

**GENDER AND WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATION: A CASE
OF VOCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN CENTRAL UGANDA**

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and has never been submitted to any other institution for the award of Masters in Vocational Pedagogy.

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Dedication

This manuscript is dedicated to:

My Dear Parents,

Brothers,

Sisters and

Friends whose unwavering support has made me what I am today.

Acknowledgement

I convey my heart-felt gratitude to the Almighty God for granting me the grace to complete this thesis. In the same manner I extend my appreciation to the management - Norwegian Masters Abroad (NOMA) for their continuous support.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ADC	Austrian Development Cooperation
BTVET	Business Technical, Vocational Education and Training
BTVETOs	Business Technical, Vocational Education and Training Officers
CEDAW	United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DAW	United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women
ILO	International Labour Organisation
MoES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MVP	Masters in Vocational Pedagogy
NOMA	Norwegian Masters Abroad
PPs	Principals
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
VET	Vocational Education and Training

Abstract

There is a growing need for equal gender participation in educational administration especially in vocational institutions where women are generally few. The study sought to investigate the influence of gender on participation of women in administration of Vocational Education and Training (VET) institutions in Central Uganda. The methodology used took the form of a cross-sectional survey design based on quantitative and qualitative approaches. The study population comprised of 155 respondents including principals, deputy principals, head of departments, student leaders and BTVET Officers. These were selected using stratified and purposive sampling techniques. To gather the necessary data for the study, a questionnaire and an interview guide were used. The study tested for validity using content validity indices and to obtain reliability, a Cronbach Alpha test was run. Data were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS version.17.0) where descriptive statistics and correlation analyses were used. The key finding indicated a strong and statistically significant positive correlation between gender and participation of women in administration at 0.389^{**} with a significance of 0.000 at the level of 0.01. Other findings showed that out of the 71 administrative positions in VET institutions, women held 23 (32.4%) justifying they were under-represented. Likewise, it was clear from the findings that social, cultural and structural factors largely affected the participation of women in administration of VET institutions. The study recommends that the government should formulate equal opportunity policies on educational administration, as well as carrying out sensitization aimed at eradicating socio-cultural attitudes and values.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This study sought to investigate the influence of gender on the participation of women in administration of Vocational Education and Training (VET) institutions in Uganda. As an introductory part of this chapter, the researcher presents background to the study, statement of the problem, general objective of the study, specific objectives, research questions and other components as they follow respectively.

1.1 Background to the Study

It is documented that down through the years from around 1840 to 1972, the field of administration has been dominated by men (Skrla, 2000; Perry, 2004). Today a few women hold positions in the global workforce ranging from political positions to Chief Executive Officers in business institutions (UNDP, 2008). Despite their success in those responsibilities, documents indicate that women still have a difficult time securing administrative positions (UNESCO, 2002).

According to UNESCO (2011), globally women are not accessing senior positions in the public or private sectors in the numbers expected despite their increased education and work experience. In 2002, global statistics showed that men outnumbered women at about five to one (5:1) at middle management level and at about twenty to one (20:1) at senior management level (UNESCO, 2002). This is more evident when it comes to high-level decision-making positions especially at government and state levels (DAW, 2005). In Uganda efforts have been made to bring women to an equal footing with men in terms of access to education (World Bank, 2006); however, it is not yet certain whether this has led to their increased participation in administration of VET institutions.

Concerns of expanding female participation in VET have caught the attention of policy makers on the agenda of governments (UNESCO, 2010). Moreover the report of the Second International Congress on VET (1999) expressed concern about the under representation of women in these institutions. In view of this Oplatka (2006) noted that even in developed countries where gender equality has been formally achieved, women still participate in the lowest paying occupations. Oplatka highlighted that when we look at the parts of the world referred to as developing countries the situation seems to be shoddier. Women live in social systems where socialization process plays an influential role to push them in an inferior and a subordinate position in society (UNESCO, 2011). This socialization process associates girls with the immediate environment inside home, and boys with wider environment. This results into future unfavourable attitude of women towards administration.

The underlying assumption of this study is that the participation of women in administration of vocational institutions is influenced by gender. In the context of this study administration has been conceived to encompass those in senior positions of responsibility in both private and public VET institutions in Uganda. Here specific attention has been drawn to women in order to establish their status in administration with respect to gender. Looking at the many differences between men and women, feminists conclude that both have equal opportunity for individual development (Smulders, 1998; Achola & Aseka, 2001); therefore differences in the realization of that potential result from externally imposed constraints as well as social institutions and values (Nzomo, 1995). The researcher intended to establish whether the opinions advanced by Smulders, Achola, Aseka and Nzomo can be adopted in addressing the concerns raised about gender and the participation of women in administration of VET institutions.

In view of the above facts, specific attention to women's needs and contributions is typically required in order to address the array of gender gaps in society. According to Austrian Development Cooperation [ADC] (2006), gender addresses the social differences between men and women that have been learned, are changeable over time and have wide variations between cultures. It is worth noting that gender is not determined biologically, but is constructed socially (Kishor & Johnson, 2006); in other words, the social differences in terms of roles, values and behaviour come into play. While it is argued that gender is a cardinal aspect of vocational pedagogy and VET in general (Mjelde, 2008), the position of women in administration seems not to be fully handled. Yet it is in administration that activities like decision making, resource control and power sharing are tackled. It is therefore against this background that the study was conducted.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the efforts made to increase the participation of women in administrative and management positions, research and anecdotal evidence in Uganda show that women continue to be under-represented in senior administrative positions (UNESCO, 2011). One of the sub-sectors where there are few women administrators is VET. The lack of adequate representation of women in this type of education is likely to culminate into limited number of role models for females enrolled in VET institutions, and gender role stereotyping of occupations. One wonders why women find difficulties in ascending to senior administrative positions? Could it be that they are being discriminated against in the field of administration? This research therefore sought to answer the above questions in the context of Uganda, taking VET institutions as a case study.

1.3 General Objective

The study investigated the influence of gender on the participation of women in administration of VET institutions.

1.4 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study constituted the following:-

- i) To assess the level of women's participation in administration of VET institutions.
- ii) To examine the factors influencing participation of women in administration of VET institutions.
- iii) To explore strategies that can be used to enhance participation of women in administration of VET institutions.
- iv) To establish the relationship between gender and participation of women in administration of VET institutions

1.4.1 Research Questions

Three research questions were derived from the study objectives as reflected below:-

- i) What is the level of women's participation in administration of VET institutions?
- ii) What are the factors that influence participation of women in administration of VET institutions?
- iii) What strategies can be used to enhance the participation of women in administration of VET institutions?

1.4.2 General Hypothesis

Ho: There is no significant relationship between gender and women's participation in administration of VET institutions.

1.5 Justification of the study

At the outset, reflecting on the relevant literature pertaining to gender, it is evident that previous studies seemed to revolve on women's access to higher education. Therefore, an investigation that is critical to participation of women in administration of VET institutions was imperative since there were few studies confined to this area. It is also thoughtful that by undertaking this study vocational institutions may get a broader perspective about gender as a centre of concern in any organisational setting.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The researcher hopes that the information generated from this study will benefit the following:

Administration personnel in the VET sector: Both public and private institutions will use the study findings to gain an in-depth understanding of the importance of women participation in administration. This will help administrators to handle gender related matters in respective departments for elevating the status of women in administration.

Policy makers: As persons held responsible for formulating policies, under-representation of women in administration remains a big challenge to them. Therefore understanding how best gender issues can be handled remains an aspect of great concern. The findings from this study can be used in formulating better strategic policies to maintain and streamline administration processes in relation to gender.

Researchers: The study will contribute to the existing knowledge and offer a source of literature on gender and participation of women in administration. It will also be used as a basis for further research in the field of gender and administration of VET institutions in both public and private sectors.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study was carried out in 10 selected Vocational Training Institutes in the central region of Uganda. The researcher restricted the study to assessing the level of women participation in administration, the factors influencing participation of women in VET administration, strategies to enhance the participation of women in administration of VET institutions and establishing the relationship between gender and participation of women in administration. The study investigated the period between 2007 to 2013. This was the case because gender related policies like the Uganda Gender policy, 2007 and the Gender in Education Sector Policy, 2009 were introduced within this period. This research in way may help establish whether these policies have had an impact in the administration of VET institutions.

1.8 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework below presents the variables or concepts in the study showing their interconnection. In this study attention was directed towards understanding whether gender (independent variable) has an influence on women participation in VET administration (dependent variable). In relation to this, the researcher established other factors that could be held accountable for variations in the study. Here focus was put on moderating variables. This is because within a correlation analysis framework, usually a moderator is a third variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Below is an illustration on the perceptible research variables.

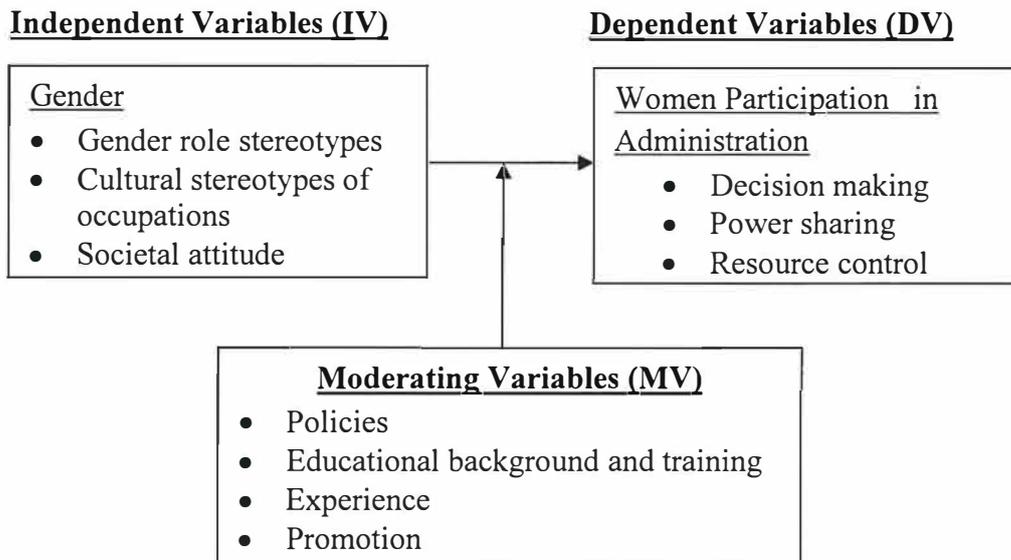


Figure 1. 1: The relationship between gender and women participation in administration

Source: Adopted from Smulders' Feminist theory (1998) and modified by the researcher

Key: → The arrow connecting from the IV to the DV means that gender affects participation of women in administration.

↑ The arrow stemming from the MV joining the IV and DV indicate that the MV influences or moderates the relationship between the two variables and thus produces an interaction effect.

The words indicated in the boxes therein operationalise the study concepts or variables while the arrows show the links or relationships between them. From the above illustration it is noted that gender role stereotypes, cultural stereotypes of occupations and societal attitude can directly affect participation of women in VET administration. Besides, issues like policies, educational background and training, experience and promotion were considered to have interaction effects on gender and participation of women in VET administration.

1.9 Definition of Key Terms

The key concepts used in the study were as defined below.

- **Gender:** socially constructed differences between men and women.
- **Gender roles:** responsibilities associated with the biological set up on expected duties, rights and privileges of men and women that are dictated upon by cultural factors.
- **Gender stereotypes:** the beliefs people have over different gender that make them what they are and behave the way they do.
- **Administration:** direction and control of efforts of the group towards achieving common goals. Likewise in this study administration has been used to refer to those in senior positions of responsibility in both private and public VET institutions in Uganda.
- **Participation:** taking part in senior administrative positions.
- **Vocational Education and Training:** a form of training that imparts hands-on skills to the learners.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter includes conceptual, theoretical and review of related literature. The chapter is organised under three sub-sections:- conceptual review; theoretical review; and literature review. The first sub-section gives highlights on the main study concepts, the second reflects on the key theory underpinning the study and the third sub-section focuses on the views of other scholars in relation to the research objectives as reflected below.

2.1 Conceptual Review

In order to build a foundation for comprehensive literature, focus was drawn to the main concepts or variables in the study. Therefore concepts like gender, gender role stereotypes, cultural stereotypes of occupations and societal attitude (independent variables) have been studied. These have been reviewed in relation to participation of women in administration of VET institutions (dependent variable). The variables in the conceptual framework are reviewed as follows.

2.1.1 Gender

According to Kishor and Johnson (2006), there are three important aspects of gender namely:

- i) Gender tends not to be value neutral. The roles, rights, and obligations assigned to each sex are not just different, but also unequal with male roles and rights generally being valued more highly than female roles and rights.
- ii) Gender involves differences in power, both *power to* and *power over*". The concept of *power to* encompasses legal and informal rights, access to resources, pursuit of knowledge and personal goals. Also, it cuts across most domains of human functioning, including family cultural and institutional domains. *Power over* refers to

control over societal and household resources. It includes being in charge of decisions, cultural and religious ideology. Importantly, men tend to have greater power than women.

- iii) Gender is not static or immutable. Being socially constructed, gender roles, rights, and expectations can change over time. This can be across geographical space as societal needs, opportunities and customs change. Therefore, gender is a concept that refers to the social differences between women and men that have been learned, are changeable over time and have wide variations both within and between cultures (ADC, 2006).

2.1.1.1 Gender as a VET issue

Vocational Education and Training (VET) gender takes the centre stage. This is why institutions like Akershus University College, Kyambogo University and Upper Nile University are involved in NOMA project to address the gender issues in vocational disciplines (Mjelde, 2008). The emphasis on gender is based on the fact that it is a development concept useful in understanding the social roles and relations of men and women of all ages and how these impact development (MoGLSD, 2007). However, the question of women and their part in development process have been continuously longstanding (Boserup, 1970). Boserup laments that although the principle of equality of men and women is recognised in both UN Charters in 1945 and UN Declaration of Human Rights 1948, the majority of development planners and workers have not yet fully addressed women's position in the development process. She evaluated how work was divided between men and women, the types of jobs that constituted productive work, and the type of education women needed to enhance development. In view of this, Tripp and Kwesiga (2002) made an assessment on the impact of educating men and women on economic progress in 1998 and concluded that

countries with high level of women's education, experience more rapid economic growth among other positive contributions. This is because educating women yields substantial benefits to individuals, their families and to society (Mpiima, 2007). Therefore the present study sought to address such concerns if women's contribution to the development of VET is to be realised.

2.1.2 Gender role stereotypes

According to NewZealand's International Aid and Developmnt Agency [NZAID] (2007), women have multiple roles. NZAID further upholds that at any given time they can be mothers, leaders, students, decision-makers, farmers, workers and voters. In each of these roles, the ability to be educated, to have influence, to enjoy opportunities and choices are critical to the attainment of gender equality. In this sense, it can be noted that the way roles are divided among either male or female have a remarkable effect on their participation in administration.

2.1.3 Cultural stereotypes of occupations

According to Tripp and Kwesiga (2002), the traditional society was characterized by gender inequality in favour of men. Tripp and Kwesiga claim that women were not allowed to speak in public; were relegated to the private life of the home and hardly featured in public life. No doubt, labour markets are often characterized by women being employed on lower hierarchical levels, occupying low-quality jobs (Jutta, 2000). Women are marginalized and caught in the classic human contradiction: they are deprived and impoverished yet make immense contributions to their nation's socio-economic development (Nuwagaba, 2001). Nuwagaba maintains that such deprivation exist in inheritance, literacy, schooling and in only secondary access to land, that is through their husbands and it is rooted in culture.

Three decades after the introduction of sex discrimination legislation the labour market remains strongly segregated by gender (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2007). In 2007, the Equality Commission further noted that women are concentrated in a narrow range of lower-paying occupations typically within the five 'c's - caring, cashiering, catering, cleaning and clerical. On the other hand, men tend to be represented across a broader spectrum of jobs and are more likely to hold management positions or be self-employed. According to Snyder (2002), resistance to change is deeply embedded in marriage compared to other institutions. Snyder maintains that this issue constraints women from participating in peer self-help groups. Surprisingly, by 2002 the Ugandan society still continued to define women's identity by the children they bear (Tripp & Kwesiga, 2002).

2.1.4 Societal attitude

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols (Hogg & Vaughan, 2005). Hogg and Vaughan maintain that society encourages men and women to behave in specific ways according to its norms and regards any deviance as inappropriate and unacceptable. According to DANIDA report (2008), social inequalities are often reinforced in the school system because women teachers are under-represented. DANIDA continues to posit that girls and boys are often streamed into different disciplines and this influences job opportunities later in life. In relation to this the researcher wanted to establish whether an individual's attitude has anything to do with the participation of women in senior administrative positions.

2.1.5 Participation in administration

Participation is a development approach, which recognizes the need to involve disadvantaged segments of the population in the design and implementation of policies concerning their wellbeing (Mostafizur & Fardaus, 2006). They maintain that strengthening of women's participation in all spheres of life has become a major issue in the development discourse. Accordingly, Uphoff cited in Mostafizur and Fardaus (2006) identified four main kinds of participation, which are distinct but interrelated. They are as follows:

- i) Participation in decision making involves identifying problems, formulating alternative planning activities and allocating resources;
- ii) Participation in implementation includes carrying out activities, managing and operating programs;
- iii) Participation in economic, social, political or other benefits individually or collectively; and
- iv) Participation in evaluation of the activity and its outcomes for feedback purposes.

In this sense participation refers to any contribution by women in VET institutions; that is in form of decision-making, power sharing and resource control.

2.2 Theoretical Review

The study was entrenched on the feminist theory. In trying to explain the absence of women from senior administrative positions in the public and private sector, feminists advance three broad perspectives sometimes referred to as gender-based models. These include; personal, structural or institutional and cultural factors.

The first perspective is *personal factors* in which the absence of women in administrative positions is attributed to the psycho-social attributes, including personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves (Morley, 1999). The

personal factors include:- lack of self-confidence, lack of motivation, less emotional stability and lack of ability to handle a crisis (Achola & Aseka, 2001). On the contrary, personal factors such as, assertiveness, confidence, resourceful, creativeness, loyalty and trustworthiness help women to ascend to senior management (Shahabudin & Singh, 2000).

The structural or institutional factors paradigm advances the view that it is the disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (few numbers, little power, limited access to resources) which shapes and defines the behaviour and positions of women. The underlying premise of this perspective is that men and women are equally capable of and committed to assuming positions of leadership. The problem is vested in the structure and the remedy is a fundamental change to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in institutional policies and practices (Smulders, 1998). The structural factors that affect women negatively include: discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; male resistance to women in management positions; absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women; and limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence as a result of power structure in the work place (Singh, 2002). Structural factors affecting the participation of women positively include the presence of organizational guidance, good mentoring systems, proper staff development programmes for women, transparent appointment and promotion procedures, support services for women, access to information technology and flexible work schedules.

The last perspective is the one advanced by Smulders (1998), who explored the *cultural factors* which link gender factors to organizational structure factors. Her analysis is concerned with the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations to women and men. “The gender- based roles irrelevant to the work place, are carried into the work place and kept in place because the actors involved,

both dominant and subordinate, contribute to social and organization reality” (Smulders, 1998, p. 50). The cultural factors lead to stereotypical views about women’s abilities within the cultural context. The view that top management positions are only suitable for men relegates women to secondary roles. The emphasis is placed on women’s role as mothers, caregivers and nurturers.

2.3 Literature Review

2.3.1 Level of women participation in administration

In attempts to identify the positions occupied by women in both academic and administrative hierarchies, Lund (1998) conducted a survey on female staff numbers in commonwealth universities. Using secondary data obtained from the commonwealth universities’ year book, the survey found that women are still seriously under-represented amongst full time staff in both administrative and academic hierarchies of commonwealth universities. The study revealed that there were no women vice-chancellors or deputy vice chancellors in most member universities. He concluded that in terms of administrative posts, women are more likely to succeed as registrars, librarians, or heads of personnel, than if they aspire to be vice-chancellors or their deputies, directors of finance or deans of faculties. According to the survey pertaining to the status of women in senior management in the commonwealth universities, the findings showed that the status of women had improved marginally (Lund, 2000). In 2000, Lund further noted that women were relatively visible in the positions of heads/directors of academic departments with nearly 18% of them in these posts. Women do not occupy positions that enable them to influence the policies and direction of their institutions, both at the departmental and institutional levels.

Reflecting on Africa’s situation, Wanda (2005), posited that the position of women academics in Africa and the Great Lakes Region in particular reflects a global trend whereby

women continue to be under represented in higher status and rewarding positions. According to Wanda, the academic field unlike other areas largely remains impenetrable. Wanda also notes that women tend to be concentrated in lower grades or less secure posts such as teaching and research assistants hardly holding any positions in administration. Correspondingly from Zimbabwe's experience, in 2003 there were barely any women in the top administrative structures of the country's ten Polytechnics and nine Universities, except for one woman who was a deputy head of a technical college. Of the country's nine universities, only one, a Distance Education/Open University, was headed by a woman but only in an acting position (Chipunza, 2003).

Basing on the availed literature it is faster to note that there are considerably few studies in Africa and the world in general which address participation of women in administration of VET institutions. Most studies seem to give highlights on the position of women in university administration.

2.3.2 Factors influencing women participation in administration

The under-representation of women in administrative positions emanate from a myriad of factors. Studies by Enerst (2003); Neidhart and Carlin (2003); Oplatka (2006); Osumbah (2010); Shakeshaft (2006) and UNESCO (2002) reveal that among the factors which prevent women from becoming school administrators include: organizational factors, socio-cultural factors, situational factors, family responsibilities, level of education, individual factors, glass ceiling and lack of enabling . The details of each factor mentioned are presented as follows:

2.3.2.1 Organizational factors

According to Livingstone, Neidhart and Carlin as cited in Osumbah (2010), organisational factors include: entrenched cultures and norms; the way power is defined and

exercised; selection procedures; lack of appropriate mentor schemes; exclusion from informal networks; failure of senior leaders to assume accountability for women's advancement; job requirements; facilities; organizational climate; and placement. In 1993, Guy cited in Alkadry and Tower (2006) claim that organizational barriers such as career-development patterns, workplace policies, and mentoring directly affect women's ability to progress in organizations. Guy maintains that men seem better able to climb the ladder, whereas women seem less adept.

Newman (1993) studied career advancement in the Florida Civil Service and found differences between men's and women's barriers to career advancement. Newman found that despite similar education and work background, there was a disparity in men and women's allowance and wage. Budig (2002) studied female-dominated, gender balanced, and male-dominated positions and found that men are more likely than women to be promoted into rewarding male and female jobs, regardless of the gender composition of the job held prior to promotion (Budig, 2002). Likewise in Zimbabwe, as elsewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa, the marginalization of women has its roots in the school system itself that has traditionally treated the boy child differently from the girl child (Chipunza, 2003). Shakeshaft (2006) found that participation in school administration occurs at a higher rate for men than women.

Not all studies concur that women in organizations are not advancing into higher positions because of organizational barriers. Lewis and Park (1989) examined the effects of age, length of service, education, salary, and gender on differences in turnover rates for men and women. Studying a sample of 1 percent of the entire federal civil service, they concluded that gender is a minor factor in explaining turnover, whereas age, experience, and salary are all more likely to affect turnover. Lewis and Park's study was very significant in uncovering some factors that affected turnover rates for men and women. However, the present study

extended the scope to exploring factors that hamper the participation of women to administration.

2.3.2.2 Socio-Cultural factors

According to Huyer (2003), socio-cultural and attitudinal barriers such as perceptions about the role and status of women exist across countries despite widely different circumstances. Coleman (2002) documenting about resistance to female leadership in the UK found that male teachers resented women head teachers in the UK and Wales and that women continued to have to prove themselves more than men. More than half of the women studied reported 'experiencing sexist attitudes from their male colleagues' (p23). Accordingly, a study of barriers to women across nine countries – Indonesia, China, Cyprus, Greece, Kuwait, Iraq, Commonwealth of Dominica, Gambia, and Zambia – found similar patterns of stereotypic expectations and socio-cultural expectations that devalued women (Cubillo & Brown, 2003). In 1996, Brown and Ralph identified patriarchal patterns and male privilege as a barrier to women in Uganda, while Chisolm (2001) pointed to similar issues in South Africa. Chisolm attributed the lack of equitable representation in leadership positions of women in South Africa to the identification of competence in leadership with whiteness, masculinity and rationality. Similarly, in a study of Catholic principals in New South Wales, Australia, women, more so than men, believed that the environment was not supportive and that gender issues and discrimination were a primary reason that women were not principals (d'Arbon, Duignan & Duncan, 2002). As confirmed by Shakeshaft (2006) who argues that although gender varies across cultures, there is no culture that values women and men the same. Moreover across cultures, power relations within educational institutions are hierarchical and paternalistic (Brown and Ralph, as cited in Oplatka, 2006).

2.3.2.3 Situational factors

These include lack of family commitment, lack of partner support, and living in rural or isolated areas (Huyer, 2003). Huyer maintains that in many cultures male partners tend not to support women's higher education, particularly in non-traditional spheres that are considered to be unsuitable for women. Huyer is of the view that it is often difficult for women to travel to attend school for reasons of time; cost of transportation; safety; and perceptions of the appropriateness of traveling on their own. However, Shakeshaft (2006) blames the absence of women in school administration on lack of support systems to encourage career advancement as well as to help them find and secure jobs. Shakeshaft adds that successful women administrators almost always acknowledge the importance of family support. For instance, in Cubillo and Brown's analysis of women managers from nine countries, women reported the importance of support from parents, especially fathers (Cubillo and Brown, 2003). They also found lack of peer support particularly from men across the women leaders they studied. These women noted male hostility toward them as well as describing the ways in which 'masculine culture was enacted to actively maintain power relationships between men and women' (p287). Coleman (2000) found that the female secondary head teachers in England and Wales were patronized and that they felt isolated. Many of the women reported that males had difficulty with female bosses, and more than half of the women in her studies had experienced sexist attitudes and behaviors from their male colleagues.

2.3.2.4 Family responsibilities

According to Livingstone (2004), domestic duties that women are still expected to do for their families take significantly more time and energy than those that most men expect and want to do. He argues that this inequity is the chief persistent disadvantage that women suffer in seeking opportunities for advanced education and career advancement. Livingstone asserts that in most families, women are still responsible for the majority of child-care and homemaking. He adds that women's responsibilities for family life – whether current or anticipated – slow their progress because of both external expectations and internal accommodations.

A study of the principalship in Catholic Schools in New South Wales, Australia, indicate that family responsibilities deter both females and males (d'Arbon, *et al.*, 2002). In this study, women at both primary and secondary levels indicated that the impact of the principalship on personal and family life ranked first in importance among the reasons they were unwilling to apply for a principalship. Women and men believed that 'the role intrudes too much on personal and family life' and 'the time pressures are too stressful' (p.476). They thus observed search for balance among family, work, and personal lives so as to enable women to take on leadership positions.

2.3.2.5 Level of Education or Lack of qualifications

Education is the strongest factor influencing women's control of their own fate (Mostafizur & Fardaus, 2006). According to Osumbah (2010), in order to occupy top management and leadership positions one needs a higher qualification. Osumbah claims that one fact which is evident from various research findings is that the higher the level of education, the wider the gender gap. She noted that in Kenya, studies by (Bunyi, 2004),

(Ngome, 2003) and (Otieno, 2001) all agreed that the higher the level of education, the wider the gender gap in favor of males. Yet studies documenting on the formal preparation required for school administrators indicate that women just as men are likely to have these qualifications (Shakeshaft, 2006).

2.3.2.6 Individual factors

It is argued that women are not assertive enough, do not want power, lack self confidence and rarely apply for administrative jobs (Achola & Aseka, 2001). Accordingly Marianne (1997) claims that the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions may be attributed also to women's own decision not to apply for promotion in education for a variety of reasons, such as lack of necessary aspirations, lack of awareness of the promotion system and lack of confidence that they will succeed. Other individual barriers according to Cubillo (1999) include: the tendency among women to avoid criticism or receiving negative feedback; fear of failure and hence a reluctance to voice their opinions; excess responsibilities and fear of conflict and loneliness; self-doubting; and a different (feminine) style of management. However research by Ruderman as cited in Neidhart and Carlin (2003), posits that some women in management carefully assess career decisions in the light of their own values and beliefs. For these women the barrier was not lack of confidence, but rather an informed choice based on knowledge of what is important to them personally and the extent to which they are authentic.

2.3.2.7 Glass Ceiling

This term refers to many obstacles that can exist to prevent a qualified woman's rise to the top management of an organization (Osumbah, 2010). Osumbah maintains that these factors are artificial and invisible, providing a view to the top, but also providing a ceiling on

how far a woman can go. When a glass ceiling exists, men occupy a disproportionately high percentage of the higher ranks in a career field, while women tend to be overrepresented in its lower ranks (Sincoff, Baker, & Graham, 2006). According to Ernest (2003), ‘Glass-Ceiling’ is the most important reason for women’s under-representation in leadership-positions. Ernest further asserts that glass ceiling culminates into individual, organizational and socialization barriers which prevent women’s access to top administrative positions. While it is true that more women, now than ever before, are slowly chiseling through the glass barrier to take on leadership positions, one can hardly claim to hear glass ceilings shattering around us (Cubillo & Brown, 2003); the question one asks is whether it is possible to shatter the *glass* without hearing it break.

2.3.2.8 Lack of enabling policies

Women participation in education system of any country is influenced by policies (Marianne). According to the UNESCO report (2002), the major factor influencing participation of women in education system lies in the recruitment policies. The same report points out that in the appointment process men are given top jobs while women are given second level positions. The report cites examples of long-serving female assistant registrars not being promoted to registrars. The point is further emphasized by Kamau cited in Osongo (2004) who notes that lack of policy and practice aimed at encouraging women to aspire for senior positions was the main hindrance for women in one university of Kenya.

2.3.3 Strategies to enhance participation of women in administration

Various studies put a cross a number of strategies that have been formulated to increase the participation of women administrative positions. These include; capacity building, gender policy formulation, gender budgeting, culture change and mentoring

(Chitrakar, 2009; Cullen & Luna, 1993; Kerlinger, 2000; UNESCO, 2002; World Bank, 2006). A detailed review of each strategy is provided in the sub-sections below.

2.3.3.1 Capacity building

According to the 4th World Conference on women in Beijing, intervention strategies commonly suggested included: increasing women's participation in education at all levels so as to raise the number of women from which able managers could evolve (Kerlinger, 2000). It is assumed that after the myths are dispelled, the glass ceiling barrier that limits women from achieving high ranking position would be overcome (Cullen & Luna, 1993). This is why national governments, donors, international lenders and aid agencies started investing in education of girls (Chitrakar, 2009). Research shows that as part of the initiative towards capacity building, women academics in the Great lakes region have been instrumental in starting centers for Women's Studies (UNESCO, 2002). Take for example the School of Women and Gender Studies at Makerere University Kampala (MUK) in Uganda. The school organizes among others outreach programs, conducts gender training and awareness sessions, short evening courses and contributes to scholarships in Gender and Women's studies.

Likewise the government of Uganda through Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) has made attempts to improve women participation through equality in access to education. For instance at primary level there is Universal Primary Education (UPE); at the post primary level there is the Universal Post Primary Education and Training (UPPET) and at tertiary level, the addition of 1.5 points awarded to female students joining the university (World Bank, 2006). However, while all the above efforts have been instituted the question still remains whether this has yielded increased proportions of women in administration, especially in the VET sector.

2.3.3.2 Gender policy formulation

Formulation of equal opportunity policies to elevate the status of women in administration has for long been on the agenda of governments in both developed and developing countries (Subrahmanian, 2006). To support the gender policy formulation, Kerlinger (2000) suggests a review of recruitment and promotion policies in higher education. Chitrakar (2009) goes ahead to suggest that formulation of proactive policy measures that would encourage girls to undertake traditionally male dominated courses in VET institutions would enable them to compete favourably with boys. This according to the BTVET Strategic plan (2011) will be achieved through addressing all gender issues which include flexible gender admission criteria to VET institutions and appropriate legislation. This legislation needs to work in tandem with mechanisms that ensure its observance and implementation (Finch cited in UNESCO, 2002). Thus special programmes for women are necessary but they need to be supported at all levels by anti-discrimination legislation and regulation. This should be geared towards achieving social justice and gender equality. As confirmed by the Equality commission of Northern Ireland (2007) that the move to enhance social justice and gender equality is key in promoting the participatory role in administration. Accordingly, the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) maintains that the full and complete development of a country requires maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields.

2.3.3.3 Gender budgeting

This is a method of examining a government budget to determine how it impacts on men and women, girls and boys, young and old of different social and economic groups. In this sense the prime objective is influencing budget decision-making to ensure that gender

equality is integrated in the budget allocations (Tripp & Kwesiga, 2002). According to African Development Forum [ADF] (2008), Uganda is one of the African countries that have been promoting gender budgeting directed towards elevating the status of women in administration. The ADF report maintains that feedback from consultants indicated that it had positive impact on the education where resource allocations now address gender issues. Yet a comprehensive evaluation to identify the impact of gender budgeting has not yet been done.

2.3.3.4 Culture change

It is argued that the gender related issues affecting participation of women in administration are rooted in culture (Shakeshaft, 2006). In view of this, the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland (2007) suggests the need for a culture change in order to challenge assumptions about the types of jobs men and women do, whether they are relevant today as it was 20 years ago. However, Ameratunga and Kawar (2009) claim that, changing cultural practices takes much longer. Therefore addressing the question of culture change aimed at increasing the number of women in administration still remains a subject for future debates in the field.

2.3.3.5 Mentoring

Mentoring is one of the commonly suggested ideas on debates pertaining to elevating the status of women in administration (UNESCO, 2002; Osumbah, 2010). In 1994, Ehrich examined the differences between networks and mentorships in Australia and argued that while both are important, mentoring is more necessary for career advancement. Citing Still (1994), who found that males and females network differently, Ehrich concludes that networking is a less powerful practice for women than for men. Not only do women join less

powerful formal networks but they also network more with fellow females and they approach networking differently.

2.3.4 Summary of Literature Review

The literature review above shows reasonable attention by scholars towards the area of women participation in higher education with emphasis on their representation in administration of VET institutions. It highlights that gender addresses the social differences between men and women which can be unlearned or changed. It is evident that various factors can be associated with the low representation of women in administration of VET institutions. However, the consensus appears that there is no single factor which can be used to explain the absence of women in administrative positions. The participation of women in administration is orchestrated by; organizational factors, devaluation of women, situational factors, family responsibilities, level of education/lack of qualifications, among others. Some ideas and suggestions to increase the number of women in administrative positions revolve around; capacity building, gender policy formulation to mention but a few. Although various scholars in recent years have begun to document on female participation in educational administration (Jutta, 2000; Kamau, 2001; Oplatka, 2006; Osumbah, 2010; Shakeshaft, 2006) such documentations often have not focused on the influence of gender on participation of women in VET administration. Therefore this implies a research gap as far as the question of women and their participation in administration of VET institutions in Uganda.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the practical procedures the researcher used for carrying out this study. It gives details of the research design that was adopted, the study population and actual samples, sampling strategies, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques that were applied to address the study objectives.

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted a cross sectional survey design which was descriptive and analytical in nature. The design was considered appropriate because the researcher wanted to find out the views of the respondents about women's participation in administration. This is supported by Odiya (2009) who asserts that surveys permit collection of data about the attitudes, beliefs, opinions, practices and perceptions related to an issue of interest. Quantitative and qualitative approaches were utilized to collect data required to address all the research objectives. Quantitative research improves on the provision of a numerical dimension to analysis when addressing a phenomenon (Oso & Onen, 2009). Qualitative studies, on the other hand, takes into account the lived experiences of the respondents which can be used to support quantitative data.

3.2 Location of the Study

The study was conducted in the central region of Uganda, located in East Africa. It is bordered on the west by Congo, on the north by South Sudan, on the east by Kenya, and on the south by Tanzania and Rwanda. Currently, Uganda is divided into one hundred and eleven districts with Kampala as its capital city. The researcher chose this study area because most VET institutions are concentrated in central region. In addition it is developed compared to

other regions and hence would provide a clear picture about the participation of women in administration of VET institutions.

3.3 Sampling Design

3.3.1 Study Population

The study population comprised of 155 participants from 10 VET institutions and the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES). These were in the following categories: 10 principals, 19 deputy principals, 60 head of departments, 60 student leaders and six BTVET Officers as illustrated in Table 3.1. The researcher decided to include these categories because they held positions of leadership in VET institutions and could provide the required information for the study.

3.3.2 Sample Size

The sample size was determined by using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula given as:

$$s = \frac{x^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + x^2 P(1-P)}$$

Where s = required sample size

x^2 = the table value of chi-square for degrees of freedom at the desired confidence level and is equal to 3.841

N = the population size

P = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size)

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion and is equal to 0.05

Substituting the population (N) as displayed in Table 3.1, the corresponding sample sizes (s) are as shown in the next column. The breakdown is summarized as follows:

Table 3. 1: Determination of sample size using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula

Respondents	Population Total (N)	Sample size (s)
Principals	10	10
Deputy Principals	19	19
Head of Departments	60	52
Student leaders	60	52
BTVET Officers (MoES)	6	6
Total	155	139

Source: Field data

3.3.3 Sampling Technique

The target population was proportionately stratified and the respondents purposively selected from each stratum. The main advantage with stratified sampling is that it captures key population characteristics and often improves the representativeness of the sample by reducing sampling error (Castillo, 2009). On the other hand, under purposive technique, respondents were selected based on who has the required information (Sekaran, 2003).

3.4 Data Collection

3.4.1 Sources of Data

The study mainly depended on primary data collected from the respondents. Secondary data were sourced from journals, text books, internet and relevant literature about gender and women participation in VET administration.

3.4.2 Procedure of Data Collection

The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from Kyambogo University, which was presented to the sampled VET institutions. This aided in securing permission to access data, obtaining informed consent of the respondents as well as building rapport with the participants. The process of data collection involved administering questionnaires and interviewing key participants in the study as explained below.

3.4.3 Data Collection Instruments

3.4.3.1 Structured Questionnaire

To obtain quantitative data the researcher used one set of questionnaire to capture information in respect to the study objectives. The questionnaire contained close-ended and open-ended items. The study utilized a five-Likert scale for closed-ended items. The questionnaire schedules were delivered physically to the participants by the researcher and were later collected after two weeks. This was the case because the researcher wanted to ensure an acceptable response rate for the study. With the use of a questionnaire the researcher was able to reach the principals, deputy principals, head of departments and student leaders in a short time. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) uphold that questionnaire is often used by researchers because of its ability to collect data from many respondents.

3.4.3.2 Interview Guide

The researcher used in-depth interviews to gather qualitative data. This involved a one to one interaction between the researcher and participants. Through interviewing the researcher was able to obtain data from BTVET officers and principals. The interview guide was semi-structured and designed according to the objectives of the study. Interviews were used

because they are appropriate in providing in-depth data allows clarity in questioning and are quite flexible compared to questionnaires (Odiya, 2009).

3.5 Data Quality Control

To ensure the quality of data obtained, the researcher tested for the validity and reliability of research instruments. In addition, the researcher made use of the triangulation approach so as to increase the credibility and validity of the results.

3.5.1 Validity of the Instruments

Validity was obtained by administering the tools to experts including academicians, practitioners and consultants in the field of administration. These were required to comment on the relevance of the questions/items in the instruments. With the help of the Content Validity Index (CVI), indices were developed to assess the validity of the instruments at an acceptable value of 0.7 (Amin, 2005). To obtain the necessary computations the researcher used the formula: $CVI = K/N$; Where K = Total number of items in the questionnaire declared valid by judges. N = Total number of items in the questionnaire.

Table 3. 2: Validity Test

Variable	Content Validity Indices
Gender	.789
Women Participation in administration	.825

Source: Field data

Table 3.2 displays the validity indices for all constructs used in the study. All indices for all variables were above 0.7, ranging from 0.789 to 0.825, therefore meeting acceptable standards for research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

3.5.2 Reliability of the Instruments

The reliability of the tools was attained through pre-testing of the questionnaire on selected respondents from VET institutions. The researcher tested for inter-item consistency reliability to ensure that there is consistency of respondent's answers to all items in the measure. Reliability of the instrument were ascertained using the Cronbach coefficient alpha's (α) 0.7) to test for the internal consistencies of the scales used to measure the variables (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). In order to meet the acceptance standards, all alpha reliabilities (α) for all scales are expected to be above 0.5. This enabled the re-phrasing of some questions which had not been understood by the respondents.

Table 3. 3: Reliability Test

Variable	Cronbach Alpha Value
Gender	.736
Women Participation in administration	.556

Source: Field data

Table 3.3 shows the reliability coefficient for all constructs used in the study. All alpha reliabilities (α) for all scales were above 0.5, ranging from .556 to .736.

3.5.3 Triangulation

To ensure data quality the researcher used methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation involved the application of different methods of data collection such as questionnaire and interview. According to Sekaran (2003), the use of multi methods allows triangulation which ensures validation and can produce more complete and holistic information, which can bring out the problem from all its sides. The idea is that one can be more confident with the findings if different methods lead to the same results. Therefore

through triangulation the researcher obtained more data to work with and ultimately a more accurate evaluation.

3.6 Data Processing, Analysis and Presentation

3.6.1 Quantitative Data

Quantitative data were compiled, sorted, classified, coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v. 17.0) for analysis. Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were used to statistically analyze the data obtained from the survey. Descriptive Statistics including frequency distributions, percentiles, cross tabulations, item mean scores, and standard deviations were used to illustrate the basic statistical distributions of the responses. To test the relationships between the independent and dependent variables the researcher used correlation analysis. Finally, data were presented with the aid of tables in accordance with the study objectives.

3.6.2 Qualitative Data

Qualitative data obtained by way of an interview guide were used to reinforce information gathered using the questionnaire to draw meaningful conclusions. Data were classified into simple content categories, themes and sub-themes, closely examined and compared for similarities and differences. Expressions that directly related to the objectives of the study were picked and used in the discussion to provide first hand feeling of respondents.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Respondents were assured of their freedom to participate or withdraw from the study at their free will. The researcher clearly stated the purpose of study as purely academic and

assured respondents of confidentiality of the information given. In addition, other people's work and contributions used in the study were acknowledged through referencing.

3.8 Study Limitations

These include the following:-

- i) The selection of 10 VET institutions from only the central region of Uganda could have left out information from other regions. Consequently the findings are only representative of the situation in the central region.
- ii) The study confined itself to gender and women's participation in administration of selected VET institutions, hence limiting generalization of findings to the VET sector.
- iii) Some targeted VET institutions earlier identified for the study could not allow the researcher to conduct her study there, yet they had been considered to have the required information for the study. This could have affected the findings as a result of moving to alternative institutions.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher presents, interprets and discusses the key research findings. The discussion is intended to establish whether the findings were in agreement or disagreement with the reviewed literature. The data analysed, presented, interpreted and discussed were based on the questionnaire and interview guides. The chapter comprises three sections namely; the general information about the study, including response rate; results on the characteristics of participants using cross tabulations and empirical findings on the study objectives using item mean analysis and correlations.

4.1 Results

4.1.1 General Information

A total of six participants were interviewed including four BTVET Officials (BTVETO's) and two Principals (PPs). Of the 133 questionnaires distributed to principals, deputy principals, head of departments and student leaders in VET institutions, 120 (90%) usable were returned.

4.1.2 Survey Responses and Data Matrix

Frequency tabulations were used by the researcher to present the distribution of the respondents as revealed by the questionnaire.

Table 4. 1: Number of Survey Responses

No. of Respondents	Male		Female	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
120	67	55.8	53	44.2

Source: Field data

From Table 4.1, it can be noted that 67 (55.8%) of the respondents were male whereas, 53 (44.2%) were female. From the results it is obvious that majority of the respondents were male since they dominated administration in VET institutions. This is consistent with the NCHE report (2010) which upholds that generally there are few girls who join VET institutions compared to their male counterparts. In light of this, how to increase the proportions of women in vocational education remains a subject for potential debate.

4.2 Characteristics of Participants

4.2.1 Gender and Educational Level

Table 4.2 shows the gender and educational level of the respondents as revealed by the study.

Table 4. 2: Gender and Educational Level of the Respondents

			Level of Education					Total
			Certificate	Ordinary Diploma	First Degree	Postgraduate Diploma	Masters	
Gender	Male	Count	13	25	22	2	5	67
		Row	19.4%	37.3%	32.8%	3.0%	7.5%	100%
		Column	86.7%	51%	52.4%	50%	50%	55.8%
	Female	Count	2	24	20	2	5	53
		Row	3.8%	45.3%	37.7%	3.8%	9.4%	100%
		Column	13.3%	49%	47.6%	50.0%	50%	44.2%
Total		Count	15	49	42	4	10	120
		Row	12.5%	40.8%	35%	3.3%	8.3%	100%

Source: Field data

Table 4.2 shows that the highest level of education attained by the respondents was a Master's degree. From the results 5 (50%) of the respondents both male and female were Master's degree holders, 2 (50%) male and female held postgraduate diplomas, of the degree holders, 22 (52.4%) were male and 20 (47.6%) were female, 25 (51%) male and 24 (49%)

female were diploma holders and 13 (86.7%) male and 2 (13.2%) female held certificate level of education. From the results, the researcher notes that both men and women were qualified for administrative positions. This is in line with studies documenting on the formal preparation required for school administrators which indicate that women just as men should have these qualifications (Shakeshaft, 2006).

4.2.2 Gender and Experience

To present results on the experience of the respondents according to gender, cross tabulations were used (Table 4.3).

Table 4. 3: Gender and Experience of the Respondents

			Experience (Years)					Total
			1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20+	
Gender	Male	Count	49	8	6	3	1	67
		Row	73.1%	11.9%	9%	4.5%	1.5%	100%
		Column	55.1%	50%	60%	75 %	100%	55.8%
	Female	Count	40	8	4	1		53
		Row	75.5%	15.1%	7.5%	1.9%		100%
		Column	44.9%	50%	40%	25%		44.2%
Total		Count	89	16	10	4	1	120
		Row	74.2%	13.3%	8.3%	3.3%	.8%	100%

Source: Field data

Table 4.3 shows that 49 (55.1%) of the respondents who had experience of 1-5 years were male whereas, 40 (44.9%) were female. Of the 16 respondents with experience of 6-10 years, 8 (50%) were male and 8 (50%) were female. In the category of the respondents who possessed experience of 11-15 years, 6 (60%) were male whereas, 4 (40%) were female. 3 (75%) of the respondents with experience of 16-20 years were male whereas, one a was female and in the category of those who had experience of over 20 years, there was only one male out of the 120 respondents. What emerges from the findings is that the majority of the

respondents had experience of 1-5 years 89 (74.2%) which is an indication that most of the respondents were experienced. This is in agreement with Nilsson (personal communication, 2011) who posits that everyone with a professional competence has a long period of service behind him or herself, mainly 2-3 and sometimes 5-8 years. In support of the findings and documented evidence, it is clear that the issue of experience is fundamental in the requirements for most senior jobs in Uganda's employment sector. Therefore, questions of how possible one can accumulate the necessary experience are cardinal. This should only not be a concern for women but men as well.

4.2.3 Gender and Position

The researcher used cross tabulations to present the distribution of the respondents with respect to gender and their positions at the institution. Table 4.4 displays the results.

Table 4. 4: Gender and Positions held by the Respondents

			Position of the Respondents				Total
			Principal	Deputy Principals	Head of Departments	Student Leaders	
Gender	Male	Count	5	15	28	19	67
		Row	7.5%	22.3%	41.7%	28.3%	100%
		Column	50%	78.9%	66.7%	38.7%	55.8%
	Female	Count	5	4	14	30	53
		Row	9.4%	7.5%	26.4%	56.6%	100%
		Column	50%	21.1%	33.3%	61.3%	44.2%
Total		Count	10	19	42	49	120
		Row	8.3%	16.7%	34.2%	40.8%	100%

Source: Field data

From the results in Table 4.4, out of the 10 principals that participated in the study, 5 (50%) were male and 5 (50%) were female. Among the deputy principals, 15 (78.9%) were male and 4 (21.1%) were female. With regard to the heads of departments, 28 (66.7%) were

male whereas, 14 (33.3%) were female. For the student leaders, 19 (38.7%) were male and 30 (61.3%) were female. From the results, the researcher notes that on average the female students were more responsive compared to the other respondent categories.

Also, it can be deduced from the results that of the 71 administrative positions (that is; principals, deputy principals and head of departments), 23 (32.4%) were occupied by females. This is an indication that women were fewer in administrative positions in VET institutions. In relation to this, the researcher noted that most of the institutions which were headed by women were in the health sector such as; Public Health Nurses College, Mulago School of Nursing and Midwifery and Health Tutors College. This was also true with female based institutions like Young Women Christian Association (YWCA)—Vocational Training Institute. The researcher further noted that of the five female headed VET institutions only one was not a nursing institution. Therefore, this implies that women tend to dominate senior positions in nursing institutions. This is in line with Mjelde (2006) who posits that research in Norway has shown that girls are many in vocations like catering, nursing and other traditionally perceived jobs for women.

4.3 Empirical findings on the study objectives

In this section, results of the study are provided in relation to the research objectives. The quantitative results were presented in tabulation form using item mean analysis. On the other hand, the qualitative results were used to support quantitative results. Here, the researcher abbreviated the responses from the BTVET officers according to; BTVET (01) referring to BTVET officer one, BTVET (02) as BTVET officer two, BTVET (03) as BTVET officer three and BTVET (04) as BTVET officer four. For the principals, the researcher referred to them as PP (1) for principal one and PP (2) for principal two.

4.3.1 Level of women participation in administration of VET institutions

The researcher sought to answer the research question: What is the level of women's participation in administration of VET institutions?

The questionnaire was used to obtain data that answered the above research question. The presented data was based on responses captured from 120 respondents. Mean scores and standard deviations were generated to present the level of women's participation in administration of VET institutions. Item mean analysis was adopted for the study to present the average response for each item. The items were rated on the 5 point Likert scale ranging between 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree as revealed in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5: Level of women's participation in administration

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
At our institute, women dominate senior administrative positions	1	5	2.42	1.611
Women participate in decision making at the institution	1	5	3.45	1.426
Women participate in the final approval of the decisions to be implemented in the institution	1	5	3.35	1.315
Women participate in the review of the institute's administrative policies	1	5	3.40	1.345
At the institute, most administration processes does not involve women	1	5	2.23	1.413

Source: Field data

From the results in Table 4.5, the respondents revealed that women did not dominate senior administrative positions at their institutes (Mean=2.42*1.611) and disagreed that most administrative processes did not involve women (Mean=2.23*1.426). The quantitative results are supported by all the interviewees who revealed that "women were generally few and that their numbers were negligible but this was determined by the nature of the vocational institute." This finding is in line with the UNESCO report (2011) which notes that globally women are not accessing senior positions in the public or private sectors in the numbers

expected despite their increased education and work experience. In addition, the BTVET officers revealed that “in the institutions where women held administrative positions, they occupied the positions of principals and deputy principals. However, the majority were in the teaching profession”. This is supported by Wanda (2005) who posits that the academic field unlike other areas largely remains impenetrable. Wanda laments that even where women exist in the academic arena, they tend to be concentrated in lower grades or less secure posts such as teaching and research assistants. This finding is also consistent with Lund’s study in the common wealth universities who found that women are still seriously under-represented amongst full time staff in both administrative and academic hierarchies (Lund, 1998). In 2000, Lund further noted that women were more visible in the positions of departmental heads and directorship with nearly 18% of them in these posts.

When asked about the current status of women in administration, the qualitative results revealed that “currently, on average there are very few women heading vocational institutions in Uganda. For instance out of the 56 government BTVET institutes only three are headed by women” (BTVET, O4). In relation to this, the qualitative results further disclosed that there was no specific policy favouring the appointment of women. The existing criterion was inclined to a meritorious basis where the best candidate was given the job.

In an attempt to find out the number of women who were previously in administration, the findings showed that institutions seldom keep records by sex of administrative office holders. This is in agreement with Shakeshaft (2006), who laments that to date only a few countries keep accurate records by sex of administrative office holders. Shakeshaft further affirms this by giving an example of United States of America (USA) whereby in 2006 there was no single repository for documenting the number of women in school administration. This is also supported by Nkomo and Ngambi (2009), who noted that researchers looking for

statistics across Africa found very little current solid data available for female managers in Africa. Likewise in the present study this was evident when most of the respondents could not give a clear number of women who had previously participated in the administration of their institutions.

All in all, the results imply that on a general view there are very few women who participate in administration of VET institutions at the levels of principal, deputy principal and head of department.

4.3.2 Factors influencing participation of women in administration of VET institutions

The results presented in Table 4.6 gives an analysis on the research question: What are the factors that influence participation of women in administration of VET institutions?

Data was based on responses captured from 120 respondents with the aid of a questionnaire.

Table 4. 6: Factors influencing participation of women in administration

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Women have low interest concerning administrative roles like decision making, planning and resource control	1	5	2.23	1.488
The belief that men make better administrators than women hinders women's participation in leadership positions	1	5	4.22	.832
The traditional roles of women as housekeepers render them inefficient administrators because of failure to balance housework with the job	1	5	4.13	1.142
Lack of confidence in their abilities has undermined the participation of women in administrative positions	1	5	4.14	1.154
The low representation of women in educational administration is as a result of discrimination	1	5	2.10	1.428
Traditional beliefs of women being inferior to men largely explains why few women participate in administrative positions	1	5	4.38	.918
In African societies, it is believed that women are technically incompetent and so cannot be administrators of BTVET institutions	1	5	4.03	1.365

Source: Field data

The results in Table 4.6, indicate that some of the factors influencing participation of women in administration included; the belief that men make better administrators than women (Mean=4.22*.832), that the traditional roles of women render them fail to balance housework with the job (Mean=4.13*1.142), lack of confidence in their abilities (Mean=4.14*1.154), the traditional belief that women are inferior to men (Mean=4.38*.918) and the traditional negative perceptions that technically women are incompetent (Mean=4.03*1.365). On the other hand, the respondents disagreed that women had low interest concerning administrative roles such as decision making, planning and resource control (Mean=2.23*1.488) and that the low representation of women in educational administration is as a result of discrimination (Mean=2.10*1.428).

Through the open ended questions in the questionnaire, the respondents further revealed an array of factors influencing participation of women in administration as displayed in text box 4.1.

Text Box 4.1: Factors influencing women participation in administration

- i) Lack of qualifications required for administrative roles/jobs;
- ii) As a male dominated society, men tend to deliberately override women;
- iii) Traditional cultural beliefs and practices/socio-cultural factors;
- iv) Attitude: the perception that women cannot manage administration;
- v) The criteria that women administrators should have a background of engineering;
- vi) Lack of support from their spouses;
- vii) Sexual harassment which force women to shun administrative jobs;
- viii) Lack of supportive policies;
- ix) Women think that they will use sexual favours to get what they want;
- x) Discrimination of women at the workplace;
- xi) Biological and family responsibilities of women; and
- xii) Personality (lack of assertiveness, inferiority complex, emotional instability)

The BTVET (O1) commented that some of the factors influencing the participation of women in administration of VET institutions were sabotage from men and the perception that most vocations are fit for men. On the other hand, BTVET (O2) blamed this on most courses being science based, yet few ladies take on such courses. Still commenting on the factors influencing the participation of women in administration of VET institutions, BTVET (O3) and BTVET (O4) were of the view that in the past women were not venturing into vocational subjects and this had continued to affect the attitude of young girls. It was further made known that the traditional negative attitude right from the various cultures hinder women from aspiring for certain jobs.

The under-representation of women in administrative positions was further blamed on the level of training. The BTVET (O4) further revealed that the nature of the vocations tended to scare away women for instance building and carpentry which require a lot of strength. The PP (1) put forward that lack of self belief coupled with lack of interest among women largely explain their low representation in administrative positions. Moreover BTVET (O1) blamed it on lack of confidence as well as lack of assertiveness among the women themselves. During an interview with PP (2), the researcher was informed that the factors influencing the participation of women in administration of VET institutions included sexual harassment. The respondent argued that much as women were eligible for the senior positions, sometimes they were compelled to yield to sexual advances from their male counterparts who dominate the decision making bodies. On the other hand PP (2) made it known that due to cases of discrimination of women at the workplace; some women tend to avoid influential positions. Finally, the Interviewees continued to blame the status-quo of women in administration on the fact that parents rarely encourage girls to take subjects that would enable them pursue administrative jobs (BTVET, O1 & BTVET, O3).

Basing on both the questionnaire and interview results, it can be noted that an array of factors influence participation of women in administration of VET institutions. A detailed discussion of the key factors is provided below.

The findings indicated that one of the major factors responsible for the low representation of women in administration of VET institutions was the traditional cultural beliefs and practices which degrade women to be second class citizens. It is argued that across cultures, power relations within educational institutions are hierarchical and paternalistic (Brown and Ralph, as cited in Oplatka, 2006). This is supported by Shakeshaft (2006), who laments that although gender varies across cultures, there is no culture that values women and men the same. Stemming from the findings and coupled with supportive literature, it is clear that women's participation in administration is continuously affected by traditional cultural beliefs and practices (socio-cultural factors). In fact this appears to be one of the complex issues to be addressed.

According to the findings it was put across that the attitude towards women continues to influence their participation in administration of VET institutions in Uganda. It was noted that the belief that women are weaker vessels and cannot manage administration dominated the perceptions of their male counterparts. Likewise, the findings further revealed that in the past women were not venturing into vocational subjects and this had continued to affect the attitude of young girls. When probed further, one of the respondents said:

The traditional negative attitude right from our cultures hinder women from aspiring for certain jobs. For instance, it is unheard of in some cultures for a lady to climb a tree while in others it is normal. In fact this can further be scorned on the lack of confidence among the women themselves. If you believe you can do it, then you can (BTVET, O3).

The finding is in agreement with Huyer (2003) who claims that cultural and attitudinal barriers such as perceptions about the role and status of women exist across countries despite

widely different circumstances. In light of this, it appears that societies as well as women themselves still have a role to play as far as coping up with attitudinal barriers. Much as it might be difficult to control people's feelings about others, this should not be an excuse for the under-representation of women in administration.

The study findings also revealed that women often face sabotage from men which eventually affects their participation in administration of VET institutions. When asked to elaborate how this is possible, one of the respondents said:

There is always a click of men in most organisations who are ever there to challenge women's views. They often try much to show women that they are nothing. For instance, there are some men who can tell you right in your face that they cannot respect the views of a woman however educated. In fact if you are not so keen it is difficult to know that indeed women are sabotaged by their male counterparts to assume administrative positions. This is what some people refer to as the so called glass ceiling (BTVET, O1).

This finding is in line with Osumbah (2010) who maintains that these factors are artificial and invisible, providing a view to the top, but also providing a ceiling on how far a woman can go. When a glass ceiling exists, men occupy a disproportionately high percentage of the higher ranks in a career field, while women tend to be overrepresented in its lower ranks (Sincoff, *et al.*, 2006). In relation to this it appears that the issue of men sabotaging women from securing themselves administrative positions appears silent in VET administration but operational. Nevertheless, what should be primary in this regard is how to break the "glass ceiling" scenario.

The study further revealed that the biological and family responsibilities of women continue to influence their participation in most administrative activities. This is in agreement with Livingstone (2004), who posits that domestic duties that women are still expected to do for their families take significantly more time and energy than those that most men expect and want to do. Livingstone adds that this inequity is the chief persistent disadvantage that women

suffer in seeking opportunities for advanced education and career advancement. However, a study of the principalship in Catholic Schools in New South Wales, Australia, indicates that family responsibilities deter both females and males (d'Arbon, *et al.*, 2002). In this study it was noted that 'the administrative role intrudes too much on personal life yet the time pressures associated with executing administrative activities are too stressful' (p.476). d'Arbon, *et al.* thus observed the search for balance among family, work, and personal lives so as to enable women take on leadership positions. From these assertions, the biological and family responsibilities of women appear to affect their participation in administration. On the other hand it can be inferred that much as it is the biological role of women to give birth, it would be reasonable if other household chores are a shared responsibility. This would certainly assist women to strike a balance between their job and family. Nevertheless, this should not be entirely used as excuse for the low participation of women in administration. This is because while some women are still grappling with the biological and family responsibilities as hindrance to their representation in administration, others have made it. This for instance sets a challenge ahead for women as far as their participation in administration is concerned.

From the study findings it was also put forward that discrimination against women at the workplace stands out as a contributing factor to their low participation in administration. When asked to explain how women were discriminated, it was clear from the respondent's words that:

For instance this institution has two branches one is headed by a male and the other by a female. It is just of recent that it came to my knowledge that there exist discrepancies in the salaries that are offered. In this case the female principal is paid less compared to the male; yet we all have the same qualifications. I do not know whether the same incident could be true with other private institutions, at least for government institutions there is always a standard pay for all administrators (PP, 2).

The finding is consistent with Newman (1993) who studied career advancement in the Florida Civil Service and noted a disparity in men's and women's allowances and wages. They found that despite similar education and work background, there was a disparity in men and women's salary increases. This is supported by Shakeshaft (2006) who notes that sex discrimination in educational leadership is primarily rooted in the devaluation of women in society. Likewise a study in United Kingdom (UK) registered a related incident. Documenting on resistance to female leadership, Coleman (2000) noted the worldwide devaluation of women which explained largely their resistance to positions of power. Coleman found that male teachers resented women head teachers in the UK and Wales and that women continued to have to prove themselves more than men. An observable fact in this sense is that the issue of women being discriminated against is prevalent and this might have continuous effect on future participation of women in administration. Much as gender equality has been promoted in every sphere of life, a lot remains to be questioned especially if such evidence is persistent.

It was also clear from the findings that women lacked support from their spouses and this affected their involvement in administration of VET institutions. This finding is in agreement with Shakeshaft (2006) who asserts that successful women administrators almost always acknowledge the importance of family support. For instance, in Cubillo and Brown's (2003) analysis of women managers from nine countries, women reported the importance of support from parents, especially fathers. In relation to this, it can be noted that women may need support from their spouses if they are to be successful administrators.

The study findings further made it known that lack of qualifications / level of training required for administrative jobs is one of the major factors responsible for the low representation of women in administration of VET institutions. It was noted that most VET

programmes are science based, yet few ladies take on such courses. However, when probed more, one of the respondents stressed:

There are few girls who undergo engineering courses, yet administrators in some VET institutions are picked from the field of engineering. Also, for one to be taken as an administrator he or she must have taught for some years. On the other hand the nature of vocations (building, carpentry among others) require a lot of strength and this tends to scare away women” (BTVET, O4).

This finding is in agreement with Osumbah (2010) who posits that in order to occupy top management and leadership positions one needs higher education. Osumbah claims that one fact that is evident from various research findings is that the higher the level of education, the wider the gender gap. Osumbah noted that in Kenya, studies by Otieno (2001), Ngome (2003), and Bunyi (2004) all agreed that the higher the level of education, the wider the gender gap in favour of males. Basing on the study findings and backed up with related literature it can be noted that due to lack of necessary qualifications women are more likely to dominate the lower cadre. Although it would be reasonable to obtain equal representation of men and women in administrative positions, it is also important to note that the level of education remains key for one to be entrusted with such. This requires that women be supported to attain what it requires to fill such positions.

The findings also revealed that some of the factors influencing the participation of women in administration of VET institutions were personal that is; lack of assertiveness, lack of confidence and inferiority complex among women themselves. This is supported by Achola and Aseka (2001) who argue that women are not assertive enough, don't want power, lack self confidence and they rarely apply for administrative jobs. From the researcher's view, although the low representation of women in administration of VET institutions could be associated with the perceived personality of women, it would be logical to understand why they exhibit such characteristics. This would certainly provide a clear stand on how best they

could be helped to improve their self image and aspire for senior administration. This is because women are more likely to remain in low status jobs regardless of the level of education attained.

However, in light of the above, research by Ruderman as cited in Neidhart and Carlin (2003), put forward that the barrier to participation of women in administration is not lack of confidence, but rather lack of informed choice based on knowledge of what is important to them personally and the extent to which they are authentic. This implies that confidence can easily be developed if one is definite about what is being done or what is required of him or her.

Existence of weak policies was one of the factors influencing participation of women in administration according to the study findings. The finding is consistent with Kamau cited in Osongu (2004) who found that lack of policy and practice aimed at encouraging women to aspire for senior positions was the main hindrance for the women in the university (one private university in Kenya). This is also supported by Marianne (1997) who claims that the factors influencing participation of women in an education system stem from policies. It can be deduced that the issue concerning policy plays a critical role as far as participation of women in administration is concerned. Women today have equal access to educational opportunities, but again looking at employment patterns in VET institutions they dominate the teaching profession. Therefore there is need to focus on supportive policies in other professions including administration.

4.3.3 Strategies to enhance participation of women in administration of VET institutions

Under this section the researcher presents the findings for the research question: What strategies can be used to enhance the participation of women in administration of VET institutions? The results from the open ended questions in the questionnaire revealed a number of strategies. A detailed analysis is presented in text box 4. 2.

Text Box 4.2: Strategies to enhance participation of women in administration

- i) Policy reform to promote women composition in administrative positions;
- ii) Capacity building for women in administrative skills;
- iii) Incentives for women such as scholarships;
- iv) Sensitization of society about women's potential to hold administrative jobs;
- v) Parents need to give equal opportunities to girls for further education;
- vi) Gender equality in administrative positions;
- vii) Coaching and mentorship of women by superiors for administrative roles;
- viii) Career guidance should be provided to girls;
- ix) Counseling for girls should be focused on pursuing their careers;
- x) Recognition of women that have been exceptional in administration;
- xi) Build women's esteem at an early age; and
- xii) Use role models to influence attitude change.

The qualitative results revealed that in order to increase the number of women in administrative positions, women needed to believe in themselves that is according to BTVET (O1). Whereas BTVET (O2) asserted that career guidance should be done in schools and sensitization by role models. The study findings also made it known that in order to enhance the status of women in administration of VET institutions, incentives should be provided such as scholarships. BTVET (O4) also suggested that in order to realize increased rates of women in administration, publicity should be done through talk shows. When probed more the

respondent stated: “it might be difficult to change some of the socio-cultural beliefs about women, but at least publicity has been conducted that is why we are able to see the few girls in VET institutions”. Accordingly, BTVET (O4) and PP (2) argued that through recognition of role models young girls as well as aspiring administrators will be encouraged to join the field. On the other hand PP (1) was of the view that women should be encouraged to offer courses that would enable them become administrators.

Reflecting on the findings as revealed by the interviewees, it is clear that a number of strategies have been advanced to improve the participation of women in administration as discussed hereunder.

Capacity building for women in administrative skills was one of the strategies commonly suggested by respondents during the study. It was clear from the findings that women should be encouraged to take on leadership and administration courses if they are to aspire for administrative positions. The finding is in agreement with Kerlinger (2000) who suggests that women’s participation in education at all levels should be increased so as to raise the number of women from which able managers could evolve. It can thus be deduced that through capacity building, the participation of women in administration may possibly improve.

The findings showed that there is need for policy reform so as to elevate the status of women in administration of VET institutions. This finding is supported by Chitrakar (2009) who states that proactive policy measures need to be formulated to encourage girls to undertake traditionally male dominated courses so as compete favourably with boys. This is because despite strong women’s aspirations, progress will be extremely slow unless and until there is public recognition that a problem exists and needs to be tackled (UNESCO report,

2002). In line with the findings and supportive literature, policies should be enacted to favour women to take up administrative positions.

Also, the findings indicated that in order to enhance the participation of women in administration of VET institutions, women should be provided with incentives. When probed, one of the respondents said:

If women are provided with incentives such as lowering of intake marks and scholarships, they are likely to enter VET in large pools. This is because right from the word go, few girls join VET (BTVET, O3).

This finding is in agreement with UNESCO report (2002) which highlights that most development agencies are conscious of the need to improve the proportion of women in postgraduate studies and more so administration. The report further reveals that agencies such as the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the Association of Commonwealth Universities which manage the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (CSFP) have taken steps to ensure that their award schemes are structured to increase the proportion of women postgraduates. In view of this, with the provision of incentives such as scholarships we can expect increased numbers of women in administration.

Sensitization of society about women's potential to hold administrative jobs was among the strategies suggested by the respondents as revealed by the study. The finding is supported by Kerlinger (2000) who argued that there is urgent need to establish programs combining gender sensitization for both women and men with a view to eradicating socio-cultural attitudes and values. Basing on the findings, it can be noted that women's status in administration of VET institutions is liable to improvement if society is sensitized about their abilities.

The study findings further showed that there is need for gender equality in administrative positions. This is supported by the Equality Commission of Northern Ireland (2007) which suggests that the move to enhance social justice and gender equality is key in promoting the participation of women in administration. In support of the findings and documentary evidence, it would be right to infer that the participation of women in administrative positions is likely to improve once gender equality is achieved. However, to note is that unless women are encouraged to enroll for VET programmes, attracting female administrators in the field is expected to be a challenge even in the future.

According to the findings it was made known that coaching and mentorship of women by superiors for administrative roles is likely to enhance the participation of women in administration. This finding is consistent with Ehrich (1994) who examined the differences between networks and mentorships in Australia and argued that while both are important, mentoring is more necessary for career advancement. The researcher noted that once coaching and mentorship approaches are adopted it is more probable that higher rates of women in administration would be registered. This is because there is always a lot to learn from superiors once contacted. Therefore, this justifies the urgency for coaching and mentorship if higher percentages of women in administration are to be realized.

4.3.4 Relationship between Gender and participation of women in administration

Under this section the researcher sought to test the hypothesis, “there is no significant relationship between gender and women’s participation in administration of VET institutions”. To study the relationship between gender and participation of women in administration, a Pearson’s correlation test was used and the results are presented in table 4.7.

Table 4. 7: Gender and participation of women in administration

		Gender	Women participation in administration
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	.389 (**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Women participation in administration	Pearson Correlation	.389 (**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
<i>**.</i> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Source: Field data

Reflecting on Table 4.7, the correlation results indicate a significant and positive relationship between gender and participation of women in administration ($r = 0.389^{**}$, $p < .01$). The results in the above table show that there is a strong and statistically significant positive correlation between gender and participation of women in administration at 0.389^{**} with a significance of 0.000 at the level of 0.01. However, with respect to the correlation results, the researcher deduces that although the low representation of women in administration could be blamed on gender, it would be unreasonable for one to ignore the influence of other factors. This argument is supported by the debate on the relationship between gender inequalities and VET disciplines. The UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2006) concludes that it is difficult to draw conclusions on whether VET contributes to gender inequalities. Moreover Oketch (2007), who writes about the question of vocationalisation in Africa, is more critical stating that the gender inequalities that have persisted in the general programmes are also prevalent in the TVET programmes.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher summarizes, concludes and draws recommendations for the study based on the findings. The chapter is organised in three parts. Part one provides a summary for the study guided by the key research questions regarding:

- i) The level of women participation in administration of VET institutions;
- ii) Factors influencing participation of women in administration of VET institutions;
- iii) Strategies to enhance participation of women in administration of VET institutions;
- iv) The relationship between gender and participation of women in administration of VET institutions

The second part gives the conclusions and recommendations, and the last part suggests areas for future research.

5.1 Summary

Precisely the study established that a few women participated in senior administrative positions in VET institutions. Regarding the factors influencing the participation of women in administration, the findings revealed; the belief that men make better administrators than women, that the traditional roles of women contribute to their failure to balance housework with the job, lack of confidence in their abilities, the traditional belief that women are inferior to men and the traditional negative perceptions that women are technically incompetent. Concerning the strategies to enhance the participation of women in administration, the results indicated that; government should formulate equal opportunity policies on educational administration, emphasis should be put on the review of recruitment and promotion policies in

higher education, women should be encouraged to take leadership and administration courses, societies need to be sensitized about women's potential to hold administrative jobs, among others. Finally the study indicated a strong and statistically significant positive correlation between gender and participation of women in administration.

5.2 Conclusion(s)

Based on the findings the researcher made the following conclusions.

5.2.1 Level of participation of women in administration of VET institutions

The assessment of the level of participation of women in administration confirmed that they were under-represented. Of the 71 administrative positions (principals, deputy principals and head of departments) only 23 (32.4%) were occupied by women. This is a justification that administration of VET institutions was dominated by males.

5.2.2 Factors influencing participation of women in administration of VET institutions

From the findings, it is clear that several factors that affected the participation of women in administration were identified. These were centered on social, cultural, economic, religious, political and structural factors where women lacked a competitive edge over their male counterparts.

5.2.3 Strategies to enhance participation of women in administration of VET institutions

The proposition of the strategies was enough ground to show that something can be done by the different stakeholders to promote women participation in VET administration. This calls for the different stakeholders to play their own roles towards achieving higher levels of women in administration.

5.2.4 Gender and participation of women in administration

According to the findings, the strong relationship between gender and participation of women in administration is justification that gender influenced the participation of women in administration. However, this association could also be moderated by other factors which were not part of the study.

5.3 Recommendations

In accordance with the objectives of the study, the researcher recommends that:

- i) Special efforts should be made by VET institutions to appoint more women in key decision making positions so as to increase on their representation in administration. This requires that capacity building policies are enacted so as to have competent and qualified women to take up administrative positions.
- ii) The government should establish programs combining gender sensitization and civil education of all sexes so as to eradicate retrogressive socio-cultural attitudes and values. This can be achieved through realigning gender roles and making them more equitable and harmonious.
- iii) The Ministry of Education and Sports should conduct continuous policy reviews of the education sector to incorporate new developments on gender equality. This can be done through monitoring and evaluation of the existing policies in the education sector as this will ensure checks and balances and also help identify the gaps that are still eminent.
- iv) Closely related to the above, institutions such as the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, National Women's Council and the Human Rights Commission

should steer and work together towards realizing gender equality. This can be achieved through a joint action on the implementation of proposed and adopted policies.

- v) The Ministry of Education and Sports should liaise with VET institutions to provide education aimed at equipping women with administrative skills. This is because VET institutions tended to concentrate on the provision of technical knowledge in a particular field at the detriment of administrative skills. Moreover in some VET institutions assuming an administrative position necessitates an engineering background. Yet administration is more of decision making.

5.4.1 Areas for Further Research

This study focused on the aspect of gender and its influence on participation of women administration in Central Uganda with vocational institutions as a case study. Reflecting on the study findings, the following areas are suggested for further research.

- i) Future studies should be carried out on gender and administration in other regions. This would bring out a holistic view of gender and its influence on participation of women in administration.
- ii) Longitudinal studies should be conducted on the same topic because the researcher used a cross-sectional study which does not allow analysis of trends of how gender has been affecting participation of women in administration.
- iii) The study only looked at the relationship between gender and women participation in administration. Therefore future studies should extend the study scope and focus on the effects of age, level of education and experience on the participation of women in administration.

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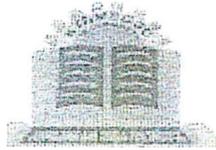
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Appendices

Appendix I: Introductory Letter to the Data Collection Sites

KYAMBOGO



UNIVERSITY

P. O. Box 1 Kyambogo, Phone: 041-285001/2 Fax: 041-220464. Kampala

www.kyambogo.ac.ug

FACULTY OF VOCATIONAL STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF ART & INDUSTRIAL DESIGN

Date: 09/01/2013

To:

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

This is to introduce Mr/Ms/Mrs. ATUKWASE AURELIA
Registration No. 2011/01/HD/282/MVP who is a student of Kyambogo University pursuing
on a post graduate programme in Vocational Pedagogy.

He/She intends to carry out a research in:

GENDER AND WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATION:
A CASE OF VOCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN CENTRAL UGANDA

as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree in Masters of Vocational
Pedagogy.

We therefore kindly request you to grant him/her permission to carry out the research at your
organization.

Any assistance accorded to him/her shall be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Yours Faithfully,


Mugisha John
Ag. Head of Depart
Art and Industrial Design



Appendix II: Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a student undertaking research as an academic requirement in partial fulfillment for the award of Masters in Vocational Pedagogy of Kyambogo University. The research topic is on “**Gender and Women Participation in Administration: A Case of Vocational Institutions in Central Uganda**”. The research is purely academic and all the information provided here will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

1. Name of the institution.....

2. Year of establishment.....

Section A: Bio-data

3. Sex

Male

Female

4. Level of Education:(Tick appropriately)

Certificate	Ordinary Diploma	Bachelors Degree	Postgraduate Diploma	Masters

Others please specify:

.....

5. Period you have been in the institution: (Tick appropriately)

1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	Above -20 years

Others please specify:

.....

6. Responsibility held at the institution: (Tick appropriately)

Principal	Deputy Principal	Head of Department	Students' Leader

Section B (i): Level of women's participation in administration: Please tick according to the level you agree or disagree with the statements below. 5- Strongly Agree (SA), 4-Agree (A), 3-Not sure, 2 – Disagree (D) and 1 – strongly Disagree (SD)

Item	SD	D	NS	A	SA
At our institute, women dominate senior administrative positions	1	2	3	4	5
Women participate in decision making at the institution	1	2	3	4	5
Women participate in the final approval of the decisions to be implemented in the institution	1	2	3	4	5
Women participate in the review of the institute's administrative policies	1	2	3	4	5
At the institute, most administration processes does not involve women	1	2	3	4	5

(ii) How many women currently participate in administration of this institution?

Positions	No.	Male	Female
Principal			
Deputy Principals			
Heads of Departments			

(iii) Since the establishment of this institution how many women have participated in administrative positions?

Positions	No.	Male	Female
Principal			
Deputy Principals			
Heads of Departments			

Section C (i): Factors influencing participation of women in administration: Please tick according to the level you agree or disagree with the statements below. 5 –Strongly Agree (SA), 4-Agree, 3-Not sure (NS) (A), 2-Disagree (D) and 1 – Strongly Disagree (SD)

	S	D	NS	A	SA
Women have low interest concerning administrative roles like decision making, planning and resource control	1	2	3	4	5
The belief that men make better administrators than women hinders women's participation in leadership positions	1	2	3	4	5
The traditional roles of women as housekeepers render them inefficient administrators because of failure to balance housework with the job	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of confidence in their abilities has undermined the participation of women in administrative positions	1	2	3	4	5
The low representation of women in educational administration is as a result of discrimination	1	2	3	4	5
Traditional beliefs of women being inferior to men largely explains why few women participate in administrative positions	1	2	3	4	5
In African societies, it is believed that women are technically incompetent and so cannot be administrators of BTVET institutions	1	2	3	4	5

ii) What other factors do you think influence the participation of women in administration?

- 1) _____

- 2) _____

- 3) _____

Section D: Strategies to enhance participation of women in administration.

What strategies do you suggest to enhance the participation of women in administration?

- 1) _____

- 2) _____

- 3) _____

- 4) _____

- 5) _____

Thank you

Tel: 0754-979503/0705-208521

NB: This questionnaire was used to obtain information from Principals, Deputy Principals, Heads of Departments and Students' leadership (those on the institutions' guild council)

Appendix III: Interview Guide

The researcher will be guided by the following questions in carrying out the interview for BTVET officers and Principals

1. Date of interview.....

Section A: Bio-data

2. Sex

Male

Female

3. Designation

(position).....

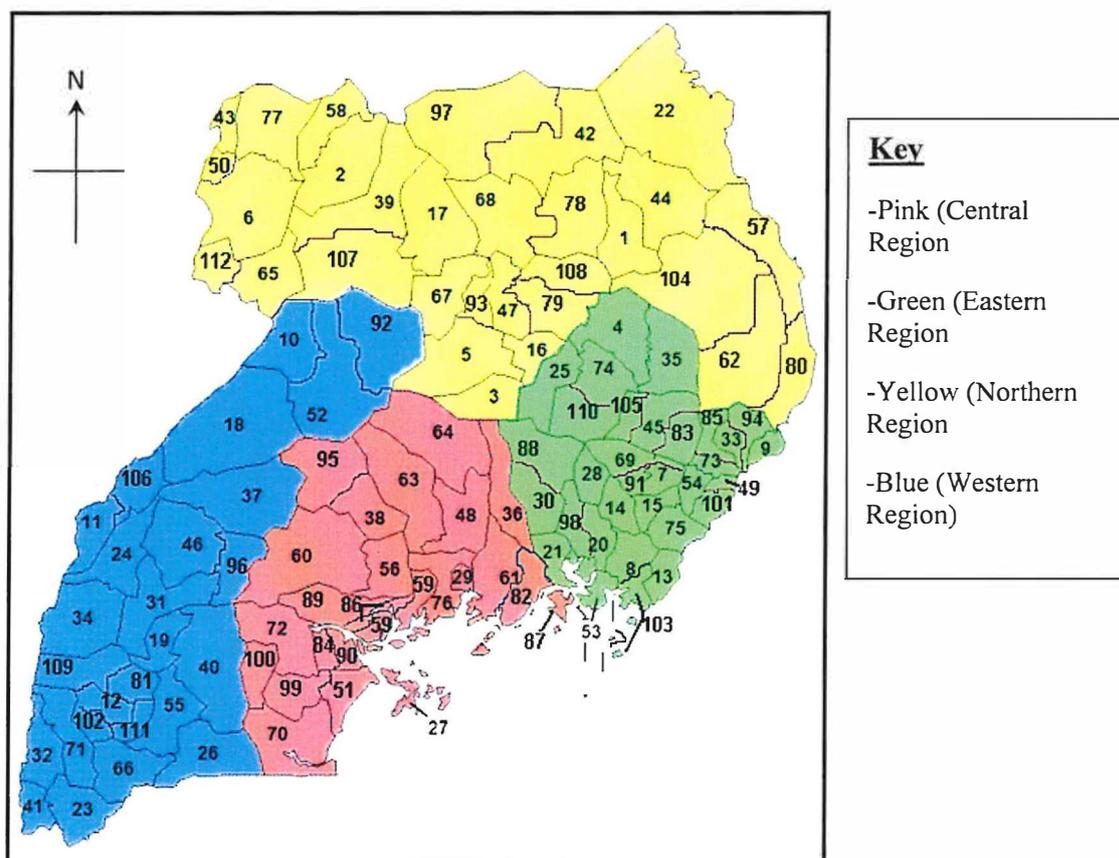
Section B:

4. In your view, are women involved in the administration of VET institutions?
5. If they are involved, which positions do they occupy?
6. Is there a policy you know of regarding the appointment of men and women VET administrators?
7. If there is, what does the policy say?
8. What could be some of the factors influencing the participation of women in administration of VET institutions?
9. What strategies do you think can be put in place to increase participation of women in administration of VET institutions?

Thank you

Tel: 0754-979503/0705-208521

Appendix IV: Map of Uganda Showing the Study Areas (Location of the Central Region)



Source: Ministry of Local Government Report 2010

Appendix V: Table for Determining sample size from a given population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	246
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	351
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	181	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	180	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	190	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	200	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	210	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	220	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	230	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	240	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	250	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	260	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	270	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

Note: "N" is population size

"S" is sample size.