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The impacts of employees' attitudes toward women participation in decision making positions at working place in Tanzania: A case of Morogoro municipal and district councils

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Abstract

Attitude of employees coupled with cultural factors has continued to dictate the gender-based division of labor, rights, responsibilities, opportunities, and access to and control over resources. Likewise, women participation in management position at work place is still questionable in many developing countries including Tanzania. This paper is set to determine the factors which influence women participation in LGAs in Morogoro district that constitutes Morogoro municipal and district council. A cross-sectional research design was adopted and both multistage and simple random sampling techniques were used to select 192 employees involved in the study. Structured interview and focus group discussion were the main methods used for data collection. This paper adopts the Likert scale for examining employee's attitudes towards women's participation in decision making position at workplace. Results revealed that there were no marked difference between response from male and female; similar trends were also observed among respondents from Morogoro district councils. Moreover, findings indicate that more than half of the respondents (61.5%) had positive attitude toward women decision making in the organisation whereas 38.5% had negative attitude towards decision making in the organisation. Therefore, the paper concludes that negative attitude prevailing among some employees cannot be ignored, hence recommend to the government and other gender activists to ensure that the implication for employers, administrators and policy makers are discussed at all levels of LGAs.

Keywords: Attitude; Decision Making; Women Participation; Counterparts

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1. Introduction

The contribution of women to the well-being of their family and community affairs in general, cannot be ignored in any country. OECD (2012) warns that leaving women behind means not only forsaking the important contributions women make to the economy but also wasting years of investment in education of girls and young women. It is from this background UN Women (2014) has acknowledged that when women have greater voice and participation in public administration, public resources are more likely to be allocated towards investments in human development priorities, including child health, nutrition and access to employment. However, in many African communities, traditional perceptions of women as inferior to men have continued to prevail as many people invoke the preservation of African culture to justify the subordination of women (Onsongo, 2004; Kabeer, 2012).

The low participation and representation of women in public and political institutions is widely acknowledged in both developed and developing countries. Karl (2001) cited in Kivoi (2014) identifies some obstacles that hinder women's participation in political affairs worldwide: These obstacles include low education and literacy levels, low access to financial resources, cultural attitudes and stereotypes, religion and socialization, among other factors. Onsongo (2004) found that there are several factors at the personal, institutional and societal levels preventing qualified women from ascending to senior positions in universities. Cornwall et al. (2005) also found that women face stress while at work, home and in social environments. Women are also supposed to acquire masculine leadership characteristics and management skills like aggressiveness and assertiveness among others so as to excel in their careers.

Many developing countries suffer from long-standing and quantitatively large bias against women in terms of asset ownership and access to public goods and services (Deininger et al., 2011). This has resulted largely due to social exclusion as a result of gender inequality in decision making; in the long run this can affect the welfare and threaten social stability. Lack of voice that prevents women from ensuring that their needs are taken into account in public service delivery and policy design is believed to be an important factor reinforcing such bias (Kabeer, 2012). Concern about a failure of pre-existing and often deep-rooted gender gaps to narrow over time led many countries to adopt policies that reserve a certain share of political positions for females also known as quota. Supporters argue that empowering members of groups who had historically been disadvantaged can result in more inclusive processes of policy-making drawing in those previously excluded (Deininger et al., 2011).

Despite series of both international and national conferences and platforms that advocate for women to assume managerial positions at the workplace; women continue to assume low positions in many LGAs offices in Tanzania. It is apparent that women are one of the politically, economically and socially marginalized social groups. For example a study conducted in Maasai community in Tanzania by Kandusi and Waiganjo (2015) found that a considerable proportion of men refused to be led by a woman. This is the result of significant role played by culture in shaping the attitude of employees and their behaviour towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place at work place. In particular the attitudes

that lead employees' negative attitudes towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place at work place and the roots of such attitudes have not yet been adequately considered (Behbahan, 2012). According to Herbert and Yost (1978b), attitudes have powerful influences on the behavior of people at work. This has created an environment where male subordinates do not effectively adhere to instructions emanating from female managers at workplaces.

It is agreed that in many communities, women turn up in large numbers in every political election where they constitute more than half of the population in many countries including Tanzania, yet they are visibly insignificant in various positions held within the Government, parastatals organizations and private companies (Losindilo et al., 2010; Birikti, 2014). Women have continuously been holding back their participation even in situations where affirmative action's have been put across to include women in decision making which is highly linked to social cultural limitations. Furthermore, while the majority of employees in local government authorities such as Mwanza and Tanga city councils (National Bureau of Statistics Census of 2012) are constituted by women, yet their participation in decision making is still questionable. Therefore, this paper was set to examine the impacts of employees' attitude in facilitating Women participation in decision making positions at work place position at work place.

The International institutions on women affairs have advocated for female rights on many platforms, forums and seminars. It is generally accepted that acceptance of women into managerial positions is not only because they are knowledgeable but it is also their basic human rights. This study is therefore significant from a theoretical and practical point of view in that it will contribute to the understanding of employees' attitudes towards women participation in the decision-making process at work place.

2. Theoretical background

The literature noted that leadership attitudes towards subordinate participation, which can be positive or negative, are influenced by the following main factors: (a) the 'father figure' relationship between management and subordinates (high-power distance culture), (b) propensity for participative decision-making i.e. perceptions about power control and their organisational effectiveness, (c) subordinates' country of origin, (d) subordinates' capacity for leadership and initiation, and (e) internal locus of control, and (f) the country's level of industrialisation (Behbahan, 2012). The paper theorized that higher levels of participation in decision-making can lead to increased employee-outcomes (commitment, morale) and organisational performance. The approach adopted here was to rely on the existing literature to develop working propositions about levels of analysis and participation but also to allow alternative views to be tested concurrently. Kuznets (1966) opined that as economic development progresses, more people are shifted first from agriculture to industry and then from industry to services. Theoretically, it is natural for economic activity among women to follow a U-shaped curve along the course of development. Thus, in the initial stages of development, when society is primarily agrarian, increased demand for female labour leads to higher workforce participation among women (Kuznet, 1966). Industrialization gives rise to greater demand for

skilled labour and as a consequence involves displacement of women labour and its substitution by male labour.

Applying the concept of income and substitution effect, Mincer (1962) and Cain (1966) proposed a theory of labour supply that applies especially to married women. Within the context of the family, a rise in income has different effects on its members. For wives, housework is a major responsibility and thus an important substitute for time. Thus, in their case, substitution effect could be larger than for other adults. On the whole, female labour supply increases when the substitution effect is much greater than the income effect (Kenneth and Voicu, 2009). Participation of women in the labour force hence becomes an outcome of decision making of the family regarding income and leisure. Men have greater access to specialized skills due to their early entry into the labour market. Marginal differences in the initial skill levels get compounded and would result in the segregation of women and their marginalization towards non-specialized and unskilled jobs.

Adaptive women prefer to combine employment and family work without giving a fixed priority to either. They want to enjoy the best of both worlds. Adaptive women are generally the largest group among women and are found in substantial numbers in most occupations (Hakim, 2004). Certain occupations, such as school teaching, are attractive to women because they facilitate a more even work-family balance. Great majority of women who transfer to part-time work after they have children are adaptive women, who seek to devote as much time and effort to their family work as to their paid jobs. In some countries part-time jobs are rare, but women can choose from seasonal jobs, temporary work, school-term-time jobs etc. All offer a better work-family balance than the typical full-time job, especially if commuting is also involved (Preko, 2012). When flexible jobs are not available, adaptive women may take ordinary full-time jobs or else withdraw from paid employment temporarily. Adaptive people are the group interested in schemes offering work-life balance and family-friendly employment benefits and will gravitate towards careers, occupations and employers offering these advantages.

This stereotyping of sub roles, men and women can be perceived as acting outside of their appropriate gender roles when engaging in certain managerial roles (Atwater et al., 2004). Finally, given that sport leadership positions are dominated by men (Acosta and Carpenter, 2008; Whisenant, 2008) and previous research that has reported men rate leaders as possessing more masculine characteristics (Powell et al., 2002; Schein, 2007), it seems likely that masculine sub roles would be viewed as more important by men in senior leadership positions than by women in similar leadership positions hence the basis for discrimination.

3. Research methodology

3.1. Analytical framework

In order to establish the methodology of this research it is first necessary to clarify the term 'attitude'. Attitude is an important concept that is often used to understand and predict people's reaction to an object or change and how behaviour can be influenced (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Allport (1935) defines attitude

as a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations to which it is related. Attitude consists of three components which are generally accepted (Triandis, 1971) which are: Affective - the person's feelings about the attitude object, cognitive - the person's beliefs or knowledge about the attitude object and behavioural - the person's inclination to act toward the attitude object on a particular way. By analysing these components, and as Gross (1968) suggests it is a 'hypothetical construct'; it becomes apparent that it cannot be directly measured and the use of only a single statement or question to assess it [attitude] will not be effective in gaining reliable responses.

There are several types of scales that have been developed to measure attitude. These are Thurstone Scales, Guttman Scales, Semantic Differential Scaling and Likert Scale. Thurstone Scales is a method of equal-appearing intervals (Thurstone and Chave, 1929). Thurstone scaling is 'based on the law of comparative judgment' (Neuman, 2000). It requires the individual to either agree or disagree with a large number of statements about an issue or object. Thurstone scales typically present the reader with a number of statements to which they have to respond, usually by ticking a true/false box, or agree/disagree, i.e. a choice of two possible responses.

Guttman scale was developed by Guttman in the 1940s in order to determine if a relationship existed within a group of items. The items are ordered from low to high according to difficulty so that to approve or correctly answer the last item implies approval or success of all prior ones (e.g. self-efficacy scale). The respondent selects an item that best applies. Semantic Differential Scaling is concerned with the 'measurement of meaning', the idea or association that individuals attach to words or objects. The respondent is required to mark on a scale between two opposing opinions (bipolar adjectives) the position they feel the object holds on that scale for them. It is often used in market research to determine how consumers feel about certain products (Osgood, 1952). Likert Scale was developed by Rensis Likert in 1932. It requires the individuals to make a decision on their level of agreement, generally on a five-point scale (i.e. Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree) with a statement. The number beside each response becomes the value for that response and the total score is obtained by adding the values for each response, hence the reason why they are also called 'summated scales' (the respondents score is found by summing the number of responses). Dumas (1999) suggest, ' this is the most commonly used question format for assessing participants' opinions of usability'.

This paper adopts the Likert scale for examining employee's attitudes towards women's participation in decision making position at workplace. The scale were further constructed into score index to determine the positive and negative attitude among the respondents and then compared to assess if there is any statistical difference in the positive and negative score.

3.2. Study area

The study was conducted in Morogoro district that constitutes Morogoro Municipal and district councils. The District has been selected as it is among the old districts in Tanzania which also harbour workers from

different parts in Tanzania, hence a good representation of the district councils in Tanzania. As it is the case for many urban districts in Tanzania and as also shown in (Table 1), Morogoro have a relatively big number of women employees than their male counter parts in the different work carders hence a good case for comparing Women participation in decision making positions at work place in their work places.

Table 1. Population of the Study

S/No	Department/Unit	Morogoro Municipal Council		Morogoro District Council		Total
		Male	Female	Male	Female	
1.	Health	235	554	110	323	1222
2.	Administration	148	254	62	42	506
3.	Urban planning/statistics	33	11	05	03	52
4.	Primary education	274	1494	555	899	3222
5.	Secondary education	705	583	272	385	1945
6.	Agriculture and cooperative	23	11	96	40	170
7.	Urban planning, works, fire and environmental/rural water supply	20	10	29	13	72
8.	Community Development/Livestock & Fisheries	27	10	35	37	109
9.	Finance and Business	15	10	14	12	51
10.	Councillors	26	16	38	09	89
11.	CMT	17	05	11	08	41
	Total	1523	2958	1227	1771	
		4481		2998		7479

Source: Morogoro Municipal and District Councils Planning Office

3.3. The sample size

The sample size for the study was 192 employees; the choice of this figure was based on the simple formula for estimating sample size according to Fisher et al. (1998) for the total population that does not exceed 10000. Proportionate sampling procedures were adopted to get the representative sample size from different work cadres as presented in the Table 1.1

3.4. Sampling procedures

A combination of multistage, cluster and simple random sampling procedures were adopted for the study. A combination of simple random and systematic sampling techniques was used to obtain respondents from selected clusters of employees. Simple random sampling technique was used to select cluster of employees whereas systematic sampling technique was used to select respondents in each respective clusters of employees. A list of employees in each cluster saved as a sampling frame.

3.5. Data collection and analysis

Data were collected using Questionnaire which was given to Local Government employee's from the two district councils. The main information which was collected was the employee's characteristics and their attitudes towards women participation. Data from the questionnaires was first coded and entered in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software for windows program to enable analysis. Inferences from analyzed data were made, whereby descriptive statistics were used to compute frequency and percentage, and then construct score index, F-Test and Chi-square. Tables were used to present the information from which interpretation was done by comparing the frequencies and percentages.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Respondents' characteristics

In order to achieve good results for this objective, both women and men were involved whereby 59.4% were females and the remaining 40.6% were males. The study also revealed that there are relatively older male employees than females; men are more numerous than females among those aged 40 years and above (44.6 % and 28.8% for male and female respectively) (Table 2). The findings of this study further reveals that there are more female employees in the urban areas than in rural area 62.5% and 37.5% for urban and rural female employees respectively. During focus group discussion it was revealed that women prefer to work in urban areas for many reasons including family reunion where spouses might be working in also in urban areas but in different specialization.

The study further revealed that majority of employees was married (63.9%) and about a quarter (25.5%) was living as singles. Furthermore it was revealed that male employees were more likely to be married than female employees 73.1% versus 66.7% respectively. One of the reasons that female employees advance as a justification for their stay in urban areas is the marital union. This has been confirmed in this study whereby 70.8% of respondents in urban areas as compared to 67.7% in rural areas were married. This trend compare well with those reported in Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey (TDHS) (1996).

Results reveal that majority of respondents had certificate education (38%), followed by diploma education (29.2%). Few of the respondents had degree level of education (9.4%). Sex wise, there were marked differences in attainment of the levels of education between male and female in secondary, certificate and diploma levels of education.

Females slightly dominated the secondary and certificate levels whereas male employees were more numerous than females in the diploma and degree levels which was reflected in the types of posts held in the district councils. Such differences in education attainment were anticipated to have an impact on one's ability and the extent of participation in decision making. The study revealed further that, comparatively employees from Morogoro rural district council had relatively higher levels of education. For example those with

diploma level of education were 35.4% as compared to 22.9% in the same level of education. Furthermore, those with advanced level and first degree level of education were more numerous in rural district council than urban council (12.5% and 6.3% for Morogoro rural and Morogoro urban respectively).

Table 2. Demographic and socio-economic characteristics (n=192)

SN	Variable	Male	Female	Municipal	District council	All
1.	Sex					
	Male	-	-	37.5	43.8	40.6
	Female	-	-	62.5	56.3	59.4
2.	Age					
	22-27 yrs	10.3	15.8	11.5	17.7	13.5
	28-33 yrs	30.8	31.6	28.1	33.3	31.3
	34-39 yrs	15.4	23.7	21.9	18.8	20.3
	40-45 yrs	29.5	17.5	22.9	20.8	22.4
	46+ yrs	14.1	11.4	15.6	9.4	12.5
3.	Marital status					
	Single	24.4	26.3	21.9	29.2	25.5
	Married	73.1	66.7	70.8	67.7	69.3
	divorced/separated	1.3	1.8	1.0	2.1	1.6
	widow/widower	1.3	5.3	6.3	1.0	3.6
4.	Education level					
	Primary	2.6	0	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Secondary	14.1	28.1	28.1	16.7	22.4
	Certificate	30.8	43.0	41.7	34.4	38.0
	Diploma	37.2	23.7	22.9	35.4	29.2
	Advance/first degree	15.4	5.3	6.3	12.5	9.4

4.2. Attitude towards women participation in decision making positions at work place

Attitude towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place was analysed using Likert scale type question in which respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with attitudinal statement on employees attitude towards women decision making. Summated scale analyses (Warmbrod, 1986) that compare the overall score on the positive and negative statement indicated that there were comparatively low score on agree for the negative statements and relatively higher score on agree for positive statements which connote positive attitude towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place (Table 3).

Table 3. Attitude towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place

Statements	Men			Women			Urban			Rural			All		
	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D
Negative statement on women's decision making															
Work to achieve gender equality benefits mostly well-to-do people and those in higher managerial posts	10.3	32.1	57.7	33.3	3.5	63.2	24.0	4.2	71.9	41.7	8.3	50.0	32.8	6.3	60.9
When women work they are taking jobs away from men	3.8	12.8	83.3	.9	2.6	96.5	2.1	0	97.9	4.2	11.5	84.4	2.1	6.8	91.1
When women get rights they are taking rights away from men	3.8	12.8	83.3	3.5	0	96.5	2.1	0	97.9	3.1	12.5	84.4	1.6	7.3	91.1
Rights for women mean that men lose out	6.4	12.8	80.8	.9	2.6	96.5	3.1	2.1	94.8	3.1	11.5	85.4	3.1	6.8	90.1
Gender equality, meaning that men and women are equal, has come far enough already	12.8	11.5	75.6	14.9	2.6	82.5	12.5	3.1	84.4	15.6	9.4	75.0	14.1	6.3	79.7
Women should not make decision over office issues because men can decide for them as they do in their household	5.1	11.5	83.3	12.3	1.8	86.0	8.3	2.1	89.6	10.4	9.4	80.2	9.4	5.7	84.9
When women are given freedom to make decision over official matters e.g. use of resources they mix up with household issues	38.5	9.0	52.6	40.4	3.5	56.1	39.6	4.2	56.3	39.6	7.3	53.1	39.6	5.7	54.7
When women are given position to make decisions in the organization they tend to favor men and burden their fellow women	43.6	6.4	50.0	51.8	6.1	42.1	51.0	4.2	44.8	45.8	8.3	45.8	48.4	6.3	45.3
Women should not make decision at work places because men will not take up their decisions seriously	32.1	1.3	66.7	32.5	2.6	64.9	38.5	1.0	60.4	26.0	3.1	70.8	32.3	2.1	65.6

Table 4. Attitude towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place

Statements	Men			Women			Urban			Rural			All		
	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D
Positive statement on women's decision making	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D	A	U	D
Women (whether educated or not) do not have confidence to make decision that also involve men	20.5	3.8	75.6	14.0	1.8	84.2	20.8	0	79.2	5.2	0	82.3	16.7	2.6	80.7
Women should only make decision over use of resources and other office matters when men are not in place	71.8	2.6	25.6	79.8	0	20.2	88.5	0	11.5	64.6	2.1	33.3	76.6	1.0	22.4
Women workers are rational and effective decision makers as their men counterpart	75.6	0	24.4	93.0	.9	6.1	86.5	0	13.5	85.4	1.0	13.5	85.9	0.5	13.5
Women face more social barriers from making decision at work places	88.5	0	11.5	96.5	0	3.5	95.8	0	4.2	90.6	0	9.4	93.2	0	6.8
Women lack of confidence to make decision at work places result from cultural and structural barriers in the community and at work	83.3	0	16.7	90.4	0	9.6	11.5	0	88.5	86.5	0	13.5	87.5	0	12.5
If better strategies for enabling men and Women participation in decision making positions at work place is in place women are effective decision makers as men	78.2	0	21.8	97.4	0	2.6	90.6	0	9.4	88.5	0	11.5	89.6	0	10.4
Women are effective decision makers over use of resources due to the experiences they have in their families	82.1	1.3	16.7	96.5	0	3.5	9.4	0	90.6	8.3	1.0	90.6	90.6	0.5	8.9
Poor educated men are lack confidence to make decision as most women do.	60.3	1.3	38.5	68.4	1.8	29.8	31.3	3.1	65.6	35.4	0	64.6	65.1	1.6	33.3
Less educated men are lack confidence to make decision as most women do.	65.4	1.3	33.3	69.3	2.6	28.1	26.0	3.1	70.8	34.4	1.0	64.6	67.7	2.1	30.2

These findings imply that majority of employees had have positive attitude towards women decision making in the local government authorities. The analysis also revealed that there were no marked difference between response from male and female; similar trends were also observed among respondents from

Morogoro district councils. The findings imply that, there were no differences in responses between employees in Morogoro district council's areas.

In order to determine overall measure of the attitude on women decision making and how it relate to socioeconomic characteristics of respondent, an index scale of attitude towards women decision making was developed using a list of attributes of decision making variables. Responses were grouped into three categories namely: agree, uncertain and disagree. In all positive statements every "Agree" response was represented by 3 while "Uncertain" was represented by 2 and "Disagree" was represented by 1. For all negative statements every "Agree" response was represented by 1 while "Uncertain" was represented by 2 and "Disagree" was represented by 3. The index scale developed had minimum score of 18 and maximum score of 54, the index score was 47.7. The scores on the index were further categorized into negative and positive attitudes towards women decision making. Scores below the index mean was categorized as negative attitude where as scores above the index mean was categorized as positive attitude towards women decision making.

Findings indicate that more than half of the respondents (61.5%) had positive attitude toward women decision making in the organisation whereas 38.5% had negative attitude towards decision making in the organisation (Table 4). Findings presented in Table 5 further reveals that males were more likely to have positive attitude towards female participation in decision making than their female counterparts (66.7 and 57.9 percent for male and female respectively). And, employees from Morogoro rural district council had more positive attitude than their urban counterpart (55.2 and 67.7 percent for municipal and district councils respectively). Some scholars including (Blumberg, 1991) argue that type of employment, location of employment is often is always associated with gender equality and participation in decision making. The author further argued that, employees in urban areas, with their increased options for diverse employment opportunities, should have more potential to bring improvements to women's position and situation in relation to decision making. The idea is that improving women's access to financial resources through employment will empower them within their own homes, and this "private" economic empowerment will in turn allow women to challenge more public gender stereotypes. The ability to participate in decision making is one measure of women's relative power within the household.

Attitude towards women decision making in many work places continue to hamper their effort to access such leadership positions. This continues despite the efforts made by several organization especially after the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, China, in 1995, where the global community stressed the importance of women assuming positions of power and influence, not only because their points of view and talents are needed, but also as a matter of their human rights. Moreover, increased involvement of women in decision making processes with respect to social values, development directions and allocation of resources which is important to enable women as well as men to influence societal agendas and to help set priorities (UN, 2005). Similar trends for Women participation in decision making positions at work place are widely reported in literature.

Table 5. Index of Attitude towards women participation in decision making at work place (n=192)

Score	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	All
34.00	2.6	1.8	0	4.2	2.1
36.00	6.4	0.9	1.0	4.2	2.6
37.00	1.3	0	1.0	0	0.5
38.00	3.8	0.9	2.1	2.1	2.1
39.00	2.6	0.9	0	3.1	1.6
40.00	5.1	2.6	1.0	6.3	3.6
41.00	1.3	2.6	2.1	2.1	2.1
42.00	12.8	5.3	9.4	7.3	8.3
43.00	9.0	2.6	3.1	7.3	5.2
44.00	11.5	14.0	12.5	13.5	13.0
45.00	0	4.4	2.1	3.1	2.6
46.00	10.3	22.8	20.8	14.6	17.7
47.00	1.3	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
48.00	14.1	21.9	22.9	14.6	18.8
49.00	1.3	1.8	3.1	12.5	1.6
50.00	11.5	7.9	6.3	4.2	9.4
52.00	5.1	9.6	11.5		7.8
Attributes towards decision making					
Positive	66.7	57.9	55.2	67.7	61.5
Negative	33.3	42.1	44.8	32.3	38.5

It is argued (Hora, 2014) that as compared to prior decades, the participations women in decision making throughout the world are somehow increasing. But, inspite of the incremental progress towards women's participation in public spheres, it is generally recognized that women have largely remained outside of formal leadership roles due to various factors. Some of the factors reported in literature which have contributed for such disparities include: structural barriers, unequal socio-economical opportunities, and inadequate access to mentors and support networks (Meaza, 2008). Other factors include rigid work place structure and gender stereotypes that relate socially defined characteristics with certain groups in most cases also dissociate women from leadership roles.

4.3. Attitude towards women decision making and experience in decision making

In order to determine the influence of attitude towards Women participation in decision making positions at work place and their experience in decision making the mean score of the attitude towards women decision making were compared to scores on the women experiences in decision making index. The data in Table 6 show that mean score of employees who had positive attitudes were high compared to those categorized in negative attitude.

Table 6. Attitude towards women decision making and the attributes of decision making (n=192)

Category	Score on the index	F	P
Positive	1.43	0.364	0.547
Negative	1.39		
Mean index	1.41		

However, the F-test results showed that the relationship between attitude of employees participation in decision making was not statistically significant ($P>0.05$). The correlation analysis also revealed that there was a weak and negative relationship between ones participation in decision making and his/her attitude in decision making.

5. Conclusion and recommendation

Findings in this study have shown that majority of employees had have positive attitude towards women participation in decision making positions at work place in the local government authorities. Findings further revealed that there were no marked difference between response from male and female; similar trends were also observed among respondents from Morogoro district councils. The findings imply that, there were no differences in responses between employees in Morogoro district council's areas. However, the existence of negative attitude among some employees towards women participation in decision making position at work place in many LGAs offices continue to hamper their effort to access such leadership positions. Therefore, it is recommended to the government and other gender activists to continue advocating for gender inclusive approach in employees recruitment within the LGAs as well as ensure that the implications of negative attitudes for employers, administrators and policy makers are discussed through trainings, workshops, meetings of councils.

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