GENDER SENSITIVITY AND PERFORMANCE OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN CENTRAL REGION OF UGANDA: FROM 1992 TO 2015

BY AKECH-OKULLO BETTY GRACE

Affiliated Researcher

Institute for Global Leadership

Ochanomizu University

Tokyo, Japan

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ABSTRACT

This book dealt with the effect of gender sensitivity on the performance of female administrators in educational institutions in Central Uganda. The institutions included schools, colleges and University in the then districts of Mpigi, Mukono and Kampala.

The background of the study showed that women administrators were few in educational institutions in Uganda and the world over, especially at higher levels of education. The possible reason for this was advanced as socialization processes which encourage strong adherence to gender roles by both men and women. Such processes were/are also enforced by customs, tradition, religion and the current practices in the education system.

The problem of the study was therefore that women were under-represented and under-achieving in this field, therefore being under utilised taking into account their numerical abundance. The book aims to find out whether:

(i) women administrators in the education system in Central Uganda differed in their attitudes toward gender roles;

(ii) the differences reflected gender influence on promotions to high level administrative positions in the area;

(iii) such differences if they existed affected the performance of these women while in leadership positions: thereby proving or disproving gender stereotypes attached to women as leaders;
Then basing on significant findings the researcher recommended a plan of action geared towards desensitizing or blurring the distinctiveness of social roles based on sex differences.

The Chi-Square ($\chi^2$) analysis was used to test the first hypothesis and the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Technique ($r$) was used to test the second hypothesis.

Both hypotheses stated in the null forms were rejected. The findings indicated that:

(i) women educational administrators in Central Uganda did differ in their attitudes and beliefs towards gender roles and issues;

(ii) these beliefs reflected that promotions of these women depended on their sensitivity to gender roles;

(iii) the differences in gender attitudes and beliefs of the women affected their performance as leaders;

(iv) less feminine women were significantly better administrators than the more feminine ones;

(v) less feminine women were significantly better in some leadership dimensions such as concern for production, leadership role assumptions, and superior orientation;

(vi) both types of women leaders were rather poor at tolerance of freedom and motivation dimensions of leadership.
Background information gained during the study seemed to indicate that religion was a factor which reinforced gender role adherence.

Consequently, the researcher made several recommendations expected to help change the gender role attitudes: These were that:

(1) Curricular changes be affected in schools allowing boys and girls to take subjects where their sex was in the minority.

(2) Teaching methods and materials be free of gender biases.

(3) School environments be made to reflect both male and female dominance by promoting capable women to positions of prominence.

(4) Guidance and counseling be intensified in schools to enlighten students about new career opportunities in fields where their sex had been in the minority.

(5) School Boards, University Senates and Council Membership should have more female representation than they currently have in order to balance views and opinions and ensure unbiased formulation of educational policies.

(6) Several gender based researches be made in order to help pave the path towards raising the number of women in management in higher educational institutions in the country.
This book is dedicated to my late father Apolo Apson Odong in loving remembrance and gratitude in giving me light for life.
I am indebted to many people who assisted me in one way or another in writing and producing this work. I am especially deeply grateful to the following:

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At the time of writing this research report about 25 years ago, the situation of women in educational leadership in Uganda in general and in Central Uganda in particular was dire. Women were underrepresented, underutilized and were underperforming in educational administration. Secondary Schools and colleges were fewer and there was only one public University in the country, Makerere University. Private and public Schools, colleges and Universities have now mushroomed in the country. According to Tiberandana (2015), there are now over 17 universities both public and private in Uganda. The number of public or government grant aided secondary schools, have more than doubled from 529 at the time of my earlier research, to over 1000. The number of women in educational leadership has also exponentially increased although the percentage of women in such posts has not kept pace with this increase. The increase in percentage of women in educational leadership has remained relatively slow. According to Ministry of Education and Sports Unwritten Interview (2006), the percentages of women were 20% in public schools and 10% in private schools. According to Sperandio and Kagoda (2010), Uganda is still struggling to meet the goal of 30% representation in leadership roles in education as per the Beijing Platform recommendations.

There has been no specific research which tries to link female educational administrators’ performance with their gender sensitivity (how sensitive a female is to the role she has been assigned to and socialized to, from birth) as in Chapter one of this book. However, a number of researchers have
been done on factors and barriers to women managers’ advancement to education in Uganda. Many of these factors are still gender nuanced; or coloured by gender outlook. The researcher has therefore decided to refresh her earlier introduction by mentioning some of those factors as below. The researcher has however avoided touching the discussions and conclusions as they reflect the situation as at the time of the research. According to Brown and Raiph (1996:18), the advancement of women educational managers in Uganda is impeded by the cultural imperatives of male dominance and suppression.

**HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE**

We still live in a gendered world\(^1\), where roles, attitudes, traits, beliefs and even personality of an individual are effected from birth by his or her sex due to the influence of cultural norms and traditions. Men and women are still viewed differently in many aspects of their lives throughout the world. Men still rule the world (Sandberg 2013) and many other scholars such as Kwesiga (2002:15), Jalalzai (2013:1) and global UN reports agree to this statement (United Nations 2015).

Historically most societies considered the biological role of women of procreation and nurturing as the main function of women. With the advent of settled cultivation and capitalism, women continued to be valued as the reproductive individual producing offspring which provided cheap labor. Institutionalization of marriage and privatization of property relegated the woman to the position of private property by man. In all societies female behavior, mode of dressing, freedom of movements, role and participation in public life has been controlled by man who wields power according to

Though this mentality is changing slowly (UNDP 2016:128) with advent of globalization, the Beijing Platform for Action 1995, UN Conventions, such as Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), and national laws on protection of women’s rights legislated by many individual countries which have ratified and domesticated these conventions, women are still generally regarded as physically weak and socially inferior.

In Africa and some areas of the Middle East, there is still a fear in giving higher education to girls, as there was in Europe. The fear is that they may not marry. Cortina (1989) quoted the Mexicans as saying, “An educated woman will neither marry nor come to any good end” (p. 359). The research still supported this and found that the highly educated women are believed to become more argumentative and are conceited. They ignore culture and may be too old for marriage, which makes them poor housewives (Kwesiga 2002: 68-169).

In Africa, the predominantly patriarchal societies limited the women to productive and reproductive roles. The women were supposed to be docile, obedient and simple. They had to work on the land and transmit cultural values, beliefs and practices to their children.

In modern times, certain traits are still gender stereotyped. Broverman et al. (1972) and subsequent empirical evidence (UNDP 2016:101) confirm that the traits such as aggression, forcefulness confidence, ambition, logical thinking, decisiveness, competitiveness, and dominance are believed to be male traits, whereas the female ones are portrayed as submissive, dependent, anxious, unambitious, not competitive and having difficulties in making decisions. D’Amico and Beckman (1995) support this theory.
The so-called female traits are usually undesirable, and less valued than those ascribed to men. This has tended to put women in a disadvantaged position in all aspects of lives vis-a-vis men. Women are viewed as subordinate, dependent and property of their male folk, such as fathers when young, and husbands even when married. This belief still holds true in African and Middle Eastern cultures.

Through the process of socialization, beliefs and norms about gender get ingrained into an individual, from homes, in schools, and through religious practices, folklores, myths, media and the actual upbringing differential by the sex (Megary 1984; UNDP 2016:99). In the homes girls and boys learn that caring for children and domestic chores is the work of girls and women, while earning a living for the family is the role of men. While achievement is stressed for boys, it is rarely stressed for girls. In schools in Uganda to date, girls are still encouraged to take conventional subjects such as home management, needle work and cookery and the arts which prepare the girls for more conventional female roles in life. The curriculum in Uganda still manages to channel boys and girls towards gender-specific employments.

The media continues to portray women negatively. Several reports support this for example, Jalalzai (2013). Women are still seen as inferior and the weaker sex whose main role remains in the home. Many have argued not only in the press but in many fora that women cannot manage both domestic work and employment and do justice to both. Even the women themselves acknowledge this as a critical challenge for which a solution has to be found if they are to participate effectively in public life.

WOMEN’S ACCESS TO FORMAL EMPLOYMENT
“In Uganda, just as in many parts of the world, women have traditionally been employed in the non-formal sector of the economy. In the formal employment, they have been concentrated in jobs that require low levels of skills and technology, responsibilities and pay. Women experience overt discrimination in recruitment and promotion in male dominated jobs based on negative gender role stereotyping. Baron and Bryine (1984) and recent research (United Nations 2015, UN Women 2016) indicate that there is now a slow shift to more egalitarian roles for both men and women worldwide. The world has significantly achieved progress towards gender equality and women empowerment. Women can now be found in professional and managerial jobs, although still in lower percentages than men. According to UNDP (2016), “In terms of occupation type, women are heavily clustered in low paid occupations such as clerical work or manual labour”. The Uganda Man Power Survey 1989 (Uganda Government 1989) shows that 20% of employees in the formal sector were women compared to 4% in the 1975 ILO report. The number of women in public sector leadership in Uganda currently stands at 33% according to UNDP (2016).

However, it is found that in Europe and the USA women are still discriminated in terms of remunerations. Women who have the same qualifications as men are paid less than men. (Flexer 1971; Morrison and Glinow 1990; Sandberg 2013; UN Women 2016; United Nations 2015). Currently women earn 24% less than men globally. In Uganda this disparity in pay is not obviously experienced initially. Men and women who have the same qualifications and are employed in the same job type earn the same

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2 “Some progress has been made since 1995 in women’s position in the Labour Market as well as in the equal sharing of family responsibilities” (United Nations 2015: p. 114).

3 There have been significant achievements since Beijing; more girls are enrolling in schools and more women are working, getting elected and assuming leadership roles (UN Women 2016: 12).
Pay differentials may come much later as men may progress up the ladder more quickly than women for a variety of reasons, including lack of promotions for women, as a result of work life imbalance.

Leadership is still considered a predominantly male domain. Chiplin and Sloane (1982) reported that employers are reluctant to employ women in jobs that involve supervision of men. It argues that young men resent being supervised by women, and women fear supervising men. Men are reported to be more suited to supervising women. According to Kirya (1991) in *New Vision Uganda*, John Knox in his book, “The First Blast of Trumpet against the monstrous regiment of Women” in 1558, wrote, “To promote a woman to bear rule, superiority, dominion, or empire above any realm, nation, or city is repugnant to nature…”

Women aspiring for leadership in public life may not persevere for those positions in the face of such strong and lingering oppositions. They may lose confidence in their abilities to lead.

Current global literature find a number of obstacles still prevent women from accessing senior positions in the public sector including the field of educational management despite efforts to increase women’s participation in decision making in all sectors. The Policy Forum on Educationality in Education held in Paris, France on 3 and 4 October in 2011, identified the factors preventing women from accessing senior positions in education as including, tensions between women’s private and domestic lives, the needs to manage domestic responsibilities including childcare, organizational structures and policies that do not meet the needs of female employees, male dominated organizational

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4 It is one of the major newspapers which are issued in Uganda. This sentence was quoted on 25 Jan, 1991.
cultures which are unfriendly to women’s own needs to be mothers as well as good workers, their reluctance to work in male environment, and lack of confidence which is needed when applying for senior management jobs. Women also undervalue their own leadership skills and competence. These are all rooted in the socialization process that has molded men and women differently.

**POLICY ISSUES**

The colonial government instituted colonial education policies which favoured the education of a few Africans to help administer their colonies. In Uganda, boys, majorly the sons of chiefs were given education from this policy, while some few girls were given education to prepare them to become good wives of these young men. It had an effect on the type and quality of women’s education of women in Uganda.

However, the government of Uganda has now put in place Universal Primary Education (UPE) since 1997 and Universal Secondary Education (USE) 2007 policies to provide access to education to children particularly the vulnerable and the marginalized ones, such as girls. The policy of Affirmative Action designed to redress imbalance against women, created by history, traditions and practices in Uganda, was instituted by the government and has become an unwritten law in public schools. This derives from Article 32 (1) of 1995 Constitution like the following.

Notwithstanding anything in this Constitution, the state shall take affirmative action in favour of groups marginalized on the basis of gender, age, disability or any other reason created by history, tradition and customs, for the purposes of addressing imbalances which exists against them.
In education in Uganda, it allows for 30% of heads hired to head public schools to be women. Yet implementation is still impeded by cultural norms which tend to promote male dominance and female suppression.

**CULTURE AND RELIGION**

Promotion to management positions in education in Uganda is based on a direct selection process, whose nature is highly competitive (MOES 2014: 100). Yet male dominance and suppression are still strong factors in promotion and posting of headship to schools particularly for women in Uganda. Gender roles are still clearly defined, identified, expressed, maintained and in Ugandan schools by the communities. Appropriate roles, behavior and responsibilities are still assigned to head teachers based on their prescribed gender roles.

Although the Uganda Government policy requires that each co-educational school should have either a male or female head and a female deputy or male deputy respectively, women cannot still head purely boys’ schools. Despite the needs for changes in cultural and religious practices in the world, where women should now take part in some form of leadership in the church, Gibbs (2005) still stresses that a leader of the church according to Apostle Paul must be “the husband of but one wife” (p. 114). Equally, the Holy Bible in 1 Tim 2:11-12 states, “A woman should learn in quietness and full submission. I do not permit a woman to teach or to assume authority over man.” (The Holy Bible 2011: p. 1192). This quote still also seems to be at play in Ugandan Christian boys’ schools. The women can only deputize in some very rare cases in such schools. However, there is still a preference for women to head girls’ schools, particularly those founded by religious organizations such as Protestant, Catholic and Islamic bodies, even public schools. This is because the women are expected to be role models for
the girls, to offer them the culturally and religiously accepted moral, physical and emotional guidance
and to mold them for roles they will play in later life (Perlman 1968; Ruddock 1969; Eagley 1989;
Kwesiga 2002:240).

The female heads in such schools therefore have to be married women, or if single, then should not be known to have children out of wedlock. Kwesiga (2002) states;

Even today, single mothers are not encouraged to remain on the school staff, especially in Christian founded schools. There are undocumented cases where capable single mothers have been denied influential positions in schools because they are considered to be bad example. (p. 240)

In Missionary schools, teachers must profess and practice the dictates of the faith and should not show what is generally considered immoral behavior before the girl students. Although things are slowly changing, as the researcher had mentioned in her earlier research, such girls are still expected to come out of schools and be able to marry and combine the work of being good mothers and housewives with their professional jobs. The majority of the girls still tend to be employed in typically female jobs such as nursing, doctoring, teaching secretaries etc.

The men in Uganda may still head girls’ schools but are always deputized by female teachers. Parents do not trust male head teachers in girls’ schools for fear that they may not seriously enforce regulations to prevent sexual harassment of their daughters in the schools, nor to be able to enforce good moral behavior of the young women. In fact, some parents believe that male teachers may even end up defiling or preying on the girls. Recent empirical evidence in Uganda and elsewhere in Africa, such as
those by Kwesiga (2002:76-77) Sperandio and Kagoda (2010), have supported the popular belief that
girls achieve better academic results in single sex schools where they are not in direct competition with
boys. Such schools are normally headed by qualified and capable women administrators.

Gender and religion therefore remain strong factors in the appointment of male or female
teachers to head schools in Uganda and they do affect the performance of all the head teachers
substantially.

Other factors that affect the appointment, for example posting and possibly performance of
female headship in Ugandan schools, are related to ethnicity or tribes, and regions or geographical
locations. Ezenne (2013) finds that head teachers are often rejected by the schools and the communities
on account that they are not sons or daughters of the region. This may have a negative effect on female
teachers’ performance, since the resistance may be so strong that it makes it virtually impossible for the
head teacher to effectively perform. Some head teachers have to be transferred as a result of such strong
objections. Women who are married across cultures or tribes and have to follow their husbands who
may be working in a different region from his birthplace, suffer this kind of rejection most. The
researcher herself had been rejected when she had been posted to administer a school in another district
which was not her birth place. The rejection had been very strong as the administrative office of school
had been locked, so she and the officials of the Ministry of Education and Sports who had come for the
handover ceremony with her, could not get access to the office. The school’s Board of Governors
without even seeing or meeting her, told the officials that they also had qualified daughters of the region
who could administer the school and they did not need a woman from another part of the country to help
them do so. Any insistence by the researcher to continue and struggle to head the school, would have
resulted in her absolute isolation and failure to manage it. It was this rejection that had catapulted or motivated the researcher into politics.

The issues of education, training and experience are very important factors as well. Due to the difficulty in accessing education and training of the girls from poor families at the higher level, female educational leaders with qualified potentials are few. According to Sperandio and Kagoda (2010), the percentage of women is extremely low in educational leadership. Although these women aspire to educational leadership in secondary schools, some of them do not have the requisite training and experience and are not adequately prepared to undergo the rigorous competitive process of application and selection to school headship, and others even believe that the process is corrupt and then do not apply (Sperandio and Kagoda 2008). Mulyampiti (2015) reports that career paths for women in higher education in Uganda are traditional, but women encounter discrimination often subtle but not always, as well as the requirement for higher energy inputs than their male counterparts to achieve the same goals.

The issue of lack of confidence in women educational leaders is a major factor and needs to be investigated adequately addressed. Ezenne (2013:52) in his numerous case studies on educational management in Uganda, reported some female head teacher as having no confidence in herself therefore failing to delegate work, for of fear of loss of power and control. In the end she exhibited poor performance and almost collapsed from overwork. Another female head teacher handled students with kid gloves and abused and ignored teachers and so ended up with serious cases of student indiscipline,(Ezenna 2013 p 71-72). Sperandio and Kagoda, recommend gender specific training programmes that build confidence in women teachers in practical school management skills as well as personal leadership skills.
We live in a gendered world, where the roles, attitudes, traits beliefs and even the personality of an individual are determined at birth by his or her sex. This describes how gender shapes the way we organise, think and know about the world (Cellis et al, 2013). Men and women are different in many aspects of their lives and in what society expects of them.

Beliefs about gender roles get ingrained into an individual from home, in schools, through religion, folklores, myths, the media and the actual differential up-bringing of the sexes, (Megary, 1984). In homes girls learn that caring for children and the home is the work of mothers while boys learn that the job of the father is to earn a living for the family. While achievement is stressed for boys it is never stressed for girls. In schools the curricula channel girls and boys towards gender specific employments. Girls are encouraged to take conventional subjects like Home-management, Needle-work, cookery and the Arts which prepare them for the more conventional female roles in life, while boys are encouraged to take technical or vocational subjects and the sciences. In most cases the way these subjects are time-tabled makes it impossible for the girls to offer both types of subjects. They therefore take one or another. Girls usually opt for the conventional ones: the Arts and Social Sciences.

In the media women are portrayed as the inferior and weaker sex, whose sole role is in the home. Many people have argued even in the press that women cannot carry out both domestic work and engage in employment work and do justice to both. Obbo (1982: 12) quoted the press in the 1960s as having printed a reaction to women involvement in party politics as saying:

“…nothing wrong in being
leaders in the party. Insane talk…

A woman – every blessed one of them

is created to be a mother. A mother’s

place is in and about the house”

Normal girls adhere to and are guided by such reactions.

RELIGION

The socialization process: the sex role development and gender stereotyping which continues throughout adulthood is much reinforced by religion. All the major religions in the world Christianity, Islam and Buddhism’ believe in one male God who is supreme, (International Council of Adult Education, 1990).

In the Koran women are just above slaves in the hierarchy of power and can never become Shekhs or Kadhis according to Kabuzi (1987). In the Christian teaching the Bible confirms and further reinforces the traditional subordinate position of woman. In the story of Creation in Genesis women is said to have been created from the ribs of man. In I Timothy verses 11 and 12 Paul the Apostle of Christ wrote to Timothy saying:

“Let a woman learn in silence

with all submission. And I do

not permit a woman to have
Such strong statements from the Bible put women automatically in subordinate position in life.

CULTURE

Gender roles vary from Society to Society and from culture to culture but expert powerful and far reaching effects on individuals. These roles are defined, identified, expressed, maintained and justified by society. Society perceives sex differences and allocates appropriate roles, behavior, attitudes and responsibilities to the sexes. The roles shape and mould adult life and personality. According to Perlman (1968), Ruddock (1969), Bagley (1987), a person takes on the characteristics of the role he or she is relegated to play in life and this determines his behavior, personality, and status in life. The roles designated to women have inferior values and relegate them to subordinate positions and status in all societies. According to Byrine (1978) the feminine image have for time immemorial carried with it a message of inferiority, lesser importance, dependence and destiny to domestic role.

Disparities in gender roles exist in all cultures and in all spheres of life; social, economic, political, educational, wealth ownership, marriage and employment. In all these fields men are dominant ones. Women who come up or challenge the men in their roles and are successful are labeled as “Manly” or “ambitious”. Consequently many women seem to have accepted the status quo and resigned themselves to the status their prescribed roles have placed them rather than challenge men and lose their femininity.

COLONIAL INFLUENCE
The colonial powers partitioned Africa in the 19th Century. They intended to administer their colonies by themselves with the help of a few Africans. These were the sons and relatives of the African chiefs. Only men were therefore given formal education as they were groomed to be future administrators. As these young men required educated wives, a few girls were educated for this purpose. These girls received education that would enable them to assume their role as good housewives and mothers; an inferior education.

**WOMEN’S ACCESS TO FORMAL EMPLOYMENT**

Women have traditionally been occupied in the non-formal sector of the economy. In formal employment they have been concentrated in jobs that require low levels of skills, responsibilities, and pay like teaching and nursing. This is because women experience overt discrimination in recruitment and promotion in male dominated jobs based on negative stereotyping. However such discrimination now seem to be decreasing as reported by Baron and Byrne (1984). There is now a shift towards more egalitarian roles for both men and women.

Research findings however show that in some developed countries like Britain and the U.S.A. woman are still discriminated against in terms of remunerations. Women with the same qualifications as men are given jobs with lower pay than men. (Morrison and Glinow 1990; Flexner 1971).

In Uganda this discrimination is not experienced. Men and women have access to the same types of jobs with the same pay depending on their qualifications. The 1989 Uganda Man Power Survey Report show that 20% of employees in the formal sector are now women compared to the 1975 ILO
report that only 4% of the women labour force in less developed nations were women professionals and administrators. This is a big leap forward for them.

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**LEADERSHIP IS A MAN’S JOB**

Leadership and management are stereotyped as the preserves of men. People are reluctant to employ women in jobs that require supervision especially of men. They argue that young men resent being supervised by women, that women also fear supervising men and that men are more suited to supervising women. (Chiplin and Sloane, 1982). Very strong opposition to the very idea of women in leadership have been voiced. The strongest was from John Knox in “First Blast of Trumphet Against the Monstrous Regimes of Women, 1558” quoted in the New Vision. It said:

“To promote a woman to bear rule,

superiority, dominion, or empire

above any realm nation, or city

is repugnant to nature”.

Women leaders encountering such strong oppositions cannot persevere not have confidence in themselves.

The consequences are that there are very few women in high ranking decision making positions throughout the world even in developed nations like the U.S.A., Europe and the USSR. According to Morrison and Glinow (1990), in the U.S.A., only one-third of management positions are filled by women. Most women are in low tiered jobs with little authority and power.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Women face a lot of discriminatory practices in education. They underparticipate and
underachieve in post secondary institutions and are under represented in Senior Posts in educational
services. In Uganda very few women are in decision making, high level planning and managerial
positions in the educational system. Kasawuli (1990) reported in his study of headships in Secondary
Schools in Jinja and Kampala districts that of those in headship positions in the two districts only 19%
were women and 81% men. According to Sources from the Schools and Colleges Section of the
Ministry of Education in Crested Towers, of the 529 Government Aided Secondary Schools in the
country, only 40 are headed by substantively appointed headmistresses. Very few women especially in
Church founded Schools are in acting capacities. There are 56 Deputy Headmistresses. Taking both
Headmistresses and Deputy Headmistresses together a figure of 18% women in administration in
Secondary Schools in Uganda is arrived at. This is very low figure. There are no women Directors of
N.T.C. in the whole country. Yet there are many women in the teaching services especially at the lower
levels. This situation seems to be the same throughout the world where women constitute the majority
of employees in education in both third world and developed nations but have no power of decision
making. According to reports in International Council of Adult Education (1986), in many parts of the
world women firm about two-thirds of the classroom teachers and adult educators at grassroots levels;
dealing with children. But the higher the promotional ladder the fewer the percentage of women in
managerial positions. The reign of power in education is still firmly held by men.

In Uganda no women has ever headed a boy’s School let alone deputized in one, yet there are
many men heading purely girls’ Schools.
The explanation to this disparity could be gender influenced. It is possible that they have deflated views of their own competence and ability to contribute meaningfully to the decision making processes in Schools. It is possible that with such outlook of their competence they tend to perform poorly when in headship positions to such an extent that policy makers are biased about appointing them to such deserving posts. However no researcher has so far investigated this.

There has also been talk of women having fear of the consequences of success but not the success itself, (Deaux 1977, Horner 1972). With success women gain superiority and lose their femininity. This loss of femininity has a negative effect on some women to such an extent that some prefer to retain their feminine trails rather than become superiors. MacBrayer (1960) pointed out that the truly feminine women accept their inferior positions in life.

The dilemma therefore is that cultural attitudes and beliefs are still so deeply rooted in both men and women that it is difficult to convince the majority of both sexes that gender inequalities are neither biological nor God given and can be corrected. Trying to change the traditional roles of men and women according to Obbo (1982) raises a lot of opposition, fears and anxiety. Many women doubt the desirability of opting for change thus they prefer to remain in the security of culture.

The extent to which gender stereotypes are accepted and perpetuated by the women themselves and the extent to which such social pressures affect and influence women participation and performance while in educational leadership need to be ascertained.

A phenomenon known as self-fulfilling prophecy was demonstrated by Skrypnek and Synder (1982). It means engaging in Stereotypes behaviours because it is expected of one. Some women engage
in this phenomenon thereby proving their own incompetence especially in leadership. According to Sampson (1980) women who describe themselves as typically feminine have low self-esteem and difficulty in social adjustment. They cannot perform effectively as leaders because they lack leadership capabilities.

However, the extent to which people absorb cultural and traditional roles vary from individual to individual. Not all people in the same society have the same qualities. According to Bem (1981) people differ in their gender self-concepts. There are masculine, feminine, and androgynous people. Androgynous people have both masculine and feminine traits and perform better in both feminine and masculine tasks. Therefore categorizing people as leaders or non-leaders on the basis of their sex could be misleading. In fact, Plato in his Republic argued that no function on society is peculiar to men as man, or woman as woman, and the Natural gifts are similarly distributed in each sex, therefore it is natural to share all occupations equally with men.

No researcher has so far investigated the influence of gender on job performance of female administrators of Uganda. This need to be ascertained.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken based on the assumption that women educational administrators were adversely affected by gender issues. It was assumed that this also affected their leadership performance. The study therefore sought to establish whether:

(i) female educational administrators in Uganda which has a non-Western culture differed in their sensitivity to culturally accepted gender roles;

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(ii) if the women exhibited different sensitivity to gender issues, how this
differences affected the way they performed in their positions as administrators
in the educational system;

(iii) then basing on significant findings the study sought to recommend a course of
action as regards gender sensitivity through training and schooling.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study was undertaken because the researcher believed that there was need to increase the
participation of women in high level decision making positions in the educational system of Uganda in
order to effectively utilize the abundant human resources represented by women in that field. The Study
would show how gender sensitivity influences the performance of women in educational institutions and
it would go a long way in supporting or disproving the stereotyped beliefs that versus women in
administration. Basing on significant findings and recommendations it would enhance the access of
women to jobs formerly denied them on grounds of gender biases.

Usually policies and decisions which affect women in the education system are made by men.
Such policies do not take into consideration the needs, interests and views of women. More women
need to be represented in educational policy making organs in order to ensure their full participation in
the implementation of educational plans and programmes geared towards solving their problems and
bringing them the economic main stream of the nation. This study would make society and policy
formulating organs aware of gender based shortcomings which have adversely affected women for so
long in educational leadership, with the hope that society and the educational system in general would then try to change social roles and prejudices attached to gender through training and schooling.

**DEFINITION OF TERMS**

For purposes of this study Acker’s (1984) definition of gender was adopted. She defines gender as a set of meanings, beliefs, attitudes, roles, traits, and expectations a society ascribes to femininity or masculinity. It excludes biological sex differences which are physical, physiological, hormonal, and genetical.

Sensitivity in this context is taken to mean being influenced be, awareness or acceptance of, (gender issues). It is based on Webster (1984) New World Dictionary. Gender sensitivity in this book means awareness, acceptance or adherence to gender stereotyped roles, attitudes, or traits. Performance refers to the way the leader accomplishes her leadership functions or roles. In this study gender sensitivity was taken as the independent variable on which performance was based.
CHAPTER TWO  REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

No studies on how gender issues affect the performance of women in administration has as yet been done in Uganda, let alone its education system. However in many parts of the world studies have been carried out on women in management. The drawback to these studies has always been the limited number of women in high level management positions. In fact Epstein (1972: 601) quoted a study by a Harvard Business Review as having complained that:

There are so few women in

management positions that

there is scarcely anything

to study.

Despite this numerical drawback some literature relating leadership to gender issues particularly as it pertains to women are hereafter discussed.

WOMEN AS MANAGERS

In most of the literature so reviewed a consistent bias is noted or indicated towards women in management. Both sexes tend to view women as less competent managers than their male counterparts (Stevens and DeNisi 1980). This seems to be the case despite growing evidence that male and female managers show similar behaviour as reported by Donnell and Hall (1980) Wexley and Pulakos (1982). Many people do not believe that women can be successful managers. They tend to give various reasons
for male and female successes in leadership. When female managers have successfully performed in their capacities as leaders the reasons for their successes are given as easy task or luck but not competence or their abilities. When male ones succeed this is attributed to ability or effort but not easy task or luck. There is therefore a bias based on gender issues linking women with ineffectiveness in their performance of leadership roles.

Powers (1974) found that sex was used as the basis for ascribing attributes of candidates for principalship in Wisconsin, U.S.A. The traditional sex roles were used to discriminate against the appointment of women to positions of headship. She reported that leadership behaviour was sextyped. The masculine leadership behaviour she found in her study, was expected of people who would be affective High School administrators. This meant that professionally qualified women teachers in high schools who did not show masculine traits could not be considered effective future principals. Consequently gender sensitive women were disadvantaged as they could not be considered for appointment to leadership positions. Their exhibition of the feminine gender of leadership behaviour rendered them to be perceived as ineffective administrators. This showed that gender issues influenced appointment of women to leadership positions in that area.

Wheeler (1989) reported from her study of Female Public School Administrators in U.S.A. that as a female moved towards higher management position, her sex role identification became more and more masculine and less and less feminine, and that upper management administrators perceived as ideal administrator to be more masculine and less feminine than lower level administrators. This indicates that appointment of women to high level management positions required a change of sex role behaviour by aspiring women to such positions. Failure to adopt such a change meant the woman in
question was not a suitable candidate for the post. It is not easy to change one’s sex role behaviour. Definitely gender sensitive women find it hardest to change consequently would never reach high level managerial positions.

In another study, DePrete and Soule (1988), researching on Gender Discrimination and Promotion reported that the few women who made it to higher level management were similar in chances, skills and attitudes to men. This indicates that only women who had had equal chances of education with men, been exposed to the same skills and had acquired male attitudes could gain promotion to high level decision making posts. According to Rogers (1980) such few senior women tended to adopt the male system and ideology. They rejected any identification with fellow women. But because they were too few and far between, they tended to feel a sense of being isolated and ignored. This affects and handicaps them as they find themselves usually working almost alone amongst men. Small mistakes they make become glaringly conspicuous. Marland (1983) cited Richardson (1973) as having found that such women felt that in matters of decision making and policy formulations, they had a sense of being left out, ignored by their male colleagues or superiors and having to leave major decisions to the men. Consequently they deny themselves their own capacities to assume executive leadership. Cortina (1989) confirmed this. She reported that many Mexican women were in educational governance but lacked autonomy and decision making capacities within their own positions.

Many of these women are pressurized to side with the male majority against their own kind as a price of membership. This was reported by Rogers (1980). In some cases according to Rogers (Ibid) such women again tended to conform to the Stereotype attached to their group. They became sex objects, mothers, daughters, or younger sisters to their colleagues or superiors, or even became
desexualized militants in order to be accepted by their male colleagues or superiors. They resorted to the phenomenon of self-fulfilling prophecy. Sometimes they were forced to work extremely hard and overtime in order to prove that they were as capable as the men. These reports show that even women who climbed up the ladder of management have a struggle to remain at the top; a struggle which in most cases requires too much sacrifice on the part of the women. But such sacrifices are more or less ridiculed usually. The lone voices of such women hardly make any impression in the male dominated field of management.

The findings could explain the scarcity of women in upper management echelons in almost all sectors of employment. Because, if effectiveness and hence promotions to such positions require that women become more masculine, reject their female ideology and work even harder than the men to prove their worth, then gender sensitive women who hold strong beliefs in gender roles would not be promoted to such levels of management; for they would not easily accept to change and adopt the male ideology, system, and attitudes. The fact that they strongly adhere to and exhibit feminine behaviour would cause them to be automatically labeled as inefficient and ineffective. The controversial suggestions that women fear the consequences of success because they believe that if they are too successful and competitive they would lose their femininity would tend to be supported in this case. In fact (Harari and Kaplan 1982) cited Placente (1974) as having reported that women judged as competent were rated as less feminine. And that achievement of competence in any field by a woman decreased the woman’s appeal to members of the opposite sex.

Marlend (1983) reported studies done in the U.S.A. which showed that women had lower aspirations for professional advancement and promotions to certain jobs because they feel that they have
no ability or traits for such jobs like leadership. Such jobs usually require possession of qualities like consistence, assertiveness, self-confidence and independence which according to Horner (1972) are inconsistent with femininity. Gender sensitive women genuinely believe that they lack such traits hence do not aspire for leadership jobs and are labelled un-ambitious.

This view however was disputed by other researchers. Bradley and Silverleaf (1979) were reported in Marland (1983) to disagree with this concept of women having lower aspirations for management positions. They believed that lack of aspirations in women for high level positions were only experienced when there was lack of geographical mobility, preventing women from moving to new job stations for various reasons. When such barriers were not evident, women showed the same levels of aspiration as men for such jobs.

In education systems throughout the world, women tend to concentrate in lower level management positions. They are very many in nursery and infant school headships. This could be explained that women tent to conform to their role as mothers even in leadership. Bamkart (1989) found in his study in Japan that women emphasized that the greatest fulfillment for them was associated with mothering. An earlier study by Byrine (1978) has also found that in Schools, Senior Mistresses dealt more with social functions, pregnant School girls, and difficult parents while male school administrators dealt more with actual school administration, policy formulation and executions and organization of the school than social events. The explanation of this phenomenon is rooted in sensitivity to gender roles.

On the effective performance of men and women in management there seems to be little or no difference. Wexley and Bulakos (1982), Steinberg and Shapiro (1982), found few differences when they compared traits associated with future successes as managers among male and female business students.
in U.S.A. In some cases where differences emerged, the study found that female students scored higher on traits associated with future successes as managers that the male ones. This study indicated that initially boys and girls have the traits for being successful managers in whatever field they chose to pursue in future. But possibly in women these traits tend to be repressed in later life because of adherence to gender roles which society still enforces.

Anya Ocha (1984) while comparing perceived leadership performance of male and female superintendents in high school in Tennessee, U.S.A. found that the two did not differ in matters of policy formulations, and execution, decision making, personnel selection, utilization of human resources, setting regulations and various other fields of leadership. Both men and women performed the same in these areas. This would indicate that given the chance to independently lead without undue outside pressure women perform as well as or even better than men in positions of leadership.

Some researchers have actually reported better performance by female managers than male ones. Marland (1983) reported Gross and Trask (1976) as having found that teachers performed professionally better in female headed Schools than in male headed ones. Even students performance and learning were higher on the average in female headed Schools than in male ones. Accordingly they, (Gross and Trask), concluded that the sex of the head of the School did make a difference in the operations and Management of Schools. Consequently they advocated for an analysis of the relationship between sex stereotyped leadership roles and performance in school planning and administrative processes.

As far as political leadership is concerned, there seems to be no difference between male and female politicians. Constantini and Craik (1972, 1980) found that both men and women in politics were
the same in terms of formulation of public policies, self-confidence, dominance, achievement and orientation. They differ slightly in their motives for being in politics and in their respective parties. Whereas women where in politics because of their concern for people and party members, men were in it for personal advancement.

Despite many such findings, female managers are still very far between. Shapiro and Steinberg (1982) apply put forward this point, “Women populate corporations but do not run them”.

The explanation of this discrepancy is important. The factors which influence the decisions of women to work, their choices of occupation and their levels of aspirations need to be analyzed. The concept of women having lower intellectual capacity and ability to undertake work requiring high level concentration has effectively been disproved by the entrance and success of women in fields once dominated by men: like the Sciences, Engineering, Medicine and the Law. It is true one cannot claim that all women are intellectuals and capable just as one cannot claim that all men are.

The question as to why there are so few women in higher level school management and how these few manage and perform is important. Some explanations to these could be found in the influence of gender sensitivity. The researcher believed that the answer to these questions lie in what a woman believed is her role in society, how much she has internalized that role and what treatment she expects from society in the event of her deviation from such prescribed roles. Sensitivity to gender roles the researcher believed would not only influence a woman’s career choice but also her performance in her chosen field in this case leadership in educational institutions.
Society does actually underrate and undervalue women’s leadership capabilities. Dobbins and Cardy (1988) reported biases in rating the performance of women leaders. They found that the performance rating of women were influenced by the rater’s own beliefs in gender stereotypes and reason for the rating. Sextyped raters, those strongly gender sensitive, rated women lower when they believed the rating was for promotional decisions than when they believed they were for routine feedback purposes. This indicates that however efficient and effective a women manager is the gender sensitive members of society would always down play her successes and performances making her appear incapable and incompetent.

Few people who have worked under women managers have reported favourably about them according to Stoner and Wankel (1986). But the vast majority of the subordinates have been found to show discrimination against women leaders. Sanders and Schmidt (1980) found that subordinates tended to work harder when they perceived the manager was a male than when they believed the manager was a female. In their study which involved card sorting, both a male and female subordinates worked harder for a male manager than for a female one. This study indicated that female managers tended to be given less cooperation by their subordinates than the male ones. In consequence they were made to appear less effective and less successful and labeled as incompetent; not because they did not work as hard as the men, but because subordinates were not willing to give them maximum cooperation. This attitude the researcher believed was the manifestation of deep rooted beliefs in gender roles. Subordinates believed that a woman’s position should be subordinate not super-ordinate and that a woman’s leadership performance was inferior.
Mannila (1972) in her study of sex role attitudes in Finland found that the average educated unmarried men did not accept women in positions of leadership and were unwilling to work for them. But highly educated men did not mind having women as leaders possibly because of their high levels of education, they did not envisage any threat from women managers in their fields.

Megargee (1973) found that while women did not feel uncomfortable about working for men, men did feel discomfited in working under the directions of women. These findings could explain the subtle resistance women managers experience their subordinates especially male ones.

It appears from the preceding research findings that even women have overcome their barriers to promotion to leadership positions, they are still deliberately sabotaged and made to appear incompetent. This is the result of strong adherence to gender roles inherent in the women’s subordinates, colleagues and superiors. This attitude needs to be changed.

Whereas external biases emanating from people who should work with or for women, employ, and promote them cause serious obstacles to the promotion and performance of women, internal factors arising from the women’s own gender self-concepts could, the researcher believed, present even more serious obstacles to the overall performance of some women already in managerial positions.

This could serve to enhance gender biases against other women aspiring for promotion to such positions. Many women are still greatly influenced by what society expects of them. They do not completely accept or reject sex role appropriate behaviours and attitudes. They instead try to accommodate them. Most try to make their career roles and their traditional roles compatible. In so
doing they become inefficient and subject to inner conflicts which could affect their leadership performance adversely.

Horner (1972) reported that most competent women faced a conflict between their feminine image and showing their capabilities, adjust their behavior to suit their internalized sex role stereotype.

Although research on leadership traits disregard personality variables as factors of leadership effectiveness, Lindgren (1973) reported that subjects rating high on traits of dominance usually volunteered or were forced into playing leadership roles. Megargee (1973) in his study of the effect of Sex Role Stereotypes on the Manifestation of Leadership Roles found that when women who were dominant were paired off with men who were not dominant: the women tended to appoint the male partner as the leader while they relegated themselves to subordinate positions. This study indicated that women were sensitive to their gender roles of being subordinates. They let tradition take precedent in cases where they could actually successfully lead. The study showed that women were reluctant to take overt leadership over men. This results in women underperforming. The disguising of women’s capabilities are costly to the women emotionally. They are constantly worried about losing their femininity and therefore do not carry out their career roles effectively. This is also costly to society in terms of human resources as competent women became underutilized.

According to Cortina (1989), the few women who advanced to high management positions in education in Mexico were usually political appointees. She reported that women competing with men for leadership positions were usually disadvantaged because the demands for advancement required far more time that was compatible with their desire to have normal family lives. Accordingly she found that of the women in leadership positions in her country the majority were divorced or had never married. Of
the married women the majority had few or no children. These women had more free time because of their lighter domestic chores. This shows that women have to make a choice between taking leadership roles and their family lives. Most prefer normal family relationships.

To stop gender biases attached to women in administration from repressive to capable women the few women in administrative positions need to strive to stop the self-fulfilling prophecy associated with the stereotyped attributes of women from becoming true. They need to be optimistic self-confident leaders who believe in their abilities to perform just as well as men. To do this women need to the whole hearted assistance of the very society which has hitherto held them in low esteem and marginalized them. Society need to accept, encourage and help women who are in jobs once called male jobs especially, to show their full potential, instead of looking at them as deviates thereby causing them to be inhibited.

**STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS**

The researcher’s intention in carrying out this study was to endeavor to show that strong adherence to socially ascribed gender roles still affected adversely the performance of women in leadership in educational institutions in Central Uganda, and Uganda in general which has a non-Western culture. She believed that strongly gender sensitive women (more feminine ones) would not perform as well as the less gender sensitive (less feminine ones).

In order to guide the research along this line the researcher developed two hypothesis which she stated in the Null form.

Hypothesis 1:
There is no difference in expected and observed gender sensitivity among female administrators in educational institutions in Central Uganda.

Hypothesis 2:

Gender sensitivity is not related to performance of female educational administrators in Central Uganda.
CHAPTER THREE  METHODOLOGY OF STUDY

INTRODUCTION

This study sought to establish whether a relationship existed between how women in leadership positions in the education system in Uganda performed and the strength of their acceptance of gender role. It is also sought to find out whether the sample of the women educational administrators differed in their attitudes and acceptance of culturally prescribed women’s role in society. Indications of such differences if any could tend to agree with Bem’s (1981) reports that there were three categories of people who describe themselves as feminine, masculine and androgynous on the basis of their acceptance of sex role stereotypes. These findings would indicate attitudinal changes towards prescribed sex roles.

In carrying out this study the researcher used the non-experimental descriptive research method. This method was chosen because the researcher was intended to study human behaviour and deal with options, beliefs, and attitudes of women towards their own gender role perceptions; how each woman perceived herself in terms of socially stereotyped gender roles. Therefore, since the socialization processes through which people acquire and internalize gender roles were assumed to have already occurred, and the researcher did not have to manipulate the variable in any way, the non-experimental research method was taken as ideal for this study.

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

Women in administrative posts in post primary educational institutions in central region of Uganda formed the main population for this study. This included women in policy making positions
such as women heads of institutions, Deputy heads, Wardens of halls of residences as well as women heads of departments in the delimited areas of study. Forty-five (45) such women were intended to participate in the study.

Another group of subjects were the subordinates of these women. These in most cases were teachers, lecturers, tutors and sometimes students in the institutions where these women administrators worked. Four subordinates participated to evaluate each woman administrator, two males and two females.

**SAMPLING**

Not all the women administrators who responded to the questionnaires could be randomly sampled. Due to the limited number of such women, the researcher even had to augment this shortcoming by including women heads of departments in the study. As many women administrators as could be found were used as respondents and given questionnaires with the hope that if more women than the required forty-five responded, the researcher could then sample the responses randomly to make the required number. However, only thirty eight (38) questionnaires were returned and these were all analyzed.

The above problem did not however affect the sampling of the subordinates. There were abundant in most cases and since the researcher needed only four per woman administrator, she systematically sampled them using the Kth method of sampling techniques where she was availed with a list of the staff in the institution or chose at random when she found them in their common rooms.

**INSTRUMENTS**
The researcher used two separate types of questionnaires. One questionnaire was modified from Hawley (1972) and Kaplan (1973). It was called Attitudes Towards Women’s Role in Society. This was administered to the women leaders in order to elicit their attitudes towards traditional sex role stereotypes. The questionnaire appeared in three sections and contained thirty six (36) items. In the first section of this questionnaire background information pertaining to the type of institution, qualification, age, marital status, number and ages of children, position and length of service of respondents was collected. This information was vital in that it gave the researcher background on the type of women who get promotion to positions of leadership in these institutions and what type of women leader were tolerated by specific types of institutions. The section was designed by the researcher.

The second section of the questionnaire which contained the Altitudes to Women’s Role in Society was designed to tap the altitudes of these women towards gender related roles and beliefs. From the responses of the subjects to this part, individual attitudes to gender issues were computed by scoring them based on the five (5) scales which were: strongly agree (5), agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1). In some cases the scores were reversed. From these scores, the strength of each respondent's adherence to gender roles and beliefs were concluded. The higher the scores, the stronger was the individual's attachment to gender roles. It indicated the more traditional attitudes of the more feminine individuals, while less scores indicated that the women had rejected the traditional attitudes towards gender roles and were therefore less feminine in their outlook.

The third section of the questionnaire contained open ended questions. In this section the researcher asked the respondents to indicate whatever problems, successes or failures they usually encountered in the course of executing their duties as administrators, in the education system which they
felt were attributable to gender biases from their colleagues, subordinates, superiors and members of the public. The researcher also asked the respondents to indicate how management performance affected their private lives. From subjects' responses to this section the researcher hoped to elicit gender biases faced by women in administration and the conflicts they face in their private lives as female administrators.

The second questionnaire was developed by incorporating the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) used by Halpin (1959) Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) used by Halpin and Croft (1963) and the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) by Stern and Steinhoff (1965). It contained 55 items based on eleven (11) functions of leaderships. It was administered to the subordinates of the women administrators.

The first part of this questionnaire dealt with the background of the subordinates. The last part was intended to elicit the subordinates' perception of their superiors in terms of the women leaders' behaviour and performance on the various leadership dimensions such as Production emphasis, Decision making, Team work, Motivation processes, ability to handle complex demands and crisis firmly and so on. How often the women leaders indulged in certain actions under these dimensions were graded also on a five-point scale as Always (5) Often (4) Occasionally (3) Seldom (2) and Never (1). Higher scores indicated better performance by the leader on the dimension in question.

Lastly in the process of administering the questionnaires to the subordinates, the researcher had opportunity to talk to some of the subordinates from whom she obtained a lot of useful information for this study. This was used for discussions on the various leadership dimensions.
PROCEDURE

Both questionnaires were modifications of already existing ones whose validity and reliability had already been tested. The researcher discussed them with her supervisor and friends, pilot run them, removed irrelevant items and then administered them to the respondents. According to Stogdill (1974), the subordinate questionnaire containing the LBDQ had a validity of 0.9 and a reliability of 0.87. For the women administrators questionnaire the reliability was calculated using Cronbach’s method and found to be 0.89. After receiving the Okay from her supervisor, the researcher obtained a letter of Introduction from the Dean, School of Education which she used to introduce herself to the respondents wherever she went to administer the questionnaires.

The researcher hand delivered and administered the questionnaires to both groups of respondents herself. To the women administrators the questionnaires were administered to them in their offices and the researcher then had occasion to discuss with those of them who had time to spare for her.

To the subordinates, the researcher personally gave the questionnaires, briefed them on how to answer, waited for them to answer them, then collected the questionnaires back. In cases where the subordinates could not answer the questionnaires there and then the researcher left them with instructions not to hand the completed questionnaires to their superiors but keep them until she returned for them. This was done as a necessary precaution against subordinates giving untruthful biased information for fear of having their responses read by their superiors whom they were evaluating. This meant that the researcher sometimes had to make several trips to the same institutions for the purpose of collecting those forms.
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher encountered several problems which she believes limited the accuracy and generalization of this study.

The limited number of women educational administrators in post primary institutions was a major drawback. The researcher had intended to use only heads of institutions who control the climate, all decisions and running of their institutions but had to use even deputies in institutions headed by men. Such deputies have little control over many decisions and the running of the institutions because they only follow already prepared courses of action by their male superiors.

Lack of funds was also a major limitation. The researcher was unable to travel all over the delimited area of study. She could not get more representative subjects for study, neither could randomness be ascertained as she had to limit herself to areas which she could visit within a day's travel.

Non-cooperation by subjects was also a limitation to this study. The researcher encountered resistance especially from heads of institutions earmarked for study. In some cases she met downright refusals and the reasons given usually being that they were too busy. Some indicated that they were tired of answering questionnaires for Master of Education students from Makerere. The researcher had to beg the respondents to participate in completing the questionnaires. In such cases the researcher feels that some of the information given may not be reliable.

Fear from subordinates could also have caused limitations to this study. Despite promises by the researcher to the subordinates that whatever information given would be treated in absolute
confidence, many still feared to participate in answering the questionnaire. This was especially true in cases where the researcher was introduced to the subordinates by the heads or deputy heads themselves.

Time was another factor of constraint. Data was collected from these institutions especially secondary schools during the period when students were about to break off for holidays. Consequently both teachers and their heads were too busy to give enough time to the questionnaires. In some cases the questionnaires were shelved or put aside to be completed at later dates but were eventually lost.

Finally, the researcher believes that as a beginner in the field of research, and her research being a pioneer one, her lack of experience, and lack of previous data for purposes of comparison is an important drawback on this research.
CHAPTER FOUR  DATA, PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

To find out whether sensitivity to gender roles had an effect on the way women administrators in the education system in Uganda performed and whether these women differed in their attitudes towards gender roles, two hypotheses were advanced and tested.

The first hypothesis which stated that there was no difference in gender sensitivity among female educational administrators in educational institutions in central Uganda, was tested using the Chi-Square ($\chi^2$) analysis. This was done to test whether the distribution of women administrators in the education system in terms of their sensitivity to gender roles was statistically significant or not. The results would show whether promotion to administrative posts for women was dependent on the women’s gender outlook or not. The Chi-Square ($\chi^2_o$) was computed from the observed frequencies and compared with the critical value of ($\chi^2_c$) at the 0.05 level of statistical significance (two tailed) and inferences made.

The second hypothesis which stated that gender sensitivity did not affect the performance of female administrators in educational institutions in Central Uganda was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Techniques ($r$).

JUSTIFICATION FOR THE USE OF THE CHI-SQUARE ($X^2$) ANALYSIS

The Chi-Square ($\chi^2$) analysis was used for hypothesis 1 because the researcher had to categorize the female administrators as more or less feminine on the basis of their quantitative scores on gender issues. Since there were 36 items on the questionnaires given to the female administrators and 35
were scored on the Liker scale with a maximum score of five (5) points and a minimum of one (1) point per item, the maximum gender scores were (5 x 35) = 175 points corresponding to high femininity. The mid-point score between 35 and 175 was computed as 105. Women whose scores fell below the 105 mark were classified as less feminine and those whose score fell above the 105 mark were categorized as more feminine in their attitudes towards gender roles. Femininity increased with increase in scores above 105 and it progressively decreased with decrease in scores below 105. The more feminine a female administrator was, the more was her gender scores and vice versa.

**JUSTIFICATION FOR THE USE OF THE PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION (R)**

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Technique was used because the scores on gender sensitivity of the female administrators tended to be continuous rather than discrete. Scatter grammes made showed the relationships to be linear rather than curvilinear. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Technique (r) was therefore viewed as more appropriate for this kind of data.

**DISCUSSIONS ON BACKGROUND INFORMATION: GENDER AND PROMOTION OF FEMALE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS**

Fifty (50) questionnaires were distributed to fifty (50) female respondents, but only thirty eight (38) were returned; showing 76% response.

The majority 25 of the female administrators who responded to these questionnaires were aged between 41 – 50 years. Of the remaining, 12 were aged between 31 - 40 years and 1 was over 50 years.
Of these women those heading secondary institutions were mostly married with 1 – 6 children.

Although the ages of the children varied, none had a child below one year of age.

Of the women from tertiary institutions 60% were in the group of singles, widowed or separated. They had even fewer children usually 1 – 4 in number and most of them were grown up children between the ages of 11 - 20 years.

All the women administrators were highly qualified in their fields. Most of those from tertiary institutions had at least two degrees and above, whereas over 90% of those in secondary institutions held at least a Degree and a Diploma. They were also highly experienced women as none of them had been promoted to her present post without prior long service of over 10 years in the education system.

These findings correspond with those of Cortina (1989) in Mexico and Swantz (1985) in Tanzania who reported that the majority of women in high level managerial positions were of the class of singles, widowed or divorced who have the necessary freedom of action and time. As leaders these women have to make implicit decisions that they will not be mothers or wives who come home regularly early. They have to work longer hours and therefore have less time with their families. This is a price that all women in management have to pay when they join the profession. Some capable young ladies would rather not pay this price therefore do not opt for leadership jobs.

As earlier stated the women who join leadership are all mature, qualified and experienced ones. Their commitments to domestic chores have been reduced by having smaller grown up families, paid help and husbands who take over some of the home responsibilities. These findings confirm Cortina’s (1989) reports that heavy family commitments and responsibilities prevent aspiring women from taking
promotions even when offered. To save their jobs and marriages most women play the dual roles of home makers and managers but have their efficiency lowered both at home and in the work place. They therefore have to work extremely hard in order to justify their promotions and show quality service. This is taxing and most young women would rather not attempt it: hence few young married women in educational leadership. The singles, divorced or widowed however, have no choice but to work hard in order to support themselves and their families.

These background information do point to the fact that sensitivity to gender roles influence a woman’s chances of early promotion to administrative positions in the educational system in Central Uganda.

**DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS ON HYPOTHESIS 1**

As quoted in the previous text the researcher distributed 50 questionnaires but only 38 were returned. Of these 36 women had gender scores below the 105 mark and 2 had scores above its These frequencies were analyzed using the Chi-Square ($\chi^2$) test of Goodness of Fit. The following is the summary of the results.
TABLE 1. OBSERVED AND EXPECTED FREQUENCY COUNTS FOR GENDER SENSITIVITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>More feminine</th>
<th>Less feminine</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Chi-Square observed ($\chi^2_O$) value was calculated and compared with the Chi-Square critical ($\chi^2_c$) value from the table. The results were found to be statistically significant at the .05 level of statistical significance: ($\chi^2 = 30.4$, df = 1, P = .05)

The Null hypothesis ($H_0$) was therefore rejected. Women administrators in educational institutions in Central Uganda differed significantly in their sensitivity to gender roles. Most of them tended to be less feminine in their outlook towards gender roles and issues.

These findings seem to further indicate that gender sensitivity does influence the promotion of women to high level administrative positions in the education system in Central Uganda. They tend to agree with the findings of Wheeler (1989) that as women moved to higher level decision making and policy formulating positions, they tended to be more masculine and less feminine.

Masculine traits as can be recalled, are more positively valued and entail ambition, confidence, and dominance among others. These are traits associated with successful leadership. Women education administrators who rated themselves less feminine seem to have developed confidence, assertiveness and high aspirations. They therefore have no reservations in applying for and assuming leadership roles whenever the opportunity for it is offered. At higher administrative levels in the education system, just
as elsewhere, more such women are found. More feminine women still adhere to the traditional roles of women in society. Consequently they may lack confidence and are unsure of themselves, they would not aspire for leadership positions because they are content to remain subordinates. With the attitude of women towards gender roles changing slowly, hopefully more will climb the ladder of leadership and management in future.

The researcher also noticed that women with the more traditional sex role attitudes and beliefs seemed to come mostly from religious founded and managed boarding girls institutions. These findings tend to substantiate an earlier statement that religions reinforce and maintain female submission and subordination: they encourage adherence to the more traditional roles of women in society.

However, the researcher also noticed that whether more or less feminine all the women educational administrators strongly agreed that that the most important and fulfilling roles for them were those involving home making and having children. These findings agree with those of Bamkarti (1989) earlier quoted that women in Japan reported that the most fulfilling experiences for them was associated with mothering indicating strong adherence to motherhood and child care. The women administrators studied also believed that they could justifiably handle both their homes and their careers without problems. These findings indicate that beliefs in certain gender roles are still deeply entrenched in women and will take time to change. They confirm what Nalwanga Sebina and Natukunda (1988) reported, that division of labour between gender is still very strong in rural Uganda although perceptions of gender roles are becoming more egalitarian. The study also confirms that even among the educated elite adherence to certain gender roles are still very strong. The fact that all the women administrators
carried out the double role of home makers and administrators much reduces their efficiency and 
indicates that they are quite obviously overworked.

**DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS ON HYPOTHESIS 2.**

**GENDER AND PERFORMANCE OF FEMALE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN CENTRAL UGANDA.**

The second hypothesis which stated that gender sensitivity did not affect the performance of female administrators in educational institutions in Central Uganda, was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Techniques (r). Gender sensitivity scores of the women administrators which had been obtained for hypothesis (l) were correlated with their scores on the various dimensions of leadership roles.

Each leadership dimension had four major items on the questionnaire. The frequency with which each action was carried out by the woman administrator was ranked as Always = 5, Often = 4, Occasionally = 3; Seldom = 2 and Never = 1. The maximum score for each leadership dimension was therefore (4 x 5) = 20 points. The minimum was (1 x 4) = 4 points. In some cases the scores were reversed.

The more the score of an individual on a leadership dimension the better was the performance of the woman administrator on that dimension.
Finally, overall performance scores of each woman administrator was obtained by summing up all her scores on the various leadership dimensions. The overall scores were then correlated to their gender sensitivity scores. The following are the results showing the Pearson Product Moment (r) values.

**TABLE 2. SUMMARY OF THE (R) VALUES ON GENDER SENSITIVITY AND THE VARIOUS LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Dimensions</th>
<th>Correlation (r) Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production Emphasis</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance of Freedom</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firmness</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership assumption</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superior Orientation</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social distance</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team work</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Leadership Performance</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Statistical significance of the (r) values was obtained by comparing (r) observed with (r) critical values from the table at .05 level of statistical significance and degree of freedom of 36. Below is a summary of the results.

<p>| TABLE 3. SUMMARY OF THE SIGNIFICANT (R) VALUES ON GENDER SENSITIVITY AND LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Dimensions</th>
<th>Correlation (r) Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>-0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Assumption</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superior Orientation</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Performance</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( df = 36 \) (\( P = .05 \) Two tailed)

**DISCUSSIONS**

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation (r) which was used to correlate gender sensitivity scores and the various leadership dimension scores revealed some statistically significant results in some dimensions, proving that gender sensitivity did affect the performance of women administrators in the education system in Central Uganda. Subsequently the Null hypothesis (\( H_0 \)) was rejected. The leadership functions studied included: Production emphasis, Consideration concern, Motivational processes, Tolerance of Freedom, Decision making, Firmness in crisis, Leadership role assumption, Superior orientation, Team work, Persuasion, and social distance.
Of these statistically significant results were noted in Production emphasis, Leadership role assumption and Superior Orientation. The overall leadership performance scores which were also correlated to gender sensitivity showed statistically significant results as well.

From the results the less feminine women tended to perform significantly better than the more feminine ones in leadership positions. These results showed that the leadership competence of female educational administrators bore some relationship to their gender sensitivity. They supported the findings of Placente (1974) cited in Harari and Kaplan (1982) that women rated as less feminine were more competent than the more feminine ones.

The discussions on the various leadership dimensions are hereunder presented.

........................................................................................................................................................................

(1) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND PRODUCTION EMPHASIS

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation (r) for gender sensitivity and production emphasis dimensions was r = -0.53. This was a moderate statistically significant correlation which was negative. It indicated that the less feminine women administrators were significantly more concerned for production than the more feminine ones. They were more task or achievement oriented and made sure that their subordinates worked hard to achieve institutional goals for which they were responsible.

However, according to the Human Relations Movement initiated by Elton Mayo and his associates in the early 1930s, over emphasis on production alone, without due consideration to the human element of the institution, cause subordinates dissatisfactions and bring high subordinate turnover, absenteeism and grievances. The less feminine women leaders in this research showed concern for the consideration dimension as well. They could be both directive and considerate
depending on the situation. Consequently, the researcher viewed them as having effective leadership styles which according to Halpin (1959) were marked by high scores on both consideration and initiating structure.

(II) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND CONSIDERATION

The extent to which the women leaders treated their followers as human beings with complex sets of needs and interests all of which are important to the success of their work and their lives were correlated to their gender sensitivity scores. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation of \( r = 0.24 \) was obtained. This was a low positive statistically insignificant correlation which could have been due to chance. The results showed that gender sensitivity did not significantly influence the women leaders’ concern for consideration and that both types of women leaders tended to perform more or less the same on this dimension. The raw scores for all the women leaders on this dimension tended to be moderate. The results showed that both types of women leaders were quite concerned with the needs, interests and welfare of their subordinates. Most of them were reported to be conciliatory, friendly and approachable. They tended to be supportive leaders and had the trust and respect of their subordinates.

These findings show that both types of women leaders were quite good at encouraging interpersonal relationships. This is a very essential quality of leadership. A good leader is sensitive to the subordinates’ needs, interests and welfare and ensures that they are catered for. According to Agyris (1978) adherence to humanistic values in an institution results in the development of trusting authentic relationships resulting in increased interpersonal competence, co-operation, flexibility, harmony and increased organisational productivity and effectiveness. The women leaders seemed quite able to adhere to these values irrespective of their sensitivity to gender roles. This findings could be explained by the
findings of Eagly and Crowley (1986) that female social roles foster helping that is nurturant and caring shown by most women.

(III) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND MOTIVATION

Motivation in this context was viewed in terms of the leader’s recognition of subordinates’ good work and her willingness to offer chances for further personal and professional advancement to her followers. The scores on this dimension were correlated to the women leaders’ gender sensitivity scores. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation of $r = -0.17$ was found. This was a negligible negative correlation which could have resulted due to chance. The results showed that gender sensitivity had no significant influence on the women leaders’ ability to motivate their followers. Both types of women leaders tended to perform more or less the same on this dimension irrespective of their gender outlook.

The women’s individual scores were however rather low on motivation. This indicated that both types of women leaders were rather poor at motivation. The majority of them were reported by their subordinates to show reluctance in allowing them (subordinates) opportunities for further advancement and failing to recognize their good works. They hardly ever encouraged subordinates who wanted professional advancement. But they also hardly ever used punitive measures on their lazy inefficient subordinates. The motivational forces they used mostly tapped the need for money.

Motivation of subordinates is an important leadership function. According to Maslow (1954) all people in society have a desire for safety, recognition, high self-esteem and evaluation. This means good subordinate performances need to be rewarded by giving merit increases and recognition in order to satisfy their needs and ensure their willingness to work as well as enhance their self-esteem.
Subordinates need to be induced to remain in the organization. Well motivated subordinates according to Herzberg (1966) want to work because they find the work satisfying, rewarding, and challenging and at the same time it offers them opportunities for achievement, recognition and personal fulfillment and advancement.

The poor motivational forces displayed by the women leaders studied bring low morale and job dissatisfaction to the subordinates: but it also reflects the poor organizational structure evident in Uganda’s education system. The lack of promotional ladder in the system has contributed to the women’s low performance in this dimension.

According to Anyaocha (1984) men and women perform the same in various administrative processes they indulge in. This study supported her findings but reflects the influence of situational factors in influencing leadership styles and effectiveness.

(IV) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM

This dimension dealt with the extent to which the woman leader allowed her subordinates the freedom to use their own initiatives in handling institutional problems. A low statistically insignificant positive correlation $r = 0.20$ was obtained. This could have been due to chance. It showed that gender sensitivity had no significant influence on the women leaders’ ability to tolerate their subordinates’ use of their own initiatives in dealing with institutional affairs. The women leaders tended to score more or less the same on this dimension as well. The raw scores were comparatively low for each individual woman leader. This meant women leaders were reluctant to allow their subordinates the freedom to use
their own initiatives in the institutions. They tended to set tasks and supervise their subordinates closely in the way they accomplished these tasks.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982) objectives formulated through the full participation of each member of the institution gain more acceptance than those imposed by authority. Management by Objectives MBO is a powerful tool in gaining mutual subordinate commitment to high productivity. Likert (1958) reported that the general supervisor who is employee centered tend to have higher productivity than the close one who does not involve subordinates in formulation of objectives.

The women leaders in this study tended to be quite close supervisors thereby missing valuable subordinate innovations. This could be the result of inadequate self-confidence by the women and fear of losing their control over their subordinates; which result in strong need for power and control. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) cited Tenanbaum and Schmidt (1958) as suggesting that leadership style is influenced by the leaders value system, confidence in subordinates, leadership inclinations and feelings of security in uncertain situations: okayness. The feeling of okayness was defined by Harris (1969) as one’s life position or assumption of self-worth. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982) people without the okayness feeling about themselves are insecure hence show this feeling by having strong need for power and control. Belief in gender roles could enhance lack of okayness in women thus causing them to be close supervisors.

(V) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND DECISION MAKING

The emphasis on this dimension was on participatory decision making based on accurate information flow. A low negative correlation $r = -0.23$ was obtained. This was not statistically
significant and could have been the result of chance. It showed that gender sensitivity bore no significant relationship to the woman leader’s ability to involve her subordinates in making some decisions. From the raw scores the women administrators tended to be moderate at encouraging participatory decision making with subordinates. They involved their subordinates quite often in their institutions especially those related to their work.

As is already stated participatory objective setting and decision making ensure subordinate commitment to goal achievements. It also provides better employee morale by giving them a sense of being useful and recognized in the institution. Efficiency tends to increase because of productive suggestions and criticisms from the participants.

However, according to Vroom and Yetton (1973) the success of participatory decision making depends on situational factors such as follower maturity, their need for independence, readiness to assume responsibility for the decision, their interest in the problem, and the importance of such problems, and their expectation to share in the decision making processes in the institution.

The women leaders tended to use consultative decision making processes consulting the relevant members of the groups in group meetings or on a one by one basis for certain problems that involved their work. However, broader institutional decisions were made by the leaders alone.

(VI) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND FIRMNESS

This dimension tested the ability of the women leaders to stand firm and remain decisive in the face of emergencies and crisis and remain clear headed. A negligible negative Pearson Product Moment Correlation $r = -0.11$ was obtained. This showed that the relationship could have been due to chance and
that gender sensitivity had no significant influence on the women leaders' ability to be firm and decisive in emergencies. The women leaders tended to perform more or less the same on this dimension. The raw scores showed that most of the women administrators tended to be moderately firm and decisive in crises.

According to Megargee (1973) an important aspect of leadership is the ability of the leader to concentrate, remain calm and accurately give directions under stress. Subordinates want to know that in the face of emergencies they have a leader on whom they can rely for decisive actions. Only then can they follow her willingly and comply with her demands. This requires that the leader be sensitive and adaptive to various leadership situations and roles. He or she should know the type of leadership style to be adopted in various leadership situations. This calls for a leader who is confident and self-assured.

The women leaders studied were reported to show these qualities irrespective of their gender outlook.

(VII) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND LEADERSHIP ROLE ASSUMPTION

Under this dimension the relative ease with which the women leaders assumed their followers were scored and correlated to their gender sensitivity scores. A negative moderate correlation $r = -0.40$ was obtained. This was statistically significant. It indicated that gender sensitivity did significantly influence the ability of women administrators to assume leadership roles. The less feminine women tended to actively exercise leadership roles more easily than the more feminine ones. They hardly ever surrendered them to others.
As can be recalled, according to Megargee (1973) potential leaders are dominant people. Stogdill (1974) and Yukl (1981) reported that leaders were ambitious and assertive people ready to take positions of power and prominence as well as meet leadership challenges. These include willingness to accept the consequences of one’s decisions and actions, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, tolerance of frustrations and delays, ability to influence other people’s behaviour, persistence and strong-drives for responsibilities and exercise of initiative in social situations.

More gender sensitivity women adhere strongly to their social roles which necessitate the possession of feminine traits. These traits according to Hopner (1972) are inconsistent with the required leadership qualities. Such women for fear of losing their femininity revert to subordinate positions and tend to leave certain unpleasant leadership actions to be undertaken by others.

These findings tended to concur with those of Perlman (1969), Rudock (1969) and Early (1987) which reported that social roles strongly influence a person’s behaviour, and Megargee (1973), that they inhibit women from assuming leadership roles. The less feminine women with the less feminine gender outlook could assume leadership roles easily.

(VIII) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND SUPERIOR ORIENTATION

The extent to which the woman leader maintained cordial relations with, was favourably viewed by, respected, and listened to, and her words seriously taken by her superiors, was correlated with her gender sensitivity scores. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation \( r = -0.40 \) was obtained. This showed a moderate negative statistically significant correlation. It indicated that gender sensitivity did
influence the alignment of a female administrator to her superiors significantly. The less feminine women leaders tended to be more superior oriented than the more feminine ones.

These findings tended to support the reports of Rogers (1983) that the few women in high level decision making positions have to become more masculine in outlook by rejecting female ideologies and adopting male ones in order to be accepted by their predominantly male superiors and colleagues. The less feminine women administrators tended to report less problems with their superiors than the more feminine ones. They reported being encouraged and respected by their superiors and colleagues an indication that such women had already satisfied their male superiors as capable and worthy of their acceptance and recognition by being masculine in outlook. It is also an indication that such women value their superiors’ expectations because they are striving for higher status and are ambitious.

According to Guest (1956) high superior orientation is characteristic of managers intent on promotion and advancement in the organization. However, this is a good leadership quality if properly utilized. A superior oriented leader can present followers expectations to her superiors with successful results thus earning herself more respect in the eyes of her subordinates.

Although the less feminine women leaders had better superior orientation than the more feminine ones, many reported being patronize ed by their superiors and sometimes looked down upon until they had proved their capabilities.

In matters of policy making in the institutions many women still reported being kept out of important decision making meetings while others reported having their ideas ignored by their superiors.
even when they were clear and sound. 13% of the women respondents reported that they just had to accept whatever decisions their superiors made for their institutions and follow them.

These findings seemed to support those of Richardson (1973) cited in Marland (1983) that women felt they were left out in matters of policy and decision making. It also seemed to support the conclusion of Cortina (1989) that although women were now in educational governance they still had little or no power to influence decisions and policies.

In Uganda where most of the superiors are men these findings indicate how little the women administrators in education influence matters of policy in the education system.

(IX) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND PERSUASION

Under this dimension the extent to which the female leader was viewed by her subordinates as a confident convincing speaker who inspired enthusiasm among subordinates by effectively using persuasive arguments and exhibiting strong convictions was scored, and the score correlated with her gender sensitivity scores. A low negative statically insignificant Pearson Product Moment Correlation was obtained ($r = -0.27$). This could have been due to chance. The results showed that gender sensitivity did not significantly influence the woman leader’s ability to be articulate, persuasive and interpersonally sensitive. The women leaders scored more or less the same on this dimension. Their individual scores were moderate an indication that the women engaged quite often in persuasive interpersonal skills in order to ensure subordinate compliance to their requests or directives. Most of the women leaders reported that they had to be very persuasive in dealing with their subordinates especially the male young ones who still resented their having authority over them.
Persuasive communications are attempts to alter people’s attitudes. Research findings reported by Baron and Byrine (1984) suggest that the successes of persuasion depend on the attractiveness and credibility of the communicator rather than her sex, his or her emotional appeals, and characteristics of the recipients. Attractive communicators who are liked by their audiences are successful at persuasion. Most women whether more or less feminine are attractive and likeable hence should be successful in using persuasive communications.

(X)  GENDER SENSITIVITY AND SOCIAL DISTANCE

This dimension focused on the extent to which a woman leader kept her social distance from her followers. The scores on this dimension were correlated with scores on gender sensitivity. A low positive correlation which was not statistically significant was obtained ($r = 0.28$). This correlation could have been due to chance. It showed that gender sensitivity did not significantly influence a woman leader’s tendency to be aloof from her subordinates. The raw scores showed that the women leaders tended to perform more or less the same on this dimension irrespective of their gender outlook.

The ability of the leader to participate in social events and treat followers as her equal is an important leadership quality. Halpin and Croft (1963) find that a good leader is not especially aloof or distant to her followers. When the leader is too close to subordinates he or she loses the respect of the subordinates. When too distant from them he loses contact with the group as upward communication is cut. The leader becomes unaware of events occurring in the institution.

This research found that the women leaders tended to keep a moderate social distance from their subordinates. They were neither too close nor too aloof from their subordinates. However, the
extent to which the female leader kept her social distance seemed to reflect her socio-economic status rather than her gender outlook.

(XI) GENDER SENSITIVITY AND TEAM WORK

This dimension considered the extent to which the woman leader was able to forge a spirit of team work and cooperation among her subordinates. The scores of the woman in this dimension were correlated to their gender sensitivity scores. A low positive Pearson Product Moment Correlation \( r = 0.21 \) was found. This was not a statistically significant correlation. It showed that sensitivity to gender issues had no significant relationship to a woman administrator’s ability to forge a spirit of team work among her subordinates. The women leaders tended to score quite highly on this dimension. They tended to encourage their subordinates to act and feel as members of a team with strong commitment to their institutions’ good image.

Team work encourages group coherence and harmony and furthers good interpersonal relationship among the group. It also reduces intergroup or within group conflicts resulting in collective realization of institutional goals.

The high scores of the women leaders studied on this dimension was an indication that the women had high interpersonal skills and could effectively communicate to and work with others. The findings tend to agree with those of Anyaocha (1984) that in utilization of human resources women administrators are just as good as male ones.

(XII) GENDER AND OVERALL LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE OF THE WOMEN LEADERS.
Scores on overall leadership performance of the women leaders were correlated to their gender sensitivity scores. A low negative correlation $r = -0.36$ was obtained. These results were statistically significant. They showed that gender sensitivity significantly influenced the overall leadership performing of the women administrators in the education system. Consequently the Null hypothesis two was rejected. The less feminine women administrators were significantly better leaders than the more feminine ones. Their performances were significantly better on such leadership dimensions as concern for production, leadership roles assumption and Superior Orientation. They also performed well and more or less the same with more feminine women on such dimensions as consideration, team work and Persuasion. The more feminine women did not perform significantly better than the less feminine ones on any dimension although on those which reflect interpersonal relations, they performed commendably well.

The less feminine women administrators tended to be better leaders because they showed concern for both task and social leadership. They tended to focus on both social and emotional aspects of group interactions as well as task performance. These are characteristics of good and effective leadership according to Halpin (1959). They were reported to be friendly, conciliatory, approachable, and concerned about personal feelings as well as being directive and knowledgeable about their tasks.

According to Hollander and Jullian (1969) Hollander (1985) leadership is a social influence process which attaches great importance to interpersonal relationships. It is based on the followers’ perception and acceptance of the leader, the leaders’ own self-perception, and the situation in which leadership is attempted. Followers’ perception, acceptance of, and identification with the leader show psychological ties which affect the leader’s ability to be influential. This influence of the leader, his
recognition, and the extent to which he or she is held in high esteem, depends on her provision of sufficient resource and role behaviours, which are channeled towards institutional goal achievement, and her legitimacy. This requires that the leader be capable of initiating structure, making sound decisions, and acting as spokesman and conflict resolver of the group. She should be highly competent in all these.

Women leaders are accepted on the basis of their legitimacy as appointed leaders. Their subordinates’ perception of them as women who are supposed to be inferior, and the unacceptability of that fact in leadership, coupled with their alleged incompetence, and the women’s own gender self-concept, undermine their effectiveness, more so when they portray extremely feminine image in their behaviours while in leadership.

Less feminine women administrators were found to be better leaders thus supporting the findings of Powers (1974) that effective administrators were viewed as more masculine, Wheeler (1989) that higher management was consistent with masculine sex role identification and Placente (1974) reported in Harari and Kaplan (1982) which link female competence with low femininity.

The less feminine women administrators had the advantage of having both feminine and masculine, attitudes, hence combining the best of both worlds. This seems to support Bem’s (1975) suggestions that masculine and androgynous people perform better on male oriented jobs than feminine ones. It also seems to support reports by Baron and Byrne (1984) that attitudes influence the behaviour of people.
CONCLUSIONS

From this study and from the preceding discussions on the hypotheses forwarded earlier, the researcher drew a number of conclusions and made a number of recommendations which are hereunder presented:

(1) Women educational administrators differ in their sensitivity to gender issues.

(2) These differences influence their chances of promotion to high level administrative posts in Central Uganda.

(3) Gender sensitivity does influence leadership competence of the female administrators in the education system in Central Uganda.

(4) Less feminine women administrators are much better leaders than the more feminine ones. They excel in concern for production, leadership role assumption, and superior orientation. They are fairly good at consideration, persuasion, team work and decision making.

(5) All the women administrators are rather poor at motivation of subordinates and tolerance of freedom.

The study also seemed to indicate that:

(a) religion seems to enforce and maintain adherence to gender roles by the women;
(b) women educational administrators still possess little power in influencing educational policies in Central Uganda as many still report being kept out of important decision making meetings or their opinions ignored by their superiors;

(c) female subordinates seem to be more critical in evaluating their female superiors. They tend to view them as inferior and less competent compared to the male ones. Male subordinates on the other hand seem to judge female administrators fairly.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite the fact that Uganda government has no overt discriminatory policy against women in the education system, most educated women are still strongly gender sensitive. They lack the self-assurance confidence, aggressiveness and the aspirations for leadership assumption. They are not yet fully accepted by their subordinates, colleagues, and superiors as capable administrators. They therefore experience covert resistance from the people they work with or for.

Heavy family commitments and responsibilities also limit women’s leadership prospects and chances of early promotions to positions of responsibilities. As such the involvement of women in educational policy formulations and decision making is negligible. The views, interests and needs of many women are therefore over looked. Educational policies beneficial to the women are hardly implemented for lack of support by the women themselves, many of whom are too ignorant or inhibited to know the implications of such policies to support them. Many comfortably married educated women see no need in asserting themselves. They are content to remain passive and be looked after by their rich husbands. They fail to take part in professional lives even when highly qualified. Eventually they
become unknown, unidentifiable and swallowed up among the masses. Their education then becomes valueless to the nation. Some husbands fearing that their superior positions at home would be challenged if their wives took on leadership positions, prevent them from applying for or assuming such positions.

These are all the results of division of roles along gender lines and strong adherence to such roles by both men and women, perpetuated by practices enshrined in the education system, culture, and tradition. Both men and women need to be desensitized about their gender roles. Lines of division between gender roles need to be blurred and made indistinct. This requires that women develop confidence, self-assurance, and a sense of their own value to society. It also requires that society accept and recognize women as equal partners in nation building.

Whereas the aforementioned values cannot be taught, environments in which such qualities can flourish can be created. Educational reforms directed towards ensuring a homogenous society in which both men and women equally participate in contributing to the national economy could eventually change deep rooted gender prejudices based on cultural and traditional concepts of men and women’s roles in society. To this effect the researcher recommends that:

(1) Curricular changes which encourage boys and girls to view each other as equals in all aspects of their lives should be effected. Each sex should be made to participate in all areas where they currently are in the minority. This means that subject choices be made free of the present prejudices, conventional attitudes, and notions concerning the role of men and women in society. Both boys and girls should not be forced to chose subjects on the basis of their future prescribed roles in society.
Teaching methods and materials should not reflect gender biases but should focus on changing the current trend which accords boys and girls different treatment while at schools. The hidden curriculum: the different codes of conduct and behaviours expected from boy and girl students along gender lines should be abolished in as far as they do not reflect physical or biological differences.

All school environments should be made to reflect male and female dominance. Capable women should be promoted to positions of prominence in all types of schools, be it boys, girls, or mixed schools. Such women would act as role models for young girls and their presence especially in boys schools could eliminate gender prejudices against women in school leadership.

Guidance and counselling should be intensified in all schools in order to enlighten students about career opportunities existing in fields where their sex had been in the minority.

Boards of Governors, University Senates and Councils membership should have more women representation for purposes of having balanced views and opinions, and unbiased policy formulations, and decisions.

For the present women administrators, means and ways geared towards changing their gender role attitudes and perceptions should be devised. Seminars and workshops could be organised to expose women administrators to leadership skills and make them acquire the self-assurance and confidence they so far lack.
More gender based researches need to be done in order to ascertain the extent to which gender biases still operate in the management of schools in Uganda and the extent to which boys and girls students are still socialized in schools along gender lines.

Further research need to be done to find out whether men and women are willing to accept women as leaders in all types of schools in the country.

A comparative research should be done to find out whether less feminine women leaders are better administrators than men in educational administration.

Research findings from the above suggestions could pave the way towards raising the number of capable women in educational leadership in Uganda.


*Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* 11:59-112.


London: Hurst and Co.


“GOAL 5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls.”


Questionnaires for Women Administrators: Gender Issues

This questionnaire is designed to tap attitude towards gender issues. The researcher would like to find out how gender related issues affect the performance of female administrators in the education system in Uganda.

Please kindly tick the alternative which is applicable to you.

1. In what types of education institution are you working?

   "A" level Boarding Mixed  "O" level Boarding Mixed
   "A" level Boarding Boys   "O" level Boarding Boys
   "A" level Boarding Girls  "O" level Boarding Girls
   "A" level Day Mixed       "O" level Day Mixed
   "A" level Day Boys        "O" level Day Boys
   "A" level Day Girls       "O" Level Day Girls"
   T.T.C.? University        Others (Specify) _______________

2. This institution was founded by Catholics (CMS) Government Protestants (CMS) Parents. Moslems.
3. What is your present position?

Headmistress
Warden

Deputy Headmistress

Principal
Deputy Principal

Others _________

4. What is qualification?

BA Dip Ed. MSC

BSC Dip Ed. MA/ED

Dip in Ed. M.ED

Other (Specify) ______________

5. How long have you served as an administrator in this institution.

Less than 2 years

2 - 5 years

6 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

Over 12 years

6. How long did you serve as a teacher/tutor before receiving your present promotion.

82
Less than 5 years

6 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

Over 12 years

7. Marital Status

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<th>Widowed</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Separated</td>
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</table>

8. Within what age bracket do you fall.

21 - 30 years

31 - 40 years

41 - 50 years

Over 50 years

9. How many children do you have (please indicate) _______

10. What are the ages of these children _______ _________ _________

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 - 5</th>
<th>6 - 10</th>
<th>11 - 15</th>
<th>16 - 20</th>
<th>Over 20</th>
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B GENDER ISSUES

In this section the degree of agreement or disagreement with the statements that follow is indicated as

1  Strongly disagree

2  Disagree

3  Neither agree nor disagree

4  Agree

5  Strongly agree

Please tick the number that corresponds to how you feel about the following statements.

1. 1 Men and women should share both responsibilities and privileges of life equally.

   1  2  3  4  5

2. Women should be the power behind the man and not the one "out infront".

   1  2  3  4  5

3. Women should let the man believe he is the dominant one even if this is not true.

   1  2  3  4  5

4. Women should always be honest when they are asked an opinion even if this opinion is in disagreement with a man.

   1  2  3  4  5

84
5. There should always be a division of labour among the sexes as women and men have different abilities.

6. Women should be treated in the same way as men in the same position.

7. Men should make important decisions regarding policy and financial matters and women should make decisions regarding the home and children.

8. Women are expected to be slightly illogical.
9. Women should be helpless because this is flattering to men.

10. Women who are somewhat naive and easily impressed are especially feminine.

11. Men like women who use "feminine wiles" to accomplish their aims.

12. Men dislike women who act sexy in every situation.

13. The most important thing a woman can do to ensure a good marriage is to subordinate her reeds to those of her husband.

14. It is extremely important that a woman should be physically desirable in the eyes of men.

15. Women should never let outside interests interfere with their domestic duties.
16. Women should always show their love for their families in such small things as cocking favourite dishes for them, washing and ironing for them.

17. It is possible for women to handle both a name and an outside career and do justice to both.

18. Women do not belong in business and professional life because they act in appropriately for example they cry when things go wrong with men in some cases and insist on their feminine prerogatives in others.

19. Women who engage in activities outside the home are more interesting than those who do not.

20. Being a mother and having children is one of the most fulfilling experiences a woman could have.

21. A woman place is in the home.
22. The modern woman is too competitive.

23. Women should follow whatever vocation or profession they wish even if it violates tradition.

24. Women should not compete with men for top positions in their profession/vocation.

25. Men do not want women to be highly successful in areas where their egos/deeply involved. are

26. Women can be competitive in all endeavors without appearing Masculine.

27. Women should not be put in position of authority over men even if they are qualified.

28. The relationship between husbands and wives can be good even if both are competing in the same area.
29. The intellectual capacity of men and women is equal but different.

30. It is more important for a truly feminine woman to be beautiful than be intelligent.

31. Women should be limited in friendship to other women only.

32. It is important for men to educate their daughters just as they educate their sons.

33. It is important for women to be articulate as well as verbally fluent.

34. It would be perfectly appropriate to have a woman President of Uganda if she were qualified.

35. There are no genetically based differences in the way men and women think.
36. Please indicate below whatever problem, successes or failures you normally encounter in the course of executing your duties as and administrator in the education system which you feel are attributable to gender differences especially with your:

(a) Superiors

(b) Colleagues

(c) Subordinates

(d) The Public/Parents

37. How does your work as an administrator affect your family/private life?

Thank you for your co-operation.
This questionnaire is designed to measure performance of female Administrators in Educational Institutions in Uganda. Please kindly tick the alternative that is applicable to your head and Institution.

1. Sex

Male  Female

2. Qualification

BA Dip Ed.  BA MED
BSC Dip Ed.  BA MED
MSG Dip Ed.  Dip Ed.
MA Dip Ed.  Others specify __________

3. Age bracket within you fall

21 – 30
31 – 40
41 – 50
Over 50
4. Marital Status

Single, Married, divorced, widowed, separated.

5. Number of children

0 – 2   3 – 5   6 – 8   8 – 10   Over 10

6. Ages of the children

7. How long have you served in this institution?

Less than 2 years

2 - 5 years

6 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

Over 12 years

In this section the response to the characteristics of Institution and leader is graded as

A = always       B = often       C = Occasionally

D = Seldom       E = Never

8. The head works hard to maintain the Institution.

A   B   C   D   E
9. She encourages members to work overtime.

A B C D E

10. She drives people hard whenever there is work to be done.

A B C D E

11. She makes sure that the group is working to full capacity.

A B C D E

12. The Head is helpful and sympathetic to subordinates in difficulties.

A B C D E

13. She is approachable and friendly.

A B C D E

14. She is fair and open-minded in dealing with subordinates problems.

A B C D E

15. She settles conflicts within the groups without bias.

A B C D E

16. People who want to go for further studies or in service training are greatly assisted here.

A B C D E
17. Hard work is really recognised and rewarded here.

A B C D E

18. Personality and status are considered more important than competence here.

A B C D E

19. Laziness and inefficiency in subordinates get punished here.

A B C D E

20. [unprinted]

A B C D E

21. Members here are permitted to use their own judgement in solving problems.

A B C D E

22. Members here are encouraged to have initiative.

A B C D E

23. Here the head sets tasks and lets other members handle them.

A B C D E

24. She always plans and organises Institutional programmes alone.
25. The head is reluctant to allow any degree of freedom to members.

26. How often are you involved in making decisions related to your work.

27. How often is your opinion sought in making major decisions involving the Institution as a whole.

28. How often is the head aware of problems at the lower levels in the hierarchy?

29. How often are decisions made based on accurate information?

30. The head gets confused when there are too many demands on her.

31. She handles complex demands efficiently.

32. She is firm and decisive in the face of emergencies.
33. She worries too much when uncertain.

34. She fails to take necessary unpleasant action.

35. She is hesitant to take initiative in the group.

36. She is a leader only in name.

37. She lets members take advantage of her.

38. She lets members have authority which she should have.

39. She gets along well with the people above her.

40. Her words carry weight with the Superiors.
41. She speaks for the subordinates when visitors are around.

42. She gets the Superiors to act favourably for the subordinates.

43. She enjoys the privilege of her position.

44. Social events are enthusiastically supported here by the members.

45. New comers to the Institution find others eager and helpful to get them started.

46. Members here strive to keep a good image of the Institution.

47. Members here have commitment to their work and sense of belonging to the team.

48. She can inspire enthusiasm for a project.
49. She is not a very convincing speaker.

50. She is confident and speaks with a strong inner conviction.

51. She is too authoritative.

52. She is working hard for promotion.

53. She acts without consulting the group.

54. She keeps to herself.

55. She treats members as her equals.

Thank you very much for your co-operation.
The Product Moment Correlation for all dimensions were calculated from row scores using the formula:

\[ r = \frac{\sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{\left(\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2\right)\left(\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2\right)}} \]

**EXAMPLES**

Gender Sensitivity & Production Emphasis.

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\[\sum x = 3013 \quad \sum y = 575 \quad \sum y^2 = 8867 \quad \sum x^2 = 249097 \quad \sum xy = 44900\]

Substituting:

\[r = \frac{44900 - \frac{(3013)(575)}{38}}{\sqrt{249097 - \frac{(3013)^2}{38}} \sqrt{8867 - \frac{(575)^2}{38}}}\]

Therefore computed

\[r = -0.53.\]
## Gender Sensitivity and Consideration

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r = 0.23

**Gender Sensitivity and Motivation**
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## Gender Sensitivity and Decision Making

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\[ r = -0.11 \]
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\[ r = 0.28 \]
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著者略歴
Betty Grace AKECH-OKULLO（ベティ・グレース・アケチ＝オクロ）
教育学修士（M.ED、マケレレ大学、ウガンダ）
理学士（BSc,Hons、マケレレ大学、ウガンダ）
ウガンダ共和国にて国会議員、大臣等を歴任し、駐日ウガンダ共和国特命全権大使。
2015年度よりお茶の水女子大学グローバルリーダーシップ研究所研究協力員。
1978-1994年 教育アドミニストレーター（Educational Administrator）
1993-1995年 制憲議会メンバー（グル地区）（Elected Constituent Assembly Member, Gulu District）
1996-2001年 下院議員（グル地区）および大臣（Member of Parliament, Gulu District & Minister）
1998-1999年 保健部門担当大臣（Minister of State for Health）
1999-2000年 地方政府関連担当大臣（Minister of State for Local Government）
2000-2003年 高等教育担当大臣（Minister of State for Higher Education）
2003-2006年 大統領府セキュリティ担当内閣大臣（Cabinet Minister in Charge of Security, Office of the President）
2005-2010年 国民抵抗運動党ウガンダ北部地域女性部副部長（NRM Vice Chairperson for Woman, Northern Uganda）
2008-2012年 駐スーダンウガンダ共和国大使（Ambassador to Republic of Sudan）
2013年より 駐日ウガンダ共和国特命全権大使（Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Japan）
2015年より お茶の水女子大学グローバルリーダーシップ研究所研究協力員

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