GENDER GAPS IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS: THE CASE OF SELECTED EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT, ZAMBIA

## BY

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A dissertation submitted to the University of Zambia in collaboration with Zimbabwe Open University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Educational Management

## The University of Zambia

## LUSAKA

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I Charity Muuma, hereby solely declare that this dissertation represents my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged and that it has never been previously submitted for the award of a degree at the University of Zambia or any other educational institution.SignatureDate2021

## APPROVAL

This dissertation of Charity Muuma has been approved as fulfilling the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Educational Management by the University of Zambia in collaboration with Zimbabwe Open University.

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#### Abstract

The vision of the National Gender Policy (NGP) was to achieve gender equity at all levels of decision- making in the Zambian political economy. Institutions of higher learning occupy a very important role in the socio-economic development of Zambia and are critically affected by gender policy issues. The study was carried out in order to investigate the Gender gaps in Administrative positions: The case of Educational Institutions in Lusaka District, Zambia. The objectives that guided the study were to: assess the extent of gender gaps in administrative positions; identify the causes of gender gaps in administrative positions; and ascertain the effects of gender gaps in the operations of selected educational institutions. This research employed both quantitative and qualitative survey research approaches, which followed a descriptive case study design. The sample consisted of seventy-eight (78) respondents. This comprised forty-eight (48) administrative officers from six (6) educational institutions, that is eight (8) from each institution while thirty (30) respondents were sampled from nonadministrative officers, that is five (5) from individual educational institutions. Purposive sampling and random sampling technique was used to sample the participants. A questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the field. Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) versions 25.0 was used to analyse quantitative data whilst thematic analysis was used to analyse qualitative data. The study revealed the extent to which there are gender gaps in administrative positions of educational institutions is very high because the number of male administrative officers is almost double that of females. The causes of gender gaps in administrative positions included; lack of clear policy on recruitment and affirmative action during promotion process of administrative officers, stereotyping of administrative positions, lack of confidence, limited role models, low level of education and administrative experience amongst females, and being overwhelmed with household responsibilities. The effect of gender gaps in the operations of selected educational institutions were inadequate creativity, formation of gender imbalanced policies, female employees lack role models and confidants, widened income gaps, and enhanced vulnerability amongst women. In view of these findings, it was recommended that the Zambian government through the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Gender should ensure that they enforce the laws and policies which promote gender equality and should first prioritise to award their contracts to the institutions which are slightly gender balanced so that they can be encouraged more and also encourage other institutions to become equally gender balanced.


Key words: Gender, gender gap, administrative position

## DEDICATION

To

Sinikiwe Torto Muuma

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## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| AIDS | Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome |
| :--- | :--- |
| CEDAW | Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women |
| CEO | Chief Executive Officer |
| CSO | Central Statistics Office |
| CSR | Credit Suisse Research |
| CRC | Convention on the Rights of a Child |
| ETI | Ethical Trading Initiative |
| FAWEZA | Forum for African Women Educationalist in Zambia |
| GAD | Gender and Development |
| GB | Gender Blind |
| GD | Gender Discrimination |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GE | Gender Equality |
| GG | Gender Gap |
| GI | Gender Imbalance |
| GIDD | Gender in Development Division |
| GO | Gender Oppression |
| GP | Gender Parity |
| GRZ | Government of the Republic of Zambia |
| HIV | Human Immuno Virus |
| ICESCR | International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights |
| ILO | International Labour Organisation |
| JCTR | Jesuit Centre for Theoretical Reflection |
| LBS | London Business School |
| MoCTA | Ministry of Chiefs and Traditional Affairs |
| MoCDSS | Ministry of Community Development and Social Security |
| MoFNP | Ministry of Finance and National Planning |
| MoG | Ministry of Gender |
| MoGE | Ministry of General Education |
| MoHE | Ministry of Higher Education |
| MoL | Ministry of Labour |
| Member of Parliament |  |
| MP | Ma |


| NGOs | Non-Governmental Organisations |
| :--- | :--- |
| NGP | National Gender Policy |
| NWC | National Women's Commission |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development |
| OPT | Occupied Palestinian Territory |
| PhD | Doctorate of Philosophy |
| S | Sex |
| SADC | Southern African Development Community |
| SPA | Strategic Plan of Action |
| SRS | Sex Role Stereotype |
| UDHR | Universal Declaration of Human Rights |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Program |
| WAD | Women and Development |
| WB | World Bank |
| WID | Women in Development |
| WILDA | Women in Law and Development in Africa |
| ZARD | Zambia Association for Research and Development |
| ZRA | Zambia Revenue Authority |

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Overview

This chapter introduces the study by firstly presenting the background, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study and objectives. It also provides the significance of the study, delimitations and limitations, theoretical and conceptual framework, operational definitions and concludes with the layout of the study.

### 1.2 Background

According to Adetunde and Akensina (2008), education is a fundamental human right, as enshrined in numerous international human rights instruments, including the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the 1976 International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the 1989 Convention on the Rights of a Child (CRC). These instruments specify that gender inequalities in education should be eliminated, wherever they exist. Thus, Barkworth (2008) explains that the Article 10 of the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) obliges states to "take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women to ensure to the equal rights with men in the field of education, and in particular to ensure equality of men and women in administrative positions".

Regarding the rich Zambian history, Carmody (2004) articulates that there are many traces of gender gaps recorded between males and females. Coombe (1967) adds that much of this gender imbalance reveals that the females are usually the victims in decision making and administrative positions. Meaning that the females do not enjoy their human rights like their male counterpart does. Therefore, Daka (2007) expands that females have suffered many forms of discrimination at different levels. This implies that females are discriminated against in many spheres of life.

The vision of the National Gender Policy was to achieve gender equity at all levels of decision making in the Zambian economy. Institutions of higher learning occupy a vital role in the socioeconomic development of Zambia and are critically affected by gender policy issues (GIDD,
2000). However, the extent to which women globally have been marginalized in development processes has long been considered an essential issue by not only feminists but by scholars interested in the interplay between women's work and social development (Eagly \& Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) concern has focused primarily on the representation of women, who have been the objects of considerable public and private labour market discrimination. If 'public jobs are public resources, to which everyone has a potential claim," as Hays $(1998,300)$ suggests, then a representative government workforce is a critical objective for the public sector. Government has an obligation, it is argued, to serve as a model employer and provide an appropriate example for the private sector. Additionally, a more representative public bureaucracy may help to ensure that the interests of all people are considered in bureaucratic decision-making processes and administrative positions (Meier, 1993; Saltzstein, 1979).

The problem of an imbalance between men and women in various areas including administrative positions, is being faced worldwide. ILO (2007) reveals that at the global level, the distribution between the two genders in decision-making positions and administrative positions tends to favour men. Women have been under-represented at all levels of administrative positions and decision-making process, especially in the Government and parliament sector. For example, a memorandum submitted to Parliament by the Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD) in 2011 on the status of women in decision making established that gender inequalities were noticed by the low representation of women in political and administrative governance, in that out of thirty-five (35) Permanent Secretaries, only seven (7) were female.
The study further revealed that there were no female Deputy Permanent Secretaries (ZARD, 2011). Besides, the Gender Statistics report of 2010, which was produced in Zambia by the Central Statistics Office (CSO), revealed that the proportion of representation of female Members of Parliament (MP) in 2010 was at $15 \%$, while that of female Cabinet Ministers was at $17.4 \%$. The report also revealed that female representation in the office of Deputy Minister was only at $12.5 \%$ (CSO, 2010).
Women are mostly recruited and concentrated in the low echelons of institutions and are in occupations with low remunerations such as nursing, secretarial and clearing services (GIDD ,2000). In Zambia, like many other Sub-Sahara African countries, gender imbalances which do not favour women exist in the socio-economic, cultural, and political spheres. These
imbalances have prevented women from effectively contributing to and benefiting from the development process (GIDD, 2000).

The National Gender Policy (NGP) addressed several goals. One of them was to achieve equity in access to decision making positions between females and males at all levels with at least a $30 \%$ target share of women representation by the year 2005. This was in line with the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development (GIDD, 2000).

Other goals and commitments set through this declaration were to promote women's full access to and control over productive resources, increased provision of quality health and education services, protecting and promoting the reproductive and sexual rights of women and the girl children. The representation of women in administrative positions, however, formed the main focus of this research. To achieve the target mentioned above, the government, through the National Gender Policy of 2000, proposed that the following policy measures be put in place:
i. Develop criteria for recruitment, appointment and promotion of more women to advisory, administrative positions and decision-making positions.
ii. Develop communications strategies to promote public debate on the new roles of women and men in the family and society.
iii. Positive discriminatory practices and rules in favour of women which are aimed at giving opportunities to women to rise to senior management positions.
iv. Ensuring equitable representation of women and men in decision-making at all levels.
v. Restructure recruitment and career-development programmes to ensure that all women, especially young women and persons with disabilities, have equal access to managerial, entrepreneurial, technical and leadership training, including on the job training.
vi. Encourage efforts by Non-Governmental Organizations, Trade Unions and the private sector to achieve equality between women and men in their ranks of administrative positions, including equal participation in their decision-making bodies and negotiations at all levels
vii. Encourage the development of career advancement programmes for women of all ages that include career planning, tracking, mentoring, coaching, training and retraining

To make the policy operational, a Strategic Plan of Action (SPA), covering the period 2003 to 2007, was developed and implemented to prioritize action on the 12 measures outlined in the NGP. Among the actions of focus was the implementation of the 1997 SADC gender declaration of $30 \%$ of women in decision-making and administrative positions (SADC, 2003).

The specific focus of this research was therefore premised on gender gaps amongst women and men in administrative positions.

### 1.3 Statement of the Problem

Although the Government of the Republic of Zambia (GRZ) adopted and began implementing the 2003-2007 Strategic Plan of Action for the National Gender Policy, the extent to which the organizations, particularly institutions of higher learning or tertiary learning institutions had addressed the $30 \%$ representation at management /decision-making levels and administrative positions had mainly been uncertain. This uncertainty constituted a problem which this research aimed to address. For example, if the extent to which the measures in the NGP had been addressing gender inequality remained uncertain, several underlying gender-related problems would be perpetuated. If this study is not done, we may not be in a position to make any substantial claims of achievements made from the stated policy actions, and we may not augment the policy.

Despite the adoption and the implementation of the 2003-2007 Strategic Plan of Action for the National Gender Policy, the extent of gender gaps in an administrative position in educational institutions and the effects of gender gaps in administrative positions is unknown. And, surprisingly, few scholars have directed their attention to the representation of women as minorities in public offices and their studies have been on causes of gender gaps in decisionmaking. The relative lack of research, however, is mostly the result of researchers not focusing on gender-gaps in work-places, particularly in educational institutions. Hence the need for this study.

### 1.4 Purpose

The study sought to investigate gender gaps in administrative positions: a case of educational institutions in Lusaka district, Zambia.

### 1.5 Research Objectives

i. To assess the extent of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions.
ii. To determine the causes of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions.
iii. To establish the effect of gender gaps in the operations of selected educational institutions.

### 1.6 Research Questions

i. To what extent are gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions?
ii. What are the causes of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions?
iii. How do gender gaps in administrative positions affect the operations of selected educational institutions?

### 1.7 Theoretical framework

A theoretical framework is an outline of concepts and information that one desires to bear in mind to make sense of what one perceives considerable (Brunner, 1996; Thomas, SerenjeChipindi, \& Chipindi, 2020). On the other hand, a theoretical framework is "a structure that guides research by relying on a formal theory...constructed by using an established, coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships" (Eisenhart, 1991, p.205, cited in Grant \& Osanloo, 2014, p.13). However, several researchers (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen \& Razavieh, 2010, p.45) defines a theory as " $\ldots$ a set of interrelated statements, principles, and propositions that specify the relationships among variables". A theory explains the relationship between variables in the quantitative study while serving as a lens for qualitative researches (Creswell, 2014).

In this study, I will employ Liberal Feminist Theory as the theoretical framework propounded by Alison Jaggar. According to Jaggar (1983), the primary goal of liberal feminist theory is gender equality in the public sphere, equal access to education, equal pay and ending job sex segregation. Jaggar (1983) articulates that liberal feminism claims that gender differences are not based in biology, and therefore that women and men are not all that different; their common humanity succeeds their procreative differentiation. Hence, if women and men are not different, then they should not be treated differently under the law. Women should have the same rights as men and the same educational and work opportunities.

The guru of this theory further argued that through socialization, men are taught to dominate women while women are taught to be passive and submissive to men. Because of this, Millet (1970) argues that patriarchy is prevalent and embedded in almost every aspect of culture. Men wield power in every institution; political, educational, financial and other institutions.

In my study of investigating gender gaps in administrative positions: the case of selected educational institutions in Lusaka District, Zambia, I found Liberal Feminist Theory to be the most appropriate. The theory succinctly spells out that the primary goal of liberal feminist theory is gender equality in the public sphere, equal access to education, equal pay and ending job sex segregation. Therefore, Liberal Feminist Theory helped me find out the gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions. Moreover, I have found the notion of men wielding power in every institution: political, educational, financial and other institutions to be significant to this study. This helped me determine the causes of gender gaps and the effects in the operations of administrative positions of selected educational institutions. Furthermore, the liberal feminist theory was used in this research because it focuses on the barriers which prevents men and women from equally participating and benefiting from the development process of any given organization or the country at large. Hence, this theory has the following assumptions which are useful to this research;
i. There is no significant difference between males and females. This means that this research will use this assumption to compare the distribution of administrative positions amongst males and females. The distribution will be compared, because this assumption regards both the male and female to be equal. In the same manner, if society treats both the male and female to be equal, then the distribution will equally reflect, and vice versa.
ii. The second assumption is that both the females and the males should be exposed to the same type of education, training and also awarded the same type of jobs in different positions. This assumption will be used because it will help to compare the educational qualifications and work experiences which both the females and males possess. Hence, this assumption will be useful when analyzing the educational and professional differences which may exist in various workplaces.
iii. This third and last assumption to be employed from this theory is that both the females and the males should be given the same conditions of work. That includes the same provision of salaries and other rewards which are attached to professional
positions. This means that these assumptions will be used to assess the distribution of administrative positions and also the distribution of income with regards to the hierarchy of positions.

### 1.8 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework below in Figure 1.2 gives the understanding of the main assumptions on learners' problem-solving processes in Calculus at the Grade 12 level. To come up with the conceptual framework below, literature was incorporated into the conceptual framework. Literature review explained the theoretical framework broadly in terms of problem-solving processes required in solving mathematical problems in general and Calculus problems in particular. The theoretical framework informed the conceptual framework mainly by enhancing the problem-solving processes of the learners.

A conceptual framework is a narrative outline presentation of variables to be studied and relationships between variables (Chalmers, 2009; Daka, Chipindi \& Mkandawire, 2020). Chalmers (2009) further explains that a conceptual framework contributes to research in that it identifies research variables, presents the research questions that drive the study, and clarifies relationships among the variables. To come up with the conceptual framework below, literature was incorporated into the conceptual framework. Literature review explained the theoretical framework broadly in terms of addressing issues of gender equality in learning institutions where men and women are treated equally. The theoretical framework informed the conceptual framework mainly by enhancing the rate of gender disparities in secondary and tertiary educational institutions, particularly in areas of staffing and management.

The conceptual framework below in Figure 1 shows that gender gaps are dependent on traditional beliefs and practices, as well as on the educational opportunities which one gets. This means that when the traditional beliefs and practices have a negative attitude towards gender equality, then there are more chances of experiencing gender gaps (Kelly, 1994). Furthermore, Mwanakatwe (1968) explains that the extent of educational opportunities which an individual acquires also determines the gender gaps which exists in a given area. For instance, when an individual is given a chance to acquire tertiary education, then there are high chances of them qualifying for the administrative positions which may exist in their institutions. Therefore, it can be argued that when individuals successfully pass through the selection process, they close the gender gaps which may exist.

However, when gender gaps persist, Yizenge (2010) articulates that institutions tend to have limited innovations. That is because the innovation will be biased towards a dominant gender. For instance, when females dominate the staff at the institution, then most of the ideas which will be proposed and implemented will be biased towards females, such that the socioeconomic welfare of men may be overlooked and vice-versa.

Additionally, the World Bank (2010) expands that there will be an unbalanced distribution of resources when there is gender imbalance at an institution. That is because, only the gender which dominates will have enough resources to utilise on their socio-economic needs such as health, education and food for their families, as well as investing in the personal businesses for income generation.

Consequently, Women in Law and Development in Africa (WILDA, 2001) propounds that gender gaps will eventually lead to increased poverty levels amongst the people in society. For instance, when more women are not given a chance to participate in the production of goods and services. Then, there are high chances of those women to indulge themselves in illicit activities such as theft and prostitution. The same situation may apply when more men are not given a chance to participate in the production of goods and services. Illegal activities in a given area may increase. That is because unemployed people have a high chance of indulging themselves in illegal activities when they have failed to find the means of survival through legal activities.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the study


Having provided the theoretical and conceptual framework, I now discuss the significance of this study.

### 1.9 Significance

Firstly, the findings of this study could be useful to both the Ministry of General Education (henceforth, MoGE) and the Ministry of Higher Education (henceforth, MoHE). That is because the findings will help the policy-makers to know the current gender gaps in their ministries and the effects which such gender gaps have on effective and efficient operations of the schools. This means that the policy-makers will be able to use the findings on the causes of gender gaps to eliminate the existence of gender gaps. As a result, there will be gender equality in the education sector.

Secondly, the findings of this research could be useful to the Ministry of Gender, which is because the findings of this research will help the policy-makers under this ministry to examine their impact on society. This means that the policy makers will use the findings of this research to determine if they are making progress or not. For instance, the findings on the current extent
of gender gaps will help the policy makers to have the basis of conducting a comparison analysis.

Thirdly, the findings of this research could be useful to the Ministry of Community Development and Social Security to know the ratios in which the opportunities are distributed amongst the members of society. For this reason, the policy-makers will be able to identify the gender which requires more help, so that they can be assisted in meeting the basic needs of life. Fourthly, the findings of this research could help the managers of the selected institutions to know more about the challenges which are associated with gender imbalance at their institutions. For instance, the managers will benefit from the research objective, which focuses on the effects of gender gaps, which means that; the managers will know more about the causes of inefficiency at their institutions.

Fifth and lastly, the findings of this research could be useful to other scholars in the field of gender. That is because this research could reveal more information on the prevalence levels, causes and effects of gender gaps in Zambia, which means that other scholars could be able to refer to the findings of this research for citing of facts.

### 1.10. Delimitation

According to Bhat (2018), delimitation is the process of creating clear boundaries to show the exact geographical locations which will be eligible for the sampling of the respondents. To this effect, this research will be conducted in Lusaka Province; and Lusaka district. Furthermore, the study included College Principals, Deputy Principals, Registrars, Accountants, Human Resource Managers, Deputy Resource Managers, Secretaries, Head-teachers, Deputy Head teachers and Head of Departments as respondents. Moreover, it will only be restricted to most accessible administrative offices in Lusaka District.

### 1.11. Limitations

Limitations are those conditions which are beyond the control of the researcher and may also place restrictions on the conclusions of the study (Best and Kahn, 2009). For Burns and Grove (2007), limitations of the study are "restrictions in a study that may decrease the credibility and generalizability of the findings" (p. 37). With this view, the study only sampled six (6) educational institutions; three (3) from Government and three (3) Private institutions in Lusaka District and hence, findings may not be generalised to other institutions within and outside the
district. Besides, the generalisation of the results was also restricted by the nature of the design. Furthermore, being a teacher educator, my visitation initially caused anxiety and panic in the respondents, I assured them that the study was part of my academic progression and not for monitoring purposes. In the next section, I now present the definitions of terms used in this study.

### 1.12. Operational Definition of terms

"A definition is a concise statement of the basic properties of an object or concept which unambiguously identify that object or concept" (Hilton, 1986, p. 48). In this study concepts were defined operationally; according to the contexts in which they were used.

Education: In this study, the term education referred to the process of improving knowledge, skills and values of culture from one generation to the other.

Elimination: In the context of this study, the term elimination means the process of getting rid of something not needed.

Equitable: Referred to even-handed, fair, reasonable, impartial, just, unbiased.
Gender gap: In this study, the term gender gap referred to the difference in any aspect of social-economic status of women and men.

Gender disparity: In the context of this study, gender disparity means the unequal treatment given to girls and women as compared to men and boys.

Gender role: Means functional responsibilities which may be assigned by society and are influenced by the cultural, political, religious or economic situation.

Impact: In this study, the term impact means an effect or influence.
Institutions: In this study, institutions means a large organisation such as a bank, hospital, university and high education.

Socialization: In the context of this study, the term socialization means a process through which a person learns what he or she needs to know to function as a member of a specific society.

Training: In this study, the term training referred to the process of equipping people with skills of a particular profession or activity.

### 1.13. Organization of the study

Chapter 1 introduces the study by giving the background. It outlined some essential items such as the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives with their research questions, and the significance of the study, delimitation and limitation, the theoretical and conceptual framework and finally the operational definitions.

Chapter 2 presents a review of literature related to the problem under investigation. Literature is presented under the following sub-headings: the extent of gender gaps in different organisations, the causes of gender gaps, the effect of gender gaps, research gap. The chapter concludes with a summary of the literature review.

Chapter 3 gives the methodology, which includes the research design, approaches, methods, techniques, instruments and procedures for collecting and analysing data.

Chapter 4 presents an analysis of both quantitative and qualitative findings. The chapter ends with a summary just after analysis of findings regarding the extent of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions, causes of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions, and the effect of gender gaps in the operations of selected educational institutions.

Chapter 5 provides the discussion of the findings presented in chapter four in light of the research objectives. The findings are further discussed given the literature reviewed and the theoretical foundations that mirrored the study.

Chapter 6 provides the conclusion and recommendations based on the findings. The conclusion summarises the study while recommendations provide more suggestions to inform policy, learners and teachers and future research.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1. Overview

This chapter focused on the review of relevant literature. This was in an attempt to gain a deeper understanding of the topic and also to identify the gaps in the literature so that this research could be used to fill up those gaps. In that context, the literature review was conducted so that this research could be used to contribute to the existing body of knowledge, through providing the information which is new, unique and accurate. Hence, the research objectives were used to guide the literature review so that the information which is reviewed could be within the context of this research.

### 2.2. The extent of gender gaps in different organizations

According to a report conducted by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2008), sustainable development can only be achieved through long-term investments in economic, human and environmental capital. At present, the female half of the world's human capital is undervalued and underutilised the world over. This meant that the input of the women towards development was not being enhanced. As a result, the type of development which is taking place is not gender-balanced. That is because most of the views which are being considered originate from the males in the organisations and countries at large. For instance, the needs of females cannot be the exact needs of males. Consequently, when the majority of females are left out on decision making, their needs are usually not recognised by the majority of male policy-makers.

Adetunde and Akensina (2008) assert that in recent decades, a large share of economic growth in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) area has come from employing more women. Since 1995, narrowing the gap between male and female employment rates has accounted for half of the increase in Europe's overall employment rate and a quarter of annual economic growth. It is estimated that if female employment were raised to the male rate, growth in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) would be substantial, particularly in countries such as Japan Credit Suisse Research (CSR, 2007). Similarly, Bergmann; (1971) explains that a study in the United Kingdom found that the country could gain $2 \%$ of GDP by better harnessing women's skills Catalyst (2007). Yet, Cuberes and Teignier (2012) examine that the rate of female participation in the labour force is significantly lower than that of men
in all countries. On average in OECD countries, about $60 \%$ of women are employed. However, Daley-Harris (2006) explains that wide variations are stemming from social and economic factors as well as public policies. And Energia (2007) claims that the employment gender gap is most pronounced in countries such as Turkey, Mexico, Italy and Greece, where less than $50 \%$ of women work. Female employment rates are highest at over $70 \%$ in Iceland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. This implies that gender imbalance in employment is higher in the least developed countries but lower in highly developed countries. It, therefore, means that gender imbalance is highly associated with how the resources and opportunities in the country are shared. A country that has a sound governance system and consequently a fair distribution of resources tend to have low gender imbalance, while a country with a weak governance system tends to have unbalanced distributions of resources, the majority of the country's resources are possessed by few citizens of the country, leaving the broader majority in poverty.

According to the Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI, 2003), the labour force participation for women does not mean full-time work in most cases. Women are far more likely to work parttime than men. Women hold nearly three out of four part-time jobs in the OECD area, and more than one in four women work part-time. In the Netherlands, $60 \%$ of employed women work on a part-time basis. The economic contributions of women fall far short of their potential owing partly to their reduced working schedules. And ILO/UNDP (2012) emphasises that even when women work the same hours, they earn less than men due to persistent gender wage gaps. The average difference in pay for men and women in full-time jobs in OECD countries is more than $18 \%$. In Japan and Korea, female earnings are at least one-third less than male earnings. Female pay is over $20 \%$ less in countries such as Germany, Switzerland, Canada and the United States. Thus, Johnsson-Latham (2006) attributes this payment gap to the fact that women have lower-level jobs or work in female-dominated fields such as education and health care, which are generally underpaid. Nevertheless, wage gaps are highest in management positions where the educational background and work experience of women and men are very similar.

Furthermore, according to a study conducted by Tzannatos (2016), the labour markets in the Arab region have some gender characteristics that are similar to those in practically all other world regions. For example, fewer women work than men, many work in different jobs than men, and when they work in broadly similar jobs as men, they tend to be in lower positions and are paid less. Where the Arab region stands out is in the extent of some characteristics. For example, female labour force participation is meagre overall: the female force participation
rate is only $27 \%$ in the Arab countries compared to the global average of $51 \%$. When women are employed, they tend to be predominantly employed in "feminized" industries and occupations in relative isolation from men. This means that women are only allowed to work in industries where men don't like to work. Therefore, one would be right to say that females are allowed to work in the second class type of employment in the country. And when they work the same type of work with the men, their salaries are equally second class. That is because they tend to be lowly paid amongst the workers.

World Bank (2015) analyses that the effective utilization of womanpower in any country stands to reason. This is more so in the three countries examined, namely; Jordan, Lebanon and the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) that are rather extreme representatives of the Arab countries in terms of the female labour force participation rate. The rate is $17 \%$ in OPT and 15\% in Jordan, and 23\% in Lebanon, thus surpassing only Syria (13\% before the crisis) and Iraq and Algeria (each at 14\%), which means that Syria had the lowest utilisation of females in its economy. Thus, out of a total of $100 \%$ human population, only $13 \%$ of the people participated in the economy as females.

On the other hand, Jutting et al, (2008) emphasises that in Jordan educated men migrate in large numbers, Lebanese women are highly educated and in OPT the male labour force participation rate is also shallow. This makes the female human capital in these three countries even more precious: its underutilization implies the economy is smaller than it could be and grows slower than its potential with associated effects on family incomes and women's prosperity.

Therefore, London Business School (LBS, 2007) adds that the challenge facing the three countries is to achieve the highest rate of growth under general conditions without discrimination among its citizens, in this context, against women, which means that these countries have the challenge of realising the need to maximise the participation of the females in the economy, more especially that they are qualified to do the work. Thus, these countries have the shortage of human capital, when in fact they have a lot of human resource which they are failing to utilise due to wrong policies and practices.

### 2.3. The causes of gender gaps

According to McKinsey (2007), one of the leading causes of gender imbalance has been the traditional beliefs that females cannot lead men or that females are less superior to men. As a
result, the females have been side-lined more especially on matters to deal with the administration and other leadership positions. For instance, in African tradition, women are not part of the justice board which resolve conflict in the community. This implies that women cannot solve the problems which society is facing effectively. It is from this background that many leaders in the companies, be it formal or informal perceive women to be inferior to men. That is because; OECD (2007) propounds that tradition plays a very critical role in shaping how human beings think and reason regarding various issues. For instance, if one's tradition has been that male children should not participate in carrying out kitchen house chores such as cooking, sweeping and cleaning, decorating and watering the garden. Then such an individual will find it surprising to see another family from a different tradition engaging the male child in the kitchen house chores. Consequently, a person whose tradition teaches that the responsibility of the females is restricted at home doing house chores, will not engage the females in the professional work, no matter how qualified the female may be. As a result, London Business School (LBS, 2007) adds that females are mainly engaged in positions which resemble the responsibilities of the house chores, such as sweeping the offices, cooking for the workers and welcoming the people on the reception.

On the other hand, the World Bank (2015) explains that for individuals whose tradition does not separate between boys and girls. This means that both girls and boys are given equal responsibilities with regards to house chores. Such people will grow up knowing that women are equal to men. There is nothing a man can do which a woman cannot do, as long as that thing is a gender role in nature. It is from this type of thinking that we have observed women doing the duties which are dominated by men such as driving public vehicles, repairing vehicles, becoming engineers and even working as transport officers, commonly known as Conductors in Zambia.

Hence, Johnsson-Latham (2006) adds that the people who are raised in such a tradition, find it very easy to engage and work with females at any level of the hierarchy. For instance, in some companies, the Chief Executive Officer (C.E.O) who are appointed are females, implying that the company believes that the females have the same capacity to deliver a desirable result, just like men can do. Sometimes women even perform better than men. It is from this perspective that the Zambian President Mr Edgar Chagwa Lungu (ECL) decided to appoint a female as his Vice President of the Republic of Zambia.

Secondly, ETI (2003) articulates that the other major cause of gender imbalance in employment is lack of academic or professional requirements. It is assumed that there are high illiteracy
levels amongst women than men. However, this is the opposite case in countries like Jordan, Lebanon and the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) which have more women who are educated than men. Therefore, OECD (2008) justifies that many women do not meet the minimum requirements so that they could be considered for employment in many workplaces, particularly in administrative positions of the institution. However, the high illiteracy levels originate from the traditional orientations of the people.

CSR (2007) explains that many African traditions have the tendency of only educating male children and just prepare female children for marriage. Consequently, females are disadvantaged from competing favourably with males. This means that the females are disadvantaged right from their respective homes, their families start gender discrimination and it is only exacerbated by professional level. For instance, if one's tradition only requires a female to do house chores, meaning that the females will be overburdened with work while the males will be spending their time on studies or even playing around, relaxing their bodies and brain. This is true even in cases where there is only one female and several males in the family. As a result, the female is deprived the right to concentrate on her education and eventually scores very low marks in her examinations.

Unfortunately, Catalyst (2007) adds that many educational systems don't have affirmative action. When it does, the difference in requirements of the passing mark is usually very minimal compared to the differences the learners had in terms of free time or studying time. For instance, the difference of the passing mark in schools could range from 5-30, but the differences of the free time or studying time which the boys and girls have in real life are equivalent to months or even years in some cases.

Thirdly, Cuberes and Teignier (2012) analyses that the other major factor which contributes to the gender imbalance in different employment sectors is the attitude of self-denial of opportunities, due to the burden of responsibilities. It is assumed that many women are already overburdened with responsibilities from their respective homes. Therefore they deny themselves the chance to compete with men on administrative or challenging job positions which requires more time for coordinating the activities of the institution. For instance, a married woman is expected to prepare for a husband before she can prepare herself for work, and she is also expected to arrive home early so that she can start preparing the meal for her husband and the children.

Hence, Daley-Harris (2006) expands that women's work in the home is also undervalued. In all countries, women perform the bulk of household duties without pay, even while working in the labour force. It is estimated that women would account for more than half of GDP in the OECD area if the value of housework and childcare were included in national accounting. But female "non-financial" activities are not reflected in official statistics, thereby undercutting the contribution of women's unpaid work to the economic growth of countries.

As a result, LBS (2007) affirms that many females feel the pressure of multi-tasking. For this reason, many women prefer to have job positions which are very low such that they are not very much demanding in terms of responsibilities, so that they can balance between work responsibilities and house chores. On the other hand, Johnsson-Latham (2006) claims that many females have natural fear for the higher job position; they are always afraid of failing. As a result, they even fear to compete with men in many job positions.

On the contrary, many modern women have house maids or relatives who assist them in performing house chores. For instance, the house maids perform many duties such as cooking, washing clothes, cleaning dishes and sweeping the house which means that the females also have enough time to take up the higher job positions.

Thus, Energia (2007) expands that dependency syndrome also affects the aspirations of many women. That is because many women do not aspire high in their lives due to the belief that their potential or husbands will take care of their needs. Therefore, they don't realise they need for them to work extra hard. And Adetunde and Akensina (2008) increase that this attitude is also observed amongst the school going girls who pay less attention towards their school work with the view of getting married and surrendering all their needs to the would-be husband. For instance, many Zambian parents justify the low concentration of the girl child towards school work, citing that "you are lucky because you will get married and your husband will be taking care of you."

On the contrary, the boy child is encouraged by the parents and society at large to pay extra attention to school work. For instance, many elderly people will be telling the young boy that "you need to work extra hard towards your school work because no one will take care of you when you grow up." This implies that the boys are encouraged to grow up as responsible people, while the girls are allowed to misbehave because someone else (their husband) will take up their needs.

A catalyst study of women corporate leadership, which was conducted in the United States of America (USA) in 2003, compared the experiences and perceptions of women at the Vice President level. (Catalyst: Women in U.S. Corporate Leadership: 2003). In this study, it was established that many organisations had not yet adopted policies to promote women to leadership jobs. In that study women cited the following barriers:

- Lack of management or line experience.
- Lack of mentoring and role models for women at the highest levels.
- Exclusion from informal networks and channels of communication where important information on organizational politics and decision-making is shared.
- Stereotyping and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities, commitment and leadership style.
- Lack of flexibility in work schedules.
- Lack of career and succession planning.
- Counter-productive behaviour of male co-workers including taking credit for women's contributions.
- Sexual harassment.
- Attributing women's successes to tokenism.

The study also found out that perceptions about women's ability to take on international responsibilities and their willingness to accept them were considered critical obstacles to their being selected for international executive jobs. Survey respondents believed that women were not as "internationally mobile" as men, yet 80 per cent of women expatriates had never turned down relocation compared to 71 per cent of men (Catalyst: Women in U.S. Corporate Leadership, 2003).

It can be argued that the barriers cited above clearly show that implementation of policies to empower women academically and professionally in the United States of America had not yielded the intended results. If policies and sensitization campaigns to enhance women education and leadership training was adequately implemented, then women would not lack the necessary management experience and there would be minimal stereotyping and preconceptions about women's roles and abilities.

Traditionally, they have to seek the consent of their husbands before making the decision or otherwise face the consequence of staying away from their families or even marriage break up, which is socially diminishing. Generally, the study revealed that factors influencing women's
representation in decision-making are diverse and complex. It also portrays how a lack of political will to implement the necessary policies could adversely affect national development. However, the study done by the Catalyst informed the current study on the causes of gender gaps amongst women. Thus, the only noted gap was that the study was limited because it only represented the views of women managers without reflecting the views and opinions of women at the lower level. Besides, the study was conducted in the USA, which has a different social set up from Zambia. The current study, therefore, highlights opinions of both male and female employees not only those holding critical administrative positions but also those at lowerranking levels; this ensured objective and balanced conclusions for decision-making.

Another study, conducted by ILO (2003) found that the growing proportion of women in the labour force had been one of the most striking labour markets trends of recent times, especially in the 1980s and that never before have so many women been economically active. The study further revealed that although the gap between the sexes in terms of labour force participation rates had decreased considerably, in no region of the world was the gender gap anywhere near to being closed and that more women as a proportion of their labour force were seeking work but unable to find it as compared to men in almost all regions of the world, resulting in a high global female unemployment rate.

The above findings are relevant in that they depict the challenges faced by women globally, as they strive to be recruited into the labour market and also acknowledge the shortfalls in the global employment trend. However, the gap still exists even in the above ILO study in that, the study has not clarified the type and level of employment being referred to, whether it is the administrative or lower ranking position. Besides, even though it acknowledged that there had been a notable increase in women representation in the labour force, it lacked proper estimates in terms of clearly quantified percentages of the increase. This is why the current study intended to assess the extent of gender gaps in administrative positions.

According to Mathabe (2002) on Mainstreaming Gender into Universities, women's participation at all levels of higher education needed attention and that their ratio in management and academic ranks was tiny, as compared to that of men. The study observed that most women were not able to reach the postgraduate level of education, and wondered if they dropped out during undergraduate studies or whether they entered university just to get essential undergraduate degrees so that they could enter the job market at the lowest ranks.

The results of the survey done in two South African universities revealed that there was the dependence of male students on female family members for domestic chores, so affording them time to study. This led to the female inability to study because of household responsibilities which were perceived as female chores (Mathabe, 2002). The study observed that women couldn't be fairly represented on university academic ranks and management structures if women were not entering postgraduate programmes at the same rate that they entered undergraduate programmes.

The study is essential, especially that it gave information on the status of women representation in academic ranking or management decision making positions in South Africa's higher learning Institutions, which could be benchmarked with Zambian Institutions of higher learning. It also shows the importance of Institutional Human Resource Development Policies, as it depicts how a lack of academic and professional development to postgraduate studies affected women's progression to management/decision-making positions. The current study will, however, go further to identify the effects of gender gaps and measures which should be put in place to ensure that women are encouraged to not just end at necessary undergraduate degrees but to aspire to higher post graduate degrees and most importantly hold key administrative positions.

### 2.4. The effect of gender gaps

According to McKinsey (2007), the marginalisation of the world's female population has resulted in many countries failing to prosper economically. That is because most of the economic achievements which are obtained by male citizens are not usually spread across the family members. Meaning that due to greediness, many family members remain wallowing in poverty, while their male bread winners have enough income to share with them. Tzannatos (2016) adds that this has been attributed to African tradition, which encourages men to be hardhearted. Tradition; encourages men not to be emotionally moved by many social problems of their families. For instance, when there is a funeral in a family, African tradition, particularly Zambian tradition expects the men not to shade tears at the loss of their beloved family members including the loss of their parents, spouse and children. As a result, many men in Zambia are not concerned by the social sufferings which many women and children pass through. For this reason, many husbands abandon their families when they get paid their monthly salary or pension, in preference to spending their monies on prostitutes.

Consequently, ILO/UNDP (2012) asserts that due to gender imbalance, many families are wallowing in poverty. That is because when there is only one reliable supplier of basic needs in a family, and unfortunately that supplier happens to pass away or become very sick or even abandon their family, then that family suffers from severe poverty. For instance, if the father or husband only financially supports the family, then the family is most likely to face financial problems when the father is disturbed in one way or another. This means that involvement of females in fending for the families is also essential because it helps the families to continue surviving even when the father or husband of the house is negatively affected in one way or another, such that he can no longer provide for the basic needs of this family.

Unfortunately, Cuberes and Teignier (2012) expand that gender imbalance contributes to social problems such as street vending. That is because many wives and children who fail to meet their basic needs after the loss of their bread winner find it very difficult to survive on their own. Thus, the only natural solution to their financial problems is street vending. Sadly, Bergmann, (1971) articulates that adult females are exposed to other greed men such that they are turned into sex workers, and the young girls also fall pregnant at a very tender age due to the hard economic lives which they face. A situation which contributes to poverty because the additional family members who are unplanned add up to the demands of the family, yet the families are struggling to meet their basic needs.

Additionally, OECD (2008) articulates that females of all ages are exposed to sexually transmitted infections (STIs). That is because when the females are sexually abused in exchange for money, their health status is considerably put at risk. After all, they happen to have sexual intercourse with different men whom they don't even know their health status. Thus, the spread of HIV/AIDS is enhanced by gender inequality.

Furthermore, Daley-Harris (2006) explains that young boys are not spared from the effects of gender imbalance. That is because they have to spend most of their day time selling the goods on the streets, this includes even the time they are supposed to report to school. Consequently, CSR (2007) highlights that the number of drop-outs in impoverished families is significantly higher than the number of drop-outs in wealthy families. For instance, the young boys and girls are sent to sell on the streets from sunrise to sunset, or even until night time, meaning that the young boys and girls are not given a chance to go to school because they have to participate in helping their mothers to look for food for the family. As a result, the children drop-out from school, yet it is education which needs to help them overcome the socioeconomic problems of society. Meaning that they become trapped in the vicious cycle, the girl children end up
becoming prostitutes, and the boys end up becoming hard-core criminals of society stealing the goods of innocent people so that they can survive too. Eventually, they get caught and imprisoned for life or they are shot dead in the process. This means that the countries lose the much needed human resource which needs to contribute to the economic growth and economic development of their respective nations.

Hence, the World Bank (2015) claims that this situation, can be avoided if the females are given the same level of empowerment in many organisations. That is because females would be able to continue providing the basic needs of the family without resorting to street vending or other illicit activities which disturb the peace of most family members.

Therefore, CSR (2007) states that gender imbalance has resulted in stress to those few females who have been employed in the companies. That is because the few females have to withstand arguments against the majority of men at their workplace. As a result, the few women who are employed tend to be stressed or burdened with issues which they have to overcome from their workplaces. For instance, when few females have been employed at the workplace, yet one of the supervisors has been appointed from the females, there is a common tendency for men to deliberately cause problems to the leadership of their female supervisor so that they can prove that she is not worthy enough to be their superior. A good example is in the construction industry where the men constructing a concrete can deliberately make a weak concrete so that their immediate supervisor could be cited for incompetence. However, if this type of situation persists, the work can be very stressful to the women who are involved such that many women may decide to surrender their positions before their superiors. This situation perpetuates further gender inequality.

Furthermore, Daley-Harris (2006) explains that when there is gender imbalance at the workplace, the gender which is lowly employed tend to have low job satisfaction. That is because they lack their friends to socially talk to, a situation which causes many employees to perceive their work as boring. For instance, if a company has employed a female and she has been put in a department where the rest of the workmates are males, then the only female there, would most likely, find it challenging to adapt to working with men. That is because she needs to chat with fellow women about some things which may be personally affecting her wellbeing. For instance, a female cannot openly discuss her menstrual problem with a male workmate, but she can openly discuss it with a fellow female and consequently find a solution. The same thing applies when it comes to sanitary conditions in the ablution-blocks because women are more
sensitive to the cleanliness of their environment. Still, they cannot openly suggest their views if men only surround them.

Thus, OECD (2008) enlarges that gender imbalances cause some companies to have a bad reputation in society. That is because society may begin to have a lousy label towards a company which only employs one type of gender. For instance, if a company employs only females, then the males will hate the company because they cannot benefit from its existence. Likewise, if the company only employs males, then the females will surely hate the company because they are excluded from the company. Consequently, Bergmann; (1971) adds that such companies tend to lack societal support. For instance, if a boutique which only employs females is being vandalised, there are slim chances for men to protect the boutique because it doesn't add significant value to their lives.

Cuberes and Teignier (2012) suggest that companies with gender imbalance are lack of innovations, from their employees. That is because having a majority of gender at a company is like promoting the same kind of thinking at the company. For instance, if the majority of the employees at a company are men, then the majority of the ideas will be originating from men. Consequently, the ideas from females will be overshadowed a situation which results in the limited kind of thinking or solving problems. Besides, Tzannatos (2016) argues that this is worsened by the principles of democracy where only the ideas of the majority are being considered. For instance, if the majority of the men don't recognise the need to give a bed rest to females who are experiencing menstrual pains and other problems, then such initiatives cannot come into existence.

### 2.5. Research Gap

From the literature reviewed, there is no research which focused on the gender imbalance in the administrative positions, particularly on the education sector. Furthermore, all the information which has been reviewed relates to the foreign countries, there is no clear information on the gender gaps in Zambian contexts, particularly on the current situation. Thus, this research seeks to contribute to this knowledge gap which exists in the literature.

### 2.6. Summary

From the literature reviewed, it has been shown that the problem of gender imbalance is a global problem. It affects both the least developed countries and the developed countries.

However, the developed countries seem to have fewer cases of gender imbalance compared to developing countries which have the highest levels of gender imbalance. Furthermore, the literature has shown that gender imbalance harms the wellbeing of the families in the community. That is because gender imbalance promotes poverty and the children are exposed to adverse environments such as selling in the streets such that they end up dropping from school, making the poverty situation even worse. Consequently, illicit activities such as prostitution, theft and spreading of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) seem to be enhanced with gender imbalance. For this reason, the literature has emphasised that there is need for the government and other relevant authorities to formulate and implement policies which are gender-sensitive so that the gender gap could be gradually reduced.

## CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology of the study. Research methodology, according to Kothari (2004), is a way to solve the research problem systematically. In this chapter, the research design, target population and sample size, sampling technique and procedure, data collecting tools, data analysis technique and ethical consideration for the study are discussed.

### 3.2 Research Design

Research design is a formal plan of action for a research project. A mixed-method design comprising both quantitative and qualitative research designs was used for this study. According to Creswell (2009), "the problems addressed by social and health science researchers are complex, and use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches by themselves is inadequate to address this complexity" (p.203). He further argues that there is more insight to be gained from the combination of both quantitative and qualitative research than by either form itself. In support of Creswell's views, other researchers (e.g. Cohen, Marion, \& Morrison, 2000; Greene, Caracelli \& Graham, 1989; Strauss \& Corbin, 1990; \& Chipindi, 2017) argue that use of both forms of data and data analysis allows researchers to simultaneously make generalizations about a population from the results of a sample and to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomena of interest. These presentations and synthesis justify the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study. Also, a quantitative approach was used to assess the extent of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions. This provided an in-depth understanding of the current research problem at hand. At the same time, the qualitative approach was used to develop deeper insights and an in-depth understanding on the causes of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions and the effect of gender gaps in the operations of selected educational institutions.

### 3.3. Location of the study

The study site was undertaken in Lusaka district (Figure 2) of Lusaka province, Zambia. According to Msabila and Nalaila (2013), many motivating factors could influence the researcher's choice of the study site, such as; the nature and incidence of the problem, research
time frame, and data accessibility, clients' interest and instructions, resource availability, performance in a particular field, goals and objectives of the study. Therefore, I selected Lusaka district as the choice of the site for my study because it has appeared that a study on the prevalence of gender gaps in Zambia in particular on educational institutions has not been conducted at the time of this present study; as such the knowledge gap for Lusaka district appears to have existed.


Figure 2: Map of Zambia showing the location of Lusaka district in Lusaka Province

### 3.4. Target population

The target population were administrators such as College Principals, Deputy College Principals, Registrar, Deputy Registrar, Human Resource Manager, Deputy Human Resource Manager, Head-teachers, Deputy Head-teachers, Head of Departments, Accountants and Secretary from each selected educational institution which is found within Lusaka District of Zambia. In addition, the non-administrative employees were equally targeted in this research. That was because the non-administrative employees needed to give out information on how the operations of an organization are affected when there are gender gaps in administrative positions. That is because the ordinary employees are affected by the policies, plans, strategies and other various frameworks which the administrative officers may formulate. Therefore, these respondents were necessary for answering the research questions for this study.

Furthermore, this study sampled both the public and private-owned educational institutions. This was to conduct a comparative analysis; so that this research could establish the extent to which these sectors adhere to equality and equity.

### 3.5. Study sample

In this study, the sample comprised seventy-eight (78) respondents. This comprised forty-eight (48) administrative officers from six educational institutions which were eight (8) administrative officers from each institution. While thirty (30) respondents were sampled from non-administrative officers, five (5) non-administrative officers were sampled from individual educational institutions. The distribution of respondents was set in that manner, so that the representativeness of the views, knowledge and experiences of the respondents could be well captured. This was a reasonable sample size for both quantitative and qualitative study because it provided the data needed as it fulfilled the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility (Merriam, 1998). That is because it encompassed all the respondents who were directly related to this study. A small sample for questionnaires and interviews ensured a high level of reliability and helped to concentrate resources on obtaining reliable information (Serenje-Chipindi \& Chipindi, 2016; and Hannagan, 1997).

### 3.6. Sampling techniques

According to Creswell (2014), a sampling procedure is a plan that explains how the participants for the study will be selected from the population. The study employed a mixture of probability and non-probability sampling techniques.

### 3.6.1 Non-probability sampling techniques

The study made use of non-probability sampling technique, specifically the purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling was employed to select administrative officers in educational institutions. In this sampling technique, Patton (2002) argues that the researcher targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the study and people with reliable information or data.

### 3.6.2 Probability sampling technique

The study also made use of probability sampling technique, precisely simple random sampling technique. Simple random sampling technique was employed to select thirty (30) non-
administrative officers from the educational institutions. Thus, for this sampling technique to be successful, the researcher collected a list of names for all non-administrative officers at each selected educational institution and then conducted a raffle draw for the names to be engaged in this research. Meaning that one (1) name was picked after shuffling the names; until five (5) names were sampled from each institution. Leany (2004) explains that all the researcher needs when using simple random sampling is a small, clearly defined population to use. Thus, this provided each respondent with an equal chance of inclusion in the study sample. Having provided the sampling procedure for this study, I now discuss data collection methods in the next section.

### 3.7. Data collection methods

This study is both quantitative and qualitative. For this study, two research methods were used to collect the required information from the respondents and these included: questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Therefore, the following sub-section provides more details about the data collection methods and procedures regarding the same.

### 3.7.1. Questionnaires

In this study, questionnaires were used with the College Principals, Deputy Principals, Registrar, Deputy Registrar, Human Resource Manager, Deputy Human Resource Manager, Head-teachers, and Deputy Head-teachers (See appendix 2 for detail). However, questionnaires were used to assess the extent of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions. A questionnaire is a tool that provides higher levels of objective information about actual behaviour (McMillan \& Schumacher, 1993). Moreover, questionnaires are useful because some behaviour involves habitual routines of which people are hardly aware" (Merriam, 1998).

### 3.7.2. Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used with the Heads of Departments, Accountants and Secretary (See appendix 3). The rationale of the interviews with the Heads of Department, Accountants and Secretary was to have an in-depth understanding, opinions, and views on the causes of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions and the effects of gender gaps in the operations of selected educational institutions. McCracken (1988)
and Merriam (1998) argue that data collected by this method is relatively reliable and allows respondents to respond to an issue freely, and allows the researcher to gather in-depth information. Besides, direct personal interviews were used to enable the researcher to control the sample and minimize missing returns from participants (Kothari, 2004; McMillan \& Schumacher, 1993). To enhance the trustworthiness of these qualitative results, the interviews were audio-recorded. This helped in capturing data in its totality. In the next section, I discuss the data collection procedure and time line.

### 3.8. Data collection procedure

As indicated by Merriam (1998), data collection procedure describes and justifies all data collection methods, tools, instruments, and procedures, including how, when, where and by whom data will be collected with proof of facts. In line with such guidance, the researcher first obtained an introductory letter from the school. Also, permission to gather information from the respondents was sought. Since the researcher only used the questionnaire and semistructured interview schedule as a method of collecting data, the data collection procedure was as follows: the questionnaires were left with the College Principals, Deputy Principals, Registrar, Deputy Registrar, Human Resource Manager, Deputy Human Resource Manager, Head-teachers and Deputy Head-teachers to be filled in. The filled in questionnaires were collected after a period of four to five days to give the respondents enough time to respond to questions contained therein and not to lose them if it took too long. After that, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the Heads of Department, Accountants and Secretary.

### 3.9. Method of Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of summarizing the collected primary data, so that more meaningful information could be obtained from the research using the appropriate tools (Patton, 1990). Since this study is a mixed approach that is, quantitative and qualitative data, each type of data was analysed using separate instruments. The data that was collected using questionnaires were analysed using Microsoft Excel and SPSS version 20 to produce outputs such as frequency tables, distribution tables, pie charts and bar charts. Qualitative data that was collected mainly from interviews (Ary et al., 2010) was analysed thematically. This enabled identification of key ideas within the data collected and for its usefulness in analysing openended data from the interview transcripts (Corden, 2001). During analysis, data recorded from interviews were transcribed, edited, coded, categorized and tabulated (Merriam, 1998).

### 3.10. Validity and Reliability

This is the process of examining the consistency of the collected data, by comparing the gathered information using various methods. Gay, Mills and Airasian (2009) suggest that it is essential for the collected data to be verified for the information to be accurate and consistent. Therefore, the research used triangulation method when validating the collected data. Patton (2002) contends that it is a triangulation method that can be employed either between methods from two schools of thought (mixed method: qualitative and quantitative) or within methods from the same school of thought (purely qualitative or quantitative). For this reason, this research employed methodological triangulation because it is suitable for validating the information that was gathered through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

### 3.11. Ethical Considerations

According to Cohen et al (2007, p. 51) "Ethics concern right and wrong, good and bad..." this is the question of norms and values. Research ethics seeks to protect human participants, serving the interest of participants and examine specific activities for the ethical soundness and informed consent (Patton, 2002). Before the commencement of the study, I obtained clearance from the Ethics Committee of the school. Informed consent was sought from all participants. All the participants were made aware of the nature and purpose of the study and were informed that their participation would not affect their status in the institution and school in any way. The participants' right to privacy and confidentiality will be respected. To guarantee the anonymity of participants, pseudo names were used instead of actual ones. The study findings were also shared with the participants. The researcher also adhered to various fundamental ethical principles namely; honesty, objectivity, integrity, carefulness, openness, confidentiality, responsible publication, respect for colleagues, social responsibility, nondiscrimination, competence and legality to strive to promote social good and prevent social harm while conducting this research.

### 3.12 Summary

This chapter looked at the methodology that was used in the study. It covers the design, the study area, target population, study sample and sampling, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

### 4.1 Overview

This chapter presents the findings and analysis of empirical data. The findings were analysed in response to research objectives and research questions. The chapter is organized into two main sections. The first section provides the demographic information of the respondents while section two gives the analysis for each of the following three study research questions:
iv. To what extent are gender gaps in administrative positions in selected educational institutions?
v. What are the causes of gender gaps in administrative positions in selected educational institutions?
vi. How do gender gaps in administrative positions affect the operations of selected educational institutions

The data of these findings were gathered by using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews; questionnaires were distributed to the following respondents; College Principals, Deputy Principals, Human Resource Manager, Deputy Human Resource Manager, Registrars, Deputy Registrars, Head-teachers and Deputy Head-teachers while the interviews were conducted to Heads of Departments, Accountants ( Bursars) and Secretary, as well as to ordinary employees. However, only the gender of the administrative officers was considered in this research. That is because it was one of the objectives of this research; while considering the gender of non-administrative officers would have led to confusion or misinterpretation of the results. These respondents were sampled from six (6) colleges, from which three (3) were government-owned and another three (3) privately owned.

### 4.2 Demographic information of the respondents

The study sought to establish the information on the respondents used in the study with regards to the gender, marital status, age, level of education, type of employment and occupation. These bio data points were necessary to inform this research about the characteristics of the respondents. That was because the appointment or election to any administrative position is dependent on the characteristics of an individual. Thus, the result was as follow;

### 4.2.1 Gender of the respondents

The study sought to investigate the gender characteristic of respondents in Lusaka district. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Gender distribution of respondents

|  |  | Frequency | Percent | Valid <br> Percent | Cumulative <br> Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Valid | Male | 31 | 65 | 65 | 65 |
|  | Female | 17 | 35 | 35 | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |
|  | Total | $\mathbf{4 8}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |  |

The study findings in Table 1 above show that a majority of the respondent ( $65 \%$ ) were male. That was because, out of the total of 48 respondents, 31 of them were males. This represented $65 \%$ of the total sample. While only 17 respondents were found to be females, thus it represented $35 \%$ of the sample. Therefore, the findings revealed that there was a difference of $30 \%$ in terms of representation.

Furthermore, the findings of this study also indicated that out of 31 male respondents, 20 of them where sampled from government-owned colleges. Thus, it represented $65 \%$ of males. At the same time, only 11 males were found to be administrators from private institutions. Hence, it represented $35 \%$ of the total males. As a result, this research found a difference amongst male administrators in government and private-owned colleges to be nine administrators, which represents $29 \%$ of male respondents.

### 4.2.2 Marital status of respondents

The respondents were requested to reveal their marital status, so that it could inform this research on the extent to which married respondents were considered to administrative positions. The findings on these were summarized in Figure 3, as shown below;

## Figure 3: Marital status of respondents



The study findings in Figure 3 above show that $70 \%$ of the respondents were married, $11 \%$ were divorced, $14 \%$ were single, and $5 \%$ were others. These findings indicate that the majority (70\%) of respondents were married. Therefore, the difference between married administrators and unmarried administrators was found to be $30 \%$ of the total respondents.

### 4.2.3 Age group of respondents

This study considered to examine the age group of the respondents, so that it could inform this research if the administrators who are engaged to work in many colleges are young or old. Thus, these findings were summarised as shown in table 2 below;

Table 2: Age group of respondents

|  | Frequency | Percent | Valid <br> Percent | Cumulative <br> Percent |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Valid | 21 to 30 | 7 | 15 | 15 | 15 |
|  | 31 to 40 | 6 | 12 | 12 | 27 |
| 41 to 50 | 11 | 23 | 23 | 50 |  |
| 51 to 60 | 15 | 31 | 31 | 81 |  |
| $61+$ | 9 | 19 | 19 | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ |  |
| Total | $\mathbf{4 8}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ |  |  |

The findings in Table 2 above reveal that the lowest age group of the administrators was between the ages 31 to 40 years, these were found to be six (6) out of the total of 48 respondents, and thus it represented $12 \%$. At the same time, this research found that the highest age group which was engaged in the administrative positions was ranging between 51 to 60 years. This clearly indicated that the educational institutions had a preference for engaging older administrators than younger administrators.

### 4.2.4 Level of education of respondents

The level of education of the respondents was considered; so that it could inform this research if it affected the distribution of positions at the administrative level. Hence, the results were summarised in Table 3, as shown below.

Table 3: Level of education of respondents

|  |  | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Male |  | Female |  |
| Valid | Diploma | 1 | 3 | 2 | 12 |
|  | Bachelor | 11 | 35 | 10 | 59 |
|  | Degree |  |  |  |  |
|  | Master | 16 | 52 | 4 | 23 |
|  | Degree |  |  |  |  |
|  | PHD | 3 | 10 | 1 | 6 |
|  | Total | 31 | 100.0 | 17 | 100.0 |

The study findings in Table 3 show that out of a total of 31 males, the lowest level of education obtained was on Diploma level, and these represented 3\% of the total males. While the highest level of education obtained was on Master Degree level, and these represented $52 \%$ of the total males. On the side of females, this research found that the lowest level of education obtained was on a doctorate of philosophy ( PhD ), and these represented $6 \%$ of the total females. While the highest level of education obtained was on Bachelor Degree level, and these represented $59 \%$ of the total females.

Furthermore, the findings in Table 3 above reveals that there were more females ( $12 \%$ ) who were holding the lowest (Diploma) level of education than males (3\%). This indicated that the majority of the females were poorly educated. Also, the findings in Table 3 above indicated that there were more males ( $10 \%$ ) who obtained the highest $(\mathrm{PhD})$ level of education than females (6\%). This indicated that males were more likely to advance in their educational studies than females.

Also, the results from the interviews indicated that many females did not pursue higher academic qualifications, the following verbatim evidenced this;

Many females do not manage to pursue their higher academic studies because of the numerous challenges which they are faced with. Firstly, they lack the financial sponsorship in many cases. They cannot manage to find their own money and sponsor themselves. On the other hand, those who are married are either stopped by their jealous husbands from studying further, and some they are not allowed to spend their money on their education. Rather, they divert their money towards the buying of household goods such as kitchen utensils and food stuff.

Furthermore, another respondent revealed that;
Traditional values discouraged the females from pursuing their further studies. That is because it is believed that if a lady is too educated, then she will find it very difficult to get married, given that many men are not very educated. And those who are married also believed that it is disrespectful for a lady to be very educated, such that they attain the same academic qualifications with their husbands or even attaining higher academic qualifications than their husbands.

### 4.3 Extent of gender gaps in administrative positions

The research considered to examine the distribution of administrative positions amongst the males and females, so that this research could be informed if the distribution was normal or skewed towards a particular gender. To that effect, this research considered to investigate the following aspects, for the deeper understanding to be achieved.

### 4.3.1 Distribution of Administrative positions

The findings in Figure 4 below shows how the positions were distributed amongst males and females at four (4) educational institutions. Thus, the findings were summarised as shown below;

Figure 4: Distribution of Administrative positions amongst males and females


The findings in Figure 4 above shows that the government-owned educational institutions engaged more males in administrative positions than females. That was because, out of the total of 24 administrative positions ( 8 administrative positions from each institution) males in public institutions occupied 17 of them, this represented $71 \%$ of the total administrative positions in public institutions. Hence, only seven administrative positions were occupied by female administrators and this represented $29 \%$ of the administrative positions in public institutions were occupied by female administrators. Besides, private institutions also had more males who were engaged in administrative positions than females. That is because, out of 24 administrative positions, 14 of them were occupied with males, and this represented $58 \%$. Thus, ten administrative positions were engaged by female administrators and this represented $42 \%$. Therefore, this research revealed that both public and private institutions tended, all owing gender gaps in their administrative positions. That is because both of them have more male administrators than female administrators.

Furthermore, these results were consistent with the findings which emanated from the interviews as indicated by the following verbatim:

There are more males in administrative positions because many males are creative and hardworking, these attributes make it suitable for male administrators at the company. This is because they can use their creativity to come up with great ideas that are necessary for the growth of an institution.

Furthermore, another respondent revealed that:
It is inappropriate for the females to be put in an administrative position, which is because their male subordinates could be feeling intimidated whenever they are given the tasks by their female superiors.

However, these findings were presented according to the characteristic findings on the educational institutions, so that a clear picture of how the distribution is, amongst different learning institutions. Thus, the first three (3) institutions were sampled from government-owned institutions. Thus they were coded as A, B and C. While the last three (3) institutions were sampled from private-owned institutions, and they were labelled as $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$ and Z . The findings were presented in Table 3 shown below;

Table 4: Distribution of Administrative positions in individual educational institutions

| Administrative | Distri | n of ad | istrativ | siti | institut |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| positions | Institu |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  | B |  | C |  | X |  | Y |  | Z |  |
|  | Gende |  | Gende |  | Gende |  | Gende |  | Gende |  | Gende |  |
|  | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| College Principal | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Deputy Principal | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Registrar | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Deputy Registrar |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Accountant | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Human Resource Manager | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Deputy Human  <br> Resource  <br> Manager  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |


| Secretary |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Total | $\mathbf{0 6}$ | $\mathbf{0 2}$ | $\mathbf{0 7}$ | $\mathbf{0 1}$ | $\mathbf{0 7}$ | $\mathbf{0 1}$ | $\mathbf{0 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 3}$ | $\mathbf{0 6}$ | $\mathbf{0 2}$ | $\mathbf{0 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 3}$ |

### 4.4 Causes of gender gaps in an administrative position

This research considered to examine the root causes of gender gaps in administrative positions, this was important because the policy makers in the Ministry of Gender depends on such results for them to come up with well informed and comprehensive policies which will produce the desired results that will stand a test of time. Thus, the interviews revealed the following factors, presented in Table 5 below, as the contributors to the gender gap in administrative positions.

Table 5: Causes of Gender gap in Administrative positions

| Factor | Frequency | Percentage <br> $(\%)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Lack of clear policy on recruitment and promotion of <br> administrative officers | 48 | 100 |
| Lack of affirmative action during recruitment and promotion <br> process | 48 | 100 |
| Stereotyping of administrative positions | 38 | 79 |
| Lack of gender sensitisation | 19 | 40 |
| Lack of confidence | 31 | 65 |
| Limited role models | 26 | 54 |
| Low level of education and administrative experience <br> amongst females | 30 | 63 |
| Being overwhelmed with household responsibilities | 10 | 21 |

The findings of this research as indicated in Table 5 above revealed that there are two (2) significant causes of gender imbalance amongst the distribution of administrative positions. All the administrative officers revealed that it was not very clear on the process through which the institutions recruited and promoted the officers. This was further backed by the following verbatim which came from one respondent as indicated below;

The reason why I am acknowledging that the criteria are not very clear is that, during the recruitment or promotion process, some two (2) more people.

Both male and female may possess the same qualifications such that if the recruitment or promotion process is objective enough, it could be very challenging to pick up one individual from the individuals who seem to be the same. Unfortunately, in many cases the male candidate is the one who is mostly preferred. Surprising enough is that even the female staff who are usually present in the recruitment or promotion board also prefer to engage the male candidate unlike the female candidate. Thus, in light of the above scenario. The recruitment and promotion process is usually very subjective, such that one would wonder why one individual may be recognised over another.

In my own opinion, during the recruitment process, when it happens that some people have relatively the same qualifications. I suggest that the institutions should be assessing those candidates further. Through giving them aptitude tests or even engaging them in temporal practical work so that the best candidate could be recruited. This is important because the majority of the gender which is being employed will most likely be the majority of the top management of an institution.

Furthermore, the findings in Table 5 above also revealed that the lowest contributor to gender gaps in institutions was the claim that most females are overwhelmed with social responsibilities such as taking care of children and other family members. For that reason, another respondent revealed the following view, which is presented in the verbatim presented below:

Females cannot manage to handle most administrative positions, mainly because these positions require adequate time and a free mind for planning. Unfortunately, because many females are busy with household chores, they reach their respective workplaces already tired. As a result, the work output is negatively affected. To that effect, many females tend to work less and they also have a higher frequency of sick leaves. Besides, the females may not always be at the workplace, which is because when they become pregnant, they are entitled to maternity leave which lasts for several months. It is for these reasons that many institutions wouldn't want to recruit females in administrative positions.

Besides, this research indicated the distributions of the views amongst the six (6) institutions which were sampled so that clarity could be achieved. Thus, all 48 respondents were asked to identify the causes which contributed to gender gaps in different institutions. Thus, the factors which were revealed from each institution were calculated out of the total of 8 respondents (administrative officers). Hence, Table 6 below shows the distribution of the views.

Table 6: Distribution of causes of gender gaps amongst Administrators

| Factor | Distribution amongst institutions |  |  |  |  |  | Total <br> Frequency | Percentage(\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | A | B | C | X | Y | Z |  |  |
| Lack of clear policy on recruitment and promotion of administrative officers | 08 | 08 | 08 | 08 | 08 | 08 | 48 | 100 |
| Lack of affirmative action during recruitment and promotion process | 08 | 08 | 08 | 08 | 08 | 08 | 48 | 100 |
| Stereotyping of administrative positions | 05 | 07 | 04 | 08 | 06 | 08 | 38 | 79 |
| Lack of gender sensitisation | 05 | 04 | 01 | 00 | 05 | 04 | 19 | 40 |
| Lack of confidence | 07 | 03 | 04 | 06 | 06 | 05 | 31 | 65 |
| Limited role models | 04 | 07 | 07 | 05 | 01 | 02 | 26 | 54 |
| Low level of education and administrative experience amongst females | 00 | 06 | 07 | 08 | 05 | 04 | 30 | 63 |
| Being overwhelmed with household responsibilities | 03 | 02 | 00 | 04 | 01 | 00 | 10 | 21 |

The results from Table 6 indicate that most respondents did not agree that females were not appointed into administrative positions because of being overwhelmed with social responsibilities. The verbatim supported this from the interviews which were conducted as indicated below;

It is not logical that females are usually stressed with household chores before they could resume their professional work. That is because the new trend now indicates that most of the females who are working have either employed the house maids or they live with their relatives who can help them to handle household duties in their absence. This means that females are as free as male employees.

### 4.5 Effects of Administrative Gender Gaps on ordinary employees

This research considered to investigate the possible effects which gender gaps may have on the working conditions of the institutions. That is because the researcher wanted to establish if gaps in administrative position had any effect or not. If they do, then it was necessary to understand how gender gaps negatively affected the working conditions of the institutions. Thus, the findings from all the six (6) institutions were summarised in Table 7 as illustrated below;

Table 7: Effects of Gender Gaps in Administrative position

| Affected Areas | Frequency | Percentage <br> $(\%)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Enhanced male dominance and gender based crimes | 21 | 70 |
| Inadequate creativity | 16 | 53 |
| Formation of gender imbalanced policies | 28 | 93 |
| Female employees lack role model | 14 | 47 |
| Female employees lack confidants | 08 | 27 |
| Widened income gaps | 05 | 83 |
| Enhanced vulnerability amongst women | 17 |  |

The findings in Table 7 above indicates that gender gaps in administrative positions mostly affects the formation of policies. Most of the policies which are formulated are not genderbalanced, which is because they lack female representation. Thus, out of the total of 30 respondents, 28 of them ( $93 \%$ ) indicated that gender gaps lead to the formulation of genderbiased policies. This was further supported by the verbatim which was extracted from the interviews as shown in words;

When the majority of the Administrators are males, then they are most likely to neglect the concerns of the female employees such that the employees feel unsatisfied to work in such environments. As a result, their work output is negatively affected.

Furthermore, out of the total of 30 respondents, 08 of them ( $27 \%$ ) indicated that the employees whose gender is not well represented in the administrative positions lack the confidants in their workplaces. Thus, they don't have the people in authority whom they can share their socioeconomic and psychological problems with. These findings were in line with the views of the respondents above.

While the results in Table 7 above also indicated that the lowest effect which gender gaps had on the operations of the institutions was enhanced vulnerability amongst the females. That is because when most of the females are not in administrative positions, they are more likely to get little income. As a result, their level of income is usually lower. This was further supported by the verbatim which represented the views of one respondent, as shown below:

Most of the females who are employed in different institutions, whether private or government-owned institutions are usually offered low hierarchical positions which have low income attached to them. As a result, many females are not economically stable. Thus, they depend on males, when they are trying to solve most of their economic problems, thereby enhancing male dominance.

The distribution of the views amongst ordinary employees was further represented according to individual institutions. This was done so with the view of understanding the effects of gender gaps across government and privately owned institutions. Hence, Table 8 shown below displays individual contributions to the effects of the gender gap:

Table 8: Individual contributions on the effects of gender gaps in institutions

| Effects on ordinary employees | Institutions |  |  |  |  |  | Total <br> Frequency | Percentage(\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | A | B | C | X | Y | Z |  |  |
| Enhanced male dominance and gender based crimes | 03 | 01 | 05 | 03 | 04 | 05 | 21 | 70 |
| Inadequate creativity | 02 | 05 | 01 | 04 | 03 | 01 | 16 | 53 |
| Formation of gender imbalanced policies | 05 | 04 | 04 | 05 | 05 | 05 | 28 | 93 |
| Female employees lack role model | 03 | 00 | 05 | 02 | 01 | 03 | 14 | 47 |
| Female employees lack confidants | 00 | 04 | 01 | 01 | 02 | 00 | 08 | 27 |
| Widened income gaps | 04 | 05 | 01 | 05 | 05 | 05 | 25 | 83 |
| Enhanced vulnerability amongst women | 01 | 00 | 00 | 02 | 01 | 01 | 05 | 17 |

The findings in Table 8 above show that the minority (05) of the employees in the institutions acknowledged that gender gaps were enhancing the vulnerability of the women. This was further supported by the verbatim which was extracted from the interviews as shown below;
"Despite the females being employed in low positions most of the time, they cannot be vulnerable because they can invest their monthly income in business ventures and become economically stable. That is because; most of the people who are abundant worldwide, do not belong to the class of workers, but rather the class of business persons. Hence, it is equally believed that most women can still use their low income, as a capital in their respective businesses such that they can become economically stable.

### 4.5 Summary

The findings revealed that the majority of the employees who have been engaged in Administrative positions are male. That is because, out of the total of 48 administrative positions sampled, from six (6) institutions, both private and government-owned, 31 of them were males, and this represented $65 \%$ of the total Administrators. While only 11 Administrative officers were females, and this represented 35\% of the total Administrators.

This research also revealed that the majority of the institutions, more especially governmentowned institutions had the male administrators employed in the senior-most positions of the institution, while the females were mainly employed at deputy level and in many cases, the females where employed in low hierarchical positions such as secretarial level.

Thus, this research has established that low levels of education and experience significantly affected the engagement of females in administrative positions. That is because most of the females couldn't qualify for higher positions which equally require higher academic qualifications.

Hence, this research also indicated that gender gaps negatively affected the operations of the institutions, which is because most of the policies which are formulated are not genderbalanced. Furthermore, the females lacked role models and confidants whom they could share their problems with.

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

### 5.1 Overview

This chapter seeks to interpret and explain the meaning of the findings for this research. Therefore, it relates its research finding to other findings and views, which were conducted elsewhere. This is because, in discussing these findings, it would be essential to relate the findings with other scholars so that it would be possible to identify the areas where the results are the same and also the areas where the result are in sharp contrast, or even the areas where this research will fill up the information gaps which exists in the literature. In that regard, the discussion of this research was guided by its objectives. That was to ensure that it maintains the scope of the study. Hence, specific research questions of this research were answered as follows;

### 5.2 Extent of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions

This research question attempted to establish the magnitude of gender gaps in administrative positions of educational institutions. Hence, from the research findings presented in Table 1 above, it was revealed that males were occupying the majority of offices in administrative positions. That was because the male administrators represented $65 \%$, while the female administrators represented $35 \%$. Therefore, this research revealed that there was a gender gap of $29 \%$ in administrative positions. It merely meant that the male officers were more than the female officers by $29 \%$. Hence, the gender gap which exists in administrative positions of educational institutions indicated that there was so much bias towards the male officers. That was because the female officers were almost half the presentation of male officers. This situation indicated that gender equality which is being fostered by the Ministry of Gender and other relevant authorities is far from being attained. In sharp contrast, the findings of this research did not match with the views of Jutting et al (2008) which emphasises that in Jordan country, educated men migrate in large numbers, Lebanese women are highly educated and in Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) the male labour force participation rate is also extremely low. That made the female human capital in those three countries even more precious. However, this research has indicated that the services of most females are not highly preferred as compared to those of males. This implies that Zambian institutions prefer the services of males more than that of females.

These findings were in agreement with the views of FAWEZA (1996), it observed that the girlchild is discriminated against in many aspects of humanity, from the earliest stages of life, through childhood into adulthood. In terms of education, Kelly (1999) highlights that discrimination includes; unequal access, poor performance, early drop out and low enrolment in higher education which means that these factors discourage the females from actively participating in the learning process of formal education. In this context, low attainment of education prevents the females from being actively engaged in an administrative position. That is because they tend to possess academic qualifications, which are below the minimum requirements.

Going by the findings represented in Table 1 above, this research agreed with the claim which is being made by radical feminist theory. The theory claims that there is patriarchy in society, it implies that males oppress females through dominating in influential positions of society. In this context, the males equally dominated in the administrative positions of the educational institutions; it is the duty of all administrators at any given institution to make the policies and other regulatory plans. Hence, when the majority of the administrative officers are males, just like in this context, the views of the females cannot be heard.

Nonetheless, some people may claim that few females who are in administrative positions can still present the views of females and also defend the rights of their fellow females. But the fact remains that most of the educational institutions use democratic processes when making the decision, meaning that the people need to vote for every aspect before it can be adopted and implemented as a policy. In light of this, the smaller representation of females puts them on the disadvantaged side. That is because many human beings tend to support their gender. Consequently, even when females support their gender interest, they cannot out-number males. This makes them vulnerable when it comes to ensuring that the policies which are made should be gender balanced. That is because this research has revealed that females only consist of barely half of the total males.

Furthermore, the findings of this research as presented in Table 1 above showed that they were in strong affirmation with the findings of the research which is entitled 'Gender and sustainable development: maximising the economic, social and environmental role of women' which was conducted by Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2008). That is because research established that during the time it was being conducted, only half of the world human population had females engaged in various socio-economic activities.

Hence, it is surprising that to this present time, approximately ten years after that research was conducted, the findings of this research are still in substantial agreement with those findings which is because in the same manner, the findings of this research have found that male officers are occupying more than half ( $65 \%$ ) of the administrative positions. This means that the situation is not changing for the better, instead, it is getting worse. More and more females are being denied the opportunity to be in a decision-making position of an institution.

Therefore, this research also considered the distribution of administrative positions according to individual institutions. That was with the view of comparing the variation amongst public and private-owned institutions. In that regard, the findings in Figure 2 presented above showed that government-owned institutions were more gender-biased as compared to private-owned institutions. That was because out of the total of 24 administrative respondents sampled from government-owned institutions, only 04 respondents were found to be females, in contrast, the private-owned institutions revealed that out of the total of 24 respondents, only 07 of them were female.

Hence, this research revealed that government institutions were spearheading gender gaps in administrative position. That is because they were not acting as role models to the private sector. On the other hand, it was the private sector which was somehow acting as a role model to government-owned institutions, with regards to gender empowerment. Thus, it is unfortunate that the government which formulates the gender policies fails to adhere to its policies. That is because the government-owned institutions revealed that they were highly gender-imbalanced. Even though the privately owned institutions were also gender-imbalanced, they revealed that their gender inequality was relatively smaller. That is because they had 3 female administrators who were more than government female administrative officers.

Additionally, this research identified that both the government and the private sector are not adhering to various policies and instruments which promote gender equality. That is because the findings of this research were in sharp contrast with the concerns which were indicated by Barkworth (2008). It explained that the Article 10 of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) obliges states to 'take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women to ensure equal rights with men in the field of education.' This indicated that these measures which were being referred to were not being implemented by both the government and the private sector, if at all they were being implemented, then the process of implementation has proved to be ineffective. That is because the current findings revealed that there is still a considerable gender gap.

Thus, this research has contributed to filling up the information gap which existed in the literature. That is because from the literature reviewed, and there was no single article which compared the gender gaps between public and private-owned institutions. This implies that with these results, the policy makers under the Ministry of Gender can now know the sector which needs more of their effort for them to change the gender situation of the country at large, which is because this research has revealed that there are more gender gaps in governmentowned institutions than in privately owned institutions. Hence, the Ministry of Gender needs to re-strategize on the best way of eliminating gender gaps.

For this research to be well informed on the extent of gender gaps, it also considered assessing the gender of the most senior administrative officer. Thus, results relating to this aspect were presented in Table 4 above. The findings revealed that the majority of the most senior administrative officer, in this context, the College Principal were the males. That is because out of the total of six (6) educational institutions, five (5) of the College Principals were male; this represented $83 \%$ of the College Principals. Thus, only one (1) College Principal was a female, giving a representation of $17 \%$ of the total College Principals.

Furthermore, the results revealed that this female College Principal was employed in privateowned educational institution. This implies that all the government-owned institutions had their most senior administrative position allocated to male officers. Furthermore, this research also established that there was a general tendency of allocation of the top positions to the male officers, while the females were mainly allocated on deputy positions. For instance, the Deputy College Principal position and the Deputy Human Resource Managers were mainly occupied by females, but male officers were occupying their immediate top positions

The findings from Table 4 above agreed with the feminist theory which explains that there is a general tendency for society to favour the males in top position. For instance, even at the household level, many females don't have the freedom to express themselves because male domination makes the females to be severely suppressed, such that they cannot even voice out their concerns about their needs. Therefore, the results in Table 4 above also gives evidence that the female officers are usually suppressed in many educational institutions. That is because the females, as it has been earlier mentioned, be awarded only the positions which seem to be inferior to the male counterpart. For instance, just because many males do not like to be associated with the position of being secretarial officers, the majority of the secretaries were females, out of the total of six (6) secretaries which were sampled, five (5) of them were females.

Therefore, the statistical findings from Table 4 above indicated that the percentage of female secretaries was $83 \%$, while only one secretarial position was given to a male. Thus it equally gave a representational percentage of $17 \%$. Thus, these results were the exact opposite of the results of the presentational of gender on the most senior officers. This means that most males, $83 \%$ occupy the most senior offices, yet the female officers occupy the same statistics of $83 \%$ in the lowest hierarchical position of the organisations. However, the females are more on the administrative position, which is the most junior in terms of hierarchy. These results genuinely indicate the suppression which females pass through in many educational institutions.

Hence, these findings were in affirmation with the findings of a report entitled 'Effects of Gender Inequality in Employment and Pay in Jordan, Lebanon and the Occupied Palestinian Territory' which was conducted by Tzannatos (2016). That report asserted that the labour markets in the Arab region had some gender characteristics which were similar to those in practice all over the world regions. For example, fewer women could be employed to work in industries, and in other different jobs. However, females tended to be employed in lower positions and they were poorly paid when compared to males. For this reason, the contributions of the females towards national development were not adequate. That is because they are paid less money, meaning that they cannot support a lot of industries. Furthermore, females are exposed to poverty, just like the conceptual framework of this research indicates. That is because the females are poorly paid. Thus they cannot manage to feed and invest their income into any business adequately. Consequently, they tend to have a feeding system of 'hand to mouth' nothing is reserved for future consumption or investment so that it can be multiplied in a given business.

### 5.3 Causes of gender gaps in administrative positions of selected educational institutions

This research considered to examine the possible causes of gender gaps in administrative positions, so that the policy makers could be well informed on the contributing factors to the problem of gender gaps. By knowing so, it is assumed that they will be able to identify the appropriate measures to such factors, so that the situation could be normalised significantly.

Hence, the findings from Table 3 above showed that the majority of females are not very educated. That is because, out of the total of 17 females who were in administrative positions, this research revealed that only 5 of them managed to obtain postgraduate studies (Masters and PhD ) this statistic represented $29 \%$. Meaning that the majority of the females, $71 \%$ had educational qualifications which were not advanced. The majority of the females ended their
academic journey on the undergraduate level. Therefore, it created qualification problems when the higher positions were vacant. That is because the organisations tend to employ the people who have the highest academic qualification and more years of experience in positions which are higher in terms of hierarchy. These findings were in harmony with the views of ETI (2003) which analyses that the primary cause of gender imbalance in employment is lack of academic or professional requirements. It is assumed that there are high illiteracy levels amongst women than men

Additionally, the views of another respondent which were presented through the verbatim below Table 3 above, indicated that most of the females failed to attain postgraduate studies because they had many constraints on their academic journey. That is because, most married females were being stopped by their husbands to proceed with their education. Thus, the verbatim went on to reveal that cultural belief also contributed to low educational attainment amongst the females. That is because, according to the Zambian culture, the females are responsible for taking care of household chores, even when both the wife and husband are employees. This means that the females are made busy with non-academic activities, at the end of it all, the females become too tired such that they cannot manage to think of enrolling themselves into school. If they do, their concentration towards lessons is usually deficient. That is because they are physically tired and their mind is preoccupied with socio-economic problems, such as thinking of the relish which the family will feed on, while they are in the middle of a lesson. Consequently, most females tend not to perform well in their academic endeavours.

These findings were corresponding to the views of McKinsey (2007), which articulated that one of the leading causes of gender imbalance has been the traditional beliefs that females cannot lead men or that females are less superior to men. As a result, the females have been side-lined more, especially on matters to deal with the administration and other leadership positions. For instance, in African tradition, women are not part of the justice board which resolve conflict in the community.

For those females who haven't been married yet, the verbatim under Table 3 also revealed that cultural beliefs equally prevent them from aspiring more significant goals. That is because the single females are discouraged by society, they are told that they should not be very educated before they get married, which is because most men fear to marry the educated ladies. More especially those ladies who are educated more than men. Hence, the results from Table 3 above
reflects the views of the respondents, out of the total of 31 male respondents, 19 of them had attained their postgraduate education. This represented $61 \%$ of the male respondents.

Therefore, these results showed that more than half of the respondents with postgraduate education were male. That is because only $39 \%$ of the males did not attain postgraduate studies. Hence, there was a postgraduate academic difference between the males and females of ( $61 \%$ $-29 \%)=32 \%$. Thus, this statistic was in agreement with the findings in Table 1 above, the findings in Table 1 also indicated that there was a gender gap of $29 \%$ amongst the administrative officers. Consequently, even when educational institutions want to appoint more females to senior positions, they cannot. That is because the facts of the matter are that more females do not meet the minimum qualifications for most senior positions.

As a result, the results from Table 3 above revealed that the inequality started from school level, way before these officers could be employed in their respective positions. That is because when the majority of a specific gender is not academically empowered, then it is most likely that such a gender will be disadvantaged when it comes to the distribution of opportunities. For this reason, the results in Table 3 above clearly indicates that there was a considerable difference between males and females. For instance, $61 \%$ of males were educated at postgraduate level, against $29 \%$ of the females who attained their education at postgraduate level. Hence, because of this academic qualification gap which exists between the females and males, it is only natural that the majority of the people who are highly educated will be considered for occupying the highest administrative positions.

Furthermore, the findings from Figure 1 above revealed that the majority of the respondents were married. That is because, out of the total of 48 administrative officers, $70 \%$ of them were married. Besides, the findings from Table 5 above indicated that most females could not be appointed to administrative positions because they were already overwhelmed with household chores. The household chores made them to be very tired such that they could not be competent administrators if they were given senior administrative positions.

The results presented in the second verbatim under Table 5 above indicated that females could not be appointed to be senior administrative officers, which is because the position of the senior administrators requires a person who has a free mind. That is because the senior administrative officers must plan on the effective and efficient goals of an institution. For this reason, many institutions fear that when the females have been appointed to senior administrative positions, they can have divided attention. Consequently, it will be work-related duties which can be most
affected. That is because, naturally, females are family caring individuals, meaning that they can be paying more attention to family problems, at the expense of institutional problems.

Furthermore, the findings from Table 5 above indicated that there is no clear policy on appointment and recruitment of the administrative officers. To this effect, there is enough room for bias to take place. The first verbatim supported this under Table 5. It explained that bias was tough to remove on the selection process of the administrative officers. That was because there is no clear policy which explains how the selection process should be conducted.

This was because there are times when the applicants, both female and male, possess the same academic qualifications and working experience. In that context, the selection team usually use bias to break the tie, which exists between those applicants. Unfortunately, when the position which is being filled up is senior in terms of hierarchy, there are more chances that an applicant who will be preferred to fill such a position will be a male.

Besides, the results from the verbatim under Figure 2 also indicated that it is inappropriate for females to be senior to the males in an organisation. This clearly indicated that both Zambian traditions was favouring the males, and also by the Christians who believe that the head of an institution should be the males and women should be subordinated, their duty is just to help the males in their duties. These findings were in conformity with the feminist theory which explains that the society has the tendency of showing biasness towards the males, such that most females are marginalised in societies. In this regard, these results were corresponding to the findings in Table 5 above, which is because the findings in Table 5 revealed that out of the total of 48 respondents, 38 of them revealed that there was stereotyping of the administrative positions in workplaces. Thus this represented $79 \%$ of the responses. Meaning that; society has stereotyped that male administrative officers should occupy senior positions.

Hence, this research noted that even when the educational institutions have the policies which relate to selection and appointment of the administrative officers, it is in rare cases that the people who are given the duty to select and appoint administrators will explicitly adhere to the guidelines. That is because most of the people claim that they have been in the organisational system for so many years. Therefore, they have gained enough experience to guide them through the selection and appointment processes. Besides, due to the high incidences of corruption within the country, it is assumed that corruption has equally contributed to the gender gaps which exist in an administrative position. However, it's not easy to prove the
occurrence of corruption. It is usually done in secrecy. As a result, it is challenging to know if the administrators were selected or appointed, based on merit or not.

Additionally, this research has established that many educational institutions do not practice affirmative action, where the gender which is highly marginalised is prioritised over the other. In this context, the females were supposed to be prioritised over the males. But the findings from Table 5 above indicated that all ( $100 \%$ ) the educational institutions did not practice affirmative action. This means that even when the institutions noticed that the employees were not gender-balanced, they continued to employ and appoint the gender which was contributing to gender gaps in their institutions. For instance, when the organisations realise that the majority of the females were not in senior administrative positions due to their poor academic qualification, then those institutions should have exercised affirmative action to send the female employees back to school; so that they can advance in their studies and favourably compete with their male counterparts.

Lastly, this research also revealed that the female employees in educational institutions did not attain senior administrative positions because they were exposed to the environments which were not encouraging them to aspire for big goals in their professional career. That is because, out of the total of 48 administrative respondents, 19 of them revealed that they lacked sensitisation on the need for females to aspire for career development. Hence, this represented $40 \%$ of the respondents. This means that most females were not motivated to become senior officers in educational institutions.

Furthermore, the results from Table 5 above indicated that most female employees lack the role models to inspire them to attain to a senior administrative position, that is because out of 48 respondents, 26 of them revealed that there were limited role models at their institution, and this represented $54 \%$. Consequently, many females perceive it to be reasonable that they were mainly being employed in marginalised or low paying administrative positions. Hence, out of 48 respondents, 31 of them revealed that females lacked the confidence which is needed in order for them to aspire for a senior administrative position. Thus this represented $65 \%$. This meant that some women rejected the senior positions which were being offered to them. They rejected the offer because they thought that they were not capable to delivering their services diligently. This was further necessitated by the traditional beliefs which discourage the females from competing with men anywhere and at any level.

### 5.4 How gender gaps in administrative positions affect the operations of selected educational institutions

This research examined how gender gaps in administrative positions affect the operations of the selected educational institutions so that the general public and the gender policy makers could be enlightened whether gender gaps caused adverse effects or not. Hence, this research engaged thirty (30) respondents five (5) from each educational institution. That was because it is the employees who are affected by the policies which the administrative officers develop, and not the administrative officers themselves.

Therefore, the findings from Table 7 above showed that gender imbalance at an institution enhanced gender crime and dominance of a particular gender, in this context the dominance was amongst male administrative officers. Gender crimes increase because the dominant male has enough powers to silence most females who are usually in low earning positions. For instance, because of the differences in terms of the monthly salaries, the senior male administrators may begin to sexually harass the females, such that they begin to propose to exchange sexual intercourse with the money. Thus, many females who are not economically empowered will fall prey to such plans. It is for this reason that there is a lot of sexually related abuse which has been reported in the media. Most senior male administrative officers abuse their authority on their subordinates. For instance, when most of the senior administrative officers are male, the female employees may be sexually abused, but they cannot report the matter anywhere, that is because even the other superior administrative officers are equally male.

Furthermore, male domination may lead to making the working conditions to be unfavourable for female employees. That is because females and males require different working conditions. But because of male dominance, the females may be suppressed such that they just have to adhere to the conditions which are presented before them. For instance, some females may have needs for sanitary accessories. Still, when the majority of the administrative officers are male, they can vote against the provision of sanitary accessories such that the females become vulnerable to genital problems. Further findings from two (2) verbatims below Table 7 indicated that most of the females were financially dependent on the males. Therefore, they could not expose the bad things which the males were doing to them. That is because they feared that when they have them to be arrested, then they will have no one to take care of their needs.

Hence, the findings from Table 7 above indicated that gender gaps enhanced income gaps amongst females and males. That is because the females tend to be employed in low positions which also attracts a low amount of income. As a result, the females are more marginalised, such that the males dominate over them in all areas of life, be it physical, economic and professional. Consequently, most females have come to accept that they are in a situation of helplessness. Thus, they accept any kind of treatment which they are given by their male counterparts. It is because of this reason that most female employees are sexually abused but they do not voice out to the general public and the relevant authorities.

These findings were in line with the views of Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI, 2003), which explained that most females are employed on part-time basis and their income is by far lower than that of the males. This means that the females are made to be intensely dependent on the males, which means that even when the females are working, they cannot find it easy to stand on their own. As a result, some men take advantage of them and begin to abuse them. It is for this reason that most females have suffered in their marriages, because they depend on their husbands for survival.

Secondly, the findings from Table 7 above indicated that when there is a gender imbalance in the administrative positions of an organisation, then such an organisation will lack adequate creativity. Out of 30 non-administrative employees, 16 of them revealed that the institutions would generate small ideas when it is in need of ideas. Hence this represented $53 \%$ of the views. The respondents explained that when the majority of the administrative officers are of one particular gender, then the views of the gender which is missing will not be adequately captured. That is because they will not be part and parcel of the decision-making process, and sometimes even when they are part and parcel of the decision-making process, their voice cannot be adequately heard, that is because when their views are put on the vote, they can usually fail down due to lack of support from fellow females. This means that the fewer the females are in administrative positions of an organisation, the more vulnerable the female subordinates will become. Hence, appointing an equal number of females and males in administrative positions help the employees to have fair resolutions on their various problems. Thirdly, the findings from Table 7 above revealed that out of 30 respondents, 28 of them revealed that gender imbalance contributed to the formation of gender imbalance policies, and this represented $93 \%$. They revealed that when the majority of the administrators are of one gender, then they will shoot down the views which may be originating from the other gender. Consequently, an organisation that is mainly managed by the males would want only to
implement the policies which favour the males and not the females. For instance, some educational institutions may have the opening and closing time which is not favourable to the females but only to males. But if the majority of the senior administrative officers are male, then such policies which negatively affects the females may be voted in and implemented by the male administrative officers.

Fourthly, the findings from Table 7 above indicated that out of the total of 30 ordinary employees (respondents) 14 of them revealed that gender imbalance caused the females to feel that they lacked role models, and this represented $47 \%$ of the total responses relating to this concern. They explained that when the majority of the senior administrative officers were employed in a particular organisation, the females may begin to be psychologically defeated, thinking that the males can just occupy the administrative positions. Consequently enough, when the majority of the females do not get inspired to attain the most senior administrative position, then they will not be working hard. That is because they will be convinced that they cannot be recognised to manage their organisations. This means that the potential which most females have may not be utilised because of lack of confidence.

Fifth and lastly, the findings from Table 7 above indicated that out of the total of 30 respondents, 08 of them revealed that they lacked the female confidants and this represented $27 \%$ of the total responses. That is because when the majority of the senior administrative officers are males. Then the females could not feel free to express their problems to their superiors who are of opposite gender orientation. For instance, when the female employees have health problems which are linked to their menstrual cycle. They cannot freely open up their problem to their male superiors. Thus, male domination of the senior administrative positions entails lack of freedom of expression for female employees.

### 5.5 Summary

This research has discussed that more males who occupy administrative positions than females. And this is mostly caused by a lack of academic qualifications which many females lack. That is because most of the females do not aspire to obtain higher academic qualifications as their male counterparts do. The main reason, which has significantly contributed to the low level of educational attainment amongst the females has been the tradition. That is because tradition expects the females to perform most of the house chores. This situation makes the females to be very tired such that they cannot concentrate on their academic affairs and eventually drop out. When some females manage to handle house chores and also their academic activities,
traditionalist discourages the single females that they will have difficulties to get married. That is because it has been believed that most men fear to marry very educated females. Consequently, out of 17 females, only 05 of them managed to obtain postgraduate studies. This indicated that even when the educational institutions wanted to promote more females to higher administrative positions, the majority of them do not qualify.

As a result, this research has discussed that gender imbalance on administrative positions negatively affect the operations of an organisation. That is because when the majority of the administrative officers are male, then they are most likely to be biased towards the welfare of the men only. Unfortunately, females are exposed to poor working conditions. Furthermore, when the majority of the administrative officers are male, the female employees lack confidants, meaning that they will have no senior female employees to lodge in their socioeconomic and health problems. For this reason, most females could be discouraged and demotivated a situation which can most likely deprive the ideas of the females in the process of development.

## CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 6.1 Overview

This chapter makes a final say on this research, meaning that this chapter presents the final analysis for this research. That is because this chapter seeks to summarise all the findings such that it would be easier for the readers of this research to gain a better understanding of this research. Therefore, this chapter makes conclusions which are based on the objectives of this research.

### 6.2 Conclusions

This study has revealed that the extent to which there are gender gaps in administrative positions of educational institutions is very significant. That is because the number of male administrative officers (31) is slightly double the numbers of female administrative officers (17). This meant that the recruitment and appointment of the administrative officers in educational institutions was very biased towards the males. To that effect, $83 \%$ of the seniormost administrative officers were males. This meant that only $17 \%$ of the senior-most administrative officers were females. Thus, the females were mainly engaged in deputy administrative positions and more in a secretarial position. This indicated that many educational institutions, more especially government-owned institutions were more genderbiased. That is because out of the three (3) government-owned institutions which were sampled, all of them were headed by male College Principals. At the same time, the privateowned educational institutions revealed that they were making efforts in engaging the females in administrative positions. That is because out of the three (3) private-owned institutions, two (2) of them were headed by male College Principals, but one (1) of them was headed by a female College Principal.

The primary cause of gender imbalance in administrative positions has its roots in traditional beliefs and practices. That is because, many Zambian cultural beliefs promote the idea that the real place of a female is in the kitchen of a house. This implies that many females are engaged in making household chores, rather than in education. As a result, the majority of the females were found to be lowly educated. Out of the total of 17 female administrative officers, only five (5) of them managed to obtain postgraduate studies, and this represented $29 \%$ of the total females. Yet their male counterparts had 19 postgraduates out of the total of 31 respondents,
and this represented $61 \%$. Hence, a lot of the females were poorly educated. This prevented a lot of them from being recognised to the senior-most administrative positions. Furthermore, because of being culturally oriented to be the main performers of household chores, this research further revealed that some females are usually made very busy with taking care of their families such that they cannot manage to be senior-most administrative officers. In light of this, some females had the opportunity to reject the offer of being senior-most administrative officers. Besides, the traditional beliefs and some religious beliefs prevented females from pursuing higher administrative positions because these beliefs do not allow the females to be in top authority amongst the males.
i. The effect of gender gaps have been established to be very detrimental in nature, that is because when the representation of one gender is meagre, in this context, the gender of females. Then the policies which are being developed are most likely to be genderbiased. To start with, the majority of the males will only be proposing the policies which favour their gender. For instance, the male administrative officers may propose the opening and closing time which is not suitable for female administrative officers. Secondly, even when there are few females amongst the male administrative officers, the views of the females are usually not heard. That is because when the views of the few females have been put to the vote, they are usually voted against. Hence, females are forced to work under challenging conditions. Furthermore, when the majority of the administrative officers are male, then the females may lack confidants. Meaning that when they have sensitive problems which need to be discussed together with their superiors, the female employees may not have such an opportunity because the majority of their administrative officers are males. As a result, a lot of females are negatively affected by feminine issues or health problems which they cannot freely share;
ii. Additionally, the females are also economically marginalised, that is because they are mostly engaged in low earning positions. Hence, they get meagre income. Consequently, most females are dependents to males, who sometimes mistreat them.

### 6.3 Recommendations

i. The Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Gender should ensure that they enforce the laws and policies which promotes gender equality. Despite having a lot of statutory
instruments which promotes gender equality, a lot of institutions, most especially government-owned, have continued to discriminate against the females.
ii. The Ministry of Chiefs and Traditional Affairs should partner with the Ministry of Gender and the Ministry of Education (both General and Higher Education) so that they can encourage the people to continue supporting the education of the females so that more females could be educated and eventually take up equal administrative positions in many organisations.
iii. The Ministry of Gender should consider to recognising the institutions which are slightly gender balanced so that they can be encouraged more, such that they can ultimately become gender-balanced and also encourage other institutions to be equally gender-balanced.
iv. Through the recommendations of the Ministry of Gender, the Zambian government should first prioritise to award their contracts to the gender-balanced organisations. This means that more organisations would be making enough efforts to be genderbalanced.
v. Through the recommendations of the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Gender, the Ministry of Finance and National Planning through its unit of Zambia Revenue Authority, the government should be giving a discount on tax to those organisations which are gender-balanced.

### 6.4 Area for further studies

This research acknowledges the fact that it has not managed to fill up the gap which exists in the literature thoroughly. To that effect, this research would like to propose to other scholars to continue researching on the matters relating to gender. Hence, to be precise, this research would recommend that other scholars should research on the extent to which the Ministry of Gender enforce its laws and policies. That is because the gender laws and policies have been enacted for a long time now, yet the gender gaps seem not to be reduced in magnitude.

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## APPENDICES <br> APPENDIX I: INTRODUCTORY LETTER

I am a postgraduate student at the University of Zambia in collaboration with Zimbabwe Open University in the School of Education and the Department of Educational Management carrying out educational research on Gender Gaps in Administrative positions: The case of Educational Institutions in Lusaka District, Zambia.

You have been selected a participant on this significant undertaking because of the cardinal role you play in education provision and delivery. Your participation will be treated with the strictest confidentiality possible. Do not write down your name on the questionnaire.

I wish to thank you most sincerely for accepting to participate in this essential educational undertaking.

Yours sincerely

## RESEARCH STUDENT

## APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

INSTRUCTIONS: The questionnaire requires you to either tick ( ) in a box adjacent to your option of choice or supply a short answer by filling in blank spaces $\qquad$

## SECTION A DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. School
2. District
3. Geographic location
4. Title of Respondents
$\qquad$

## Gender of Respondents

A. Male
B. Female


## SECTION B: ACCESS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

1. How far did the respondent go in education
A. Grade 12

B. College

C. University

2. If the answer is (b) or (c) which area of specialization
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
3. Is the respondent currently working/serving in his/her studies at (a) or (c)
(a) Yes
(b) No
4. If the answer in 3 is (b) No, Give the reasons
5. Has education and training helped the respondent in any way?
(a) Yes
(b) No

6. If the answer to question 5 is 'yes' then state how it has been of help.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
7. Does the respondent see any gap in the responsibilities of people of the same qualification between men and women?

Yes $\square$
No

8. If the answer to question 7 is 'yes' explain briefly how is the gap.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
9. In the work force of men and women, which one is very effective and efficient?
(a) Men
(b) Women $\square$
10. If your answer in question 9 is either (a) or (b) explain briefly why?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
11. There are few women in decision making positions in Africa. Briefly explain why in three points.
(a) $\qquad$
(b) $\qquad$
(c) $\qquad$
12. Has education really helped in the elimination of gender gaps?

Yes


No
13. If the answer for question 12 is (Yes) or (No) how?

## APPENDIX III

## STRUCTURED INTERVIEW FOR NON-ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

## 1. SOURCES OF INFORMATION

## Statement 1

The government in its effort to eliminate gender gaps between men and women in schools and various sectors of society, has put in place a several strategies to achieve this.
(a)What strategies is the government promoting in both the public and private sector to eliminate gender gaps?
(b) Do you think equality between men and women is being achieved?
(c) What are the statistics of men and women alike in the top management of your institution?

## Statement 2

We can see that some laws in Zambia are still gender blind when we compare female representation in the legislature which currently stands at $19 \%$ whereas for males is $81 \%$.
(a) What do you think can be done to increase women representation in decisionmaking positions?
(b) Give a reason for your answer.
(c) Do you have an additional comment?

## Statement 3

Men are said to be more efficient at work as compared to women.
(a) Do you agree with the statement?
(b)Give reasons for your answer
(c)Have the gender gaps in your institution affected the operation of the institution?

## THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

