhood	9	4.0	32	14.3	59	26.5	79	35.4	44	19.7	3.52
9. Fear of isolation	12	5.5	37	16.8	64	29.1	75	34.1	32	14.5	3.35
10. Culture	4	1.8	32	14.7	54	24.8	89	40.8	39	17.9	3.58
11. Religious factors	14	6.3	40	18.0	60	27.0	70	31.5	38	17.1	3.35
12. Women lacks social network	23	10.4	41	18.6	64	29.0	63	28.5	30	13.6	3.16
13. Lack of support from husband/family	14	6.3	27	12.2	72	32.4	76	34.2	33	14.9	3.39
14. Absence of enabling environment/commitment	8	3.7	34	15.7	62	28.7	79	36.6	33	15.3	3.44

Table 4.6 Source: Own survey data (2023)

The first item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to sexual harassment 84(39.4%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly disagree, 60(28.2%) neutral and 45(21.1%) responded as disagree and 24(11.3%) responded as strongly disagree. This implies that sexual harassment is a barrier for women to participate in academic leadership positions but it is not so much significant like other factors.

In connection to this the second item of table 4.5 shows based on the respondents opinion to discrimination against women the majority 148(67%) of the respondents responded as agree,

strongly agree and neutral, 57(25.8%) and 16(7.2%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude there is discrimination against women to participate in academic leadership positions.

Concerning the third item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to women cannot be aggressive in organizations situations that demand it, the respondents responded as 59(26.7%) strongly agree, 19(8.6%) strongly agree, 72(32.6%) neutral, 54(24.4%) disagree and 17(7.7%) strongly disagree. This implies that aggressiveness in an organization may or may not hinder the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand the fourth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to fewer opportunities for women in education the majority 157(71.3%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 55(25%) and 8(3.6%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. It implies that due to fewer opportunities for women education women cannot compete and balance the leadership positions.

The fifth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents of opinion to men are seen as decision makers, the majority 165(74.3%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 46(20.7%) responded as disagree and 11(5%) responded as strongly disagree. This implies that the society expect male as if they are decision makers this thought hinder participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item six of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to society condemns women to subordinate status the majority 162(75%) of the respondents responded their idea as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 42(19.4%) and 12(5.6%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude according to this data the society in contrary to reality expects women as subordinate status that is why women lack leadership positions.

Concerning item seven of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to world male dominance 117(53.4%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 60(27.4%) neutral, 28(12.8%) disagree and 14(6.4%) responded as strongly disagree. It implies that world male dominance hinder women to hold academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item eight of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to motherhood 117(55.1%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 59(26.5%) responded as neutral, 32(14.3%) and 9(4%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly

disagree. It can be said that being motherhood (maternity) is a great family commitment for women, so it prevents women from participation of academic leadership positions.

The ninth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to fear of isolation 107(48.6%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 64(29.1%) responded as neutral, 37(16.8%) responded as disagree and 12(5.5%) as strongly disagree. It implies that fear of isolation may hinder their participation from leadership positions.

Concerning the tenth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to culture the majority 182(83.5%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 32(14.7%) and 4(1.8%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude culture is highly affects women participation from academic leadership positions.

On the other hand the eleventh item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to religious factors 108(48.6%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 60(27%) neutral, 40(18%) disagree and 14(6.3%) strongly disagree. It can be said that religion issue may affect women participation in academic leadership positions.

The twelfth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to women lacks social network 93(42.1%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 64(29%) responded as neutral, 41(18.6%) disagree and 23(10.4%) responded as strongly disagree. It implies that lack of network moderately have effect on participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Regarding the thirteenth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to lack of support from husband/family 181(81.5%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 27(12.2%) and 14(6.3%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. It can be said that lack of support from husband/family is highly affects the women participation in academic leadership positions.

The fourteenth item of table 4.5 based on the respondents opinion to absence of enabling environment/commitment 112 (51.6%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 62 (28.7%), 34(15.7%) responded as disagree and 8 (3.7%) responded as strongly disagree. To conclude absence of enabling environment/commitment affects women to participate in academic leadership positions.

Strategies at Personal Level

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Mean
	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	
1. Women should compete with men as par	1	2.4	1	2.4	7	16.7	20	47.6	13	31.0	4.02
2. Women should be assertive	16	7.2	29	13.1	62	28.1	81	36.7	33	14.9	3.39
3. Sensitization and emphasize on girl child education at all levels	11	5.0	37	16.7	58	26.1	73	32.9	43	19.4	3.45
4. Publishing papers and improving their qualification	8	3.7	26	12.0	59	27.3	86	39.8	37	17.1	3.55
5. Socializing with women in leadership position	7	3.2	40	18.1	51	23.1	77	34.8	46	20.8	3.52
6. Women should motivate them selves	6	2.7	32	14.5	66	29.9	65	29.4	52	23.5	3.57
7. Breakthrough the Glass ceiling	10	4.6	43	19.9	55	25.5	65	30.1	43	19.9	3.41
8. Adapting to the workplace	8	3.7	28	12.8	56	25.6	81	37.0	46	21.0	3.59
9. Networking opportunities	8	3.7	32	14.7	52	23.9	78	35.8	48	22.0	3.58
10. Effective communication skill	3	1.4	28	12.8	53	24.3	84	38.5	50	22.9	3.69
11. Competence/job knowledge	6	2.7	36	16.4	54	24.7	74	33.8	49	22.4	3.57
12. Hard work/commitment	5	2.3	32	14.5	61	27.6	74	33.5	49	22.2	3.59

Table 4.7 Source: Own survey data (2023)

The first item of table 4.6 based on the respondents opinion to women should compete with men as par 33 (78.6%) of the respondents responded as strongly agree and agree, 7(16.7%) responded as neutral, 1(2.4%) responded as disagree and 1 (2.4%) responded as strongly disagree. From this data it can be said that women should compete with men equally to participate at academic leadership positions.

Concerning the idea of item two of table 4.6 based on the respondents opinion to women should be assertive the majority 114(51.6%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 62(28.1%) as neutral, 29(13.1%) and 16(7.2%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude these idea women should be assertive by themselves to participate in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item three of table 4.6 based on the respondents opinion to sensitization and emphasize on girl child education at all levels 116(52.3%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 58(26.1%) neutral, 37(16.7%) disagree and 11(5%) strongly

disagree. This implies that sensitization and emphasis should be given to female education at all levels, for women to hold academic leadership positions.

The fourth item of table 4.6 based on the respondents opinion to publishing papers and improving their qualification the majority 182(84.2%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 26(12%) disagree and 8(3.7%) as strongly disagree. These finding implies that academic women should publish research papers and improve their qualification to hold academic leadership positions.

Regarding the fifth item of table 4.6 based on respondents opinion to socializing with women in leadership position 123(55.6%) of the respondents agree and strongly agree, 51(23.1%) as neutral, 40(18.1%) disagree and strongly disagree. This implies that women should socialize with women who found at leadership position to get experience and hold leadership positions.

The sixth item of table 4.6 based on women should motivate themselves 117(52.9%) strongly agreed and agreed, 66(29.9%) neutral, 32(14.5%) and 6(2.7%) disagree and strongly disagree respectively. It can be said that women should motivate themselves to participate in academic leadership positions.

Concerning item seven of table 4.6 based on the respondents opinion to break through the glass ceiling 108(50%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed, 55(25.5%) neutral, 43(19.9%) disagree and 10(4.6%) strongly disagree. To conclude women should break the barrier which prevents advancement in their career to participate in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item eight of table 4.6 based on the respondents opinion to adapting to the work place 127(58%) strongly agreed and agreed, 56(25.6%) neutral, 28(12.8%) disagreed and 8(3.7%) strongly disagreed. It can be said that women should adapt and work with their colleagues, supervisors and subordinates to hold and succeed top leadership positions

Item nine of table 4.6 based on respondents opinion to networking opportunities 126(57.8%) strongly agree and agree, 52(23.9%) neutral, 32(14.7%) and 8(3.7%) disagree and strongly disagree respectively to conclude having an early opportunity to work close to senior people can give future female managers access to a network of influential contacts to participate in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item tenth of table 4.6 based on respondents opinion to effective communication skill the majority 187(85.7%) of the respondents agreed, strongly agreed and neutral, 28(12.8%) disagree and 3(1.4%) strongly disagree. It can be said that effective communication is very vital for women to participate in academic leadership positions.

Item eleventh of table 4.6 based on respondents opinion to competency/job knowledge the majority 177(80.9%) agreed, strongly agreed and neutral, 36(16.4) disagreed and 6(2.7%) strongly disagreed. This implies that women should possess the competence or the knowledge, skill and required behaviour about the job to participate in academic leadership positions.

Lastly item twelfth of table 4.6 based on respondents opinion 123(55.7%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 61(27.6%) neutral. Whereas 32(14.5%) and 5(2.3%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This finding shows women should be hard worker and committed to hold and succeed in academic leadership positions.

Strategies at Institutional Level

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Mean
	f	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	
1. Assigning female representative in the University Board membership,	18	8.3	32	14.7	52	23.9	68	31.2	48	22.0	3.44
2. Design and implement sensitization programs to challenge the stereotypes	12	5.2	40	17.5	64	27.9	68	29.7	45	19.7	3.41
3. Ensure the University's criteria for all leadership positions are gender sensitive	9	3.9	42	18.3	73	31.9	65	28.4	40	17.5	3.37
4. Encourage females to hold leadership positions at all levels, and enhance their managerial and leadership skills	9	3.9	40	17.5	60	26.2	78	34.1	42	18.3	3.45
5 Enhance females' personal strategies for balancing career and personal life, by acknowledging their multiple roles	7	3.1	35	15.3	67	29.3	77	33.6	43	18.8	3.50
6. Succession planning for women	9	4.0	25	11.0	67	29.5	79	34.8	47	20.7	3.57
7. Training and education	7	3.1	33	14.6	59	26.1	66	29.2	61	27.0	3.62

8. Challenging assignments	11	4.9	30	13.5	67	30.0	67	30.0	48	21.5	3.50
9. Family friendly policies	10	4.5	26	11.7	63	28.4	81	36.5	42	18.9	3.54
10. support and guidance from mentors	10	4.4	31	13.6	64	28.1	74	32.5	49	21.5	3.53
11. Conducive organizational work environment	9	3.9	30	13.2	70	30.7	67	29.4	52	22.8	3.54
12. Affirmative action	10	4.4	41	18.1	57	25.2	78	34.5	40	17.7	3.43
13. Develop and implement sound policies that support women	7	3.1	29	12.7	68	29.7	72	31.4	53	23.1	3.59
14. Encourage women to acquire qualifications	4	1.8	30	13.2	66	28.9	79	34.6	49	21.5	3.61
15. Develop nondiscriminatory procedure for recruitment and appointment	7	3.1	30	13.2	57	25.1	88	38.8	45	19.8	3.59
16. Scholarship or sponsorship	6	2.7	23	10.2	60	26.5	85	37.6	52	23.0	3.68

Table 4.8 Source: Own survey data (2023)

The first item of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to assigning female representative in the university board membership the majority 116(53.2%) of the respondents responded agreed and strongly agreed, 52(23.9%) neutral, 32(14.7%) disagreed and 18(8.3%) responded as strongly disagreed. It can be said that women to participate in academic leadership position they should be represented in university board membership to be voice of academic women's.

On the other hand item two of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to design and implement sensitization programs to challenge the stereotypes the majority 177(77.3%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 40(17.5%) and 12(5.2%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. From this it can be concluded that the institutions should design and implement sensitization programs to challenge the negative assumption about women to increase the participation of women at academic leadership positions.

Regarding the third item of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to 178(77.8%) of the respondents are responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 42(18.3%) disagree and 9(3.9%) strongly disagree. It can be said that the university criteria for all leadership positions should be gender sensitive to increase participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Concerning item four of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to encourage females to hold leadership positions at all levels, and enhance their managerial and leadership skills and the majority 120(52.4%) agreed and strongly agreed, 60(26.2%) neutral. Whereas 40(17.5%) and 9(3.9%) disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude the institution should encourage females to hold leadership positions at all levels and should enhance their managerial and leadership skills to increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

The fifth item of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to enhance female's personal strategies for balancing career and personal life, by acknowledging their multiple roles 120(52.4%) of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed, 67(29.3%) responded as neutral. And 35(15.3%) disagree and 7(3.1%) strongly disagree about the idea. From this it can be said that university should enhance female personal strategies for balancing career and personal life by acknowledging their multiple roles to increase the participation of women in women in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item sixth of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to succession planning for women the majority 193(75.3%) of the respondents are responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 25(11%) and 9(4%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This implies that universities should be encouraged to introduce development career planning to increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Concerning item seven of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to training and education 127(56.2%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 59(26.1%) as neutral. Whereas 33(14.6%) as disagree and 7(3.1%) as strongly disagree. It can be said that universities need to invest in training and education of women to increase their participation in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item eight of table 4.7 based on the respondent's opinion to challenging assignments 115(51.5%) responded as agree and strongly agree, 67(30%) neutral. Whereas 30(13.5%) and 11(4.9%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This implies that the universities should give challenging assignments to women to convince the top management about ability of women to increase participation of women in academic leadership positions.

The ninth item of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to family friendly policies the majority 186(83.8%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 26(11.7%) as disagree and 10(4.5%) responded as strongly disagree. The finding shows that universities should arrange flexible work arrangements could assist women in overcoming family commitment and other obstacles they encounter at work to increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Regarding the tenth item of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to support and guidance from mentors 123(54%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 64(28.1%) responded as neutral, 31(13.6%) and 10(4.4%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This implies that support and guidance from mentors may assist women to increase their participation in academic leadership positions.

Item eleven of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to conducive organizational work environment 189(82.9%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral, 30(13.2%) disagree and 9(3.9%) responded as strongly disagree. It can be said that the presence of Conducive organizational work environment is important for participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Regarding item twelfth of table 4.7 based on the respondents opinion to affirmative action 118(52.2%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 57(25.2%) responded as neutral, 41(18.1%) as disagree and 10(4.4%) responded as strongly disagree. This implies that affirmative action is very important for participation of women in academic leadership positions until the gap balanced, but should not be lifelong support.

Concerning item thirteen of table 4.7 based on the respondents opinion to develop and implement sound policies that support women 193(84.2%) of the respondents agreed, strongly agreed and neutral. Whereas 29(12.7%) and 7(3.1%) responded as disagreed and strongly disagreed. The finding implies that developing and implementing sound policies that support women increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item fourteenth of table 4.7 based on the respondents opinion 128(56.1%) agree and strongly agree, 66(28.9%) responded as neutral. Whereas 30(13.2%) responded as disagree and 4(1.8%) responded as strongly disagree. It can be concluded that universities should encourage women to acquire qualifications to hold academic leadership positions.

Item fifteenth of table 4.7 based on the respondents opinion to develop non-discriminatory procedure for recruitment and appointment 133(58.6%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 57(25.1%) as neutral and 30(13.2%) as disagree and 7(3.1%) responded as strongly disagree. It can be said that developing non-discriminatory procedure for recruitment and appointment enhance the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Item sixteenth of table 4.7 based on respondents opinion to scholarship or sponsorship the majority 197(87.1%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral. Whereas 23(10.2%) and 6(2.7%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. Since most of women are found in disadvantageous situation, so if they are supported by scholarship this increases the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Strategies at Societal Level

Items	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree		Mean
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	
1. Family support	0	.0	2	6.3	6	18.8	10	31.3	14	43.8	4.13
2. Fight culture that hinder the progress of women	14	6.2	23	10.1	72	31.7	62	27.3	56	24.7	3.54
3. Change societal attitude toward women	6	2.7	34	15.0	65	28.8	69	30.5	52	23.0	3.56
4. Due attention to girl child education	9	4.0	25	11.1	64	28.3	68	30.1	60	26.5	3.64
5. Train women on how to plan child births	4	1.8	32	14.2	59	26.2	69	30.7	61	27.1	3.67
6. Discourage sexual harassment	9	4.0	29	12.8	71	31.4	64	28.3	53	23.5	3.54
7. Sensitize society to accept women's leadership	8	3.5	31	13.7	50	22.0	86	37.9	52	22.9	3.63
8. Have political will to change status of women	6	2.7	27	11.9	77	34.1	65	28.8	51	22.6	3.57

Table 4.9 Source: Own survey data (2023)

The first item of table 4.8 based on the respondents opinion to family support the majority 24(75.1%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 6(18.8%) neutral. Whereas 2(6.3%) responded as disagree. This implies that family support is a very great factor to enhance the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Concerning the second item of table 4.8 based on the respondents opinion to fight culture that hinder the progress of women 190(83.7%) of the respondents responded as agree, strongly agree and neutral. Whereas 23(10.1%) and 14(6.2%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. The finding implies that society should fight culture that hinders the advancement of women to academic leadership positions.

On the other hand the third item of table 4.8 based on the respondents opinion to change societal attitude towards women 121(53.5%) of the respondents are responded as agree and strongly agree, 65(28.8%) responded as neutral, 34(15%) responded as disagree and 6(2.7%) responded as strongly disagree. To conclude the society should change its attitude towards women, since this might hinders the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

The fourth item of table 4.8 based on the respondents opinion to due attention to girl child education 128(56.6%) of the respondents responded as agree and strongly agree, 64(28.3%) responded as neutral. Whereas 25(11.1%) and 9(4%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This implies that the society should give due attention to girl child education to increase participation of women in academic leadership positions.

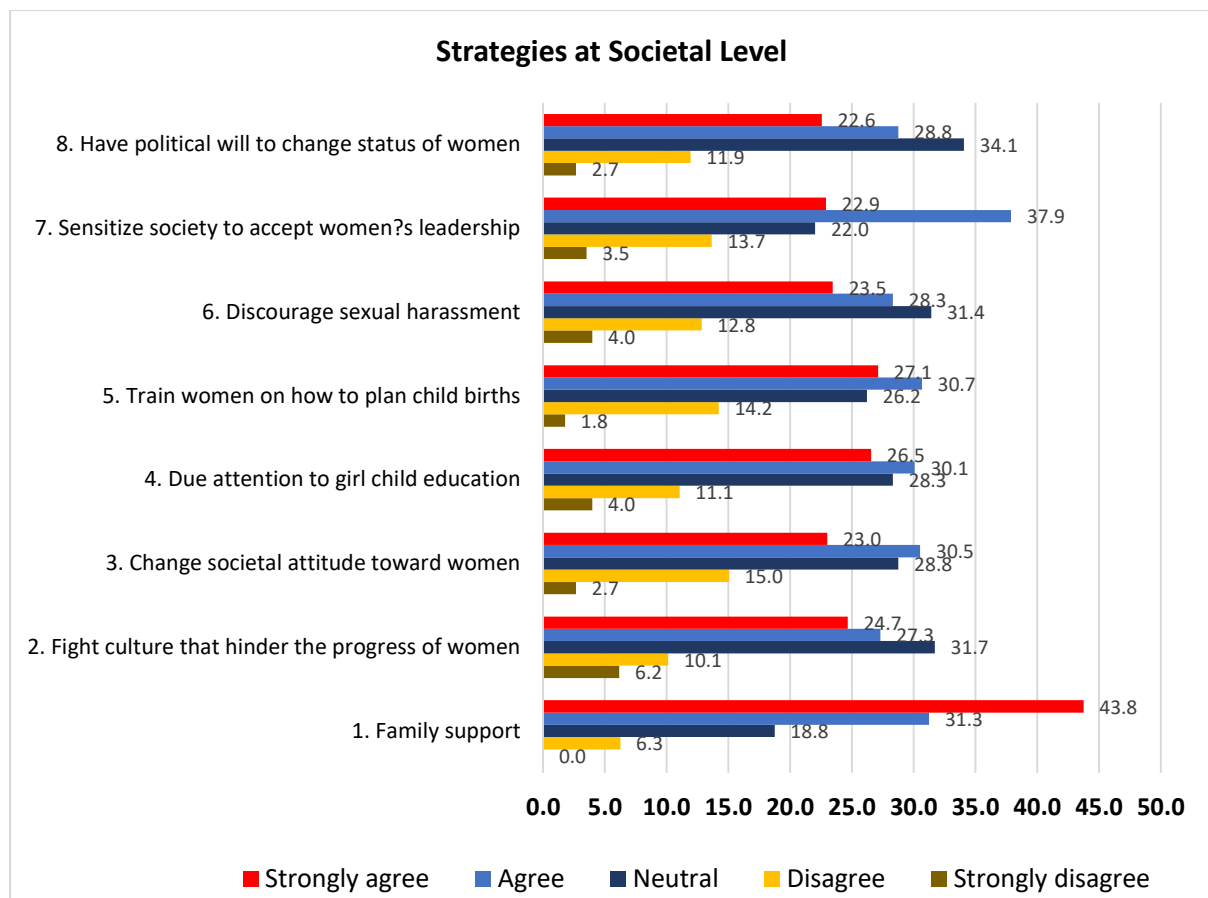
Concerning the fifth item of table 4.8 based on the respondents opinion to train women on how to plan child births 130(57.8%) of the respondents agree and strongly agree, 59(26.2%) responded as neutral, 32(14.2%) responded as disagree and 4(1.8%) responded as strongly disagree. It can be said that society should train women about family planning, since these may enhance their participation to academic leadership positions.

Regarding the sixth item of table 4.8 based on the respondents opinion to discourage sexual harassment 117(51.8%) of the respondents responded to agree and strongly agree, 71(31.4%) responded as neutral. Whereas 29(12.8%) and 9(4%) responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. This implies that the society should discourage sexual harassment to increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

Item seventh of table 4.8 based on respondents opinion to sensitize society to accept women's leadership the majority 138(60.8%) of the respondents are responded as agree and strongly agree, 50(22%) responded as neutral. Whereas 31(13.7%) and 8(3.5%) of the respondents are responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. It can be concluded that the society

should sensitize society to accept women’s leadership, since it enhances the participation of women in academic leadership positions.

On the other hand item eighth of table 4.8 based on respondents opinion to have political will to change status of women 116(51.4%) of the respondents are responded as agree and strongly agree, 77(34.1%) responded as neutral. Whereas the rest 27(11.9%) and 6(2.7%) of the respondents responded as disagree and strongly disagree respectively. To conclude the government should have will to change the status of women, since it enhances the participation of women especially at top academic leadership positions.



Current Status of Women’s Participation in Academic Leadership Position

When we examine the current status of women in university management in Selected Public Universities in Ethiopia as Compared to men. According to table 4.2 With regard to sex and position composition of sample respondents as to the finding of the study indicated in the table 4.2 112(50.9%) of respondents were male while the rest 108 (49.1%) of them were female. From this we can conclude that the total proportions of females are fairly lower when it compared with the proportion of male. And also great majority of all leadership posts of

head, deputy and coordinators are occupied by male compared to female. Supporting this idea Anteneh (2017) stated that in many countries, female participation in higher education is generally low, and their participation in higher education management is strikingly low

4.4 Inferential Analysis

Explanatory factor analysis

This section intended to identify factors affecting women's participation in academic leadership positions in Universities. In order to find out which factors could contribute to the low participation of women in academic position in universities, factor analysis was computed from five points Likert scale data.

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the 45 items from personal, social and institutional factors with a nonorthogonal direct oblimin delta zero rotation method using SPSS. Exploratory factor analysis is a statistical method employed to increase the reliability of the scale by identifying inappropriate items that can be removed and the dimensionality of constructs by examining the existence of relationships between items and factors when the information of the dimensionality is limited. In this study, the three factors (i.e., personal, social, and institutional) were used to determine the pattern of the structure in the 45-item women empowerment in leadership instrument.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test

It is mandatory assumption to test and examine the adequacy of the sample and the suitability of data to run factor analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were executed to determine construct validity and to confirm that the data collected for an exploratory factor analysis were appropriate. The KMO test was used to verify the sampling adequacy for the analysis, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was used to determine if correlations between items were sufficiently large for explanatory factor analysis.

Table 4.9 presents KMO statistic and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The Kaiser (1974) recommends a bare minimum of 0.5 and that values between 0.5 and 0.7 are mediocre, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are superb (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). For these data the KMO value is 0.88, which falls into the range of being great, so the considered sample size is adequate for factor analysis. Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Bartlett 1950) provides a chi-square output value. The test of

sphericity indicates a Bartlett's Test of Sphericity chi-square of 4300 and P-value<0.05. This indicates that the item correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. Both the assumption of sample size and correlation matrix is satisfied, now we can run a factor analysis for the data.

Table 4.10: KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.882
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4300.225
	Df	990
	Sig.	.000

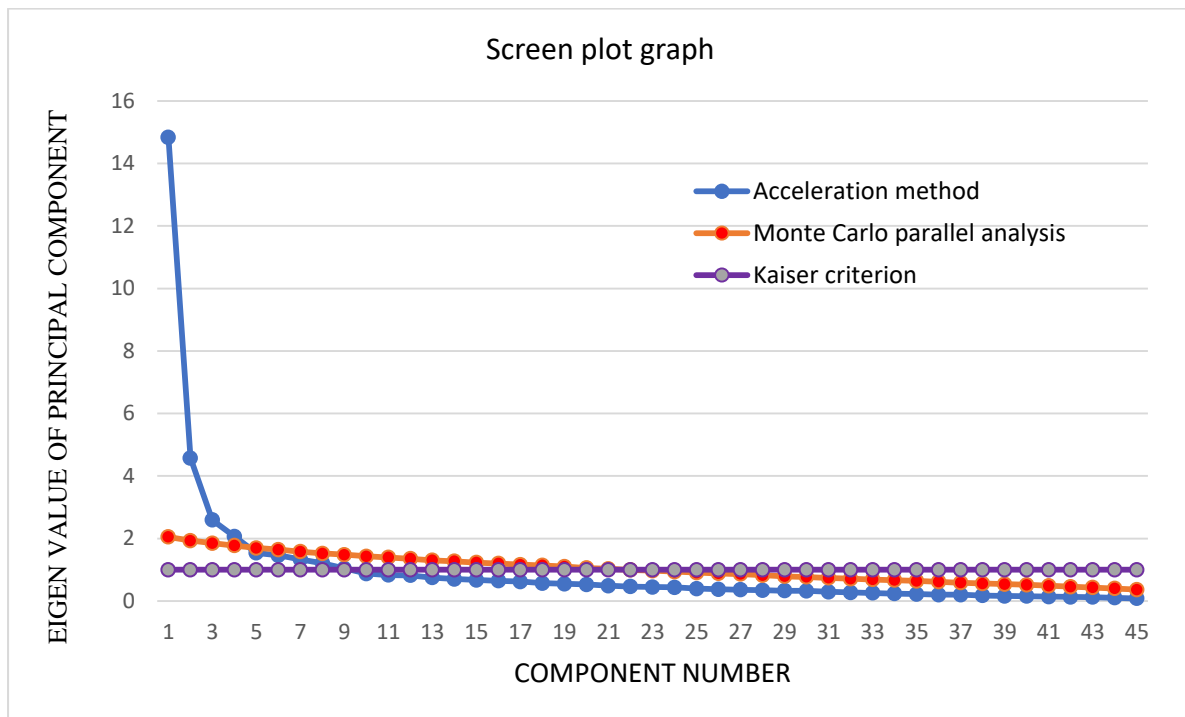
Factor Extraction and retention

In this study, factor analysis with principal components extraction used to examine whether the statements represent identifiable factors related to factors of women empowerment. The principal component analysis (PCA) signifies to the statistical process used to underline variation for which principal data components are calculated and bring out strong patterns in the data.

To determine the number of principal components and factors to retain three methods of factor retention method was used. The Kaiser criterion, acceleration method and Monte Carlo parallel analysis were applied. Studies show that the Parallel analysis is the most accurate and Kaiser Criterion is the old and poorest performance measure to determine the desired number of retention factors. Kaiser criterion tends to overestimate and acceleration factor – to underestimate the number of factors/ components. The parallel analysis shows fewer fluctuations in its accuracy and is more robust. To determine the number of factors to retain a screen plot graph was used. The screen plot is a graph of the Eigen values against all the factors.

Figure 1: presents the curves of the actual data along with the simulative data and Eigen value of constant one. From screen plot graph it is difficult to determine the exact number of retained factors even if the curve starts flatten on factor between 5 and 7 (graph xxx). Note also that there are 9 factors that have eigenvalue of greater than 1. To determine the retained number of factors further investigation is important.

Figure 1: Screen plot graph



The scree plot graphic shows that there is a nine-factor to be retained based on the eigenvalue methods. However, factors 4,5,6,7, 8 and 9 contribute only small proportion on the total percentage of the Eigen values. As mentioned above, the use of parallel analysis provides further evidence or a basis to decide the number of factors more easily. A parallel analysis is a more rigorous method, in which each eigenvalue (which represents the size of the factor) was compared against an eigenvalue for the corresponding factor in many randomly generated data sets that have the same characteristics as the data being analyzed.

Table 4.11 presents the actual data and a simulated Monte Carlo parallel analysis result of the Eigen values along with factors. The eigenvalue of the first factor in the actual data is 14.838, while it is 2.054 in the simulative data set. The eigenvalue of the second factor in the actual data is 4.577, whereas it is 1.934 in the simulative data. The eigenvalue of the third factor in the actual data is 2.594, while it is 1.853 in the simulative data. The eigenvalue of the fourth factor in the actual data is 2.069, while it is 1.773 in the simulative data. The eigenvalue of the fifth factor in the actual data is 1.539, whereas it is 1.697 in the simulative data. When we shift from the fourth factor to the fifth, the case is different and thus the number of the scale factors is determinedly restricted to 4 because the eigenvalue of the simulative data of the fifth factor is higher than that of the actual data. According to parallel analysis method a

factor is considered valid if the actual eigenvalue exceeds the eigenvalue generated from the random dataset.

Table 4.11: Eigen Values of the Actual Data and the Monte Carlo Simulative Data

Factors	Actual Data	Monte Carlo parallel analysis Simulative Data
1	14.838	2.053573
2	4.577	1.934072
3	2.594	1.852756
4	2.069	1.772703
5	1.539	1.696807
6	1.461	1.648805
7	1.335	1.581012
8	1.212	1.523549
9	1.043	1.480363

Rotation results

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. The initial 45-item structure explained 53.5% of the variance in the pattern of relationships among the items. The percentages explained by each factor were 32.974% (factor 1), 10.170% (factor 2), 5.764% (factor 3), and 4.597% (factor 4), respectively.

Based on the results of the initial exploratory factor analysis, the oblimin rotation matrices using a principal factor analysis identified four factor structures. The percent of a variable's variance that is common variance is called communality. The commonality between variables can be seen through the factor loadings.

Dimension reduction techniques seek to identify items with a shared variance, it is advisable to remove any item with a communality score less than 0.3. The Communalities of the item were reasonably strong, ranging from about 0.4 to 0.68; except for one item 16 (Few number of women). Item 16 failed to load sufficiently on any factor at the minimum level of 0.3. This item was deleted from the data set, leaving 44 items. After deleting the item, the resulting factor structure accounted for 54.25% of the total variance. Moreover, the constructs of some factors show a cross loading effect. A cross loading item is an item that loads at 0.32 or higher on two or more factors. If there are several cross loaders, the items may be poorly written or the a priori factor structure could be flawed.

Three items had cross-loadings on the two factors. The first item was item 45 "Absence of enabling environment/commitment"; the factor loading on factor 1 was 0.654, and the cross-loading on factor 4 was 0.401. The second item was item 7 "Family commitment" the factor

loading on factor 2 was 0.529, and the cross-loading on factor 4 was 0.525. The third item was item 26 “Lack of support system at work” the factor loading on factor 3 was 0.434, and the cross-loading on factor 4 was 0.459.

Finally, the factor analysis was computed based on 4 factors and 41 items, without the above mentioned 4 items. With 41 items, a reasonably clear factor pattern and the loadings were interpretable. The 41-item structure was found to explain 54.15% of the variance in the pattern of relationships among the items as shown in Table 0.3. The percentages explained by each factor were shown in the Table 0.3 in the initial Eigen values % of variance column. The range of correlations between derived factors for the oblique rotation was between 0.06 and 0.373 (see Table 0.4).

Table4.12: Total Variance Explained

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	13.650	34.126	34.126	13.650	34.126	34.126	10.152
2	3.939	9.848	43.974	3.939	9.848	43.974	9.201
3	2.439	6.096	50.070	2.439	6.096	50.070	7.682
4	1.631	4.078	54.148	1.631	4.078	54.148	2.364

Table4.11:: Component Correlation Matrix

Component Correlation Matrix				
Component	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	.349	.373	.161
2	.349	1.000	.320	.066
3	.373	.320	1.000	.103
4	.161	.066	.103	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4.12: Summary of factor analysis Pattern Matrix (Direct Oblimin Rotation) for 41-Item

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1: Societal Barriers (15 items)				
36. Men are seen as decision makers	.759			
41. Culture	.741			
42. Religious factors	.727			
32. Sexual harassment	.698			
44. Lack of support from husband/family	.676			
40. Fear of isolation	.675			
37. Society condemns women to subordinate status	.649			
39. Motherhood	.637			
33. Discrimination against women	.631			
25. Stereotyping (associating leadership with men)	.612			

38. World male dominance					.611
35. Fewer opportunities for women in education					.560
43. Women lacks social network					.529
34. Women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it					.495
31. Perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals					.484
Factor 2: Personal Barriers (13 items)	1	2	3	4	
6. Lack of effective communication among women					.762
2. Women don't aspire higher					.734
5. Lack of family support					.714
4. Lack of ambition					.702
15. Lack of experience					.691
11. Psychological glass ceiling					.689
9. Low self-assertiveness					.683
3. Lack of motivation					.666
1. Lack of self-confidence and willingness					.643
8. Promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership					.643
10. Lack of emotional stability					.626
14. Lack of role model					.619
13. Socialization and gender structure					.557
Factor 3: Institutional barriers (9 items)	1	2	3	4	
22. Unclear appointment and promotion criteria					.784
23. Patriarchal culture in academia					.683
17. Discriminatory appointment and promotion practices					.654
18. Male resistance to women in management positions					.645
21. Inadequate job knowledge/competence					.553
24. Nepotism (based on political affiliation, ethnicity, etc.)					.537
20. Low academic qualification					.535
19. Absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women					.525
28. Poor implementation of affirmative action					.477
Factor 4: Management barriers (3 items)	1	2	3	4	
27. Management position dominated by men					.557
30. Limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence					.465
29. Lack of support and guidance from mentors					.436
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.					
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.					
a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.					

Factors Affecting Women's Participation in Academic Leadership Positions

Discussion

Using explanatory factor analysis 4 factors were identified. These factors are Personal, Institutional, Societal and Management factors.

Factor One: Personal Factors

According to the first personal factor analyses the major factors affect women participation in academic leadership positions are lack of effective communication among women, women do not aspire higher the leadership positions, lack of family support, lack of ambition, women academician do not have the required experience to hold academic leadership positions,

psychological glass ceiling, low self-assertiveness, Lack of motivation, Lack of self-confidence and willingness, Promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership, Lack of emotional stability, Lack of role model, Socialization and gender Structure.

Factor Two: Institutional Factors

This factor includes the major institutional factors which affect women participation in academic leadership positions like unclear appointment and promotion criteria, Patriarchal culture in academia, discriminatory appointment and promotion practices, male resistance to women in management positions, inadequate job knowledge/competence, nepotism(based on political affiliation, ethnicity, low academic qualification, absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women and poor implementation of affirmative action.

Factor Three: Societal factors

In the third Societal factor analyses the major factors affect women participation in academic leadership positions are men are seen as decision makers, culture, religious factors, sexual harassment, lack of support from husband/family, fear of isolation, society condemns women to subordinate status, motherhood, against women, stereotyping (associating leadership with men, world men dominance, fewer opportunities for women in education, women lacks social network, women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it and perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goal

Factor Four: Management factor

This factor includes the major Management factors which affect women participation in academic leadership positions like management position dominated by men, limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence and lack of support and guidance from mentors. This factor is the finding of this study generated from factor analysis.

Annex: R command to extract factors

parameters

```
nc = 230      # nc = number of cases, sample size
nv = 45      # nv = number of variables
ni = 1000    # ni = number of iterations in Monte Carlo simulation
```

parallel analysis begin

```
exVect <- rep(0, nv) # null vector for  $\Sigma_x$ 
```

```

exxVect <- rep(0, nv) # null vector for  $\Sigma x^2$ 
for(i in 1:ni) # interate ni times
{
  dMx <- replicate(nv, rnorm(nc)) # create matrix of normally distributed random numbers
  evVect <- eigen(cor(dMx))$values # vector of eigen values
  for(j in 1:nv) # add to vectors of sum x ans sum x sq
  {
    exVect[j] = exVect[j] + evVect[j]
    exxVect[j] = exxVect[j] + evVect[j]^2
  }
} # end of interation
resVect <- rep(0,nv) # result vector containing 95 percentile eigen values
for(j in 1:nv)
{
  mean = exVect[j] / ni # mean =  $\Sigma x/n$ 
  sd = sqrt((exxVect[j] - exVect[j]^2/ni)/(ni-1)) # Standard Deviation
  lim = mean + qnorm(0.95) * sd # 95 percentile limit
  resVect[j] = lim
}
print(resVect) # array of 95 percentile eigen values

```

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	14.838	32.974	32.974	14.838	32.974	32.974	10.808
2	4.577	10.170	43.144	4.577	10.170	43.144	10.248
3	2.594	5.764	48.908	2.594	5.764	48.908	8.490
4	2.069	4.597	53.505	2.069	4.597	53.505	2.522
5	1.539	3.419	56.924				
6	1.461	3.247	60.171				
7	1.335	2.968	63.139				
8	1.212	2.693	65.832				
9	1.043	2.318	68.150				
10	.878	1.952	70.102				
11	.834	1.853	71.955				
12	.821	1.824	73.779				
13	.750	1.666	75.444				
14	.703	1.563	77.007				
15	.675	1.501	78.508				
16	.649	1.443	79.951				
17	.624	1.386	81.338				
18	.571	1.270	82.608				
19	.552	1.228	83.835				
20	.531	1.181	85.016				
21	.490	1.089	86.105				
22	.462	1.027	87.132				
23	.449	.997	88.130				
24	.439	.975	89.105				
25	.394	.877	89.981				
26	.374	.832	90.813				
27	.359	.797	91.610				
28	.346	.769	92.379				
29	.330	.733	93.112				

30	.323	.719	93.831				
31	.294	.654	94.485				
32	.272	.604	95.089				
33	.256	.570	95.659				
34	.241	.535	96.194				
35	.223	.494	96.689				
36	.203	.450	97.139				
37	.202	.449	97.587				
38	.176	.391	97.979				
39	.164	.364	98.343				
40	.158	.350	98.693				
41	.143	.318	99.012				
42	.129	.287	99.299				
43	.127	.283	99.582				
44	.104	.232	99.813				
45	.084	.187	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Total Variance Explained

Last run

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	13.650	34.126	34.126	13.650	34.126	34.126	10.152
2	3.939	9.848	43.974	3.939	9.848	43.974	9.201
3	2.439	6.096	50.070	2.439	6.096	50.070	7.682
4	1.631	4.078	54.148	1.631	4.078	54.148	2.364
5	1.448	3.619	57.767				
6	1.330	3.324	61.091				
7	1.107	2.767	63.858				
8	1.031	2.579	66.437				
9	.947	2.367	68.804				
10	.880	2.199	71.003				
11	.831	2.077	73.081				
12	.763	1.906	74.987				
13	.700	1.751	76.738				
14	.639	1.596	78.335				
15	.616	1.541	79.875				
16	.589	1.472	81.347				
17	.542	1.355	82.702				
18	.538	1.346	84.048				
19	.513	1.282	85.330				
20	.471	1.178	86.508				
21	.453	1.132	87.640				
22	.431	1.078	88.719				
23	.423	1.057	89.776				
24	.373	.932	90.708				
25	.360	.900	91.608				
26	.332	.830	92.438				
27	.323	.808	93.246				
28	.303	.759	94.005				
29	.292	.729	94.734				
30	.274	.685	95.419				
31	.260	.649	96.068				
32	.230	.576	96.644				
33	.214	.536	97.180				
34	.206	.515	97.695				
35	.190	.476	98.171				
36	.179	.448	98.619				
37	.159	.398	99.017				
38	.159	.396	99.413				
39	.124	.310	99.723				
40	.111	.277	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Communalities

Communalities		
	Initial	Extraction
1. Lack of self-confidence and willingness	1.000	.421
2. Women don't aspire higher	1.000	.688
3. Lack of motivation	1.000	.495
4. Lack of ambition	1.000	.528
5. Lack of family support	1.000	.640
6. Lack of effective communication among women	1.000	.597
7. Family commitment	1.000	.621
8. Promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership	1.000	.460
9. Low self-assertiveness	1.000	.588
10. Lack of emotional stability	1.000	.552
11. Psychological glass ceiling	1.000	.560
12. Poor self-image	1.000	.574
13. Socialization and gender structure	1.000	.396
14. Lack of role model	1.000	.489
15. Lack of experience	1.000	.491
16. Few numbers of women	1.000	.223
17. Discriminatory appointment and promotion practices	1.000	.527
18. Male resistance to women in management positions	1.000	.591
19. Absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women	1.000	.455
20. Low academic qualification	1.000	.566
21. Inadequate job knowledge/competence	1.000	.598
22. Unclear appointment and promotion criteria	1.000	.617
23. Patriarchal culture in academia	1.000	.452
24. Nepotism (based on political affiliation, ethnicity, etc.)	1.000	.571
25. Stereotyping (associating leadership with men)	1.000	.505
26. Lack of support system at work	1.000	.595
27. Management position dominated by men	1.000	.560
28. Poor implementation of affirmative action	1.000	.527
29. Lack of support and guidance from mentors	1.000	.520
30. Limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence	1.000	.497
31. Perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals	1.000	.539
32. Sexual harassment	1.000	.614
33. Discrimination against women	1.000	.564
34. Women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it	1.000	.525
35. Fewer opportunities for women in education	1.000	.545
36. Men are seen as decision makers	1.000	.628
37. Society condemns women to subordinate status	1.000	.621
38. World male dominance	1.000	.404
39. Motherhood	1.000	.556
40. Fear of isolation	1.000	.499
41. Culture	1.000	.583
42. Religious factors	1.000	.574
43. Women lacks social network	1.000	.438
44. Lack of support from husband/family	1.000	.466
45. Absence of enabling environment/commitment	1.000	.621

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter contains discussions associated with findings of the entire research. This includes findings, conclusions and recommendations for improving women's participation in academic leadership positions.

5.1 Findings

The findings of the analysis are summarized below followed by conclusions and recommendations.

- ❖ When we examine the current status of women in university management in Selected Public Universities in Ethiopia as Compared to men the total proportions of females are fairly lower when it compared with the proportion of male. And also great majority of all leadership posts of head, deputy and coordinators are occupied by male compared to female.
- ❖ The research finding revealed that Using explanatory factor analysis there are 4(four) factors identified which affects women participation in academic leadership positions. These factors are Personal, Institutional, Societal and Management factors.
- ❖ The first major Significant Personal factors affects women participation in academic leadership positions are lack of effective communication among women, women do not aspire higher the leadership positions, lack of family support, lack of ambition, women academician do not have the required experience to hold academic leadership positions, psychological glass ceiling, low self-assertiveness ,Lack of motivation, Lack of self-confidence and willingness, Promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership, Lack of emotional stability, Lack of role model, Socialization and gender Structure.
- ❖ The second major Significant institutional factors which affects women participation in academic leadership positions like unclear appointment and promotion criteria, Patriarchal culture in academia, discriminatory appointment and promotion practices, male resistance to women in management positions, inadequate job knowledge/competence, nepotism(based on political affiliation, ethnicity, low academic qualification, absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women and poor implementation of affirmative action.

- ❖ The third major significant Societal factors affects women participation in academic leadership positions are men are seen as decision makers, culture, religious factors, sexual harassment, lack of support from husband/family, fear of isolation, society condemns women to subordinate status, motherhood, against women, stereotyping (associating leadership with men, world men dominance, fewer opportunities for women in education, women lacks social network, women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it and perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goal
- ❖ The fourth major significant management factors which affects women participation in academic leadership positions like management position dominated by men, limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence and lack of support and guidance from mentors. This factor is the finding of this study generated from factor analysis.
- ❖ The study revealed or identified the gap about whether the universities Under Study have a detailed strategy of increasing the representation of women in higher education management. Through interview and document analysis the universities understudy have no policy, strategy to increase the number of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Management positions dominated by men the majority almost all the leadership positions are dominated by men. This might hinder the participation of women at academic leadership positions because of absence of female representatives at top management levels.

5.2 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study the following conclusions are made:

- ❖ personal barrier for women participation in academic leadership positions are lack of effective communication, family commitment, promoted myths regarding women's low potential for leadership, women lack role models to participate in higher ladder of academic leadership positions, the majority of women academicians do not have the required experience to hold academic leadership positions, there are few numbers of women academic staff, so this is the barrier to hold the academic leadership positions equal to men in Ethiopian public universities.

- ❖ The current status of women in university management in Selected Public Universities in Ethiopia as Compared to men the total proportions of females are fairly lower when it compared with the proportion of male.
- ❖ There are 4(four) factors identified which affects women participation in academic leadership positions. These factors are Personal, Institutional, Societal and Management factors.
- ❖ Significant institutional factors which affects women participation in academic leadership positions like unclear appointment and promotion criteria, Patriarchal culture in academia, discriminatory appointment and promotion practices, male resistance to women in management positions, inadequate job knowledge/competence, nepotism(based on political affiliation, ethnicity, low academic qualification, absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women and poor implementation of affirmative action.
- ❖ Societal factors affects women participation in academic leadership positions are men are seen as decision makers, culture, religious factors, sexual harassment, lack of support from husband/family, fear of isolation, society condemns women to subordinate status, motherhood, against women, stereotyping (associating leadership with men, world men dominance, fewer opportunities for women in education, women lacks social network, women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it and perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goal
- ❖ Management factors which affects women participation in academic leadership positions like management position dominated by men, limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence and lack of support and guidance from mentors.
- ❖ The institutions of public universities are biased in appointment and promotion of women carrier for academic leadership positions which favour the male academicians, the male workers and leaders resist the women leaders to work with them especially at top leadership positions due to male negative attitude towards female leaders.
- ❖ There is absence of policies and strategies to ensure participation of women in academic leadership positions; low academic qualification to participate in academic leadership positions when compared to male, there is an unclear appointment and promotion criterion which hinders the women from participating in academic leadership positions.

- ❖ There is patriarchy or male dominance in academia this affects women from holding academic leadership positions, the leadership positions for male but in reality the academic leadership is both for male and female, there is no strong support system at work to empower women.
- ❖ Management positions dominated by men the majority almost all the leadership positions are dominated by men. This might hinder the participation of women at academic leadership positions because of absence of female representatives at top management levels.
- ❖ There is implementation of affirmative action in public universities to empower women at leadership positions but this is not enough to bridge the gap between male and female leaders, there should be better strategies to balance the gap.
- ❖ The finding shows that women lack support and guidance from female role models to participate in academic leadership positions, and also there is a limited opportunity for women for leadership training and also lack opportunity to show or demonstrate their ability or competence with in there, so this hinders women from participating in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ There is a prevalence of perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organizations overall goals. These unrealistic thoughts prevent women to participate in academic leadership positions,
- ❖ The society expect male as if they are decision makers this thought hinder participation of women in academic leadership positions, the society in contrary to reality expects women as subordinate status that is why women lack leadership positions.
- ❖ World male dominance hinder women to hold academic leadership positions, being motherhood (maternity) is a great family commitment for women, so it prevents women from participation of academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Culture and lack of support from husband/family highly affects women participation from academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Women should possess the competence or the knowledge, skill and required behaviour about the job to participate in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Women should be hard worker and committed to hold and succeed in academic leadership positions.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are suggested:

- ❖ Universities should arrange flexible work arrangements could assist women in overcoming family commitment and other obstacles they encounter at work to increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Affirmative action is very important for participation of women in academic leadership positions until the gap balanced, but should not be lifelong support rather enhancing their capacity is the basic strategy.
- ❖ Those who got the opportunity to involve in the leadership position should serve as a role model, build network and mentor other female staff members to aspire to the leadership.
- ❖ Developing and implementing sound policies and strategies that support women increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Most of women are found in disadvantageous situation, so if they are supported by family and scholarship this increases the participation of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Society should fight culture that hinders the advancement of women to academic leadership positions.
- ❖ The society should sensitize society to accept women's leadership, since it enhances the participation of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ the government should have will to change the status of women, since it enhances the participation of women especially at top academic leadership position women to participate in academic leadership position they should be represented in university board membership to be voice of academic women's.
- ❖ The institutions should design and implement sensitization programs to challenge the negative assumption about women to increase the participation of women at academic leadership positions.
- ❖ The university criteria for all leadership positions should be gender sensitive to increase participation of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Universities should be encouraged to introduce development career planning to increase the participation of women in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Universities need to invest in training and education of women to increase their participation in academic leadership positions. Sensitization and emphasis should be

given to female education at all levels, for women to hold academic leadership positions.

- ❖ Academic women should publish research papers and improve their qualification to hold academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Women should break the barrier which prevents advancement in their career to participate in academic leadership positions.
- ❖ Women should have an early opportunity to work close to senior people can give future female managers access to a network of influential contacts and communicate effectively to participate in academic leadership positions.

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APPENDEX

APPENDEX I

Ethiopian Civil Service University Institute of Leadership and Good Governance Questionnaire for Academic Staff of Ethiopian Public Universities.

Dear respondents,

I am a post graduate student in Leadership and Governance at the Ethiopian Civil Service University. I am gathering data for a study paper on the title '**Factors Affecting Women's Participation in academic Leadership Positions. The Case of Selected Public Universities in Ethiopia**'. The major objective of the study is to explore gender equality of women's academic leadership position in order to ensure equal participation and benefit of women with men in public universities in Ethiopia. Hence the success of this study largely depends on your authentic responses; I cordially request your cooperation in filling the questionnaire with utmost care and responsibility.

I would like to assure you in this connection that your responses will only be used for academic purposes and managed with extreme confidentiality.

- Please put "x" for your choice in the box provided.

If you have queries, you can reach me using the following number: 0911833327 and e-mail address: Tariketadesse@gmail.com

Thank you in advance for your cooperation!

Tarike Tadesse (ECSU)

Part One: Background Information

1. Sex Male Female
2. Age Under 30 31-40 41-50 Above 51
3. Educational Level BA/BSC M.A./M.SC PhD
4. Position Head of Department coordinator Director Vice Dean
Dean Vice President President
5. Marital Status Married Single Divorced Widowed
6. Service years in Public Universities
1-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 Above 21

Part Two: The following table describes barriers affecting women’s participation in academic leadership positions. You are requested to put an “x” mark in the box that describes your opinion. The choices range from (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree).

Personal Barriers

NO.	Items	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Lack of self-confidence and willingness					
2.	Women don’t aspire higher					
3.	Lack of motivation					
4.	Lack of ambition					
5.	Lack of family support					
6.	Lack of effective communication among women					
7.	Family commitment					
8.	Promoted myths regarding women’s low potential for leadership					
9.	Low self-assertiveness					
10.	Lack of emotional stability					
11.	Psychological glass ceiling					
12.	Poor self-image					
13.	Socialization and gender structure					
14.	Lack of role model					
15.	Lack of experience					

Institutional Barriers

NO.	Items	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Few number of women					
2.	Discriminatory appointment and promotion practices					
3.	Male resistance to women in management positions					
4.	Absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women					
5.	Low academic qualification					
6.	Inadequate job knowledge/competence					
7.	Unclear appointment and promotion criteria					
8.	Patriarchal culture in academia					
9.	Nepotism (based on political affiliation, ethnicity, etc.)					

10.	Stereotyping (associating leadership with men					
11.	Lack of support system at work					
12.	Management position dominated by men					
13.	Poor implementation of affirmative action					
14.	Lack of support and guidance from mentors					
15.	Limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence as a result of the power structure in the workplace					
16.	Perceived thought women leaders are less capable of contributing to an organization's overall goals					

Societal Barriers

NO.	Items	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Sexual harassment					
2.	Discrimination against women					
3.	Women cannot be aggressive in organization situations that demand it					
4.	Fewer opportunities for women in education					
5.	Men are seen as decision makers					
6.	Society condemns women to subordinate status					
7.	World male dominance					
8.	Motherhood					
9.	Fear of isolation					
10.	Culture					
11.	Religious factors					
12.	Women lacks social network					
13.	Lack of support from husband/family					
14.	Absence of enabling environment/commitment					

Part Three: Strategies that Can Be Used to Enhance Women's Participation in University

Management

Strategies at Personal Level

NO.	Items	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Women should compete with men as par					
2.	Women should be assertive					
3.	Sensitization and emphasize on girl child education at all levels					
4.	Publishing papers and improving their qualification					
5.	Socializing with women in leadership position					
6.	Women should motivate them selves					
7.	Breakthrough the Glass ceiling/prevent women from advancement					
8.	Adapting to the workplace					
9.	Networking opportunities					
10.	Effective communication skill					
11.	Competence/job knowledge					
12.	Hard work/commitment					

Strategies at Institutional Level

NO.	Items	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Assigning female representative in the University Board membership, the University Senate, Senate Standing Committees, Academic Commission (AC), Department Academic Council (DAC), and Managing Council					
2.	Design and implement sensitization programs to challenge the stereotypes that associate management and leadership roles with masculine domain					
3.	Ensure the University's criteria for all leadership positions are gender sensitive					
4.	Encourage females to hold leadership positions at all levels, and enhance their managerial and leadership skills					
5.	Enhance females' personal strategies for balancing career and personal life, by acknowledging their multiple roles					
6.	Succession planning for women					
7.	Training and education					
8.	Challenging assignments					
9.	Family friendly policies					
10.	support and guidance from mentors					
11.	Conducive organizational work environment					
12.	Affirmative action					
13.	Develop and implement sound policies that support women					
14.	Encourage women to acquire qualifications					
15.	Develop nondiscriminatory procedure for recruitment and appointment					
16.	Scholarship or sponsorship					

Strategies at Societal Level

NO.	Items	Rating Scale				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Family support					
2.	Fight culture that hinder the progress of women					
3.	Change societal attitude toward women					
4.	Due attention to girl child education					
5.	Train women on how to plan child births					
6.	Discourage sexual harassment					
7.	Sensitize society to accept women's leadership					
8.	Have political will to change status of women					

Do you have any point to mention regard to strategies to enhance women's participation in university management? -----

Thank you for completing the questionnaire!

APPENDIX II

Interview Questions for Academic Leaders

1. What do you think are the major challenges of women to hold leadership positions in public Universities?
2. What strategies do your university effectively followed to enhance women participation in leadership positions.