

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed background to the study. The statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives, research questions, significance and limitations of the study were dealt with in this section. Further, an overview of female representation in parliament and in management positions in Secondary Schools is provided reflecting what was transpiring at the time of conducting the study.

Although the *National Gender Policy* had been in existence since March 2000, its implementation had remained a daunting challenge. The lack of implementation had hampered the efforts to meet the 50 percent threshold required by the SADC protocol on Gender, which advocated the equal participation of women and men in decision - making positions and required women to hold 50 percent decision - making positions in the private and public sectors by 2015. This could be evidenced by the low number of women in parliament from 2006 up to 2012 as shall be seen below. According to Wignaraja (2011:1), "Of the 50 countries with the highest representation of women in parliament, 13 are in Africa. Among these are Rwanda [which was the highest ranking in the world at 56.3 percent at the time of conducting this study], South Africa, Mozambique, Angola, Tanzania, Burundi, Namibia and Lesotho." It was argued that Zambia was however going counter-trend. For example, Zambia had 12 percent women in parliament in 2006, 15 percent in 2008 and 13 percent in 2010, well below the sub-Saharan average of 20 percent (ibid). In 2006, the nominations were 106 (15 percent) women of 709 total nominations, which was a little higher in percentage terms than it was by the time of conducting this study in 2011. In the 20th September, 2011 general elections, there were only 14.7 percent women of the approved nominations by all parties for parliament (ibid). Sadly, this took us backwards.

These numbers only meant a further drop in women representation after the 20th September, 2011 general elections. By the time of writing this report, there were 158 parliamentarians in Zambia. Out of these, only 18 (11.4 percent) were female and 140 (88.6 percent) were male. Because of this, Zambia was very unlikely to even come close to meeting its Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target of 30 per cent women in parliament by 2015, let alone its AU/SADC target of 50 percent by the same year. According to Mweetwa (2011), Zambia was one of the poorest performers with regard to

the affirmative action in the Southern African Development Community, SADC, a general inter-parliamentary body made up of 22 member countries. Of the 158 MPs in 2010, only 22 were women. As the statistics show above, the number had reduced.

Michael (2011:11) also argues that “The gender policy has not yielded the desired outcome as women have continued to be marginalised or excluded from the mainstream decision making organs.” The *National Gender Policy* (2000: 1) clearly states that “Deliberate efforts will be employed to ensure that barriers that prevent equal and effective participation of women and men in the formal and informal education and employment sectors are removed.” But despite this statement being enshrined in the policy document, it was surprising that in the education sector, the female teacher was not adequately represented in management positions Fawe (2002). At the time of conducting this study, no study showed that the situation recorded in 1994 had changed with regards to female teachers in management positions. At the National level, out of 4,304 head teachers in 1994, only 54 were female (Educating our Future, 1996).

“Women are overwhelmingly represented in lower echelons of the educational field, but are poorly represented among the ranks of school managers” (Republic of South Africa, 2002). In Zimbabwe and Malawi, the situation where women are not many in decision making positions prevailed as well. This shows that the problem was not only endemic in Zambia but in other countries in the region as well. It is argued that patriarchal culture which is dominant in many schools had placed constraints on the introduction of women advancement in senior management levels. Although much had changed for South African women, many still suffered discrimination and had an unequal share of power, especially in education according to Sboros (1994:13).

Research indicates that women are as capable as men in managing schools (Al-Khalifa, Crawford & Riches, 1992) and this will be explained when discussing the findings in Chapter Four. Because of this finding, it is argued that the situation where women are not adequately represented in management positions in Secondary Schools cannot go unchallenged. Zambia started pushing for gender equality far back as 1964. Inspired by the international community, particularly the aspirations of the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against women (CEDAW), Zambia managed to draft its gender policy in March 2000 even before the African Union Gender Policy was published in early 2006. This study sought to find out if the gender policy was being implemented when promoting teachers in secondary schools.

1.1 Background

Women must be represented in leadership positions at the community, district, provincial and national level in general and in the education systems particularly as this would provide a gendered perspective on educational change and development. When there is inclusion at any level of both girls and boys, women and men, societal justice does prevail through gender equity and leadership at decision-making levels because it is very easy to mainstream the needs of the two groups.

The Fourth World Conference on Women that was conducted in 1995 and called for governments worldwide to “create a gender sensitive education system in order to ensure full and equal participation of women in educational administration and policy and decision-making” (Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 1995). The Beijing Platform for Action Mission statement asserts that equality between women and men is not only a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice, but that it is also a condition for people – centred sustainable development” (BPA, 1995, Section 1). The adequate representation of women in leadership roles at the Secondary School level and above contributes to sensitivity within schools for the well-being of adolescent girls and provides girls beginning to consider career choices with role models of women decision-makers and leaders.

According to Sperandio and Kagoda (2000:41), “Women remain under-represented in educational leadership in most developing countries [Zambia inclusive].” Drawing inspiration from the international gender movement, the Zambian government adopted its *National Gender Policy* in March 2000 which could endeavour to reduce gender gaps at all levels. Despite the positive elements of the *National Gender Policy*, inadequate representation of female teachers in management positions had continued to be a major challenge in the realisation of gender equality in the education system. According to FAWE (2002:58), “It is therefore not surprising that many girls in Africa are forced to drop out of school before they can complete the secondary education cycle.” While there are many factors at play, this high dropout rate could some extent be attributed to lack of female role models within the school system and sometimes male school administrator’s insensitivity to gender issues.

In the field of Education, attention had been focussed on accelerating girls’ full and equal participation and retention in schools through initiatives such as the Universal Primary

Education (UPE) by providing both girls and boys with free primary education (MoE, 1997). While strides had been made at the school level through various activities aimed at promoting girl-child education, Zambia alongside other developing countries still struggled to meet the goal of 30 percent representation of women in leadership. The situation was even more pronounced in the education sector where most of the administrative positions especially in rural areas were male dominated. This situation was not in tandem with the Beijing platform which considered the critical role of women in decision-making positions (BPA, 1995, Section 181, 182).

It is argued that the weaknesses of school leadership are reinforced by the mechanisms for the selection of school principals and that the dominant tradition has been to recruit from within the teaching profession, often as a reward for good performance, long years of service or ideological compatibility with the existing political orientation of government according to Dadey and Harber (1991). The selection criteria mentioned above may also be more likely to favour males for leadership positions causing a gender imbalance in this crucial role according to Gottolmann and Hogan (1984).

Research on discrimination against women within the education system uncovers the seriousness of continuous deterrents to women being promoted to management positions, especially in Secondary Schools (Mathipa & Tsoka, 2000) and further research in gender equity seems to endorse the view that there was a disproportional representation of women at senior management level in Secondary Schools (Department of Education, 2005). The legacy of gender discrimination against women demands a new mindset considering legal instruments that various African countries are party and signatories to (RSA, 1998 – Employment Equity Act No 55).

It was also argued that even where women were well qualified and experienced, the predominance of males at management level had resulted in a culture in which male behavioural patterns were perceived to be the norm, and in which women often found it difficult to be accepted as equals by their male colleagues (Burke & Davidson, 1994).

According to Chabaya (2009), factors such as family attachment, low self-esteem, lack of confidence, lack of support and gender stereotypes had prevented women in Schools from aspiring for higher managerial positions in African countries. Other factors noted by other writers were patriarchal institutions and gender blind policies that could have been making the implementation of gender instruments, protocols and conventions difficult.

The other factor that could have been indirectly contributing to the underrepresentation of female teachers in management positions were the low number of female students in most colleges and universities. This can be evidenced from the table on the page below that was taken from the *2009 Ministry of Education Annual Progress Report* which confirmed the underrepresentation of female students except for few colleges such as Nkrumah and the National In-Service Training College (NISTCOL) which had more female students.

TABLE 1: COLLEGES OF HIGHER (EDUCATION) STUDENT ENROLLMENTS

		SECONDARY EDUCATION		
		MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
1	David Livingstone	198	141	339
2	Malcom Moffat	34	34	68
3	Mufulira College of Education	203	148	351
4	COSETCO	195	155	350
5	Nkrumah University College	292	418	710
6	ZAMISE	58	36	94
7	NISTCOL	107	129	236
8	George Benson Christian	142	104	246
9	Theological College of Central Africa	4	6	10
10	UNZA	[ED]3309	[ED]2940	[ED]6249
		4542	4115	8657

Source: *M o E 2009 ANNUAL PROGRESS REPORT*

The low number of female students in colleges of education and at the University of Zambia in particular, as evidenced above and coupled with other factors translated in fewer female teachers in Secondary Schools when compared to their male counterparts. This can easily be shown in the table on the next page which show the gender disaggregated data of teachers at all the 16 secondary schools in Choma District where the study was conducted.

Taking ethical issues into consideration, the real names for schools were concealed but pseudonyms were used in form of abbreviations. The schools and the number of teachers by gender in all the 16 Secondary Schools in Choma District are shown in table 2 on the following page:

CHOMA DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD

Table 2: CURRENT NUMBER OF STAFF IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY GENDER

S/NO	SECONDARY SCHOOL	TEACHERS		TOTAL
		MALE	FEMALE	
1	PHS	33	9	42
2	SMHS	29	8	37
3	MGSS	15	8	23
4	JSS	16	4	20
5	BTKSS	13	4	17
6	MSS	13	4	17
7	FDSS	17	4	21
8	SSS	20	9	29
9	CSS	45	20	65
10	CDSS	14	22	36
11	CSSC	13	7	20
12	MKSS	7	5	12
13	NESS	6	4	10
14	MMSS	8	7	15
15	NGSS	28	20	48
16	NSS	7	2	9
TOTAL		284	137	<u>421</u>

In total, as the table shows above, there were 421 teachers in all the Secondary Schools in Choma District. Out of these, 137 (32.5 percent) were female and 284 (67.5 percent) were male. The statistics above clearly show that the male teachers were more than double the number of the female teachers.

Choma District of the Southern Province of Zambia was chosen because there were a number of Secondary Schools in this district and these are very accessible. The researcher had also noted a gap in management in Secondary Schools. To be specific, at the time of conducting the research, there were 16 Secondary schools in Choma as already stated. These were; PHS, SMHS, MGSS, JSS, BTKSS, MSS, FDSS, SSS, CSS, CDSS,

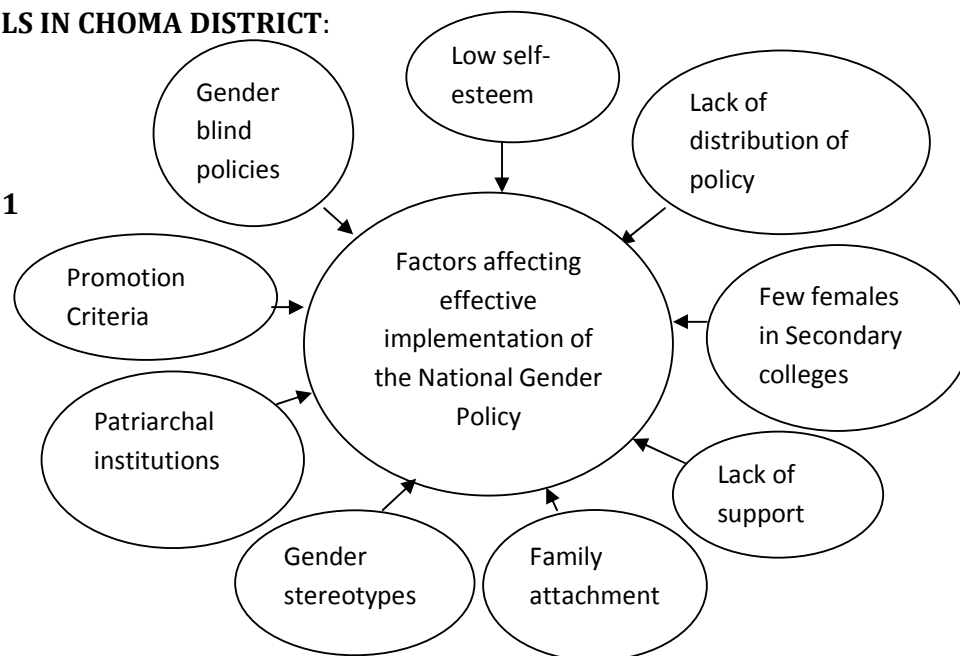
CSSC, MKSS, NESS, MMSS, NGSS, and NSS. PHS, CDSS, CSSC and BTKSS are government schools. NESS, MMSS and MKSS were private while the rest were grant-aided.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Zambia being a signatory to the CEDAW and the SADC protocol on women adopted the *National Gender Policy* in 2000 whose aspiration was to promote equitable participation of women in decision - making positions. While strides had been made in promoting gender equality in other sectors, research had established low female representation in management positions in Secondary Schools after the launch of the gender policy in Choma district. At the time of conducting this study, there was no empirical evidence on factors impeding female participation in administrative positions at secondary school level. It is against this background that this study sought to establish the extent to which the *National Gender Policy* had been implemented at Secondary School level. The study further sought to identify factors hindering adequate female participation in administrative positions at secondary school level.

PROBLEM ANALYSIS DIAGRAM ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE *NATIONAL GENDER POLICY* ON THE PROMOTION OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CHOMA DISTRICT:

Figure 1



1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the extent to which the *National Gender Policy* was being implemented in secondary schools to ensure upward mobility of female teachers to management positions at the secondary school level.

1.4 Objectives

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1.4.1 Main objective: To establish if the gender policy was being implemented when promoting teachers in Secondary Schools in Choma District.

1.4.2 Specific objectives:

- (1)** To determine the extent to which female teachers were represented in management positions in secondary schools.
- (2)** To establish factors impeding female representation in management positions in secondary schools.
- (3)** To identify measures that could enhance adequate representation of female teachers in management positions in secondary schools.

1.5 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1.5.1 Main Question: Was the gender policy being implemented when promoting teachers in Secondary Schools in Choma District?

1.5.2 Specific Questions

- (1)** To what extent were female teachers represented in management positions in secondary schools in Choma District?
- (2)** What factors could have been impeding adequate female representation in management positions in secondary schools?
- (3)** What measures could have been taken to enhance female representation in management positions in secondary schools?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study found out that the gender policy was not being implemented in the education sector in Choma District when promoting teachers. This may be useful in policy formulation, analysis, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This study was vital for it added to the body of existing knowledge because no study had been conducted in Zambia concerning the implementation of the gender policy in relation to the upward mobility of female teachers in the education sector and especially in Secondary Schools in Choma District.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

Due to lack of sufficient time, the study did not cover the whole Southern Province. The study was concentrated in Choma District and only six Secondary Schools were targeted to make it feasible. The ideal situation could have been to investigate all the Secondary Schools in the district. However, all the principals in the 16 Secondary Schools in the District were accounted for and the researcher endeavoured to find out the number of teachers by gender in all the Secondary Schools. The study generally found that there were very few female managers in Choma District and this could have been the trend in the whole Southern Province. If this were so with this province, the trend could have been prevailing country wide. As stated in the background of the study, there were 421 Secondary School teachers in Choma District and out of these, 137 were female and 284 were male. This trend could have been prevailing in the Southern Province and in the whole country at large.

Because of these revelations and limitations on the previous page, future researchers should carry out larger projects that should cover whole provinces and the country at large. Another limitation was that some respondents were not completing the questionnaire thoroughly because they had a habit of not answering some questions.

1.8 Operational Definitions

An "operational definition" is a process by which the characteristics of a concept can be defined, including identification and classification. It consists of the methods or tests that are used in analyzing a given variable or concept, which can be used to confirm the validity of the information obtained. www.google.com

The operational definitions below were used mostly to explain the study and to give it a clear picture to the reader:

- a. **Affirmative action** – special measures aimed at creating a state of equality between females and males through implementation of deliberate strategies aimed at elevating the status of the disadvantaged [women].
- b. **Androcentrism** – dominated by or emphasizing masculine interests or a masculine point of view.
- c. **Convention** – a gathering of people who have a common interest or profession.
- d. **Domestication of Policy** – domestication means integration of policy in the laws of the nation.
- e. **Equality** – the principle that people should be treated as equals. This is the idea that despite the many differences in age, gender, sex, race, religion, national origin, disability, colour, all people share a common humanity.
- f. **Equity** – the application of the principles of equality to the ways in which people are treated by society. This involves specifying principles or rules of equity: fairness in distributions, equality of opportunity, treating people with equal concern and respect.
- g. **Evaluation** – A time bound exercise that aims to assess systematically and objectively the relevance, performance and success of on-going and completed programmes and projects.
- h. **Gender** – The socially and culturally constructed differences between men and women, boys and girls, which give them unequal value, opportunities and life chances (Kabeer, 2003). It also refers to typically masculine and feminine characteristics, abilities and expectations about how women and men should behave in society. These characters are time bound and changeable.
- i. **Gender Awareness** – The recognition of the differences in the interests, needs and roles of women and men in society and how they result in differences in power, status and privilege. It also means the ability to identify problems arising from gender inequality and discrimination.
- j. **Gender Blind** – The situation where potentially differential policy impacts on men and women are ignored.

- k. Gender Discrimination** - Differential treatment of individuals on grounds of gender.
- l. Gender Mainstreaming** – The process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all the areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s and men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality (ECOSOC, July 1997)
- m. Gender Imbalance** – any inequality which exist between females and males and are not related to their sex roles.
- n. Government School** – this refers to a primary or secondary school mandated or offered to all children by the government, whether nationally, regionally, or locally by an institution of civil government and paid for, in whole or in part, by state taxes.
- o. Grant-aided school** – this is a state funded school in which a foundation or trust (usually a religious organisation) owns the school buildings, contributes to building costs and has a substantial influence in the running of the school.
- p. Head of Department** – this is a teacher who has been given a management position to run a department in a Secondary/High School such as Languages Department, Social Sciences Department, Mathematics Department, Practical Subjects Department, Natural Sciences Department, Business Studies Department or Expressive Arts Department.
- q. Headmaster/Mistress** – male or female person in charge of a school.
- r. High School** – this is a school that has classes running from Grades 10 – 12.
- s. Instrument** – a legal document.
- t. Policy** – a programme of actions adopted by a person, group, or government, or the set of principles on which they are based.
- u. Prejudice** – a preformed opinion, usually an unfavourable one, based on insufficient knowledge, irrational feelings or inaccurate stereotypes.
- v. Private school** – these are schools that are not administered by local state or national governments and thus, they retain the right to select their students and are funded in whole or in part by charging their students tuition, rather than relying on mandatory taxation through public funding.

- w. Promotion:** advancement to a more senior job or a higher rank, grade or position.
- x. Protocol** – a formal agreement between states or nations.
- y. Remote school** – this is a school that is located 65 km away from the main town.
- z. Rural School** – this is a school that is located 20 km away from the main town.
- aa. Secondary School** – this is a school that has classes running from Grades 8 – 12.
- bb. Stereotype** – this is an oversimplified image of a person or group.
- cc. Treaty** – a formally concluded and ratified agreement between states.

1.9 Theoretical Framework

Kombo and Tromp (2006: 56) state that a theoretical framework is *a collection* of interrelated ideas based on theories. It is a reasoned set of prepositions, which are derived from and supported by data or evidence. A theoretical framework accounts for or explains phenomena. It attempts to clarify why things are the way they are based on theories. A theoretical framework is a general set of assumptions about the nature of phenomena.

Changu (1999) argues that several theories have been brought about by governments, Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), the private sector, universities, organisations in the education system in Eastern and Southern Africa. However, the gender theories underpinning education development are inadequately analysed.

Changu further argues that throughout the region, feminists and gender researchers working in the education cycle either consciously or unconsciously use one or several theories in their research methodology and in writing up gender research studies.

The theories that guided this research are those that relate to Liberal Feminism Theory. These are theories which focus on inequality explanations and usually describe women's situation in terms of liberal feminism's view of unequal opportunity situations and Marxist explanations of women's position as part of a complete class system of explanation both in terms of gender and social class (Dengermann & Brantley, 1992).

Liberal feminism's explanation of gender inequality begins with the pinpointing of the sexual division of labour and the prevalence of separate private and public spheres of social activity.

Women's primary location is seen to be in the private sphere and men's in the public spheres and the socialisation of children is viewed as a preparation for their adult roles and work in the spheres appropriate for their sex (Dorsey, 1990).

Women are concentrated in lower echelons of academic ranks in most higher learning institutions in Africa according to Gordon (1994). Dorsey (1990) used feminist theories of liberal feminism and socialism to explain why academic women are marginalised and powerless. They used the socialisation theory to explain that the status of women academics is lower than that of men because of gender stereotypes prevalent in society. They argued that gender inequality is created by a system that restricts women's access to the public sphere by burdening and isolating them with private sphere responsibilities such as home chores. They view sexism as similar to racism because it is characterised by prejudice and discriminatory practices against women. Further, the ideology of sexism sustains beliefs about the biological differences between men and women that account for their different social fortunes and the liberal feminists argue that it is responsible for the social restrictions and confining of females from childhood so that they mature into helpless, mindless, and dependent beings.

The liberals perceive nothing of value in the private sphere, with the exception of its promotion of emotional openness. Its major focus is the denial of equal rights to women, equal rights with a specific focus on access to education, health and employment.

The following concepts are used mostly by the liberal feminists to explain how women are usually disadvantaged to management positions;

a. Gender Discrimination

Gender discrimination refers to a purposive process of dominating and excluding people in a less favourable manner with regard to gender, marital status, race, sex orientation over others and denying them their rights and freedom to be engaged in whatever public activity they want to take part in. In the education system, there is no equity in terms of representation within the administrative positions according to GETT (1997: 196). In this study, gender discrimination was investigated in management positions in secondary schools.

b. Stereotypes and Prejudice

A stereotype is an oversimplified image of a person or group. Usually, it is people's tendencies to attribute events or actions of an individual on the basis of an assessment of a group to which the individual belongs. Stereotypes are usually ascribed to girls and boys as they grow up and this has been the case traditionally and culturally. For example, boys are perceived to be more adventurous than the girls. This is then extended to their professions whereby women are not seen to be effective managers by some people who base their assumption on the way these two groups were brought up.

Prejudice is a preformed opinion, usually an unfavourable one, based on insufficient knowledge, irrational feelings, or inaccurate stereotypes. These judgements are usually discriminatory in nature and are based on the weaknesses or faults of few individuals belonging to a particular group. An example is where some men and even some women believe that women cannot make good managers. According to Damons (2008), prejudice and stereotyping cannot be separated. Prejudice may be caused by stereotypes or generalisations emanating from culture, customs, traditions and beliefs (Greyvenstein, 2000: 32).

Chapter one generally gives a detailed introduction and background to the study. Statistics that are necessary were brought here and a brief situational analysis is presented and this gives the reader a picture of what the study is was about. The statement of the problem, research questions, significance and purpose of the study were detailed with in detail in this chapter and many other items that gave the study a clear outline were dealt with in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter looked at the literature that related to the topic under discussion. Several factors that other scholars stated that keep women away from management positions in Secondary Schools and made the implementation of gender instruments, protocols and conventions were discussed. Some of the factors discussed below are family attachment, low self-esteem, lack of confidence, stereotypes, lack of support, patriarchy and many more. What the African Union (AU) Gender Policy states was discussed in detail and the Zambian gender policy was reviewed as well. Particularly, the section that looks at education is the one that was looked at in detail. The Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) was also revealed.

The low representation of female teachers in decision-making positions in Secondary Schools did not only occur in Zambia. According to Saiti (2000), female teachers in Greek Secondary Schools avoided responsibilities because of lack of encouragement offered by Greek school administration. It was further argued that in most countries, women tend to move into professional occupations such as teaching and nursing according to Horton (1999), so they are over-represented in education (Parta, 1987). It is however argued that, “despite their many numbers, they do not hold many decision-making positions as compared to male teachers” (Coleman, 2000: 2).

Zambia, like many other African countries such as Uganda and Zimbabwe had always striven to achieve gender equality since its political independence in 1964. Over the years, in its continued commitment to the removal of all forms of gender discrimination in the society, the Zambian government had referred to several national and international gender declarations and conventions. Among these are; the 1979 United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), (National Gender Policy, 2000), the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Declaration on Gender and Development, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action and many more conventions on the topic. In the process, many policies had been put in place to advance gender equality. In March 2000, the *National Gender Policy* was launched as the blueprint for gender and development activities (Brenda, 2007).

The goal of the *National Gender Policy* “... is to ensure that barriers that prevent equal and effective participation of women and men in the formal and informal education and employment sectors are removed” (*National Gender Policy*, 2000: 1). However, Michael (2011:11) argues that “The Gender policy has not yielded positive results as women have continued to be marginalised or excluded from the mainstream decision making organs.”

In many countries, concerns about gender disparities in education had focused on student performance, particularly “in terms of under-achievement of girls, differences in access at various levels of schooling, dropout rates in subjects taken and these have evoked a range of explanations and policies around gender gaps in education outcomes” (Davies, 1990:61). However, the disparities in management structures of Secondary Schools and other management positions in the education sector had received little attention despite the fact that “there is recognition in education of both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women bring to management” (Coleman, 1994:117).

Under-representation of women in education management is not only experienced in the Zambian educational institutions as already stated above, but in many other countries too. Coleman (2001:175) noted that “women in education management are a minority in the United Kingdom, [and that] they are also in a minority in most other countries, both those in comparable levels of development and those that constitute the newly emerging economies”. On this note the assertion that “women teach and men manage” in schools still holds true despite a multitude of strategies to rectify the gender imbalance in education management (Greyvenstein and Van der Westhuizen, 1992:271).

Most African countries had come up with instruments such as the *National Gender Policy* as machinery for achieving gender equality in many areas where women were discriminated. However, the domestication of these instruments in addition to other international and regional instruments to which these countries are party remained a daunting challenge. According to Musa (2007:3), “One of the challenges facing the domestication of the instruments is the multiplicity of legal systems in most African countries.” While in a few countries, especially those following the French legal system, international and local instruments, once ratified, automatically become part of national law. In most cases, they have to be passed by an act of parliament to bring them to effect (ibid) and this is the case with Zambia.

According to GIDD (2010:62), “...individuals are unable to fully realise their rights provided in these conventions, through enforcement before courts of law or administrative measures because Zambia follows the dualist approach. The dualist approach is where international conventions and treaties that are ratified are not self executing. This means that they do not automatically become part of the domestic legislative system unless Parliament enacts appropriate legislation to that effect.”

Article 44(2)d of the Constitution of Zambia empowers the President, directly or through a delegate, to negotiate and sign international agreements. The Constitution does not specifically provide for the domestication of international conventions. However Article 62 of the Constitution vests the legislative power of the Republic in Parliament. Article 26 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties to which Zambia is a party provides for the principle of “*Pacta sunt servanda*” as follows: “Every treaty in force is binding upon the parties to it and must be performed by them in good faith.” This maxim embodies the general principle that commitments made publicly, formally and voluntarily by a State Party should be honoured and Zambia is therefore obliged to implement these conventions.

The domestication and further ratification of the instruments have been slowed by a lack of political will in addition. Even though most countries have established national gender machineries, these are weak and lack adequate authority, capacity, human resources and funding. This coupled with inadequate skills in gender analysis among planners and implementers, and limited gender awareness with communities exacerbates the problem (Choike, 2007).

It is further argued that most of the human rights instruments set a ceiling and a floor as frameworks that women can use to combat discrimination in its many forms. However, these tools in themselves are not perfect (Musa, 2007). For example, the language employed in some of them is either too complicated or too broad or both (Choike: 2007). Two broad statements that aim to promote female teachers can be noted in the Zambian Gender Policy on pages 48 and 49. The first point states that, “employ affirmative action in the appointment of deserving female managers to vacant management positions, [pg. 48]”, and the second point states that, “ensure that teacher development, deployment and upward mobility takes into account the gender concerns in the system, [pg. 49]”. Though these points are good, they do not state clearly who a “deserving” female manager is and

how this is going to be achieved in relation to the traditional methods used in the Ministry of Education of considering qualifications, experience, age and performance when promoting teachers to management positions.

The instruments sometimes fail to address the issue of recourse in case of non-compliance. It has been said that gender activists can only bark because they lack the teeth they need to bite. The consequences of non-compliance and non-enforcement need to be looked at, at national level as well.

One other obstacle that has been identified at national level is that few lawyers are well vested with policy documents that aim to reduce gender discrimination such as the gender policy. Therefore, they are unable to cite it in support of their arguments. Not many law students take up courses in gender and hence their ignorance about the instruments and other protocols and conventions on the subject (ibid).

Research indicates that reliance on the government to implement instruments has not yielded positive results according to Crawford (2002) and that because of this; women's empowerment requires a higher level of involvement by women in governance and decision-making in both the formal and informal sectors. Systematic and structural barriers that prevent women from participating in decision-making at all levels need to be removed.

It has further been argued that "the proliferation of instruments has also been a possible factor in hindering compliance because each one requires a different reporting and accounting procedure, thereby placing a huge burden on states (Choike, 2002) and that there is also inadequate dissemination of information about these instruments at the local level. A number of African states have bound themselves to international human rights instruments, but only a few have actually taken steps to make them enforceable within their countries.

In Zambia there have been some debates on women and management which have led to the development of policies intended to increase women's participation in decision-making positions (GIDD, 2011). However, it has not been clearly established why under representation of women still persists in management positions. Just like the Zambian situation, in response to the persistent gender disparity in decision-making positions in Zimbabwe, the government introduced the gender affirmative action policy in 1992. In turn, the Public Service Commission responded to the affirmative action policy by coming

up with specific policies meant to expedite the promotion of female teachers to headship positions in Secondary Schools. In Zimbabwe, the Public Service Circular (1991) states that heads should identify who could be promoted to headship grade without reference to seniority and recommend them to be given schools to head. Public Service Circular Number 1 (1997) encourages female teachers to apply for school management posts. All these are measures taken to speed up the promotion of more female teachers to leadership positions. The Zimbabwean government adopted its *National Gender Policy* in 2004 as a way of enhancing the participation and representation of women at various levels. However, gender disparities still continue in Zimbabwe as well.

In Zambia, the gender policy was adopted in March 2000 as stated earlier on and clearly states that 30 percent of places will be reserved for female students in higher learning institutions as an affirmative action. Despite this, the gender affirmative action in Zambia does not clearly show how it is going to help female teachers get positions in decision-making clearly. Because of this lack of clarity, weaknesses of school headship are often reinforced by the mechanisms for the selection of school principals. The dominant tradition has been to recruit ...as a reward for good performance, long years of service or ideological compatibility with the existing political orientation of government (Dadey and Haber, 1991). This selection system may also be more likely to favour males for leadership positions causing a gender imbalance in this crucial role (Gottolmann and Hogan, 1984).

Apart from the above method traditionally used to select teachers for management, there could be a number of reasons that explain the low representation of female teachers in management positions in Secondary Schools that the gender policy and other instruments have failed to challenge. Some of the reasons are family attachment, low self-esteem and lack of support from family members and administration to female teachers, prejudice, and patriarchy. These are briefly discussed below:

2.2 Family Attachment

According to Dorsey (1996:41), "Family attachment is one of the major reasons why female teachers do not apply for management positions in the education sector". It is argued that female teachers are not prepared to take up positions away from their husbands and children. Dorsey further argued that "from an early age, daughters are groomed for their marriage roles of wife, mother and food provider... and they are

conditioned from an early age to believe that a woman is inferior to a man and that her place is in the home.” Because of this, most women do not want to apply for higher posts saying that they don’t want to be away from the family. Literature further showed that women do not want to be far away from their husbands for fear that they might lose them to other women (ibid). This cultural conditioning is a hindrance to women’s decision-making of taking management positions.

Mahlase (1997) revealed that female teachers often refuse promotions on account of their families because they cannot move easily since their family residence is usually determined by the location of the husband. In line with the idea that promotion is usually associated with mobility, Glass (2000:4) pointed out that, “superintendents are not usually hired from within. This means that the superintendent’s family has to move after she has left the classroom. This mobility discourages some women from applying for the posts.”

2.3 Low Self-Esteem, Lack of Confidence, Prejudice and Stereotypes

Low self-esteem and lack of confidence in addition to myths, stereotypes and prejudice related to the abilities and attitudes of women were seen to be among the factors explaining the under-representation of women in management positions as well.

According to Smith (1984:58), “... many women have to a certain degree internalised the attitudes and role expectations about women. They have learnt to fit neatly into the stereotypes. This can be a major handicap in the development of their individual personalities, their abilities and career potential”. Coleman (2004:4) observed that in surveys conducted in the 1990s and in 2004 in the United Kingdom, women were found to be “more likely than men to refer to lack of confidence or their own perceived faults that stopped them thinking they could become school managers”.

Sebakwane (1994) argues that gender socialization was practised, not to prejudice the child against the other sex, but to let it grow “naturally” into its predestined role and to make the child look forward with pleasure to its allotted task. This shows that although gender socialization in a patriarchal society creates discrimination between men and women, girls and boys, it takes place in such a way that both men and women, boys and girls, accept it without force (ibid). Female teachers’ perceptions of gender roles and what women can do is influenced by gender socialisation. Because of this socialization, female teachers feel that management positions are for men. Culturally they feel they

should be lower than men and that they do not have to hold higher positions than their husbands and other male counterparts.

Coleman (2001) argues that in a society where men are more likely to be leaders and where women have been stereotyped into playing subordinate and supportive roles, it is not surprising that women are less likely to plan a career that includes headship. Al Khalifa (2000:94) said that “some women reject moving into educational management as a consequence of what they see as its masculinism and its inappropriate technicist and hierarchical system of control”. Still in line with patriarchy, Damons (2008) argues that women in management positions should not be viewed as tokens representing other women nor should they adopt masculine traits to be successful managers. “Tokenism” is defined as the hiring of a few women to top management positions motivated by political or public consideration (Smith, 2008). According to Wadesango (2002), most factors that impede female teachers’ promotion into management positions indicate that women see themselves as their own enemy in so far as promotional prospects are concerned.

2.4 Lack of Support and Patriarchy

Lack of support from family members and the institutional context is seen to be one of the causes of under-representation of women in Secondary School management positions. The main issue is that in such a situation, men who are socialised to have an upper hand in a patriarchal society tend to exclude women from areas of power. According to this system, those in power, mainly men, tend not to support women for leadership roles, whether in the family or in the work place.

According to Riches (2005:43), the above situation is tantamount to discrimination and he further argues that the “discrimination model is where one group excludes the other. To make matters worse, these stereotypes influence both men and women equally”. In the long run, this influences the family members and those in charge of promotions. In such a situation, the following question arises: If family members and those responsible for promotion are also subjected to gender role stereotypes, will they support promotion of women at the workplace? (ibid)

Davidson and Burke (2001: 41) observed that, “stereotypical attitudes have a negative influence on the selection, placement and promotion of women to managerial positions.”

It is also argued that because women are socialised into a society where patriarchal relations predominate, they have limited individual choices about their career progress.

Riches (2005: 43), further argues that “If a woman has all the qualities required for promotion, but selectors think that the woman’s place is to be in the home looking after the children and that perhaps mothers make unreliable workers, then individual worth will not be taken into account sufficiently.” It is further argued that women who have attended interviews for promotion where almost all the interviewers were men have been discouraged because they think that they will not be picked because of this gender bias (Chabaya, 2009).

Furthermore, male cultural domination was observed to contribute to women’s lack of support in seeking leadership roles. Hansot and Tyack (2009: 41) explained that “It is because the world is defined and run by men and women attempt, to operate in it as such”. Shakeshaft (2005: 17) referred to the ideology of Androcentrism as “the elevation of the masculine to the level of the universal and ideal and honouring of men and male principles above women and the female”. Accordingly, such an ideology renders women inferior and society seeks to perpetuate this hierarchy.

Once women are rendered inferior, they cannot be considered for leadership roles by men and worse still, by other women. These circumstances above are bound to perpetuate under-representation of females in leadership roles. (ibid)

2.5 The National Gender Policy

2.5.1 Introduction

Education is regarded as a fundamental human right and the equal participation of boys and girls, men and women, at all levels is encourage in the SADC Declaration on gender and Development by all Member States. All members are committed to ensuring equality through equal representation of both women and men in decision making positions with a 30 per cent target share in decision making positions by the year 2015 (National Gender Policy, 2000:4).

In the same declaration, member states committed themselves to the promotion of women’s full access to and control over productive resources in order to reduce poverty among them and their families. Other areas of concern addressed in the declaration include increased provision of quality health and education services, protecting and

promoting the reproductive and sexual rights of women and the girl children, repealing and reforming all gender insensitive laws and taking measures to reduce gender violence.

2.5.2 Situation Analysis on Education and Training

The government's vision and mission as it relates to gender is captured in the mission statement in the national Policy on Education document, "Educating Our Future (1996)" which states:-

...to guide the provision of education for all Zambians so that they are able to pursue knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness, defend democratic ideals and accept and value other persons on the basis of their personal worth and dignity irrespective of gender, religion, ethnic origin, or any other discriminatory characteristics.

Since gaining independence in 1964, Zambia has always recognised the importance of education in the socio-economic development. The post independence era was characterised by rapid expansion of primary and secondary education facilities in all the administrative provinces available at the time. And because of this, both basic and high school enrolments saw a dramatic increase in enrolment. By 1964, there were 378, 417 and 13, 853 pupils enrolled in basic and high schools respectively (National Gender Policy, 2000:14). These figures rose to 1, 501, 340 and 178, 209 for basic and high schools respectively in 1995.

Despite this increase, participation and performance of girls in education still lagged behind that of boys. Since the 1990s, the sex ratios of basic school age population revealed that there were more girls than boys. Whereas there were 99 boys to every 100 females in 1990, this reduced slightly to 98 boys to every 100 females in 1996 according to the Central Statistics Office (CSO, 1990). From 1994 the gross intake rates for boys and girls increased probably due to the increased number of schools offering basic education. The intake rate increased from 107 in 1994 to 113 in 1996. This represented an increase of 6 per cent for boys. On the other hand, the net intake rates showed that 15 per cent of the eligible age entered basic education in 1996 compared to 46 per cent in 1995. The net admission rate for boys slightly increased by 2 percent between 1998 and 1996.

According to the *National Gender Policy*, it is argued that despite the increase in the admission rates, there is still need to create more school openings for children of

admission age and especially for girls as they tend to drop out of the school system and fail to proceed on the education ladder. Although accounting for 50 per cent of the basic school population, females only constituted 48 per cent of the total basic school enrolment. The proportion of girls enrolled in basic school tended to decline from 50 per cent in grade one to as low as 45 in grade 7 as per 1990 to 1996 education statistics in which period, girls enrolment especially for grades 5, 6 and 7 had been relatively lower than that of boys (Ibid,15).

At the time of drafting the *National Gender Policy*, there were more male basic school teachers than females. Female teachers only accounted for about 45 per cent of the total basic school teaching staff. Out of 3, 868 basic school head teachers only 8.1 per cent were women. The proportion of female head teachers in high schools was 15 per cent. Female Deputy heads of basic and high schools accounted for 13.7 per cent and 8.9 per cent respectively. These were the discrepancies that this study investigated many years after the launch of the gender policy.

Enrolment in the tertiary education institutions was also very varied between female and male students. At the university level, female students only accounted for 19 per cent of the total during the 1989/90 academic year. During the 1993/94 academic year, the proportion of females slightly increased to 22.5 per cent representing an increase of 3.2 per cent. While at the teacher and vocational training college level, female students' enrolment consisted 44 per cent and 25 per cent of the total population respectively.

One of the factors identified as a detriment to girls motivation and advancement in education is the lack of well qualified female role models (Ibid). Girls require female role models to look up in order to conceptualise their ambitions in education. Examination of the 1997 staffing, status revealed that almost all positions of authority had been taken up by men. The top management as an example was dominated with only one female representing 14.3 per cent of the total (Ibid, 16).

2.5.3 Remedies of How to Reduce Gender Gaps in Education and Training

In order to redress the gender imbalances and inadequacies in the provision of education which include the curriculum, production of education materials, teachers' attitudes and classroom interaction, Government will (National Gender Policy, 2000:47):

- a. Create, promote and support the conditions within which education can realise its potential in contributing to the realisation of the goals;
- b. Place priority on promoting equality, equity, efficiency, partnership, pluralism, transparency and accountability;
- c. Promote equality of access at all levels to both formal and non formal education and training;
- d. Harness the types of knowledge, skills, values and competences that are necessary for economic development;
- e. Develop partnership in education provision and recognising the Government's responsibility to create an enabling environment for full participation in education development;
- f. Enforce a 50:50 enrolment policy at basic, high school and Teacher Training College levels for females and males;
- g. Ensure that 25 per cent of available bursaries are reserved for female university students while the rest are competed for by both female and male students;
- h. Facilitate the provision of more community schools especially in rural areas to increase access by girls;
- i. Continue to exercise positive discrimination with regard to the pass marks for admission of girls to Grades 8 and 10;
- j. Introduce bursary schemes for deserving pupils, especially girls;
- k. Integrate reproductive health education in the curriculum to prevent amongst others, early pregnancy as well as HIV/AIDS;
- l. Facilitate the re-admission of girls who become pregnant back into school [The Re-entry Policy];
- m. Review the curriculum and teaching approaches and train teachers to enhance learning achievements among girls;
- n. Engender curricula, teaching and learning materials;
- o. Employ affirmative action in the appointment of deserving female managers to vacant management positions;
- p. Increase enrolments for young women in Youth Skills Training offered by Youth Skills resource centre;
- q. Reform Youth skill resource centres curriculum to include social education with emphasis on gender studies, human rights, traditional inequalities, development and literacy; and

- r. Ensure that teacher development, deployment and upward mobility takes into account the gender concerns in the system.

The gender policy has many items and it was imperative to review the section on education because this study was concerned with this sector. For example, it has sections on health, water and sanitation, labour, Employment and Social Security, Land, Agriculture, Commerce, Trade and Industry, Communication and transport to mention but a few. It is up to one to familiarise themselves with the section they are interested in.

2.6 The African Union Gender Policy

In the introduction, it was pointed out that Zambia moved faster than the African Union (AU) in drafting its gender policy. The AU Gender Policy was drafted in early 2006 and it was completed as early as January 2007 when it was presented to the African Union Summit and this was almost six years after the launch of the Zambian Gender Policy.

Zambia and many more African countries are members of the AU and therefore, they are supposed to follow what the *AU Gender Policy* states in conformity to their gender instruments that seek to eliminate all forms of discrimination and inequality at various levels and especially, in decision-making positions. Because Zambia is a member of the AU, it is important to carry out a brief synopsis of what the *AU Gender Policy* states.

The AU's commitment to gender equality is rooted in the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (SDGEA) and the Post Conflict Reconstruction and Development adopted by the Heads of State and Government in 2006.

In the United Nations (UN), the commitment to the achievement of gender equality can be traced to the 1948 United Nations Charter and the Universal Declaration on Human Rights which states that rights and freedoms will not be limited by a person's gender and establishes that "all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights." Since then the milestones that followed include UN instruments such as the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), Vienna Declaration on Human Rights, The Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies, BAP, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), Palermo Protocol on Trafficking in Humans and the Millennium Declaration and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The 1948 United Nations Charter and the Universal Declaration on Human Rights states that rights and freedoms will not be limited by a person's sex and establishes that "all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights." For this reason, the gender gaps that existed in decision-making positions in Secondary Schools in Choma District were unjustified and needed to be redressed because they were based on sex discrimination.

The First World Conference on Women (FWCW) was held in Mexico City, Mexico (1975), followed by the Second World Conference on Women (SWCW) held in Copenhagen, Denmark (1980), then the Third World Conference on Women (TWCW) in Nairobi, Kenya (1985) and lastly the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, China in 1995. While these conferences have contributed to strengthening of the legal, economic, social and political dimensions of the role of women, the world is still far from achieving gender equality (AU, 2009).

The AU Gender Policy also states that while it is evident that women substantially contribute to economic, social and political development as well as in environmental management, they have not benefited from economic growth and development and that they continue to be outside the decision-making spheres and barely enjoy human rights fully. The writers of the AU gender policy suggest that progress must be made through fruitful dialogue between governments and backed by political will, reflecting in changing constitutional, legal and social platforms through which more women can exercise their voice and accountability in decision-making that affects their well-being. Nonetheless, women still face discrimination, exclusion, and marginalisation and do not share equally the benefits of production (ibid).

According to the AU Gender Policy, the majority of Regional Economic Commissions (RECs) including Arab Maghreb Union (AMU), Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA), Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (IGAD), Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) have gender Units.

The Regional Economic Commissions (RECs) mentioned above and their member states have elaborate Gender Policies, and have adopted Gender Declarations and Plans and Frameworks, Strategic Plans. Despite these regional blocks that aim to engender gender and other economic, social and political developments, the AU Gender Policy

acknowledges that up to 2012, 70 percent of member states currently had not implemented their gender instruments. Progress on Member States' implementation of SDGEA and the gender policy is submitted every year at the January Summit of Heads of State and Government.

The growing recognition of the leadership role of women in all spheres of development including their participation in decision-making at the international, regional and national level are reflected in the creation of platforms of action related to gender. It is in this context that the AU developed a gender policy that focuses on closing the equality gap between men and women in general and particularly addressing gender inequalities which have resulted in disempowerments and feminisation of poverty, in order to have a better understanding of the contribution of women in development.

The need to narrow and eventually eliminate the gender gap in decision-making positions can also be seen in the vision, objectives, rationale and goals of the AU Gender Policy which are briefly discussed below:

i. Vision

"The vision of the *African Union Gender Policy* is to achieve an African Society founded on democracy, gender equality, human rights and dignity and recognises the equal status of women and men, girls and boys, with both sexes thriving together harmoniously, in a peaceful and secure environment characterised by equal partnership in decision-making in the development of the continent."

ii. Goals

The overall goal of the *AU Gender Policy* is to adopt a rights based approach to development through evidence-based decision-making and the use of gender-disaggregated data and performance indicators for the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment in Africa. It seeks to promote a gender responsive environment and practices and to undertake commitments linked to the realisation of gender equality and women's empowerment in Member States at the international, Continental and National level.

More specifically, the policy offers a framework to:

1. Accelerate gender mainstreaming in institutional, strategic and political cadres, and programmes and plans at decision-making level,
2. Establish an institutional framework for implementing the diverse commitments related to gender equality and empowerment of women,
3. Develop guidelines and enforcement of standards favouring the creation of a gender responsive environment with a view to ensure empowerment of women,
4. Establish standards and criteria required to monitor, evaluate and ensure the follow up of progress realised in mainstreaming gender equality and empowerment of women in a regular manner, and
5. Promote equitable access for both women and men to resources, knowledge, information and services including basic needs and facilitate the implementation of corrective measures to address existing inequalities with regard to access to control over resources as well as other empowerment opportunities.

iii. Objectives

There were a number of objectives that the *AU Gender Policy* wanted to achieve in the near future. But the one in tandem with this study was to – Initiate and accelerate gender mainstreaming in institutions, legal frameworks, policies, programmes, strategic frameworks and plans, Human Resources (HR) and performance management systems, resource allocation and decision-making process at all levels.

iv. Rationales

There were a lot of gender gaps that the *AU Gender Policy* sought to eliminate. But relevant to this study, it sought to have:

1. Equal representation in decision-making and good-governance and politics
2. Complete elimination of gender stereotypes, sexism and all forms of discrimination
3. Engender policies, programmes, budgets and accountability frameworks underpinning AU organs and Member States
4. A massive participation of gender specialists and activists in the Media.

Because of the previous aims, the African countries are supposed to align their gender targets in line with those of the AU. All the aims, objects, goals, rationale of the *AU Gender*

Policy emphasize the need of women in decision-making positions and this is what was lacking adequately in Choma District Secondary Schools.

Considering the African societal context, it is critical to determine how gender equality should be promoted. The roles that women, girls, men and boys perform are relative to their states, relationships among one another and power-relations in private and public spheres. Concepts and the historic background such as patriarchy that has shaped the relationship between women and men and boys and girls are context specific and based on very different value systems and structures in different countries and must be established for gender equality to be achieved. Development is about creating the support process through which human beings (women and men) are able to realise their full potential. Gender stereotypes, especially unequal power relations, often block this process for men as much as for women. Women's empowerment and gender equality should form the basis of Gender Mainstreaming in the AU, AU organs and Member States, while men and women should be the socio-economic and political glue for the integration of the African context (ibid).

2.7 The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women is an international human rights treaty that focuses on women's rights and women's issues worldwide. CEDAW is also referred to as the Treaty for the rights of women and the International Bill of Women. This treaty was developed by the UN Commission on the status of women and the Convention addresses the advancement of women, describes the meaning of equality and sets forth guidelines on how to achieve equality.

According to Blanchfield (2011), CEDAW is the only international human rights treaty that specifically addresses the rights of women and as of 5th May, 2009, 187 countries were party to the Convention. This meant that they were bound by its terms. According to the International Women's Rights Action Watch (IWRAW), the United States was the only industrialised country to have signed but not ratified the Convention. Other governments that had not ratified the treaty include Iran, Nauru, Palau, Somalia, Sudan and Tonga and this could be explaining the high human rights violations in these countries and especially on women.

CEDAW call on State Parties to take measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all areas of life, including political participation, employment, education, healthcare, and family structure.

Because of the vastness of the document and the concentration of this study, it was prudent to concentrate on what CEDAW stipulates on education.

According to GIDD (2010), Chapter Ten of CEDAW specifically addresses issues on education and how to eliminate discrimination and enhance equal rights of women with men by State parties using appropriate measures.

1. Article 10 (a) of the CEDAW refer to the same conditions being given to men and women for career and vocational guidance. Equality is also to be ensured in access to studies and for achieving diplomas and [degrees] in rural and in urban areas. This means that women should be given the same opportunity for schooling not only in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education beyond high school, but also includes all types of vocational training.
The word “access” in this paragraph not only means being allowed into an institution but includes factors such as distance to institutions. It also means that the institutions should be affordable and where they are not, financial assistance should be offered. It is imperative that this is not only guaranteed for urban women but also for rural women.
2. Article 10 (b) of the CEDAW goes further by looking into possible discrimination that may take place once access to an institution has been granted. This means that some courses or subjects should be accessible to women on an equal level as men. Also, the same examination should be available to women and men equally. Furthermore the teaching staff for men and women should have the same standard of qualifications to make sure that men do not have a better source of knowledge than women. School premises and equipment available to women should be on the same level as that of men so as to ensure equality in the learning environment.
3. Article 10 (c) of the CEDAW aims at the removal of the stereotyped concept of men’s and women’s roles in all types of education; stereotyping in the sense of

perception, for example, that men should work while women should stay home and raise children, cook and clean. These concepts may be taught in educational institutions from as early as pre-school and the way to eliminate this is to begin by the suggested revision of textbooks used to reflect equality or to call for removal of any textbook which contains this stereotyping. Similarly, members of the teaching staff must be educated to ensure that their teaching methods do not reflect such stereotyping.

4. Article 10 (d) of the CEDAW seeks to confer on women equal opportunities with men to benefit from scholarships and grants. This means that women should be able to benefit from opportunities to have their education paid for by someone other than themselves, or they should be able to get funding in the form of an allowance or contribution to their education in the same way as men. This therefore confers on State Parties the responsibility to ensure that when it comes to scholarships or grants of any kind, they should be made available to all persons regardless of their sex.
5. Article 10 (e) of the CEDAW aims at giving women an equal opportunity with men to have access to continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes. This means that even those women who did not get a chance to go through conventional education should be availed the opportunity to go through the same.

The same Article also aims to reduce at the earliest possible time any gap in education existing between men and women. This means that State Parties must be able to look at statistics in different forms and levels of education to see if gaps exist between the numbers of men and women in all forms of education. They must also undertake to reduce any gap that may exist between men and women. This could be in the form of affirmative action.

6. Article 10 (f) of the CEDAW deals with a concern pertaining to education, namely, the high drop-out rates of females. State Parties are urged to take action to reduce this. Drop-out rates of females are due to several factors such as pregnancies for which at primary and secondary school level may mean exclusion from school. Other problems include priority being given to educating males if funds are not enough for all the children, especially in rural areas. Also, if parents or even a

mother pass away, the oldest female in the family will usually resort to dropping out of school in order to take care of the family.

State parties are required to organise programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely so that they will have an opportunity to obtain some informal education and valuable life skills.

7. Article 10 (g) of the CEDAW endeavours to give women the same opportunities as men to participate actively in sports and physical education. This means not only allowing them to take part in the same sport but that the same focus should be given to women's sports. This also means that the equipment should be equal for men and for women. It also extends to the funding that is made available to men's sport and physical education which should also be extended equally to women.
8. Article 10 (h) of the CEDAW calls on State parties to go beyond giving basic education but to also include other very important educational information help to ensure the health and well-being of families including information and advice of family planning. This is very important especially as knowledge about family planning and sex education could aid in reducing the number of unplanned pregnancies leading to an increase in female drop-out rates.

CEDAW has also an article on Sex role stereotyping and prejudice and this is Article 5. Article 5 (a) of the CEDAW requires State parties to take all appropriate measures to change the social and cultural outlook of the roles of women in society. It states that what may be termed as acceptable and normal gender roles in society, inadvertently or otherwise, suggest that women are inferior to men. This may well be based on prejudice both customary and traditionally.

Article 5 therefore seeks to take appropriate measures such as coming up with appropriate legislation, policy and other proactive measures outside the domain of law. Such other measures could entail education of both girls and boys from a very young age in order to make them aware that girls and boys and consequently women and men are born equal and deserve to enjoy fundamental rights and freedoms on an equal footing.

The *National Gender Policy* incorporates various aspects of Article 5 and 10 of the CEDAW and aspects of gender in education to try and remove inequalities at various levels. If the eight points of Article 10 of CEDAW and the affirmative action enshrined in the gender policy are implemented, imbalances will be removed in the education sector.

2.8 Radical Feminists

Radical feminists see patriarchy as a cause of all women's problems and advocated for a total transformation of society to demolish and deconstruct patriarchy. According to Farber (1990), "By the mid 1970s, feminists had achieved some change. In 1971 Congress in the USA banned discrimination against girls and women in Schools". In 1973 feminist lawyers won a Supreme Court decision in which the justices ruled that women had the constitutional right to choose to have abortion. Millions of women who never attended public demonstrations used feminist rhetoric and legal victories won by women activists to create greater equality in their marriage and personal lives and to expand their economic and political opportunities.

Radical feminists relied on revolutionary analysis to call attention to the oppression of women and to demand changes in women's place in society and changes in relationships between women and men (Freeman, 2000).

According to the radical feminists, patriarchy forms a hierarchical social order that encourages the domination of women by men. In a patriarchal culture, women are subjected to subordinate positions as compared to men who are usually considered as the superordinate (Damons, 2008). Men and women are seen as fundamentally different, with the female mode as the basis of a future society, in the rejection of marriage and family which act as oppressive psychological factors. Radical feminists advocate for womanhood, which views women as 'we'.

Radical feminists support the idea of women to be freed from state control and from the constraining association with the family and argue that the man-made world must be changed as it hinders women (Boyd, 2002). With this, the radical feminists aim to eliminate male privileges and sexual distinction in order to break the tyranny of biological and psychological power and thereby overthrowing the domination of men and eventually promote equality of sexes.

According to Walby (1996), patriarchy manifests itself in a few structures such as: the patriarchal values and structures of society where women activities are always seen as less significant than those of men. These values usually portray a situation that man is the stronger, intelligent sex and should be rewarded for his labour.

Under patriarchal arrangements, women will serve, be exploited, undermined and subjected to male dominance, wage labour and sexual violence and like this the patriarchal system will be maintained and institutionalized by a particular culture.

With regards to education, radical feminists look into power relations within the school. Because of these relations, they are of the opinion that schools serve as institutions that reinforce patriarchy (Colgan, 1994). According to Weimer (1994) women and girls are subjected to an oppressive role in the staffroom and classroom respectively as well as around school generally. Radical feminism further claim that school subjects focus more on males than females, which further emphasize patriarchy. Concerning change, radical feminists adopt their radical stance that political and legal structures should be eradicated. They assert that this will assist women to attain liberal, fundamental as well as revolutionary plight. The radicals argue that change can only come in a violent way (Coleman, 2002).

Chapter two was a review of the literature related to the subject by other scholars. Factors such as family attachment, lack of support from administrators and family members, patriarchy, low self-esteem, lack of confidence, prejudice and stereotypes where some of the factors that were noted to be keeping women away from management positions. The traditional method of promoting teachers of looking at qualifications, experience and hard work were also seen to be factors because they favoured men because of their being patriarchal in nature. In this chapter, the National Gender Policy, African Union Gender Policy, the Conference on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women were reviewed to give the study a vivid picture.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methodology and the research design were presented. The population, sample, description of sample, sampling procedure and the data analysis were presented. The instruments that were used to collect the data are also presented in this chapter.

3.1 Research Design

This was a case study. A case study is a study that deals with a limited number of units of analysis, such as an individual, a group or an institution, and these are studied intensively (White, 2005). Bryman (2004:85) further states that “Case studies are frequently sites for the employment of both quantitative and qualitative methods of research.” The study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006:24), “Qualitative and quantitative approaches to research are complementary. Where appropriate, they should be combined to maximise the strengths and minimize the limitations of each.”

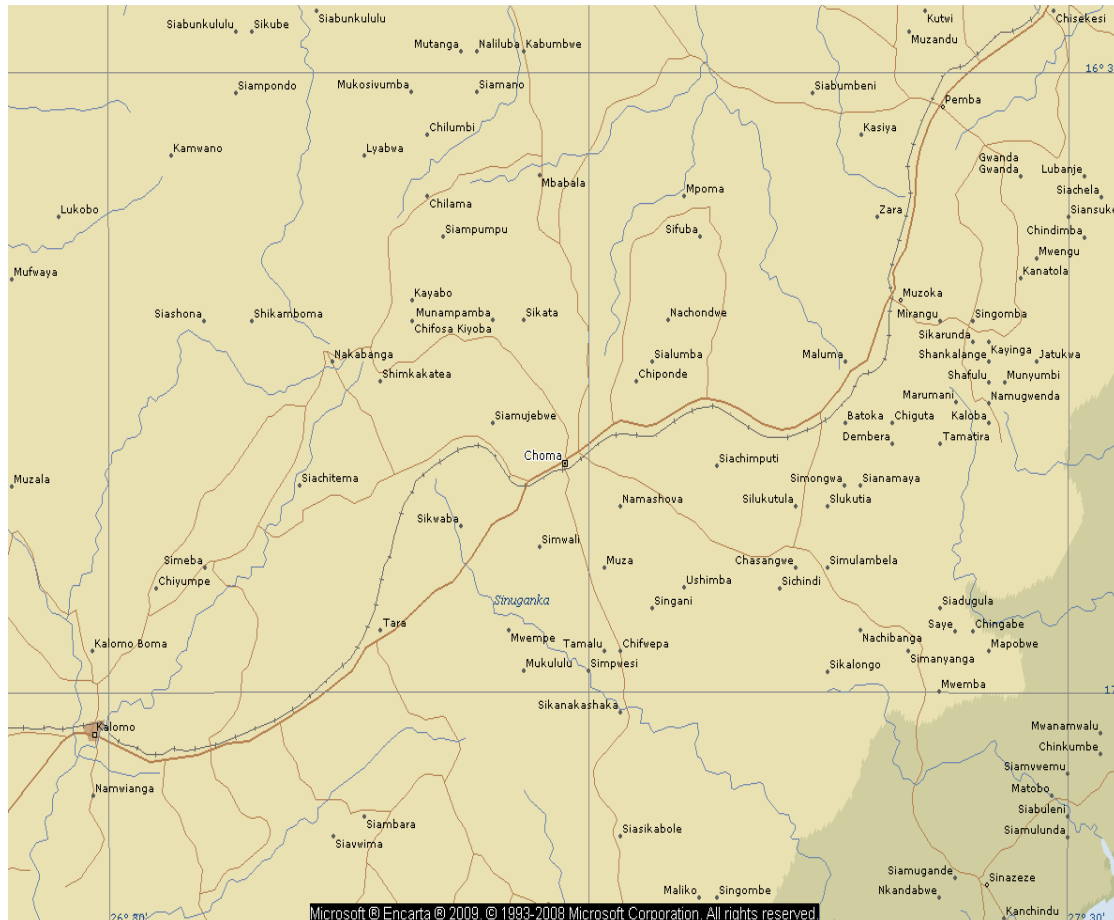
In this study, Secondary Schools were studied as cases in Choma District. Schools fall under organisations and institutional case studies. “When one is studying an organisation or institution, there are many focus points to be considered. For example, one can study policy implementation and evaluation, human resource practices, management and organisational issues, organisational culture and processes of change” Carol (2005: 99). In this study, policy implementation and evaluation, management and organisation issues were studied.

3.2 Study Site

The study was conducted in Choma District of the Southern Province of Zambia because there were many (16) Secondary Schools. The other reason why the researcher chose this site is that he noticed a gap and that the place was very accessible because the road network was good and this made it cheaper and easier for the researcher to move from one school to another. The economic activities that the people of Choma mainly engaged in were farming and trade. Because of this, the majority of the population were engaged in small scale farming, growing mainly maize and keeping livestock such as cattle, goats, chickens and pigs. Using the resources mainly generated from the activities mentioned

above, the majority of the parents send their children to the Secondary Schools mentioned earlier on though some children come from outside the district from different parts of the country.

Figure 2: Map of Choma



Source: Microsoft®Encarta®2009©1993-2008Microsoft Corporation

Choma is located in the Southern Province of Zambia between latitude 16°3' - 17°3' South and 26°41' - 27°40' East. According to the *2010 Census Report*, Choma District had a total population of 244, 180 people. Out of these, 118, 486 (49 %) were male, and 125, 694 (51%) were female. The district that was under investigation had a population density of 33.5. Population Density is defined as the total number of people per square kilometre (ibid). The population density of Zambia increased from 7.5 in 1980 to 9.8 in 1990 to 13.1 in 2000 and stood at 17.3 persons per square kilometre as at 2011.

3.3 Population and Sample

3.3.1 Population

Bryman (2004: 87) defines a population as “the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected.” The term unit is employed because it is not necessarily people who might be sampled. The researcher may want to sample from a universe of nations, cities, regions, objects or events that conform to specific criteria and to which he/she intend to generalise the results of the research.

In this study, the population that was being targeted were the 421 teachers in all the Secondary Schools. Out of the number stated above, 284 teachers were male and 137 were female. Choma District had 16 Secondary Schools and the teachers above were distributed within these schools. Out of these schools, 4 were government, 3 were private and the rest were grant-aided schools.

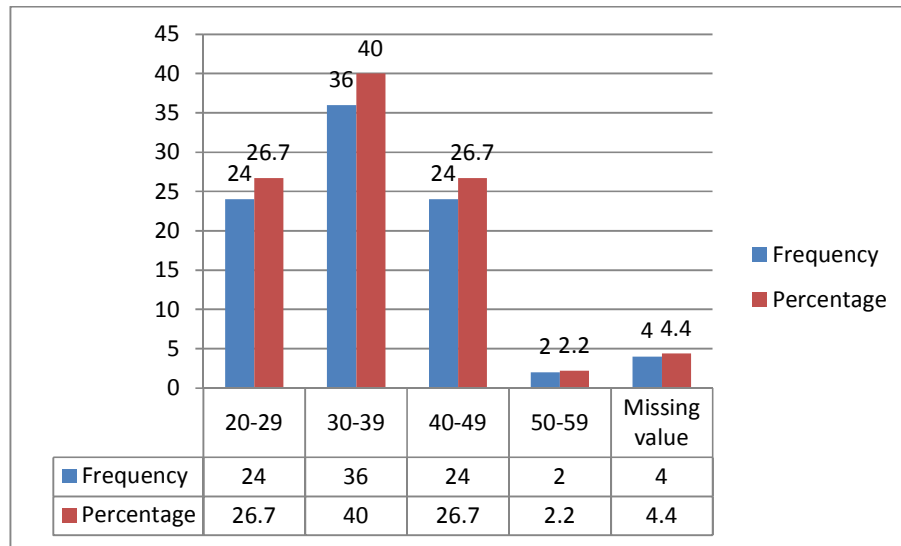
3.3.2 Sample

The study targeted a population of 421 teachers as stated above. Using purposive and simple random sampling, 97 participants were selected for the study. Out of these, 5 were head teachers, 1 District Education Board Secretary (DEBS), the Chief Human Resource Officer from Ministry headquarters and 90 teachers that were drawn from the 6 schools.

3.3.3 Description of Sample

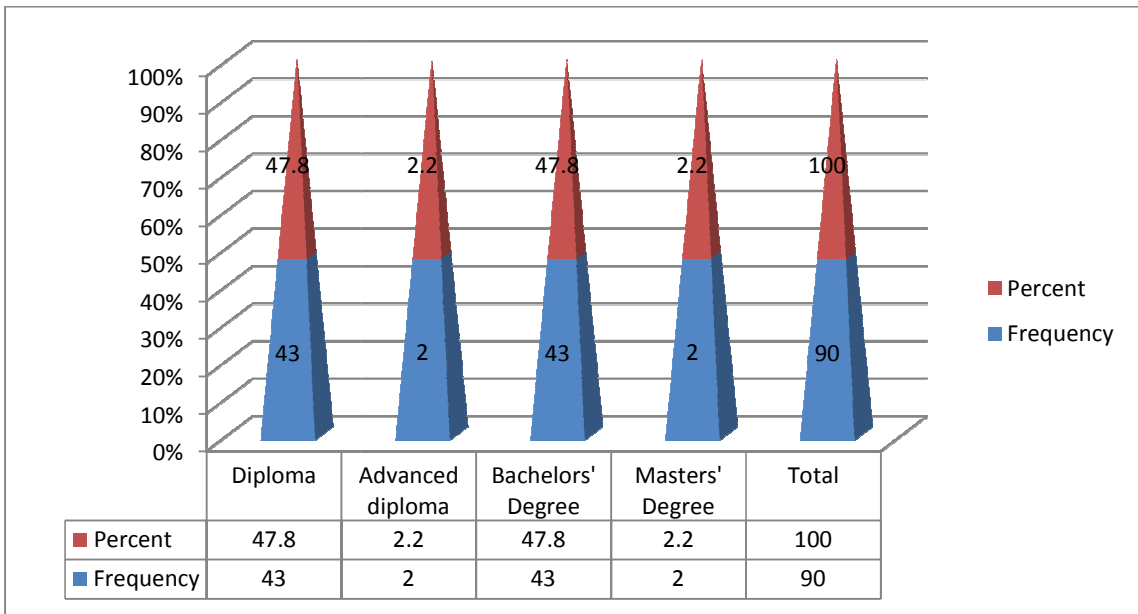
This study was based on 97 participants. A questionnaire (Appendix C) that had closed and open ended questions was distributed to 90 teachers who were drawn from 6 Secondary Schools within the district. Interviews were conducted with 5 head teachers and 2 officials from the administration offices. One was the Chief Human Resource Officer from Ministry of Education headquarters in Lusaka and the District Planning Officer in Choma using an interview guide (Appendix B) with semi-structured questions. The schools where the questionnaires were distributed and interviews conducted are CSS, CDSS, SSS, BTKSS, CSSC and NGSS. As stated earlier on, actual names were not used considering ethical issues.

Figure 3: Age Group of Respondents



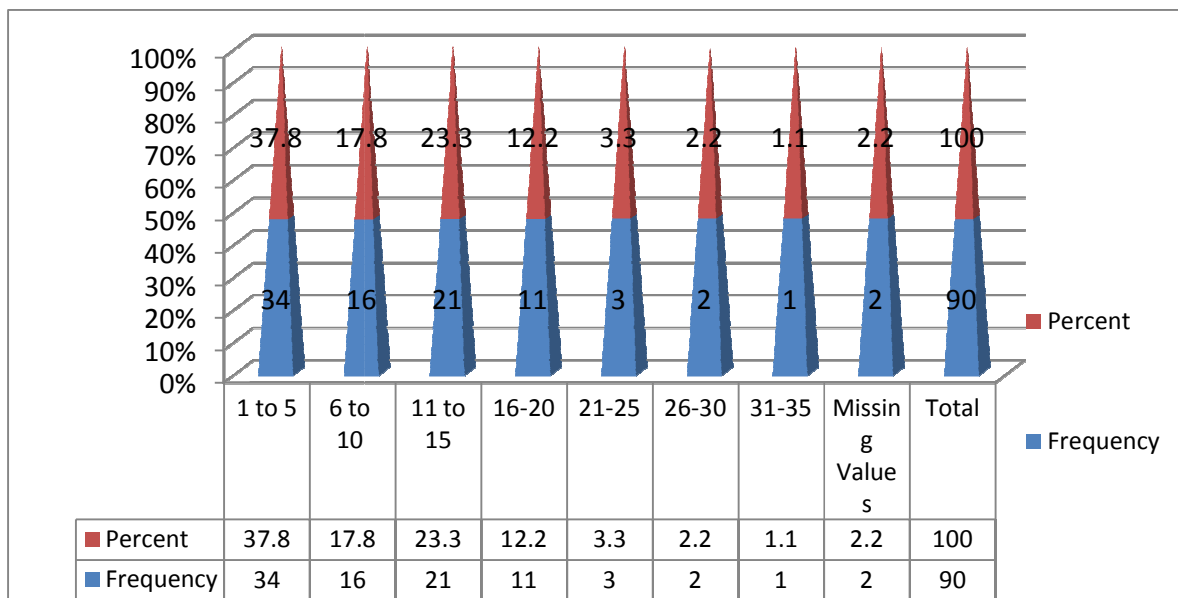
From the figure above it is very evident that the majority of the teachers fell between the range of 30 – 39 (40 percent) years and these were followed by those between 20 -29 years and 40 – 49 years who had the same percentage of 26.7 respectively. The least represented were those between the range of 50 -59 years.

Figure 4: Qualifications of Respondents



Out of the qualifications in the figure above, 25 male teachers had Bachelors' Degrees, 24 diplomas, 2 Advanced Diplomas and 1 had a Masters Degree. In total the male teachers who responded to the questionnaire were 52. On the other hand, 18 female teachers had Bachelors' Degrees, 19 had Diplomas and 1 female had a Masters Degree as well. In total, the females who responded to the questionnaire were 38. Because of these disparities in number, the males were many in all the categories that were attempted. In total, there were 58 male participants including the 6 administrators interviewed. The females were 39 including 1 female administrator from CDSS.

Figure 5: Work Experience of Respondents



The majority of the teachers had little years of experience as can be seen from the figure above. 34 teachers had 1 - 5 years of experience. These were followed by those with more years of experience of 11 – 15 years and these were 21 in number. Teachers with very advanced years of experience were very few. Only 1 had fallen within the range of 31 – 35, 2 were within the range of 26 – 30 and 3 were within the range of 21 – 25. At the time of conducting this study, the national constitution was being reviewed and a suggestion was put forward to increase the retirement age for government workers from 55 – 65 years and this could have increased the number of teachers with more experience.

3.4 Sampling Procedure

Probability sampling was used in this study. According to Bless and Smith (1995:89), “Probability or random sampling occurs when the probability of including each element of the population can be determined.” The selection of an element from a population is called random when each element of the population has the same chance, likelihood or probability of being chosen for the sample. There are several types of probability sampling and simple random was used to select the participants from the school registers that were provided to the researcher.

“Simple random sampling is a sampling procedure which provides equal opportunity of selection for each element in a population” (ibid: 89).

In this study, the lottery technique was used. The number of teachers per school was established in the first place. Names of teachers were then written down and drawn from the pool after mixing them thoroughly. Instead of mentioning actual names of schools, pseudonyms were used considering ethical regulations. From CSS, 22 teachers were selected. From SSS, 24 teachers were picked, 15 from CDSS, 11 from BTKSS, 6 from CSSC and 12 from NGSS. This gave a total of 90 respondents who answered the questionnaire and the 7 administrators who were purposively selected. The total participants were therefore 97.

The reason why the researcher used this method is that it permits the researcher to apply inferential statistics to the data and provides equal opportunity of selection for each element of the population (Tromp and Kombo, 2006).

3.5 Data Collection

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques through triangulation. White, (2005) defines triangulation as a system of using a variety of methods to collect data and it was used in this study. The use of several methods to collect data eliminates bias or distortion of the researcher picture on the study. The following data collection methods were used in this study:

- i. Interview Guides
- ii. Questionnaires
- iii. Desk review/Document analysis and,
- iv. Observation

3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

i. Interview Guides

Interviews are questions asked orally. There are various types of interviews such as unstructured interviews, semi-structured interviews and structured interviews (Carol, 2005). This study used semi-structured interviews. These interviews are based on the

use of an interview guide. This is a written list of questions or topics that need to be covered by the interview (ibid).

ii. Questionnaires

This is a set of questions that is used to gather information in a study. Questionnaires have also various advantages including the following: information can be collected from a large sample and diverse regions, confidentiality is upheld, they save time and since they are presented in paper format, there is no opportunity for interview bias.

iii. Desk review/Document analysis

An extensive study of literature on the subject was conducted by the researcher. Books, reports, journals and dissertations were used to establish a concrete argument. The researcher further observed the situation critically in the schools that were being studied and this enabled him to establish the situation prevailing with precision.

3.7 Data Analysis

According to Marshall and Rossman in White (2005: 256) "Data analysis entails bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of time - consuming, creative and fascinating process." Analysis is essentially about making sense of the data that has been collected and using the results of this process to answer the research questions (Thakathi, 2000).

Data obtained from individuals through interviews and literature study were analysed through identifying common themes. The phrases or sentences were further grouped into categories that reflected the various aspects of meaning (Carol, 2005). On the other hand, data that were gathered using questionnaires were analysed using a software package called Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS). Furthermore, the statistical data that were generated were then described using qualitative methods. Frequencies and percentages were collected and then explained thoroughly. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used for data generated using SPSS.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained permission from the Research Ethics Committee to conduct research, and highest levels of respect and consideration were observed when dealing

with participants at all levels. According to Bryman (2004:258), “Ethical issues arise at a variety of stages in social research. Ethical issues cannot be ignored in that they relate directly to the integrity of a piece of research and of the discipline that are involved.”

In research, participants have the right to participate or to refuse to participate altogether (Ibid). For this reason, the researcher cooperated with the participants and because of this, they gave correct information that reflected the truth on the ground.

To ensure that the respondents co-operated, the researcher got permission from administration to distribute questionnaires in schools. Anonymity and confidentiality were highly regarded and the researcher explained that the data that were being collected were purely for academic purposes. To ensure anonymity, the questionnaire did not have a provision for name and the administrators that were interviewed were asked if they wanted their names to appear in the report. Furthermore, the actual names of the schools where the study was conducted were not reflected in the report but acronyms were used.

3.9 Pilot Study

Before going in the field for data collection, a pilot study was conducted to determine whether the instruments were suitable for the respondents. To ensure this, 30 questionnaires were distributed to teachers at 2 Secondary Schools in Lusaka District.

According to Bryman (2004:90), “...piloting also has a role in ensuring that the research instruments as a whole function well”. Apart from the previous reason, the pilot study was very important because it provided the researcher with some experience of using the instruments and this enhanced confidence. With the interview guide, it helped identify questions that could have made the respondents feel uncomfortable and therefore helped in detecting any such tendencies that could make the respondent lose interest at any point.

The pilot study was also important in that it determined the adequacy of instructions to respondents when completing questionnaires and it was also possible to note how well the questions flowed and whether it was necessary to move some of them around to improve on the flow of information.

This chapter simply looked at the research design and the methodology that guided this study. This was a case study that used both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to research because they usually complement each other. Policy implementation was

investigated and the population that was targeted were 421 teachers that were in the 16 schools that were investigated. 97 participants were selected using simple random and purposive sampling as a sample. The instruments that were used to collect data were interview guides, questionnaires, desk reviews and observation of the prevailing trends by the researcher. The data was analysed by grouping common themes and a software package called Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) was used to analyse the data that were collected using questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussions of the study. The study was carried out to establish if the *National Gender Policy* was being implemented when promoting teachers in Secondary Schools and what its effects had been in the district on the same subject. It was carried out in Choma District because there were a number of Secondary Schools and because the researcher noted a gap in management in these schools.

4.2 Representation of Female Teachers in Management Positions

Because of the revelations and results that the research came up with, it was easily concluded that implementation of the gender policy had remained a daunting challenge in Choma District when promoting teachers in Secondary Schools. Out of the 16 Secondary Schools in the district, there were only 2 Head teachers who were female and these were currently heading CDSS and MMSS. This representation of 12.5 percent of headmistresses in the district in Secondary Schools a decade after the launch of the gender policy leaved much to be desired because it was far below the 30 percent affirmative action advocated in the gender policy and the 50 percent threshold advocated by the SADC protocol on gender. Despite this situation, the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) and District Education Standards Officers (DESO) were both female at the time of conducting this study.

The number of Deputy Head teachers who were female was equally very low. Out of the 16 Secondary Schools, only 4 were female and this represents 25 percent which is an underrepresentation.

4.2.1 Number of Heads of Department (HODs)

The management team in Secondary Schools is usually composed of the Head teacher, Deputy Head teacher and the subject Heads of Department though other officers such as the school matron and boarding master (for boarding schools) usually attend management meetings because of the sensitivity of the offices they hold. The Head teacher and his Deputy together with the HODs usually hold management meetings often to discuss issues pertaining to the running of the school and other issues that affect the institution which could be internal or external. Because of this, the position of HOD is very important when making decisions in the school. The HOD is in charge of a department and therefore, supervises a number of teachers under his/her department. Because of this responsibility under him/her, he/she is usually in charge of the position of Deputy Head when the Deputy is not around. When both the Head and Deputy are not around the station one of the senior HODs takes charge. Because of the responsibility that the Heads of Department carry, they are usually considered for higher positions that fall vacant in the Ministry of Education (MOE). It is for this reason that an adequate representation of females at this level should be present. An HOD can easily be elevated to the position of Deputy Head, Head teacher or any other higher position in the ministry if they are confirmed in that position. The departments in a Secondary School are shown below as recommended by the *2004 High School Issues and Current Practices in Zambia*:

TABLE 3: DEPARTMENTS IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL

NO	DEPARTMENT	SUBJECT GROUPING
1	Mathematics	All mathematical subjects
2	Languages	English Language, Literature in English, Zambian Languages and other languages
3	Social Sciences	History, Geography, Civic Education, Social Studies, Religious, Christian and Moral Education
4	Natural Sciences	Chemistry, Physics, Biology, Agricultural Science and any other Sciences
5	Business Studies and Commercial Studies	Business Studies, Economics, Commerce, Principles of Accounts, Book-Keeping, Office Practice and Typing
6	Practical Subjects	Home Economics, Food and Nutrition, Health Education and all related subjects, Metalwork, Woodwork, Engineering, Mechanical and Geometrical Drawing, Information and Communication Technology
7	Expressive Arts	Music, Dance, Drama, Art and Design and Physical Education

Source: *2004 Discussion Paper on High School Issues and Current Practices in Zambia*

It was surprising however that the female teachers in Choma District were inadequately represented at this crucial school level. The table below show the number of HODs from the 6 schools where the study was conducted:

Table 4: Number of HODs at the 6 Sampled Schools

No	Name of School	No of Male HODs	No of Female HODS	Total No. Of HODs
1	CSSC	3	2	5
2	CSS	5	2	7
3	CDHS	3	3	6
4	SSS	6	1	7
5	NGSS	4	3	7
6	BTKSS	4	1	5
Total		25	12	37

From the six schools that were selected, there were 37 Heads of Department. In total, there were supposed to be 42 but some schools did not have some departments at that moment. For example, CSSC did not have Expressive Arts and Practical Subjects. CDSS did not have Expressive Arts and BTKSS did not have the Expressive arts and Practical Subjects departments as well. The reasons for the non - availability of these departments in some schools is that they were still developing.

Out of the total 37 HODs, 25 were male and this represents 67.6 percent. On the contrary, 12 were female and this represents 32.4 percent. This comparison was not healthy because the females were almost completely overshadowed by their male counterparts. The chances that a male HOD would be picked for a higher position when there was a vacancy were therefore very high because of their number which was bigger than that of the females.

It must be noted that the number of Head teachers and Deputy Head teachers was already accounted for earlier on, and to avoid repetition, they have not been included in this section.

4.3 Causes of Underrepresentation of Female Managers in Choma District Secondary Schools which made implementation of the gender policy difficult.

i. Promotion Criteria

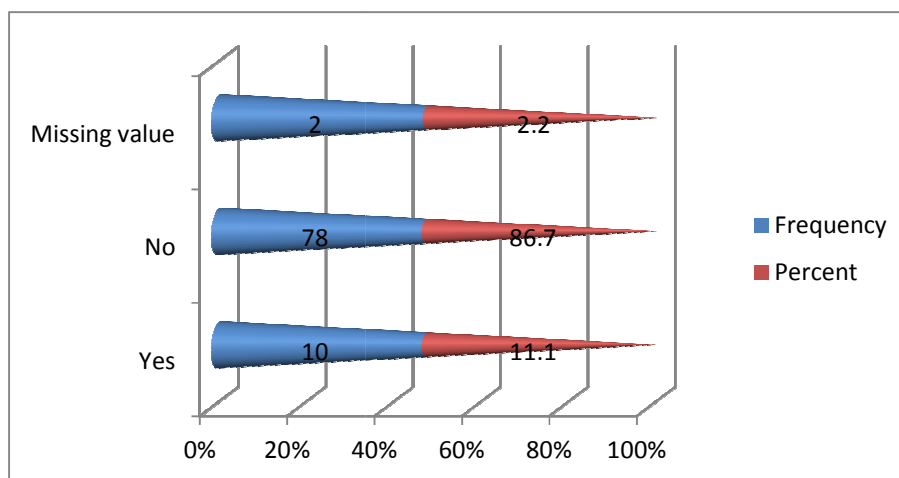
From statistics given previously on the number of Head teachers, Deputy Head teachers and Heads of Department that were male and female in Choma District Secondary Schools, it is easily notable that the female teacher was inadequately represented in management positions in Secondary Schools in Choma District. The number of female Heads, Deputy Heads and Heads of Department leaved much to be desired. This low representation could be attributed to the method that was being used in the Ministry of Education to promote teachers and other factors that will be discussed later on. In an interview that was conducted with the Chief Human Resource officer at the Ministry Headquarters in Lusaka, he pointed out that performance, age and qualifications of an individual were highly considered when looking for someone for a senior position in the Ministry of Education. Equally, what the Chief Human Resource Officer said was echoed again by the administrators in Choma District. One administrator stated that performance, qualifications and experience were considered when giving a teacher management position. These statements were in tandem with what Dadey and Harber (1991:69) stated in the literature review that, “the dominant tradition has been to recruit from within the teaching profession, often as a reward for good performance, long years of service or ideological compatibility with the existing political orientation of government”. This method of promoting teachers disadvantages females because it is the one that has kept women in lower echelons of the education promotion pyramid. When one talks about performance, this is something that is relative and very difficult to measure when it is applied on women to judge them in schools. Most of the appointments to higher positions in the Ministry of Education have political inclinations (ibid).

The 30 percent gender affirmative action which is enshrined in the *National Gender Policy* was also not mentioned by any of the administrators that were interviewed on the method used to promote teachers in Choma District. They argued that one cannot just be given promotion simply because they are female and that they must have the necessary armour of what it takes to be promoted and that this is hard work, qualifications, age and experience.

ii. Lack of Distribution of the Gender Policy

One finding of this research was that the *National Gender Policy* was not being distributed to relevant persons in the Ministry of Education. This was a serious threat to its implementation because it was not being read because of its not being available. In an interview that was conducted with one officer at the DEBS office, he stated that the office only had one copy of the Gender Policy document that was received in the year 2000 and it could not be traced at that moment. This same question was posed to other administrators and they all confirmed that it was not distributed. When the same question was asked to the 90 teachers using a questionnaire, the following results were given in the bar chart below:

Figure 7: Possession of the *National Gender Policy* by teachers

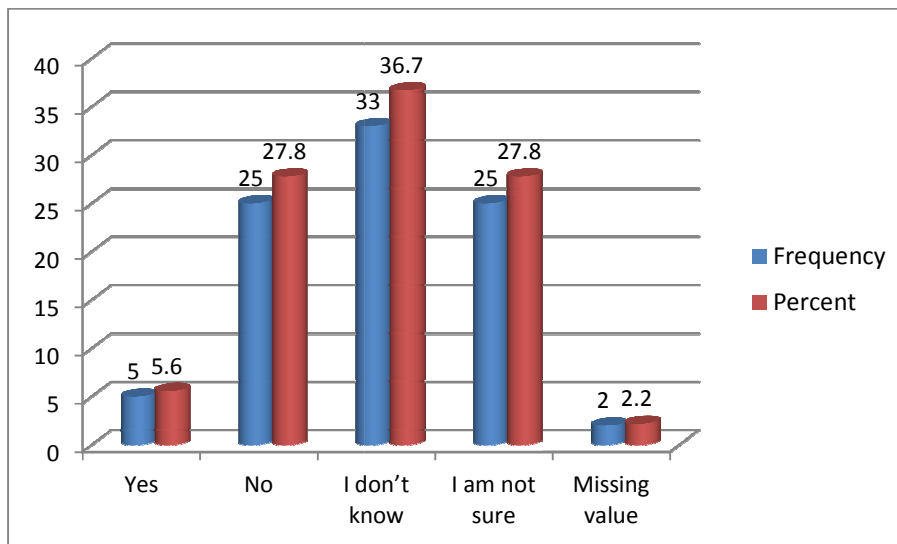


The statistics on this page show that 10 (11.1 percent) respondents answered that they had the gender policy document. 78 (86.7 percent) respondents stated that they did not have the policy document and 2 were missing values (2.2 percent). This shows how bad the situation was when it came to the distribution of the document.

The same question was again asked to the teachers but this time, it was seeking to find out if the document existed in the school library and the following statistical information were gathered: 5 teachers said that the document was there in the school library and this

is a very small representation (5.6 percent). 33(36. 6 percent) said they did not know, 25(27.8 percent) said that they were not sure and only two missing values. This information is shown in the bar chart below:

Figure 8: Responses on the availability of the *National Gender Policy* in the School Library.

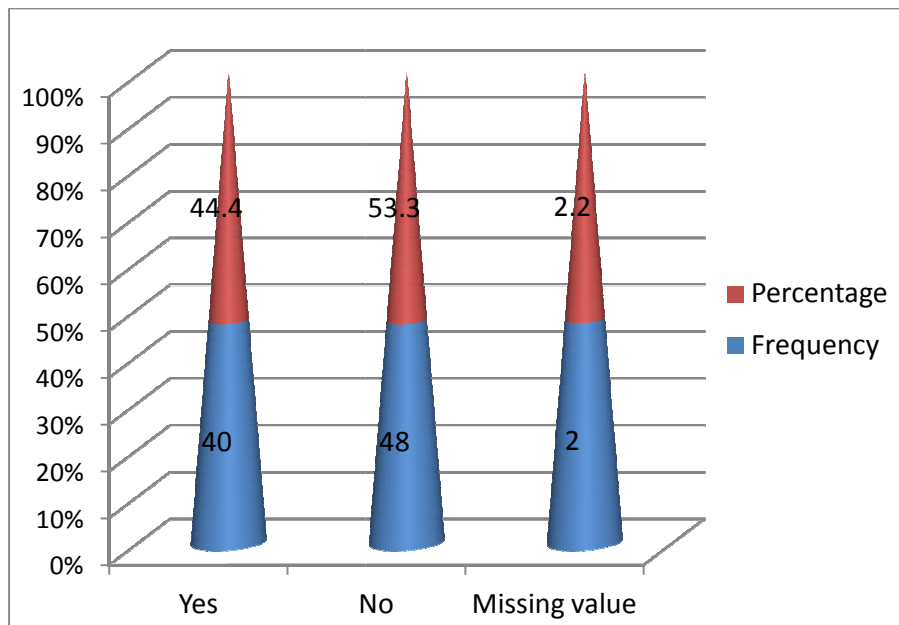


This situation on the current and previous pages is not healthy because if people did not have the document, or if they did not know that it existed or if they were not sure that it was there confirms the lack of awareness and lack of - distribution of the policy documents by the relevant authorities such as Gender in Development Division (GIDD) which was under Cabinet Office at that moment. If teachers did not read and know about such policy documents at an early stage, it would be very difficult for them to implement the contents of such documents when they become administrators and this would be perpetuating the traditional methods of promoting female teachers at the expense of the gender affirmative action and the quota system at various levels in government departments and the private sector. The non - distribution of the gender policy was also being worsened by the lack of gender focal point persons at various levels in the Ministry of Education. For example, Choma District DEBS office did not have a gender focal point person who was supposed to be responsible for such activities.

Dissemination of information on gender is very important for people to know what certain terms mean. For example, it was very interesting to find out that the majority of

teachers did not understand what the 30 percent gender affirmative action means. This showed that the distribution and dissemination of information was not being done in a proper manner. The information below show how the teachers answered when they were asked if they understood what the 30 percent gender affirmative action means:

Figure 9: Understanding what the 30 percent Affirmative action means



As it can be seen on the current page, 48 (53.3 percent) of the teachers said that they did not understand the 30 percent gender affirmative action and 40 (44.4 percent) teachers said that they understood. These responses show a negative scenario because this term (affirmative action) was just being used like a song that the singer does not know its interpretation.

iii. Gender Blind Policies

The other factor that was causing a gender gap in Choma District Secondary Schools in management positions was that some policies relating to the education sector that were drafted after the launch of the gender policy were gender blind. For example, in 2004, four years after the launch of the gender policy, the *High School Policy Issues and Current Practices in Zambia* was published. One of its strategic aims was to improve the quality and relevance of education through the improvement and organization of the education

system by improving teacher management, alternative modes of delivery and alternative modes of financing the sub sector.

The *High School Policy Issues and Current Practices in Zambia* was gender blind because it did not mention the female school teacher and her elevation to management positions anywhere though it stated that it would improve management. Management cannot be improved in the Secondary Schools as long as the female teachers are sidelined in this crucial role because they inspire other women and men, some girls and boys. For example, some women are tactful in dealing with staff and have good interpersonal skills which are needed in the management of an organization.

The *National Gender Policy* (2000: 67) states that a Gender Consultative Forum will be set to “ensure that policies being [drafted and] implemented are gender sensitive and advise on any other issues connected or incidental to gender and development.” This forum did not exist in the Ministry of Education.

It was amazing however that the 2004 Secondary School policy document was drafted after the gender policy and left out sensitive issues that relate to gender such as the promotion of female teachers to management positions. The policy document did not look at the gender gaps that existed in management positions but instead looked at access, equity and attainment in relation to school pupils. This situation was not supposed to be encouraged and the researcher was of the view that the document should be revised so that important issues that were left out could be included.

iv. Few Female Teachers in Colleges and Universities

In the literature review, it was noted that the number of female students in colleges and universities was low as compared to that of the males. This translated in the low number of female teachers in Secondary Schools as well because the implication was that even the number of female teachers that graduated and were eventually posted to Secondary Schools was low as compared to the males. According to the *2009 Ministry of Education Annual Progress Report*, there was a total number of 8, 657 students pursuing education Diplomas and Degrees in all colleges and universities in the country. Out of these, 4, 115 were female and 4, 542 were male.

Because of the disparity above, the female teachers were generally low in Secondary Schools as well. In this study for example, male teachers who participated in the study

were 58 and the female teachers were 39. In total, there were 421 teachers in all the Secondary Schools in Choma district. Out of these, 137 were female and 284 were male. The explanation and disparity given above might have its route in the colleges and universities of higher learning coupled with other factors such as attrition due to HIV/AIDS and departmental transfers to other government departments that could have been paying slightly higher than Ministry of Education. This leads to the misplacement of these teachers and this disadvantages the Ministry of Education which needs more female teachers. Though the 30 percent gender affirmative action was being employed by government colleges and universities, more had to be done to reduce the difference between male and female students further.

The number of female teachers was especially very low in rural Secondary Schools because of challenges such as the lack of adequate accommodation, poor roads, inadequate running water and a general lack of additional amenities. To attract them to these areas, the rural and remote hardship allowances that were being paid to teachers in rural and remote areas should have been increased and the schools must have been improved as well.

v. Lack of Interest to Apply for Management Positions by Females

The lack of application for management positions was still a factor as well. When asked if female teachers applied for management positions, only 4 respondents stated that they did. This was a very low number and it indicated that female teachers did not apply and compete for these higher positions. Female teachers should be encouraged to be applying and competing because they deserve the posts as well. The lack of adequate applications from female teachers could have had its route in the way they were socialized and brought up traditionally and culturally. Traditionally and culturally, women are taught that they are followers and that men are leaders. Because of this nurturing, some of the women believe that they should learn in silence while men talk and do managerial errands on their behalf. To break this negative tradition, women must assert themselves and refuse to be defined and dictated like that.

vi. Lack of Support

As already pointed out earlier on, at the time of conducting this study, the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) and the District Education Standards Officer (DESO) were female in Choma District. With these two on top, one expected the number of

females in management positions to have been close or equivalent to their male counterparts. However, the gender gap that existed was very wide between the female and male teachers. In an interview that was conducted with the Deputy Head teacher at BTKSS in her office, she explained that there were a lot of female teachers with the necessary qualifications to run Secondary Schools but she went on to argue that they were receiving little or no support from their administrators. To substantiate her argument, she explained that one female teacher who had the qualifications and experience necessary was posted to Siamambo Basic School to be Head teacher and that one male teacher who had just acquired a degree from the University of Zambia (UNZA) and did not have the necessary experience as compared to the lady was given a Secondary School to head and she went on to explain that this was unfairness and injustice against women. What the Deputy Headmistress said at BTKSS was also echoed by Burke and Davidson (1994:96), who argued that "...even where women are well qualified and experienced, the dominance of males at management level has resulted in a culture in which male behavioural patterns are perceived to be the norm, and in which women often find it difficult to be accepted as equals by their male colleagues."

The argument that the Deputy Headmistress advanced was again brought out in the literature review when Saiti (2000) argued that female teachers in Greek Secondary Schools avoid responsibilities because of lack of support and encouragement offered by Greek school administration.

The placing of females in top few positions as was the case with Choma District was deceiving people that there were many women in decision-making positions. The truth of the matter was that these were just being used as a shield to cover the real situation on the ground. Damons (2008) argued that women in management positions should not be viewed as tokens representing other women nor should they adopt masculine traits to be successful managers. They deserve to be there as well just the way the men are. "Tokenism" is defined as the hiring of a few women to top management positions motivated by political or public considerations (Smith, 2008).

From the questionnaire, 16 (17.8 percent) of the respondents mentioned that lack of support from family members and administrators for female teachers was one of the reasons for their lower numbers in management positions in Secondary Schools in Choma District.

vii. Patriarchy and Stereotypes

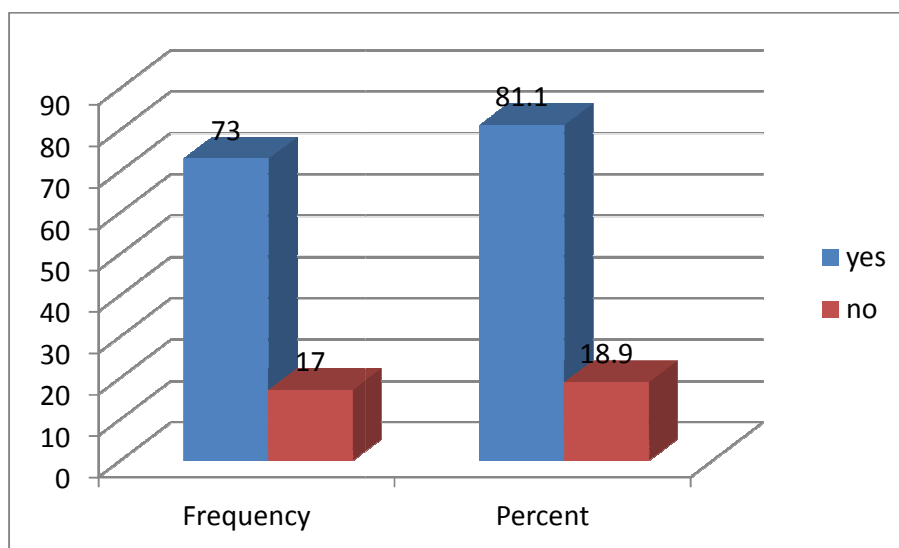
As it was argued in the literature review that patriarchy and stereotypes which were dominant in many Secondary Schools place many constraints on the introduction of women advancement in senior management levels, this was confirmed by this study as well.

“These deep seated inequalities accompanied by stereotypical myths and prejudicial attitudes about women’s competencies as school principals are barriers that impact on their performances as principals”, (Gender Equity Task Team, 1997:195).

Among the 90 teachers that participated in the study by filling in the questionnaire, a few indicated that women did not make good school managers and they further stated that they were not comfortable to be supervised by a female manager. Though the number of teachers who indicated that they were not comfortable to be supervised by a female principal was slightly small, 17 (18.9 percent), these still posed and remained a danger because they would not support or appoint female managers if they had an opportunity to do so. People who hold mythical stereotypes against women are called misogynists and these are the ones who could have been frustrating efforts meant to advance women to decision-making positions.

The bar chart below show the percentage of respondents who were comfortable and not comfortable to be supervised by female managers:

Figure 10: Comfort when supervised by a female manager.



Despite considerable efforts made regarding the legal status of women and gender equality entrenched in the *National Gender Policy* and other protocols and conventions to which Zambia is a signatory, women and men did not enjoy equal rights in practice. According to (GETT, 1997: 195), "Patriarchy is still entrenched amongst all ethnic groups." Specific measures must be developed to identify and remove the underlying causes of discrimination in policies, laws, procedures, beliefs, practices and attitudes that maintain gender inequality (Coter, 2004).

The above statement by Coter should be given very serious attention because the *National Gender Policy* clearly states that 30 percent of decision-making positions should be given to women but it does not clearly state how this is going to be achieved. It is just a blanket statement and there are no consequences to those who do not apply legal instruments (Choike: 2002). Because of this lack of clarity, women were still competing with men who were already advantaged using traditional and patriarchal methods such as the need for higher qualifications, performance, age and experience.

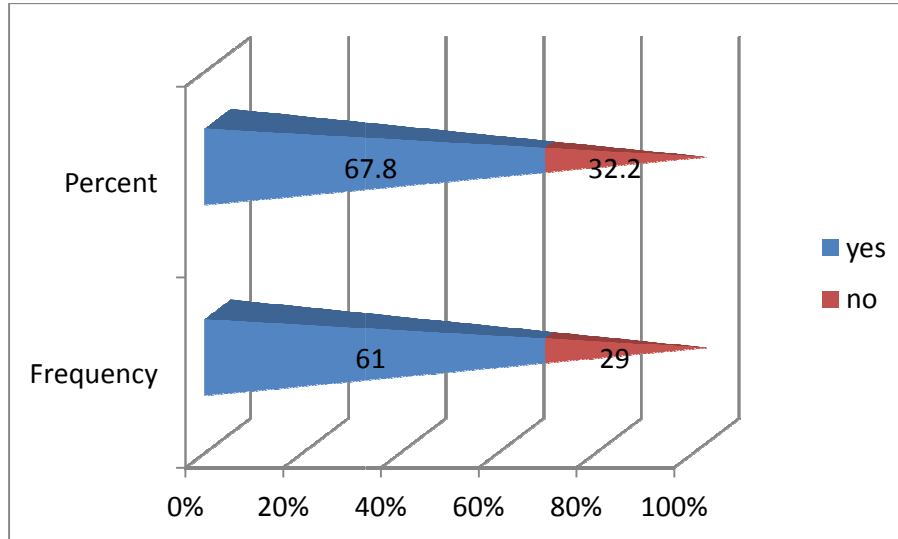
viii. Number of Female Teachers in Secondary Schools

As it was pointed out in the literature review, the number of females in colleges was low as compared to that of the males. This translated to fewer women in Secondary Schools as well. Out of the 97 participants in this study, 54 were male and 33 were female. This situation coupled with other factors already discussed increased the chances of a male teacher being elevated to management position. Among the schools that were investigated, only CDSS had a considerable number of female teachers. There were 36 teachers in total at this school and out of these, 22 were female and 14 were male. For the rest of the schools, the male teachers were more. For example, CSS had 65 teachers in total and out of these, 45 were male and only 20 were female. At BTKSS, there were 17 teachers in total and out of these, 13 were male and only 4 were female. At SSS, there were 29 teachers. Out of these teachers, 20 were male and only 9 were female. This trend went on and it disadvantaged the female teachers when they wanted to compete with the male teacher who overshadowed them in number.

4.4 Male/Female Administration Preference

Though this was not a comparative study, it could have been very easy to narrow the gender gap in administrative and management positions by following what Kabwe, Copperbelt and Lusaka provinces were doing. In Kabwe, Copperbelt and Lusaka, if the Head was male, the Deputy Head was automatically female and this system had greatly narrowed the gender gap in the three provinces. (Teacher and administrators from Kabwe, Copperbelt and Lusaka provided this information). If this was applied to Choma District and other districts where this was not done, the gender disparities could have been greatly reduced. Equally, when it comes to appointing Heads of Department in the district, the departments should have been shared equally between females and males. Where the school did not have adequate female teachers that were qualified, the positions should be advertised and female teachers should have been encouraged to apply. When asked if the teachers would support the idea that if the Head was male, the Deputy should be female and vice versa, the majority of the teachers agreed to this as can be seen from the bar chart below. 61 (67.8 percent) agreed and only 29 (32.2 percent) disagreed.

Figure 11: Support for Male/Female Administration



Female teachers were not adequately represented in the Science and Mathematics departments and this information will be illustrated on the following page. This study

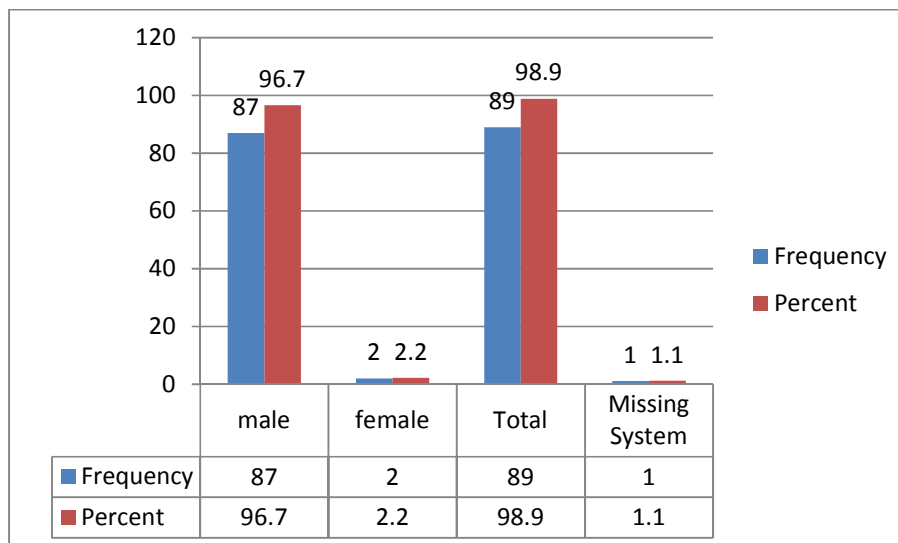
found out that they were still a minority and the number of HODs that were running the Science and Mathematics departments was worrying.

4.5 Science and Mathematics Heads of Department

i. Science

A critical shortage of female HODs running the Science Departments in Choma District existed. Out of the 90 respondents, only two respondents indicated that the Science Department was being run by a female. Serious gender strategies should be employed and enshrined in policy documents on how to increase the number of female teachers teaching sciences. For example, the entry points of female students at colleges and Universities wanting to take science should be lowered. This is what is called positive discrimination according to the *National Gender Policy* (2000: 48). The figure below show how the respondents answered when asked as to who was running the Science Department:

Figure 12: Person running the Natural Sciences Department



ii. Mathematics

The situation for the Mathematics department was the worst because no respondent mentioned that it was being run by a female.

4.6 Other Departments

When it comes to other departments, the situation was not as bad as that in the Science and Mathematics Departments. The only department with the highest number of HODs who were female was the Practical Subjects Department. The reason for this was that this department is composed of subjects such as Home Economics, Food and Nutrition, Health Education and all related subjects, Metal Work, Woodwork, Engineering, Mathematical and Geometrical Drawing, Information and Communication Technology. Most of the subjects above were not being offered in most Secondary Schools and only Home Economics and Food and Nutrition were being offered and these were being taught mostly by women. This explains why the Practical Subjects Department had a high number (68) of teachers who indicated that it was being run by a female manager. If other subjects which are under this department were being offered by most schools, the majority of men were still going to be running the Practical Subjects Department because they usually teach subjects such as Woodwork, Metalwork, Mathematical and Geometrical Drawing and Engineering.

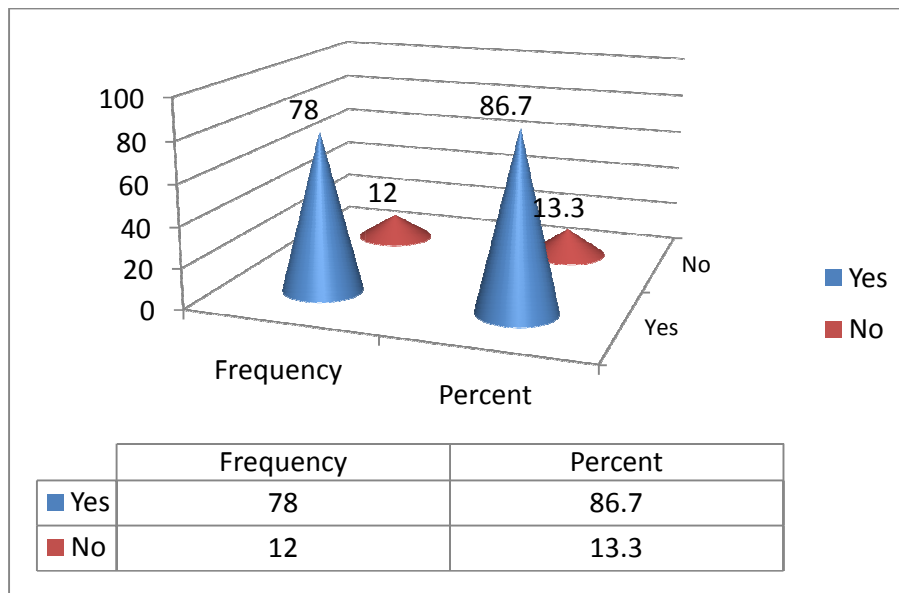
64 (71.1 percent) of the respondents indicated that the Languages Department was being run by a male teacher and only 26 (28.9 percent) indicated that the Languages Department was being run by a female manager. For the Expressive Arts Department, 57 (63.3 percent) of the respondents indicated that it was being run by a male and only 33 (36.7 percent) indicated that it was being run by a female teacher. When it comes to the Social Sciences Department, 52 (57.8 percent) of the respondents indicated that it was being run by a male and again, only 38 (42.2 percent) indicated that the department was being run by a female. In the Business Skills and Commercial Studies Department, the situation was the same. Out of the 90 respondents, 58 (64.4 percent) of the respondents indicated that the department was being run by a male and only 32 (35.6 percent) indicated that the department was being run by a female manager.

In all, the situation was very much in favour of the male teachers and the culture of Androcentrism was very much evident in Secondary Schools because the majority of the Heads were male. This situation should not go unchallenged as Greyvenstein (2000) argues.

4.7 Some Positive Characteristics of Female Managers.

It was unfortunate that female teachers were not adequately represented in management positions in Choma District Secondary Schools even though they make good managers and leaders according to Damons (2008:34). The majority of teachers agreed that female teachers usually make good managers and leaders and they stated various reasons for this. The figure below show the number of teachers who asserted that female teachers are efficient and effective:

Figure 13: Some Women Are Good Managers



Van Deventer and Van der Westthizen (1997) state that the difference between leadership and management is that leadership relates to mission, direction and inspiration, whilst management involves designing and carrying out plans, getting things done and working with people. A school principal has to be both leader and manager. Researchers such as Morgan (1994:69), Magudi (2000: 15), Goodman (1994: 69) and Judith, (1992: 2) have come up with attributes that make women both good leaders and managers. In this research, some of the qualities that women possess that make them good leaders and managers are explained in the following pages:

i. Accountability and Hard Work

Most teachers stated that female school managers are efficient, orderly and effective because they work hard and that they are accountable for school resources just the way some male teachers are. The Head teacher of CDSS stated that, “where women are leaders and managers, there is progress.” She became principal of that school in 2005 and she stated that since then, the school had seen remarkable progress.

She stated that CDSS was meant for black-African children and because of this, it was lagging behind in a lot of things. When she came, she started making a lot of transformations to bring the school to acceptable and recommended standards and she embarked on transformational leadership strategies and activities. According to Burns (1978) Transformational leadership is defined as a leadership approach that causes change in individuals and social systems. It creates valuable and positive change in the follower with the end goal of developing followers into leaders. Transformational leadership enhances the motivation, morale and performance of followers through a variety of mechanisms. These include connecting the follower’s sense of identity of the organization; being a role model for followers that inspires them; challenging followers to take greater ownership of their work, and understanding the strengths and weaknesses of followers with tasks that optimize their performance.

Transformational leadership is sharply contrasted with transactional leadership which involves telling, commanding, or ordering while the former is based on inspiring, getting followers to buy-in voluntarily by creating a common vision. Transactional leadership uses power and punishment to lead (Bacal: 2002). In this study it was found that women use transformational leadership to govern institutions.

The safety and security of examinations in a Secondary School is very important. In 2005 when the Headmistress of CDSS, one of the principals who were female came to head the school, there was not a strong-room where examination papers are supposed to be kept and released a few minutes before being written. She made sure that this facility was put in place immediately.

To motivate the teachers, she bought presentable chairs for the staffroom and connected cable television satellite in there because she knew that a demotivated workforce cannot yield excellent results. All the offices were properly furnished including that of the Deputy and the Head’s.

CDSS did not have a vehicle and transport is very important for a Secondary School for various reasons. For example, during games for pupils and education tours, the school usually needs transport and it is very expensive to hire transport for such activities because they happen frequently. She made sure that they bought a bus, van and a truck to ease on transport costs. Because the school was meant for black-African children, it was not electrified and had very poor accommodation. Working with stakeholders, she made sure that the school got connected to the national grid and a house was constructed for the Deputy Head. At the time of conducting this study, a school hall was under construction and it had reached an advanced level. Someone who is not hardworking and accountable to school resources cannot undertake such expensive projects.

Because of these projects that the Headmistress for CDSS had undertaken since 2005, she was in 2011 given an award on Labour Day as the most hardworking and innovative school manager in Choma District. By the time of conducting this study, she was a committee member for the Provincial Heads Association and she had been Secretary for the District Heads Association since 2006 up to 2011 the time of conducting this research. This shows how ladies can commit themselves to what they do with all there might and strength.

ii. Good Interpersonal Skills

Dean (1992) explains interpersonal skills as the way people react to each other or with one another. Bush (1995), states that women generally have an ethical and caring approach to the leading-management process. They demonstrate qualities such as warmth and empathy and they pay special attention to honesty, gentleness, compassion, gender and trust.

According to Judith (1992), women tend to hold on to anger rather than return to business as usual. This indicates that in their management and leadership roles, they may not always have emotional hiding places. Magudi (2000) supports these claims by arguing that women have the capacity to build effective management and leadership through attributes such as confidence, courage and respect for the opinion of others.

Women are better listeners, less analytical and less aggressive. However, these scholars also argue that some female managers' behavior devalues other women because of their failure to support them as is the case with Choma District. Morgan (1994) affirms these

ideas when he states that women display successful managerial and leadership qualities, whilst other women fail to become effective managers.

Goodman (1996) argues that women's ways of leading and managing originate from their domestic responsibilities and limited mobility, changes at work, sexism and styles of childhood socialization.

iii. Communication

Communication is defined as "the exchange of information between people, e.g., by means of speaking, writing, or using a common system of signs or behavior" Encarta (2009).

Damons (2008:28) argues that "There are a few management skills as important to the education manager as the ability to communicate effectively – both in writing and orally". It is very important to have a simultaneous flow of information and ideas from the top down and from the bottom up in order to plan a vision, a mission, aims and outcomes and to ensure action to achieve the set outcomes. Oral and written communication is necessary for making decisions and solving problems and also for organizing and coordinating activities. Research has shown that the education leader spends 80 percent of his/her day communicating (Van der Westthuisen, 1997).

Marshall (1995) is of the opinion that women are highly effective in communicating with others. He states that they utilize unambiguous communicating styles and that this emanates from their sense of identity.

In their leading of staff, women possess good and effective communication skills that empowers individuals and groups (Wolpe and Martinez, 1997). It is further argued that women managers utilize informal communication in a way that treats people as individuals where ideas and opinions matter to the organization. Murray (1996) notes that open communication will assist in obtaining information from individuals and groups to identify what makes up the Secondary's School value and what contributes to its failures.

Women apply collective communication in a way that encourages shared governance of the school. Bailey (1997) emphasizes the view that women involve group structure in their collective communication to encourage individuals to think creatively and productively. These communication skills create a complex interaction between women managers, followers and certain circumstances in which they find themselves (Kroon, 1996). He further argues that women's personal communication skills assist them in identifying stakeholder's needs, demands and goals and in adjusting their leading –

management styles accordingly. This means that the female managers are able to consider parents, learners, educators and the community.

According to Marshall (1995), women in their communication have a good sense of humour and the ability to confess to making mistakes. They are sensitive to others' ideas, listen to their opinions and are capable of sharing all facets of work as well as valuing personal needs. From the previous arguments, it is evident that women managers care deeply concerned about the well-being of staff members, learners and parents.

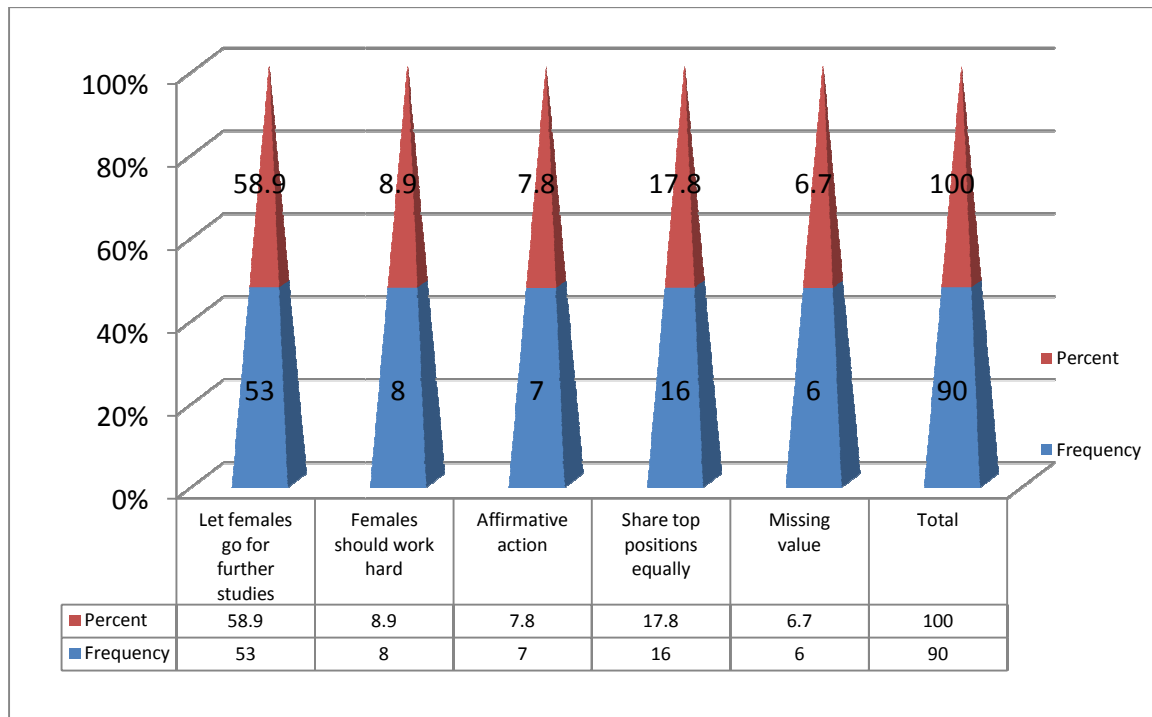
Bailey (1997) argues that women empower stakeholders through ownership by encouraging their commitment through sharing the organization's vision and mission with the purpose of accomplishing organizational goals. This is due to the fact that human beings do not always have complete knowledge of all possible course of action.

4.8 Remedy to the Gender Gap in Management in Choma District Secondary Schools

A question was posed to the teachers themselves as to how they think the gender gap could be narrowed in management positions in Choma District Secondary Schools. From the answers that were provided on the questionnaire, the majority of the teachers stated that female teachers should further their education. From the figure on the following page, 53 (58.9 percent) of the respondents were for the idea of females going for further studies so that they could be on equal footing with their male counterparts that were many and had the higher qualifications. The second answer that had many supporters was that of sharing the management positions equally. 16 (17.8 percent) respondents went for this answer. 8 (8.9 percent) stated that women should work hard and 7 (7.9 percent) were for the affirmative action.

The affirmative action was not well received by both administrators and teachers themselves. And because of this, its application should be reconsidered and strengthened because there are grey spots around it. It should be supported by merit and this merit can be defined in terms of necessary higher qualifications. The figure on the following page shows the reasons that the teachers gave as to how the number of female teachers could be increased in management positions:

Figure 14: Remedy to the gender gap in management positions in Secondary Schools



At the time of conducting this study, the teachers were reminded that some female teachers were in management positions and a question was asked as to how these got these positions. The majority of the respondents - 50 (55.6 percent) indicated that they were appointed on merit and this shows that education still remains paramount and superior when compared to the affirmative action. These were followed by those who thought that the gender affirmative action was employed and they were 23 (25.6 percent). 10 stated that female teachers in management were just favoured unfairly and 7 stated that these were teachers who had been in the system for a long time. Among the reasons that were given, merit, which comprises of qualifications, hard work and experience - had the most support and it should be echoed again that the affirmative action needs to be backed by strong academic and professional qualifications. The frequency table on the following page show how the answers were given on what made some female teachers appointed to management:

Table 5: Methods Used To Appoint Managers in Schools.

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Appointed on merit	50	55.6
Were favoured unfairly	10	11.1
Affirmative action was employed	23	25.6
They are teachers who have saved for a long time	7	7.8
Total	90	100.0

The answers that the teachers gave were in tandem with what most feminists said on education and what usually keeps women in lower positions.

Liberal feminists are feminists who believe that the best way to fight patriarchal systems is by establishing legislation to fight discrimination. For example, the right for some women to vote in 1918 and finally all women to vote in 1928 (Bryant, 2010) were liberal feminist approaches. This school of thought believes that women would achieve better equality if they were just more visible in the current social structure. They also believe that changes in equal opportunities and educational policies will end patriarchy.

On the other hand, Socialist feminists believe that it is the gendered division of labour that contributes to women's inequality. They argue that men have historically been paid more and get higher positions at work and that this plays a bigger role in the discrimination of women.

Radical feminists believe that the biggest oppression at work is based on gender. In all, they argue that any dependence on men will equal to the oppression of women. Radical feminists believe that patriarchy will only end when women are freed from the physical and emotional violence inflicted by men in the classroom and around the school as a whole.

To conclude this chapter on the presentation and discussion of findings, the statistics has clearly shown that the female teacher was inadequately represented in management positions at all levels in Secondary Schools in Choma District.

In order to promote good governance in Choma District Secondary Schools, there is need to enhance understanding of the importance of gender equality to governance in schools, develop strategies for increasing women's access to decision-making positions and for empowering women to influence policy-making in the education sector. Good governance

is defined as “Governance that is characterized by Participation, Transparency, Rule of law, Effectiveness, Accountability, Equity etc.” (Swarnajothi, S, 2009:1)

The findings were discussed and presented in this chapter and it was found that the implementation of the *National Gender Policy* was not being done. It was observed that the traditional methods of promoting teachers were being applied at the expense of the gender policy. Qualifications, experience and the age of the person were considered very much before giving an individual management position in Choma District. Most administrators argued that one cannot just be given a management task simply because they are female. Because of this, there were only 2 head teachers who were female out of the 16 Secondary Schools and there were only 4 deputy head teachers who were female out of 16. The number of HODs leaved much to be desired as well. Out of 37 HODs, only 12 were female. Lack of support, patriarchy, prejudice and stereotypes, lack of application for management positions by females were seen to be factors that kept women less in administrative positions as well.

Most teachers however supported the idea that if the head teacher is male, the deputy should be female and vice versa. This could have been an effective way of narrowing the gender gap that existed. The other factor that came out prominently was that females should go further studies so that they can be competing favourably with their male counterparts. The gender policy was not domesticated and it was not being distributed to relevant offices as well. Because of this, most teachers and administrators were not familiar with it. These were some of the findings and discussions that are in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

This study sought to confirm the implementation of the *National Gender Policy* on the promotion of female teachers in Secondary Schools to management positions and other decision-making positions in Choma District. The study revealed the barriers that hindered women from being appointed to decision-making positions several years after the launch of the gender policy.

Factors such as patriarchy, stereotypes, discrimination, lack of support from administrators, lack of application for management positions by women, lack of implementation of the gender policy, unequal distribution of positions, and fewer female teachers in Secondary Schools emerged as major themes for the perpetual gender disparity in management. Family attachment by female teachers was insignificant and emerged as a minor theme in this study.

To enforce the *National Gender Policy*, a lot has to be done. For example, the study found that the policy document was not being distributed to Secondary Schools, District and Provincial offices by relevant authorities – Gender in Development Division (GIDD). Because of this, the policy document was alien to most teachers and administrators. They had not read it and this had a number of negative multiplier effects. If the teachers who had not read the policy document would one day be appointed as administrators, they would not be implementing the contents of the policy document. There was therefore greater need for GIDD to be coordinating gender activities with various stakeholders.

The lack of Gender Focal Point Persons (GFPP) at District and Provincial levels was also exacerbating the problem. There should have been GFPPs who were very active at Provincial and District levels to be coordinating, monitoring and evaluating gender activities. At that moment, the office of the District Commissioner was carrying out the roles of Gender Focal Point Persons and this was not healthy because these were not specialists in this area.

The method of promotion that was being used to promote personnel was also wanting and questionable. At the expense of the affirmative action enshrined in the policy

document, most administrators were still demanding hard-work, long years of experience and higher qualifications from female teachers. This method was pointed out by Dardey and Harbour (1991) who argued that the dominant tradition has been to recruit managers often as a reward of good performance, long years of service and sometimes, recognizing people with political inclinations to the ruling party.

Though the female teachers were a minority in management positions in Secondary Schools, most teachers agreed that they make efficient and effective administrators. In Choma District, only 2 females were heading schools out of the 16 Secondary Schools. Most teachers stated that female teachers exhibited a lot of accountability for school resources and that they were hard workers. Because of this, 86.7 percent of the respondents agreed that female teachers make good school managers. They are also better at communicating with their followers and exhibit very professional interpersonal skills.

There were still pockets of resistance though, that felt that women cannot be efficient and effective principals and sensitization should still have been done or more women should be appointed to higher positions so that they proved themselves worthy and demystify this myth in the long run. Although there is no policy at the moment that stipulates that if the head of a school is male, the deputy should be female and vice versa, this should be applied in Choma District Secondary Schools and it shall drastically reduce the gender gap in Secondary Schools in that area. At the time of conducting this study, this was what was being practiced in Lusaka, Kabwe and Copperbelt provinces and it should be implemented in Choma as well.

Lack of support still manifested in Choma District. As already stated in chapter four, at the time of conducting this study, the DEBS and DESO were both female but it was discouraging to find that there were only two heads who were female and only 12 HODs out of a total of 37 HODs. The appointing of the top 2 senior officers and that is the DEBS and DESO was just a poorly-organized decoy meant to cover the truth on the ground. "Tokenism" which is the hiring of females to top few management positions is usually motivated by political and public considerations. Smith (2008) and Damons (2008) argue that women in management positions should not be viewed as tokens representing other women but that they deserve to be there just the way men are because they are capable.

5.2 Recommendations

In order to improve the representation of female teachers in management positions in Choma District Secondary Schools, the following should be undertaken:

- i. There is need to improve the distribution of the *National Gender Policy* to Provincial Education Offices, District Education Board's Offices and finally to schools so as to encourage the reading of the document.
- ii. Women who still have certificates and diplomas should be encouraged to go for further studies so that they can be competing with their male counterparts favourably because education is a bridge between the advantaged and disadvantaged. This is what the Liberal Feminists advocate.
- iii. Increase the number of female teachers in Secondary Schools by further increasing the number of female students in all higher colleges and universities that offer education programmes. Female colleges of education can be opened to be compensating the deficit.
- iv. Come up with a policy that: If the head is male, the deputy should be female and vice versa.
- v. Encourage female teachers to be going for subjects such as Mathematics and Science because they were almost non-existent in these positions and those females who have higher qualifications in these subjects should be given management positions.
- vi. Qualified gender specialists should be employed by the Ministry of Education who are capable of mainstreaming gender professionally.
- vii. Make gender training a central feature of staff development programmes to include awareness-raising to incorporate gender analysis, gender audit and gender planning skills.
- viii. The *National Gender Policy* must be domesticated into the national laws so that those who do not enforce it will be answerable. Currently, there is no force that compels administrators to implement the contents of the document.

The conclusion and recommendations above brought out a number of factors of what was discovered and what should be done. These findings and recommendations should be taken seriously by administrators in the government and the private sector and the

gender gaps that exist in some secondary schools can be greatly narrowed. For example, the domestication of the policy document that is supposed to be a blueprint for gender activities can greatly assist in narrowing gender gap at various levels in the Ministry of Education and other ministries not mentioned here. There should also be a policy that if the head is male, the deputy should be female and vice versa. If the recommendations brought out in this document are implemented, the gender gaps can easily be challenged in most institutions of education. It must be noted that the fight against discrimination in its many subtle forms is historical and it should not be given up. The fight must continue so that we shall have a perfect tomorrow in which all people will be regarded equal regardless of gender, race, age, sex, political inclination and ethnic background.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

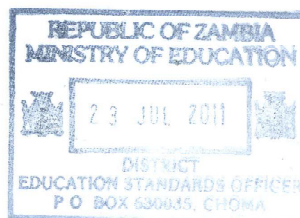
APPENDIX A

Siabona, Gamitto S
Sikalongo Secondary School
Box 630502
Choma.
23 - 07 - 2011

TheDEBS
Box630
Choma.

Dear Madam,

Siabona
ESD to
for DEBS



RE: REQUEST TO INTERVIEW SCHOOL MANAGERS IN FIVE SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS IN CHOMA DISTRICT

I am writing to request for permission to interview School Managers from five selected High Schools in Choma District. The managers being targeted are those from Choma Day High, Sikalongo Secondary, Njase Girls, Masuku Secondary and Choma Secondary School.

I am conducting research at Secondary Schools which will be both qualitative and quantitative. The study focuses on an evaluation of the effects of the gender policy in High Schools in relation to female managers. In the past few years, much effort has been employed to improve the Gender Parity Index (GPI) between girls and boys and the Ministry of Education has achieved major strides in this area. However, very little effort has been made to narrow the gap between female and male managers in High Schools because the latter seem to be dominating the decision making positions.

Your support and opinion is required to facilitate in obtaining data that will help in writing a well-researched report.

Ethical considerations will be upheld when carrying out the interviews and when writing the report.

Thanking you in advance.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to be 'Siabona'.

Yours faithfully

Siabona, Gamitto S

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE (FOR ADMINISTRATORS)

- 1. Women in leadership (management) at High School appear to be less represented compared to their male counterpart. How do you respond to this statement?**
- 2. Do you think there are adequate female teachers in management positions in Choma District High Schools to be specific? If yes, skip to question 6**
- 3. Why do you think the situation is like this? (if answer is no)**
- 4. What do you think should be done to improve the situation?**
- 5. Do you think female teachers aspire to be managers for High Schools?**
- 6. What criteria are used to appoint teachers to management positions in High School?**
 - Long service and experience**
 - Hard working**
 - Affirmative action**
- 7. Does teacher development and upward mobility take into account gender concerns in High Schools? (Talk about Fast Track) Example, the 30 percent affirmative action.**
- 8. Are you familiar with the National Gender Policy?**
- 9. Do you use the gender policy when considering teachers for promotion?**
- 10. Is the National Gender Policy distributed to your office and schools by Gender in Development Division (GIDD)?**
- 11. Do you face any challenges when considering female teachers for promotion?**
 - Resistance from husbands**
 - Resistance from male managers/supervisors etc**
 - Do some female teachers refuse to be transferred from their current station when promoted on grounds of marital issues?**
- 12. Have you ever been in a situation where your competency and authority as a “female leader” have been questioned? (To female managers/administrators).**

- 13. Would you agree with the notion that male principals make better leaders than females in High Schools?**
- 14. In Kabwe and Lusaka Districts, there is a rule that if the Head Teacher is male, the Deputy Head should be female and vice versa. Is this rule being applied in Choma District?**

APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE - FOR TEACHERS

Dear respondent, you have been chosen to complete this questionnaire. You are not required to indicate your name. You are to indicate your answer(s) by circling the codes on the right hand side of this questionnaire that match the answer(s) you choose. The researcher is carrying out ***AN EVALUATION ON THE EFFECTS OF THE NATIONAL GENDER POLICY ON THE UPWARD MOBILITY OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOLS: A CASE OF SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS IN CHOMA DISTRICT.***

NAME OF SCHOOL:_____

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

- | | |
|-------------------|-------|
| 1. Marital status | CODES |
| a. Single | 1 |
| b. Married | 2 |
| c. Divorced | 3 |
| d. Widow/widower | 4 |

2. How old are you? Please circle your appropriate range.

Please select	20 – 29	30 – 39	40 – 49	50 – 59	60 – 69	70 +
only one	1	2	3	4	5	6
option						

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| 3. Sex | |
| a. Male | 1 |
| b. Female | 2 |
-
- | | |
|--|---|
| 4. What is the highest level of education you have attained? | |
| a. Certificate | 1 |
| b. Diploma | 2 |
| c. Advanced diploma | 3 |
| d. Bachelor's Degree | 4 |
| e. Masters' Degree | 5 |
| f. Doctorate | 6 |

SECTION B: MAIN SECTION

5. How long have you been working for the Ministry of Education?
- | | |
|------------|---|
| a. 1 – 5 | 1 |
| b. 6 – 10 | 2 |
| c. 11 – 15 | 3 |
| d. 16 – 20 | 4 |
| e. 21 – 25 | 5 |
| f. 26 – 30 | 6 |
| g. 31 – 35 | 7 |
| h. 36 – 40 | 8 |
6. Are you in management position? (i.e., HOD and above position)
- | | |
|--------|---|
| a. Yes | 1 |
| b. No | 2 |
7. Are you aware of the existence of the *National Gender Policy* in Zambia?
- | | |
|--------|---|
| a. Yes | 1 |
| b. No | 2 |
8. Do you have a copy of the *National Gender Policy*?
- | | |
|--------|---|
| a. Yes | 1 |
| b. No | 2 |
9. Is there a copy of the *National Gender Policy* in your school library?
- | | |
|------------------|---|
| a. Yes | 1 |
| b. No | 2 |
| c. I don't know | 3 |
| d. I am not sure | 4 |
10. Have you read the *National Gender Policy*?
- | | |
|--------|---|
| a. Yes | 1 |
| b. No | 2 |
11. Do you understand what the 30 percent gender affirmative action implies?
- | | |
|--------|---|
| a. Yes | 1 |
| b. No | 2 |

12. Do you think the contents of the gender policy are being implemented in the Ministry of Education?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
 - c. I don't know 3
 - d. I am not sure 4
13. Is the representation of female teachers in management positions in High Schools adequate in Choma District?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
14. If the answer to question 13 is no, what do you think could be the reason(s) behind this gender disparity? (You can select more than one answer if you so wish).
- a. Lack of support from family members and administration 1
 - b. Lack of self-esteem among female teachers themselves 2
 - c. They don't apply for management positions 3
 - d. Family attachment by female teachers 4
 - e. Gender stereotypes (oversimplified standardized image of a person or group that is not scientifically proven usually based on sex). 6
 - f. Patriarchal institutions 7
15. Do you think female teachers make good school managers?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
16. Have you been supervised before by a female school manager in your career as a teacher?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2

17. Are you comfortable to be supervised by a female school manager?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
18. If the answer to question 17 is no, why? (You are free to choose more than one answer if you so wish).
- a. I am not used to being supervised by women 1
 - b. It is not culturally and traditionally acceptable 2
 - c. They are not good supervisors 3
19. If the answer to question 17 is yes, why? (You are free to choose more than one answer).
- a. Female school managers are good supervisors 1
 - b. They are inspiring 2
20. Would you prefer to be supervised by a male manager to a female school manager?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
21. Do you agree that 30 percent of management positions in the Ministry of Education should be left for women?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
22. Would you support the idea that if the Headmaster is male, the Deputy Head should be female and vice versa?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2
23. Suggest any strategy that could be put in place to bridge the gender gap in management positions at High School level_____
-
24. Do you think education is a stumbling block to female advancement to management positions?
- a. Yes 1
 - b. No 2

25. At present, it is a fact that some women are in management positions in High Schools. Do you think that these were appointed on merit, were they just favoured or the affirmative action was employed to select them?

- | | |
|---|---|
| a. Appointed on merit | 1 |
| b. Were favoured unfairly | 2 |
| c. The affirmative action was employed | 3 |
| d. They are teachers who have saved for a long time | 4 |

26. Is the Head teacher at your school male or female?

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| a. Male | 1 |
| b. Female | 2 |

27. Is the Deputy Head teacher at your school male or female?

- | | |
|-----------|---|
| a. Male | 1 |
| b. Female | 2 |

28. How many Heads of Department (HODs) are ***female*** at your school? (Languages, Social Sciences, Expressive Arts, Natural Sciences, Mathematics, Business Studies and Practical Subjects are the Departments found in High Schools)

- | | |
|------|---|
| a. 1 | 1 |
| b. 2 | 2 |
| c. 3 | 3 |
| d. 4 | 4 |
| e. 5 | 5 |
| f. 6 | 6 |
| g. 7 | 7 |

29. How many Heads of Department (HODs) are **male** at your school? (Languages, Social Sciences, Expressive Arts, Natural Sciences, Mathematics, Business Studies and Practical Subjects are the Departments found in High Schools)

- | | |
|------|---|
| a. 1 | 1 |
| b. 2 | 2 |
| c. 3 | 3 |
| d. 4 | 4 |
| e. 5 | 5 |
| f. 6 | 6 |
| g. 7 | 7 |

30. Indicate if the person appointed to head the following departments is male or female. (1 – male, 2 – female)

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------|
| a. Languages | 1, 2 |
| b. Social Sciences | 1, 2 |
| c. Natural Sciences | 1, 2 |
| d. Practical Subjects | 1, 2 |
| e. Mathematics | 1, 2 |
| f. Business Studies (Commercials) | 1, 2 |
| g. Expressive Arts | 1, 2 |

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND RESPONSE

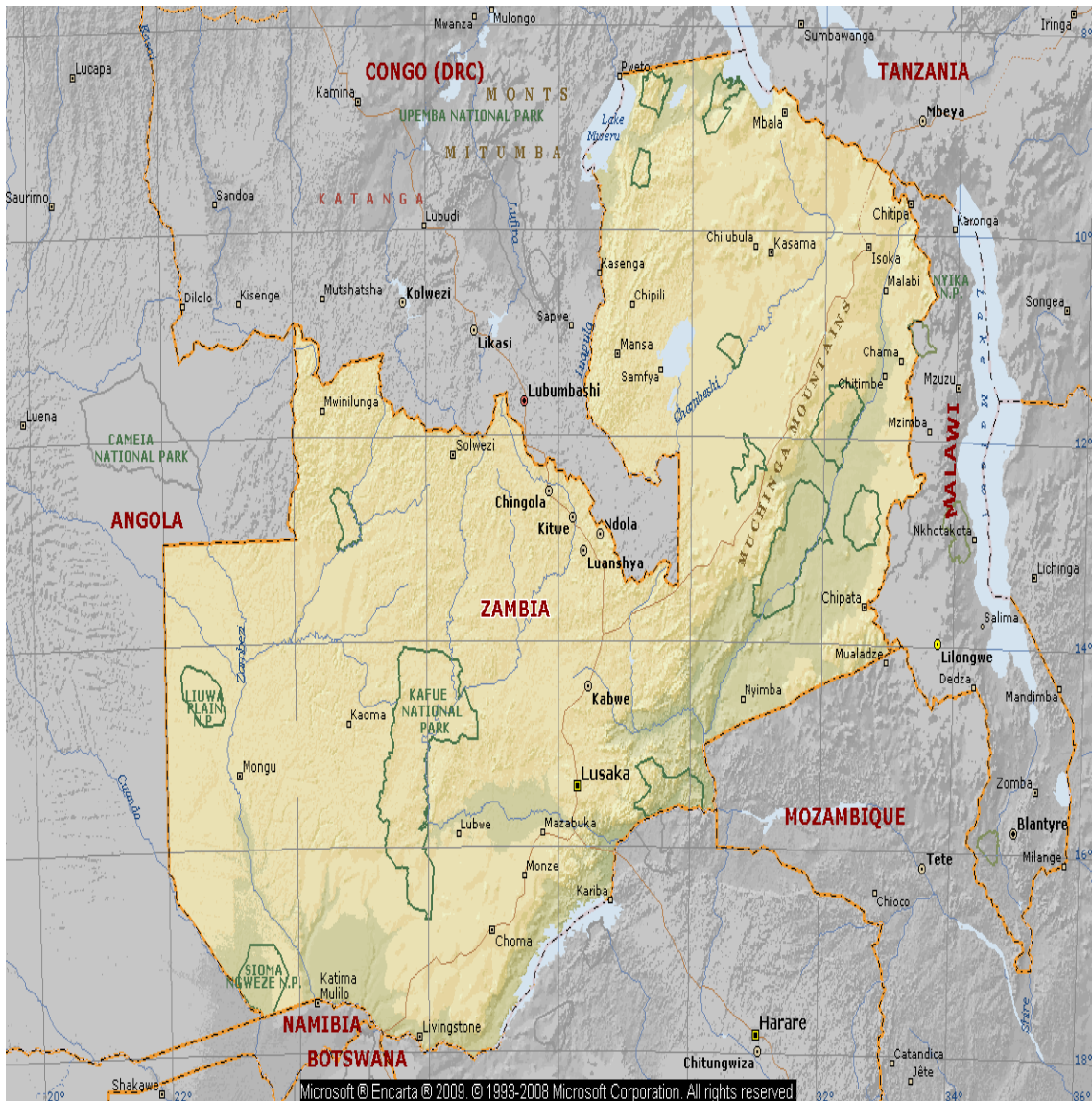
APPENDIX D

WORK PLAN (TIME FRAME)

ACTIVITY	FEB-MARCH (2011)	APRIL-MAY (2011)	JUNE-JULY (2011)	AUG-SEPT (2011)	OCT-DEC (2011)	JAN-FEB (2012)	MAR-SEP (2012)	JAN-AUG (2013)
Literature review	<i>III</i>							
Literature review & proposal writing		<i>III</i>						
Hand in proposal to supervisor		<i>III</i>						
Hand in final proposal to Dept		<i>III</i>						
Corrections to be done on proposal			<i>III</i>					
Design of instruments			<i>III</i>					
Pilot study				<i>III</i>				
Data collection & preparation				<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>		
Data analysis					<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	
Report writing				<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	
Presentation of findings							<i>III</i>	
Submitting report for examination							<i>III</i>	
Writing Article in Journal							<i>III</i>	
Write & submit thesis for final adjudication								<i>III</i>

APPENDIX E

Map of Zambia



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