



# INFLUENCE OF WOMEN'S SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS ON THEIR PARTICIPATION IN LEADERSHIP: CASE PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES MOGADISHU, SOMALIA

**Rakia Ahmed Mohamed**

Master of Education Management,  
Policy and Curriculum Studies of Kenyatta  
University

**Dr.Kariuki S. Ikinya**

Lecturer,  
Department of Educational Management,  
Policy and Curriculum Studies Kenyatta  
University

---

## ABSTRACT

*This study examines women's social characteristics that may contribute to their low participation level in leadership positions. The overall purpose of the study was to explore the influence of women's social characteristics on their participation in leadership, using a case of three private Universities in Mogadishu. With this purpose, the following four specific objectives were set: to identify the Influence of family responsibility on women participation in leadership. To determine the Influence of women academic involvement on their participation in leadership to determine the Influence of cultural aspects and religion on women participation in leadership to assess the Influence of women's economic empowerment on their participation in leadership: a case of private Universities in Mogadishu, to guide the researcher through every step of the study procedure. The study adopted a correlation research design. Data was collected through self-reports (questionnaires and interviews) and correlations. A sample of 73 representative participants was selected at simple random from 89 target population at three private universities in Mogadishu. The research findings were analyzed and interpreted in brief textual explanations, supported by data presented in frequency tables. The study in general thought that the men who control the three researched private universities in Mogadishu entertain a doubt about women's capability of doing managerial tasks, implying that women are not very fit for leadership positions-a labeling that made most of the women there lose confidence and the courage to aspire to posts at managerial levels in those universities. The study concluded that family responsibilities have an influence on women's participation in leadership. These universities do not provide support for women with family responsibilities, for example, they do not cater for the needs of the women with family responsibilities. The study reached the conclusion that women's lack of involvement in academic activities has an influence on their participation in leadership, mostly owing to their underrepresentation at senior levels in these private universities. The study came to the conclusion that cultural aspects and religion have an influence on their participation in leadership. In tradition, Somali communities disapprove of women assuming leadership positions for unfair opinions about their gender. The study strongly recommended that all appropriate stakeholders should make a concerted effort to ensure that the different institutions of society (the family, the school, the university, the community and the government) respect Somali women's rights and meet their needs and requirements by means of laws, rules policies, economic empowerment, up-skilling, procedures, standards, daily practices and national forums on gender inequality to identify and develop strategies for dealing with the existing gender issues and concerns in higher educational institutions in order to increase women's participation in leadership positions.*

**KEYWORDS:** *Women's Social Characteristics, Family Responsibility, Women Academic Involvement, Cultural Aspects and Religion, Women's Economic Empowerment & Participation in Leadership.*

---

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

For as far back as we have historical records, there is evidence, that women in different parts of the world have suffered in consequence of the label 'housewife', which is used to disregard or underestimate women's potentiality for jobs other

than housewife. Nevertheless, this era of the technological modern civilization and globalization and all the accompanying legalities of human rights and equity make the world a more suitable place for people from different socio-economic environments to live in, but it's not ideal for all people as



yet(Freeman, 2017).On a more micro level, various groups separated by gender, ethnicity, ability, or religious orientation are fighting their own battles to make their voices heard, and to achieve equity and equality in relation to privileged, dominant group(s) (Pinderhughes, 2017).However, the declaration on gender equality and development by the UN gave equal consideration to both males and females and called for equal treatment of men and women in accessing management positions so as to allow women who have leadership aspirations to realize their abilities to the full and to occupy their rightful places in the institutions of higher education Great attention has been paid to existing gender inequality in management opportunities for men and women in various sectors of employment in many nations worldwide, especially at legislative and research levels (Suzan, 2014).

Regionally, women's social characteristics determine their social and legal status in society, and entail prejudiced expectations (from society) against women that are particularly widespread among the people living in Africa where all leadership positions are usually placed outside women's domain on grounds of their female gender. Reason being, many African societies tend to prefer traditional women's role to economic social and political trends in the modern world towards promoting equality between men and women (Lazreg, 2018).Thus women do not enjoy the same rights as men in these countries as access to education, and employment in market places have been denied to them-hence their lack of decent jobs that bring with them status and high income. Instead, women are often encouraged to join the ranks of housewives. In other words, women's higher education and professional qualifications do not give them a guarantee of good job/ employment / career prospects, just because of their gender (Kataeva, Z., & DeYoung, A. J, 2017). And this causes a serious impediment to women's economic development.

The lack of sanitation facilities (especially separate latrines for girls and boys, a shortage of female teachers (less than 20 % of primary school teachers were female), and security concerns and traditional values that favor boys education over girls' are cited as factors stopping parents from sending their daughters to school. According to the education data for Somalia shown by (UNICEF, 2015), the enrollment and the attendance rates for Somalia as a whole were very low. The gender parity index(GPI) in Mogadishu primary schools for the year 2013 and 2014 was 0.85 and its gender gap (GG) was 6.1. According to the same statistics above, a total of 24050 secondary school students have been enrolled in the academic year 2013-2014 of which (14362) (59.7%) were boys and 9688 (40.3%) were girls. The total number of qualified secondary school teachers was 1262 of which only 57 were female

while the remaining 10205 were male. Therefore, these is a great need to adopt innovative ideas of treating women very fairly to encourage a more democratic society in which men and women compete on equal terms with each other without let or hindrance. (Said Yusuf Mohammed, 2014).

In Somalia, women never seem to enjoy the same rights and opportunities as men in terms of education and employment. Instead, they suffer from oppressively dominant men at home and in the workplace. Although, women considerably broadened their horizons of knowledge and experience in recent years in order to equip themselves for positions of power, men still predominate over women in top jobs in higher educational institutions in Mogadishu. That is, men are quite high up in the management hierarchy, compared to women who are concentrated in low level places. The main reason for this subordinates-supérieurs relationship between men and women in the institutions of higher education is that women often face a glass ceiling-a barrier to their ambitions of becoming managers in higher educational institutions.

Surprisingly, the government has made no move to address the gender discrimination against women in higher educational institutions in Somalia until now, apart from enshrining women's legal rights in the country's constitution, but in reality, these rights are not respected by men as yet.

Nevertheless, the implication is that, if women are alienated from the rest of the society or continually excluded from top jobs, that will not only be bad for women and their households, but also for the national economy as a whole because half the talent of the nation will be wasted. The social, political and economic cohesion of the society will also be undermined by the gender discrimination against women in all formal social institutions as a consequence, not to mention the outrages and the condemnations that might come from inside and outside the country in reaction to the violations against women's social and economic rights in Somalia.

However, this study investigated into the influence of Women's social characteristics on their participation in leadership positions.

### Specific Objectives

1. To identify the Influence of family responsibility on women participation in leadership: case of private Universities Mogadishu, Somalia
2. To determine the Influence of women academic involvement on their participation in leadership: case of private Universities Mogadishu, Somalia
3. To determine the Influence of cultural aspects and religion on women participation in



- leadership: case of private Universities Mogadishu, Somalia
4. To assess the Influence of women's economic empowerment on their participation in leadership: case of private Universities Mogadishu, Somalia

## 2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of the study was to explore the influence of women's social characteristics on their participation in leadership

### 2.1 Family responsibility

One of the most significant topics of discussion across most fields are female leadership. With issues of gender inequality attracting researchers' attention for many years, it is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the limited leadership roles and opportunities for women in higher education (Alomair M. O., 2015) Despite the progress in higher education regarding female advancement, gender discrepancies are evident based on four particularly important findings. First, women in higher education are underrepresented in leadership positions (Alomair M. O., 2015). In 2006, approximately 23% of college presidents in American higher education were women, but the majority of them were at community colleges and small private universities (Alomair M. O., 2015). However, most recent reports indicate that women represent 26% of college and university presidents (Alajmi, Rajeh Hamad and Ahmad, Fais Bin and Al-Ansi, Ali Ali and Gorondutse, Abdullahi Hassan, 2017). While there is an increase of female leaders in higher education, progress remains slow (Alajmi, Rajeh Hamad and Ahmad, Fais Bin and Al-Ansi, Ali Ali and Gorondutse, Abdullahi Hassan, 2017). The lack of women at the highest level of leadership in higher education has been attributed to the challenges women in academia are likely to face such as discouragements over career advancements, personal circumstances, and invisible rules within institutions (Miznah, 2015).

To start with, women are underrepresented in institutions of higher education compared with men. According to (Dear, 2016), that about 23% of presidents working in higher education institutions in the USA are females and are mostly employed in colleges and small universities run by community and private entities respectively. Dear also reported that 26% of college and university presidents in America represent women. (Davidson, 2016), says while the number of female managers is growing in higher education, progress is slow, and women still lag behind men in this respect. Although women account for 43.94% of faculty at American colleges and universities, only 26.81% of them hold the rank of professors. For example, 49.34% of assistant professors, 42.17% of associate professors, and only

29.12% of full professors are women (Alomair, 2015). So, women in higher education tend to hold lower academic ranking than men.

In addition, many women have expressed their concern about the lack of organizational support, information, and policies for their parental role. They also have emphasized their fear to request arrangements that suit their needs and family obligations for fear of losing promotion opportunities to leadership positions. In contrast, male leaders tend to criticize women who try to balance family and work life. They believe that women with children are responsible for their own failure to reach leadership positions because, according to these men, such positions demand childless lives (Powell, 2018). Powell also reported that "both men and women managers studied expressed concerns about whether it was possible to combine senior jobs with any real family life". Less overtly, this focus on exclusion bypasses women's active negotiation of work-life choices. It also serves to reinforce stereotypes of woman as primary caregiver, 'nurturer' and organizer of the home/life sphere. A counter discourse of women's inclusion in senior management, where balance is not a central concern, is currently absent within the gender and management research. (Robyn Walker, 2013).

### 2.2 Women's academic involvement

One way of ensuring that men and women are equally represented in communities is through their participation and involvement in higher education activities. In previous times, socioeconomic and educational policies that were reformed towards womenfolk have developed Nigerian women (Bako, Mandy Jollie and Syed, Jawad, 2018). Their social position, however, is neither economically nor politically equal to that of men (Bako, Mandy Jollie and Syed, Jawad, 2018). Violations of women's rights involve various forms of physical, psychological, economic, cultural and political deprivations and abuses that are inflicted either by the State, communities or individuals on women and girls as persons or as collectives. (Funmi, 2017).

Women who graduated from colleges and universities made considerable contributions to enhancing economic development of their lives, families and that of their country. According to (Zvisinei, Moyo and Juliet, Perumal, 2018), despite the achievement of many women worldwide -both in ancient and recent times- women still lag behind men in leadership positions in various human endeavors.

Within the political scene, only a few women occupy notable leadership positions despite the fact that they form half of the total population of every country (Sacchet, 2018). More emphasis is placed on particular ways in which men and women go about their leadership on management jobs (Place, Katie R and Vardeman-Winter, Jennifer, 2018).



Apparently there is a connection between women's positions in higher education and their status in society. That is to say, women's participation level in higher education is a reliable indicator of their social or professional status in any given country. Anyhow, the under representation of women in higher education and their stereotyped images in society have partly resulted from their lack of greater accessibility to neither formal schooling nor vocational training in addition to gender discrimination against them, which are really sad reflections on the reasons for gender inequality in our society today and its adverse consequences for women. So, women and girls are always underrepresented at senior levels in education positions and thus fell far behind in their career advancement in relation to men (Ovseiko, Pavel V and Chapple, Alison and Edmunds, Laurel D and Ziebland, Sue, 2017). However, having access to school does not imply that the girls are given the same opportunities for education as boys. There are different curricula for boys and girls with different sex-based orientations towards academic subjects and employment systems that are more favorable to men than women. In Saudi Arabia, for example the girls are taught less Math's and science lessons than boys and are also discouraged or not allowed to participate in physical education activities, and at all levels, boys and girls are segregated from one another in classes with exclusive female teachers for girls apart from male professors who give lectures and answer female students' questions via closed circuit television and telephone on occasional basis (Said, Ziad and Summers, Ryan and Abd-El-Khalick, Fouad and Wang, Shuai, 2016).

### 2.3 Women's cultural aspects and religion

A research carried out into women leadership has shown that women are faced with challenges in their way to climb up the positional ladder in higher education, and even when they reach the top leadership ranks in this institutions, may undergo sexual harassment, discrimination on the basis of their gender and very view chances of advancement positions in employment (Carter, Danon R and Peters, Tara, 2016) Patriarchy or cultural factors put a ceiling on women aspirations for higher leadership positions in both technologically advanced and underdeveloped countries (De Klerk, Saskia and Verreyne, Martie-Louise, 2017). Women, who make up half of society, suffer from discrimination and inequality in all societies, especially in the developing world. They are disadvantaged, marginalized and invisible in many aspects of life; and their poor representation in leadership positions is one form of such discrimination. This way that they think, feel or behave when selecting new employees overtly shows their discriminatory actions. They do not recruit new staff members in a way that gives everybody the same chance, instead

they practice bias or disfavor on the basis of gender (Dunham, 2017). The same thing happens when they are promoting employees and in many instances, women who contest leadership positions are more disadvantaged than men are (Dunham, 2017).

### 2.4 Women's economic empowerment

The shrinkage of the Kenyan government's role in social and economic development projects paved the way for the emergence of large numbers of non-governmental organizations and independent donors who took the control of almost all the development projects in Kenya under the auspices of western countries. So it was that they contributed a great deal to increasing Kenya's economic growth rate over the past two decades (Matelski, Maaik and Otundo, Billian and Zijlstra, Selma and Dekker, Marleen and Kempen, L van and Nangulu, Anne and Spierenburg, Marja, 2018). According to above researchers these efforts consequentially improved the empowerment of Kenyan women countrywide though support of more schools and creation of new job opportunities, and in this way, enabling many women to have financial independence and providing them with better access to a more diverse job market so that Kenyan women's educational and economic achievements have exceeded those of Somali women who are still more dependent on their husbands, fathers, brothers or sons for their livelihoods largely due to a lack of economic autonomy.

While foreign investment is limited or not encouraged as needed in Somalia and Ethiopia, millions of dollars were invested in Kenyan resources by western countries, thereby facilitating stronger Kenyan economic growth, when compared with the weaker economies of Somalia and Ethiopia (Selinger, 2018). And this is one good reason why there are more opportunities for education and economic empowerment for Kenyan women than their equals in the neighboring counties, who are socially and economically at a disadvantage compared to Kenyan women, despite the fact that the Ethiopian economy has been consistently improving for the past years. So, it is more than likely that the Ethiopian women will be able to compete with their Kenyan women counterparts in the job market. However Somali women are making relatively less progress than normal and/or developing economically more slowly than women in Ethiopia and Kenya owing to the infant economy of their country, thus getting a foot on the bottom rung of the career ladder so that they bare no comparison with women in neither Kenya nor Ethiopia as far as knowledge and the competences required at higher management or leadership positions are concerned (Sanjana, 2012).

### 2.5 Summary

Many previous studies about leadership and the barriers that women face in accessing leadership positions were discussed in this chapter. One





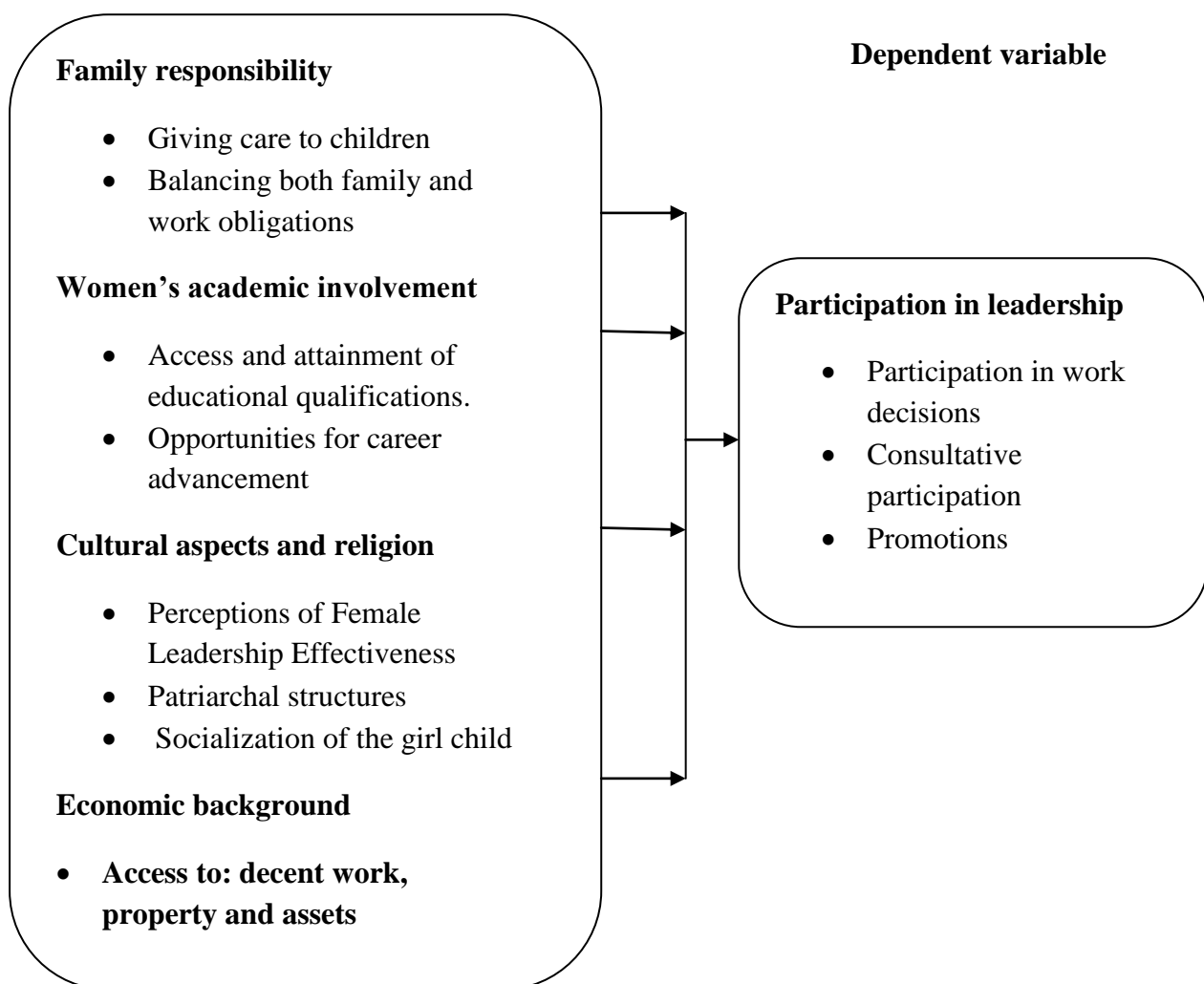
noticeable element in reviewing the barriers that women face in their access to leadership positions was that these barriers overlap with one another. Women may encounter more than one barrier during their pursuit of leadership positions. Although women have gained some success in terms of their access to leadership positions in various arenas,

including higher education, they are still underrepresented and underpaid in comparison to men. However, very few researches of this kind had been carried out to explore the influence women's social characteristics on their participation in leadership in context of Somalia, hence the existing gap in literature.

## Conceptual Framework

### Independent Variable

#### Women's social



### 3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study used correlation research design for the purpose of examining the relationship between the variables. Correlation research design determines whether and what degree a relationship exists between variables of the study. Bearing this in mind, correlation research design was chosen as it was seen as an appropriate method of conducting this study i.e.

it was suitable for this type of topic and helped the researcher to build up a general picture of the influence of women's social characteristics on their participation in leadership.

Independent variable (IV), is a factor that is directly controlled, influenced or used by the experimenter so as to see or notice the effect of this variation on the dependent variable. For example, in



this study on the influence of women's social characteristics on their participation in higher education leadership- the IV is the influence of women's social characteristics which can be defined as a set of features/qualities and patterns of behavior that are typical of women, normally accepted within society, different from location to location and usually influenced by social and cultural factors.

DV. is judged by the experimenter to form an opinion about the effect of the IV on the DV. For example the DV here in this study is their participation in leadership which denotes to the fact that they take part or become involved in something, for example in higher education leadership. Muguenda (2012) said that target population is by definition a group of subjects (persons or things) with a common feature or aspect of behavior that is being studied by a researcher in order to reach conclusions about using research done on a representative sample of that population to make a general statement from it about the wider target population.

The study was done on three private Universities in Mogadishu, and it targeted vice chancellors, Faculty Deans and Heads of Departments. These targeted clusters helped in providing the essential information which determined the influence of women social characteristics on their participation in higher education. The targeted population size comprised 12 deputy vice chancellors, 17 faculty deans and 61 Heads of departments.

The sample consisted of 73 administrative staff selected from 89 administrators from the three selected Universities. In other words, 73 respondents, comprising 48 heads of departments (34 male 14 Female), 16 faculty Deans (15 males 1 female) and, 12 male vice-chancellors were chosen from three selected universities and were then asked to fill in a questionnaire, whereupon 4 women among the respondents were interviewed to assist the researcher in understanding the social and cultural phenomenon that stand between women and leadership positions in higher educational institutions of Mogadishu.

Pfeifer, (2000, Maher, 1995, and Roth 1987) stressed the importance of using an interview to find people's options, thereby regarding it as being easy to control or manage, easy to correct mistakes or avoid misunderstanding at the right time in the place of the interview, and also, as having a high response rate and offering a much greater degree of flexibility in the way it's organized. This interview, however, focused on issues concerning the influence of women's social characteristics on their participation in higher education leadership. Semi-structured techniques were used in this regard while interviewing women with the intent of acquiring an

insight of their perceptions of the obstacles that have been placed in their way to higher education leadership careers.

A questionnaire that was similar in all detail was given to the participants (i.e.12 deputy vice-chancellors, 16 Faculty Deans and 48 Heads of departments) to elicit information from them about women's participation in higher education. Key (1997) expressed the view that a questionnaire is a method of getting attitudes, opinions, feelings or experiences of a representative group of people, while Sarntako (2005, p. 2663) mentioned that a questionnaire is a relatively inexpensive instrument with a high rate of uniformity, employed to gather information (about sb/sth) on the assumption that respondents will complete a questionnaire impartially and without bias. In Sarntako's view, a questionnaire asks well-thought-out and consistent questions and provides a wider coverage of the issue under discussion than other methods do.

#### 4.0 DATA ANALAYSIS AND PRESENTATION RESULT

This section elicited information from the respondents about the Influence of family responsibility on women participation in leadership: Case of private Universities in Mogadishu Somalia Table 4.6 showed that the mean of the respondents (4.97) agreed that the higher educational institutions do not provide support for women with family responsibilities, (4.48)agreed that the women still devote more time to childcare and domestic chores,(4.25) agreed that Women are more likely to be restricted geographically by their partners' Profession, while that situation rarely occurs to men, (3.97) agreed that the women are supposed to produce children and do kitchen work and (3.85) agreed that theFamily and personal obligations lead to exclusion of women from managerial positions in higher education while (2.00) disagreed that the Difficulties with balancing the demands of family and work are recurrent barrier to female advancement to leadership positions. So that the mean score for the responses was (3.92) which indicates that most of the respondents agreed that the higher educational institutions do not provide support for women with family responsibilities.

This second objective of the study indicated respondent's opinions on the Influence of women academic involvement on their participation in leadership: Case of private Universities in Mogadishu, Somalia. Table 4.7 showed that the mean of respondents (4.45) agreed that the Lack of women academic involvement causes women's participation rate at senior leadership level to be very low, (4.34) agreed that the Women's education is very low thus



unable to have access to leadership positions in universities, (3.88) agreed that the female teachers fail to hold education leadership positions, owing to their lack of sufficient professional qualifications, (3.38) agreed that Men can pursue careers in higher education leadership, but the same is often difficult for women, (3.27) agreed that Women have inadequate skills and knowledge that are vital to successful decision-making skills while (2.60) disagreed that Women need a lot of lobbying in order for them to get access to leadership positions in universities in Mogadishu. So, the average score for the responses was (3.59) which indicated that most of the respondents agreed with the statement that the Lack of women academic involvement causes women's participation rate at senior leadership level to be very low.

The third objective of the study was to determine the Influence of cultural aspects and religion on women participation in leadership: Case of private Universities Mogadishu, Somalia

Table 4.8 showed that the highest mean of respondents (4.78) agreed that by tradition, our communities disapprove of women assuming leadership positions for unfair opinions about their sex, (3.84) agreed that the Prevalence of the traditional, informal relation rather than the professional relation between the women leader and her subordinates were considered to be a contributing factor to women's low social status, (3.49) agreed with the belief that woman should play an important part in household chores, instead of in leadership positions, (3.34) agreed that with current, predominant beliefs that women are weak and emotional rather than strong and rational, so that they are unable to be good leaders. And (3.33) agreed that some women's professional culture about the academic leadership work is poor. The average mean score for responses was (3.71) which indicated that majority of the respondents agreed that, by tradition, our communities disapprove of women assuming leadership positions for unfair opinions about their sex.

The fourth objective of the study was to assess the Influence of women's economic empowerment on their participation in leadership: Case of private Universities Mogadishu, Somalia. Table 4.9 indicated that the highest mean of the respondents (4.62) agreed that decent work is central to economic empowerment, given its inherent importance to women's well-being and ability to advance in areas such as acquiring income and assets. Formal sector work is more likely to be 'decent', (4.58) agreed that the Girls in the lowest wealth quintiles are often the least likely to ever enroll in school, (3.84) agreed that Control of household resources, the importance for women's

'greater self-esteem, respect from other family members, economic opportunities, mobility outside of the home, and decision-making power give women more status, (3.66) agreed that the barriers to female education, whether systemic or temporary caused by shocks, have serious repercussions for their prospects later in life, (3.60) agreed that Enhancement of women's capacity for work as leaders contribute to sustainable development in the political and social-economic sectors. And (3.49) agreed that Women's financial inclusion, including access to banking and other financial services increase women's economic control and opportunities. The mean score for responses was (3.96) which indicated that the majority of the respondents agreed that Decent work is central to economic empowerment, given its inherent importance to women's well-being and ability to advance in areas such as acquiring income and assets. Formal sector work is more likely to be 'decent'.

*First interviewee: "the official head is a man at all times. Reason being, women are traditionally seen as not having the necessary strength, courage and ability to deal with difficult challenges successfully"* *Second interviewee: "In our society, women are still portrayed as the weak sex. It is a popular belief here that women tend to get emotional and may not behave appropriately in unusual situations. Consequently, only men are considered for leadership positions in my university."* *Third interviewee: "The official head of my university and the persons who are in charge of its different department/faculties are all men."* *Fourth interviewee: "As usual, men have or take control of all management/leadership positions, and you never see a single female director in the whole of my university."*

Last Interview question was "What changes do you think are needed to promote women's participation in leadership positions in education?" The answers given to this question by the respondents were these: *First interviewee: "among other needs, instilling soul in women is absolutely necessary to give them self-confidence in themselves and inspiration to be leaders in the institutions of higher education."* *Second interviewee: "women need all the support and encouragement they can get to enhance their academic performances and professional competence if they are to be elevated to leadership positions"* *Third interviewee: "women should be protected, empowered and helped to get access to justice to take up their cause for any discriminatory practices against them in work places."* *Fourth interviewee: "improving public perception of female leaders/ managers in higher education through sensitization, education and advocacy programs is needed."*



**Effect of women academic involvement on their participation in leadership**

		Academic involvement	Participation leadership
Academic involvement	Pearson Correlation	1	.574**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	73	73
Participation leadership	Pearson Correlation	.574**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	73	73

In this connection, the study establishes that there is a strong positive and highly significant correlation between Effect of women academic involvement on their participation in leadership ( $r = .574$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ).

**5.0 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The study strongly recommended that all appropriate stakeholders should make a concerted effort to ensure that the different institutions of society (the family, the school, the university, the community and the government) respect Somali women’s rights and meet their needs and requirements by means of laws, rules policies, economic empowerment, up-skilling, procedures, standards, daily practices and national forums on gender inequality to identify and develop strategies for dealing with the existing gender issues and concerns in higher educational institutions in order to increase women’s participation in leadership positions.

In addition, every endeavour should be made to cause a change in women’s traditional role in society by raising peoples’ awareness of the existing gender imbalance in the leadership of organizations to make them very conscious of the negative stereotyping, gender discrimination and hegemonic control of men over women in formal and non-formal institutions with intent to urge employers in particular to take a meritocratic approach with men and women when recruiting and selecting candidates for jobs.

Lastly, women themselves should struggle for greater autonomy in their lives and strive to free themselves from the traditional opinions or ways of behaving that limit in what they think or do in order for them to get better access to high places in organizations.

**REFERENCES**

1. .. D., J. M., & A. E. (2014). *Gender and Leadership: Reflections of Women in Higher Education Administration. International Journal of Leadership and Change*, 2(1), 10-18.

2. H. (2005). *Women and education in Saudi Arabia: Challenges and achievements. International Education Journal*, 6(2), 42-64.

3. P. (2017). *Value Chain Development, Gender and Women’s Empowerment in Ghana. VAM Gender and Markets Study*, 1-64.

4. Alajmi, Rajeh Hamad and Ahmad, Fais Bin and Al-Ansi, Ali Ali and Gorondutse, Abdullahi Hassan. (2017). *The moderating effect of government support between gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, and female leadership effectiveness: Empirical study of public universities in Saudi Arabia. International Review of Management and Marketing*, 390--402.

5. Al-Bakr, Fawziah and Bruce, Elizabeth R and Davidson, Petrina M and Schlaffer, Edit and Kropiunigg, Ulric. (2017). *Empowered but not equal: Challenging the traditional gender roles as seen by university students in Saudi Arabia. FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education*.

6. Al-Ismael, Saham and Carmichael, Fiona and Duberley, Joanne. (2019). *Female employment in hotels in Saudi Arabia and UAE. Gender in Management: An International Journal*.

7. Alomair, M. O. (2015). *International Journal of Higher Education*, 4(4), 81-93.

8. Alomair, M. O. (2015). *International Journal of Higher Education*, 81-93.

9. Alomair, M. O. (2015). *Female Leadership Capacity and Effectiveness: A Critical Analysis of the Literature on Higher Education in Saudi Arabia. International Journal of Higher Education*, 81--93.

10. Arnold, John and Barnard, Sarah and Bosley, Sara and Munir, Fehmidah. (2019). *Onwards and upwards: tracking women’s work experience in higher education year 3 report. London, UK: Advance HE*.

11. Bako, Mandy Jollie and Syed, Jawad. (2018). *Women’s marginalization in Nigeria and the way forward. Human Resource Development International*, 425--443.

12. Bimrose, J. (2019). *Guidance for girls and women. Springer*.





13. Blondet, C. (2018). *ut of the Kitchens and onto the Streets: Women's Activism in Peru*. Routledge.
14. S. (2015). *Gender inequalities in the workplace: the effects of organizational structures, processes, practices, and decision maker's sexism*. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 1-20.
15. Carter, Danon R and Peters, Tara. (2016). *The underrepresentation of African American women in executive leadership: What's getting in the way*. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 115-134.
16. Chesser, S. (2017). *Diapers and dissertations: An exploration of doctoral and postdoctoral trainee decision-making surrounding first-time parenthood*. University of Waterloo.
17. Cole, M. (2017). *Education, equality and human rights: issues of gender, 'race', sexuality, disability and social class*. Routledge.
18. K. (2013). *FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP IN SECONDARY SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN LOWER YATTA DISTRICT, KITUI COUNTY, KENYA*. University of Nairobi., 1-78.
19. Das, K. (2018). *Representation of woman in koch verbal art: A study through the Rajbongshi Proverbs*. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences*, 656-670.
20. Davidson, M. J. (2016). *Women in management worldwide: Progress and prospects--An overview*. Gower.
21. De Klerk, Saskia and Verreynne, Martie-Louise. (2017). *The networking practices of women managers in an emerging economy setting: negotiating institutional and social barriers*. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 477-501.
22. Dear, R. W. (2016). *Surviving at the Top: A Critical Case Study of Female Administrators in Higher Education*. @article{dear2016surviving.
23. Dorling, D. (2019). *Inequality and the 1%*. Verso.
24. Dunham, C. R. (2017). *Third generation discrimination: The ripple effects of gender bias in the workplace*. *Akron L. Rev.*, 55.
25. Earl, J. (2019). *The Glass Ceiling Conquered: An exploratory assessment of Women in Senior positions in the Facilities Management sector in Ireland*. Earl, J. (2019). *The Glass Ceiling Conquered: An exploratory assessment of Women in Senior positions in the Dublin, National College of Ireland*.
26. Ellemers, N. (2018). *Gender stereotypes*. *Annual review of psychology*, 275--298.
27. England, P. (2017). *Households, employment, and gender: A social, economic, and demographic view*. Routledge.
28. F. J.-M. (2017). *Running head: GENDER, CITIZENSHIP AND DEMOCRATIC GOVERNANCE*. *National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies, Kuru, Nigeria*, 1-48.
29. Fowler, C. A. (2019). *Nevertheless, She Persists: Women Leadership in Higher Education*. Ohio University.
30. Freeman, M. (2017). *Human rights*. John Wiley & Sons.
31. G. B., & B. N. (2010). *Examination of the Effectiveness of Male and Female Educational Leaders Who Made Use of the Invitational Leadership Style Of Leadership*. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, 16, 30-56.
32. Gibson, L. (2017). *Towards a More Equal Indonesia: How the government can take action to close the gap between the richest and the rest*. Oxfam.
33. Higginbottom, K. (2018). *Women directors of education: policy consequences, gender perspectives and leadership strategies*. [Doctoral dissertation]. Retrieved from TSpace <https://tspace.library>.
34. J. B. (2008). *Higher education: a public good or a commodity for trade?* *National University of Educational Planning and Administration*, 450-466.
35. J. C., & J. A. (2013). *On Student Access and Equity in a Reforming University: Makerere in the 1990s and Beyond*. *Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa*, 4(2), 1-46.
36. J. S., & M. C. (2012). *Women-better leaders than Men? in general and educational management it still "all depends"*. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 122-133.
37. Jeong, Seung-Hwan and Harrison, David A. (2017). *Glass breaking, strategy making, and value creating: Meta-analytic outcomes of women as CEOs and TMT members*. *Academy of Management Journal*, 1219--1252.
38. Johnson, J. M. (2018). *Life in Balance: The Work-Life Balance Stories of Black Female School Leaders*. @article{johnson2018life.
39. Kabeer, N. (2017). *Economic pathways to women's empowerment and active citizenship: What does the evidence from Bangladesh tell us?* *The Journal of Development Studies*, 649--663.
40. Kataeva, Z., & DeYoung, A. J. (2017). *Kataeva, Z., & DeYGender and the academic profession in contemporary Tajikistan: Challenges and opportunities expressed by women who remain*. Kataeva, Z., & DeYoung, A. J. (2017). *Gender and the academic profession in contemporary Tajikis Central Asian Survey*, 36(2), 247--262.
41. Kazi, Asma Shahid and Akhlaq, Abeeda. (2017). *Factors Affecting Students' Career Choice*. *Journal of Research & Reflections in Education (JRRE)*, 2.
42. L. F. (2012). *The role of men in the economic and social development of women -implications for gender equality*. *Institut d'Anàlisi Econòmica and Barcelona GSE*, 1-36.



43. L. M. (2012). *GENDER-RELATED EXPERIENCES OF FEMALE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF FOUR SCHOOLS IN UMLAZI NORTH CIRCUIT*. University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, 1-93.
44. L. M. (2013). *Women and Higher Education Leadership: Absences and Aspirations*. Centre for Higher Education and Equity Research (CHEER), University of Sussex, UK, 1-32.
45. Lazreg, M. (2018). *The eloquence of silence: Algerian women in question*. Routledge.
46. M. C. (2015). *Gender and Leadership Style: the self-perceptions of secondary headteachers*. Institute of Education, University of London, 17(1), 29-33.
47. M. O. (2015). *Female Leadership Capacity and Effectiveness: A Critical Analysis of the Literature on Higher Education in Saudi Arabia*. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 4(4), 81-93.
48. Matelski, Maaike and Otundo, Billian and Zijlstra, Selma and Dekker, Marleen and Kempen, L van and Nangulu, Anne and Spierenburg, Marja. (2018). *Civil society engagement with land rights advocacy in Kenya: what roles to play? Literature review*. African Studies Centre Leiden (ASCL); Radboud University.
49. Momsen, J. (2019). *Gender and development*. Routledge.
50. Murithi, F. G. (2017). *Effect Of Work-life Balance On Employee Productivity In Universities In Kenya*. Kca University.
51. Ovseiko, Pavel V and Chapple, Alison and Edmunds, Laurel D and Ziebland, Sue. (2017). *Advancing gender equality through the Athena SWAN Charter for Women in Science: an exploratory study of women's and men's perceptions*. *Health research policy and system*, 12.
52. Pennartz, P., & Niehof, A. (2019). *Pennartz, P., & The domestic domain: Chances, choices and strategies of family households*. Routledge.
53. Pinderhughes, E. (2017). *Conceptualization of how power operates in human functioning*. Pinderhughes, E. (2017). *Conceptualization of how power o Understanding power: An imperative for human services*, 1-23.
54. Place, Katie R and Vardeman-Winter, Jennifer. (2018). *Where are the women? An examination of research on women and leadership in public relations*. *Public Relations Review*, 165--173.
55. Powell, G. N. (2018). *Women and men in management*. Sage Publications.
56. Robert, & Josephine. (2017). *Analysis of the paralysis of government leadership in sub-Saharan Africa*. *Africa's Public Service Delivery and Performance Review*, 2-13.
57. Robyn Walker, J. K. (2013). *Work/Life Balance For Senior Women Executives: Issues Of Inclusion? Stream 19: Gender Perspectives & Management*, 1-16.
58. S. B. (2012). *The effect of organisational context on organisational development (OD) interventions*. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA*, 1-12.
59. S. H. (2014). *ROAD TO LEADERSHIP:EXPERIENCES OF SAUDI WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION*. In S. H. AlDoubi, *ROAD TO LEADERSHIP:EXPERIENCES OF SAUDI WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION* (p. 217). Fort Collins, Colorado: Colorado State University.
60. S. J., & E. J. (2016). *Human Development Report*. UNDP.
61. Sacchet, T. (2018). *Why gender quotas don't work in Brazil? The role of the electoral system and political finance*. *Colombia Internacional*, 25--54.
62. Said Yusuf Mohammed. (2014). *Education Statistics Yearbook 2013/2014*. Mogadishu, Somalia: Ministry of Education and Higher Education.
63. Said, Ziad and Summers, Ryan and Abd-El-Khalick, Fouad and Wang, Shuai. (2016). *Attitudes toward science among grades 3 through 12 Arab students in Qatar: findings from a cross-sectional national study*. *International Journal of Science Education*, 621--643.
64. Selinger, E. (2018). *Ethics and poverty tours*. Routledge.
65. Shelton, D. (n.d.). *PROTECTING HUMAN RIGHTS IN A GLOBALIZED WORLD*.
66. SIDRA. (2016). *REPORT OF THE GENDER IN HIGHER EDUCATION CONFERENCE HELD ON 21-23 NOVEMBER 2016*. Garowe, Puntland State of Somalia: SIDRA.
67. Soklaridis, Sophie and Kuper, Ayelet and Whitehead, Cynthia R and Ferguson, Genevieve and Taylor, Valerie H and Zahn, Catherine. (2017). *Gender bias in hospital leadership: a qualitative study on the experiences of women CEOs*. *Journal of health organization and management*, Emerald Publishing Limited.
68. Stein, M. A. (2017). *Disability human rights*. Routledge.
69. Torrens, N. J. (2019). *Female Labor Force Participation in Turkic Countries: A Study of Azerbaijan and Turkey*. Torrens, N. J. (2019). *Female Labor Force Participation in Turkic* Duke University Durham.