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Pursuit of Professionalism in Bureaucracy: Perceptions About Bureaucratic Values of Civil Service Employees in the Ethnic Federalism of Ethiopia

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**PURSUIT OF PROFESSIONALISM IN BUREAUCRACY: PERCEPTIONS
ABOUT BUREAUCRATIC VALUES OF CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES
IN THE ETHNIC FEDERALISM OF ETHIOPIA**

by

Mary Elizabeth Vogel
B.A. 1978, Loretto Heights College
M.H.S.A., 1981, University of Michigan

A Dissertation to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND URBAN POLICY

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY
August 2005

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ABSTRACT

PURSUIT OF PROFESSIONALISM IN BUREAUCRACY: PERCEPTIONS ABOUT BUREAUCRATIC VALUES OF CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN THE ETHNIC FEDERALISM OF ETHIOPIA

Mary Elizabeth Vogel
Old Dominion University, 2005
Director: Dr. Berhanu Mengistu

In the 1980s an array of world events including the dissolution of the Soviet Union, a movement toward restructuring and downsizing government bureaucracies, and rapidly evolving technology prompted significant changes to governments. Many developing nations began the transition from command to market economies, and new government structures emerged to address a variety of root problems including the rise of ethnic consciousness and conflict. As a consequence of these events, changes in societies, governments, and bureaucracies, were drivers for changes to bureaucratic values.

The current research addresses a gap in knowledge about bureaucratic values specifically in a government organized under the unique constitutional format of ethnic federalism. The study initiates research about the influence of single-party-based executive leadership and its influence on the development of bureaucratic values in a country transitioning to liberal democracy. These values are examined in the context of an ethnic federalism, namely, the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

The study provides an empirical interpretation of Herbert Kaufman's (1956) notion of competing bureaucratic values identified as: neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership. These bureaucratic values are factors in the

nexus of professional bureaucracy and the executive branch of government. Findings of the study, which are drawn from the results of a survey of Ethiopian civil service employees in 2002, support the efficacy of Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory in modeling perceptions about bureaucratic values. Empirical models representing the competing bureaucratic values of Neutral Competence, Representativeness and Executive Leadership were developed. These models had modest accuracy in predicting factors related to employees' demographic and personal work characteristics and to factors related to employees' perceptions about bureaucratic values. Significant predictors of bureaucratic values were found to vary across individual bureaucratic value models and in strength and direction.

The research provides a theoretical framework to facilitate discourse about bureaucratic values in order to assist in the clarification of national bureaucratic values. Empirical information generated by the models may have an application in deliberations by the Civil Service, the polity, the government, and external entities in the development of public policy in line with national bureaucratic values.

To my parents, Daniel and Mary Ann Vogel, whose perpetual exhortations to, “Do your best,” and, “Get an education,” have inspired my life beyond measure. To my esteemed professor, mentor, Chair, and friend, Dr. Berhanu Mengistu, for teaching me, by example, to love academic rigor and strive for positive change in the world through knowledge, awareness, and acceptance. And, to Ethiopia’s tens of thousands of civil service employees, many of whom have labored through Ethiopia’s regime changes with courage and dedication, and who are working in the service of their country hoping for a higher good.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Modern governing structures share a central operating element critical to the successful implementation of policy and continuity of governance, namely bureaucracy. The way in which government bureaucracy functions both influences and is influenced by values of society as translated into policy, law, and political empowerment and as implemented as delivery of public goods and services . In the 1980s an array of world events including the dissolution of the Soviet Union, a movement toward restructuring and downsizing government bureaucracies, and rapidly evolving technology had engendered significant changes to governments. Many developing nations began the transition from command to market economies, and new government structures emerged to address a variety of root problems including the rise of ethnic consciousness and conflict (Cheru, 2002; Deng & Zartman, 2002; Englebert, 2000; Huddleston, 2000; Kettl, 2000). As a consequence of these events, changes in societies, governments, and bureaucracies, were drivers for changes to bureaucratic values. This study examines bureaucratic values in the context of Kaufman's (1956) competing bureaucratic values theory (CBVT) in a transitioning country with a unique government structure that grew out of world and internal events, the ethnic federalism of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

This chapter presents background on the state of civil service reform in sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries, the research problem and research questions, the purpose of the study, the study's theoretical framework, methodology, significance of the

research, limitations of the study, and information about the organization of subsequent chapters.

Background

Throughout Africa, and particularly in SSA countries, the processes of state-building, restructuring governments and reforming civil service systems are occurring in a milieu of persistent political, social and economic upheaval (Adamolekun, 1999b; Amoo, 1997; Englebert, 2000; Fukuyama, 2004; Kefale, 2003; Nunberg, 1997; Olowu, 1996; Otobo, 1999). At the continental level the creation of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) in 2001 and the subsequent reorganization of the Organization of African Unity into the African Union (AU) in 2002 to unify economic efforts among African independent states are just two examples of attempts to respond to forces of global change. At the country level in SSA, however, four historical factors complicate the development environment. These factors are: the movements for independence, changing political economies, agrarian-based populations, and rising ethnic consciousness. The first two factors are the overlapping movements of independence from colonialism beginning in the 1950s and the transition from command to market economies beginning in the late 1980s (Adamolekun, 1993; Cheru, 2002; Englebert, 2000; Mbaku, 1997; Otobo, 1999). Lingering economic, human development, infrastructure, and government structure issues are rooted in pre-movement conditions and continue to impact current circumstances. Building cohesive nation states with stable economies, civil societies, and governments with effective bureaucracies continues to be challenging. Multilateral donor experts have learned through experience that civil service reform in transitioning countries has an extended incubation period of at least a decade

before effects, successful or not, can be adequately assessed (Adamolekun, 1993; Nunberg, 1997; Wescott, 1999). The fact that the results of civil service reforms (CSR) in transitioning countries have been very mixed over the past forty years is further illustration of the difficulty of the task.

A third factor, the juxtaposition of the agrarian foundations of most SSA societies and economies and the necessity of their being engaged in the global system, is indicative of the pressing need for successful CSR. The reform process, however, poses an obstacle to its implementation. This agrarian characteristic implies dispersed populations with poor infrastructure to support resource and service distribution. Providing routine public services such as utilities, transportation, healthcare, and education is problematic (Central Statistical Authority [Ethiopia] and ORC Macro, 2001; Cheru, 2002; Deng & Zartman, 2002; Englebert, 2000; United Nations Development Program, 1997; World Bank, 1992). In the event of isolated natural disasters such as Ethiopia's recurring drought, the inability to mobilize resources exposes the country as a whole, and often an entire region, to calamitous humanitarian and economic shocks. This means that the benefits of modernizing technologies are either poorly distributed or unavailable to aid in human and economic development. At the same time, however, SAA countries cannot withdraw from the "global game" to develop independent economic and human development strategies (Cheru, 2002; Englebert, 2000; Huddleston, 2000; Kettl, 2000; Vernon, 1988). Thus these nations face continual pressures to conform to values and structures imposed by global markets and multilateral donors while attempting to assemble and respond to internal political and social values as well.

The fourth factor complicating CSR and influencing bureaucratic values is demands from the political elites to accommodate rising ethnic consciousness and deal with ethnic conflicts. Post-Soviet transitioning states as well as those in SSA must deal with this particular root problem. The inimitable challenge worth repeating here is that in addition to reforming and transforming the economic and governance infrastructures, SAA states must simultaneously address ethnic conflict (Janjic, 1995; Malesevic, 2000; Paul, 2000; Selassie, 2003). A number of countries have attempted to accommodate demands for recognition by ethnically diverse populations and to address issues leading to ethnic conflict through a federal government structure. India, the former Yugoslavia, Nigeria, and Ethiopia are four examples of countries that have employed this strategy in an attempt to quell fighting among ethnic communities and end the disruption to stability and the process of good governance.

In short, the challenge facing SSA countries is fourfold: their insertion in the global system, garnering resources to stay afloat, attempting to modernize without adequate political, economic and technical capacity in place, and attempting to respond to the demands of the polity including root problems such as ethnic conflict. The implication for governments and bureaucracies is that in order to successfully address these issues, which are tantamount to survival in some cases (Basta Fleiner, 2000; Gudina, 2003; Joseph, 1998; Paul, 2000), a foundation of bureaucratic values that will engender technical competence, representativeness and professionalism is needed.

Problem Statement

The framing of a country's constitution affects the fundamental values, composition, and performance of its civil service system (Basta Fleiner, 2000; Ingraham, 1995; Rohr, 2002; Selassie, 2003; Wilson, 1887). A constitution not only delineates distribution of powers among the various levels of government; it expresses a society's values about ideals such as liberty, justice, and representativeness and how government is to act toward its citizens. Various orientations of government influence the prioritization among competing bureaucratic values differently (Asmerom, 1996; Cheru, 2002; Evans & Rauch, 1999; Nesiiah, 2000; Rohr, 2002). For example, in a single or no-party state, the difficulty of balancing competing values within the bureaucracy is heightened due to inordinate influence of political power (Amoo, 1997; Asratemariam, 2005). A federal system based on ethnic identities, particularly one with an overwhelming presence of a single party, influences the development of a bureaucracy that identifies ethnically and politically with the executive leadership of the dominant party. This development further reinforces the predominance of executive leadership to the detriment of neutral competence (Paul, 2000; Rohr, 2002) thus overriding the selection, promotion and transfer of civil servants on the basis of competence and merit (Ingraham, 1995). Further, the extent to which the civil service is representative of the polity comes into question in a single-party state, especially when that party is representative of a single minority ethnic group. As Asratemariam (2005) aptly described this situation in Ethiopia's ethnic federalism, "...the fundamental principle of democracy that the minority should be subordinated to the will of the majority [is] turned upside down..." (Nature of the Ethiopian State)

Evidence of this bias exists in the bureaucracies of federal systems ("Handbook of Federal Countries", 2002) in some countries with strong ethnic-based elements in their constitutions. The former Yugoslavia, India, Nigeria, and Ethiopia are examples of such countries. Although these constitutional approaches were designed to give multiple heterogeneous communities a vehicle for institutionalizing representativeness and national engagement, the actual implementation of these ideals did not materialize in the case of the former Yugoslavia (Malesevic, 2000; Puhovski, 1995), and is still in question in India (Nesiah, 2000), Nigeria (Otobo, 1999), and Ethiopia (Asratemariam, 2005; Harbeson, 1998; Selassie, 2003) .

These examples of purported ethnic pluralism at the federal level and ethnic separatism or exclusionism at subnational levels raise the pertinent question: "Does the mirage of neutrality subscribed to by the discourse of modernity and secularism nurture an exclusive and exclusionary mode of political participation?" (Nesiah, 2000, p. 56). The civil service, as Ingraham (1995) points out, is part of government, and as such has a variety of roles to fulfill that are intertwined with other institutional challenges. It appears, for example, that a federal arrangement of states defined on the basis of ethnicity may do little to curtail practices within the civil service of bias and patronage that are based on the ethnic identity of political elites ("Ethiopia structural adjustment credit pre-appraisal mission aide-memoire", 2001; Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Cheru, 2002; Malesevic, 2000; Nesiah, 2000; Otobo, 1999; Puhovski, 1995; World Bank, 1999). Further in spite of the egalitarian connotation of the idea of ethnic federalism, Cheru characterized Ethiopia's government as "...managed democratization...under the leadership of political parties formed by guerilla insurgen[t]s" (Cheru, 2002, p. 34).

Actions of the current Ethiopian government suggest an emphasis of the bureaucratic value of executive leadership to the diminishment of neutral competence and representativeness ("Ethiopia structural adjustment credit pre-appraisal mission aide-memoire", 2001; Chanie, 1999; Meheret & Chanie, 2000).

Nesiah's (2000) question could, therefore, aptly be considered a corollary to the research problem that this study addresses, which is: *no information exists about the relationship between single-party-based executive leadership and its influence on the development of bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism*. As the Ethiopian government attempts to accommodate market and donor-driven reforms, the civil service system must also change to implement them. Ideally, implementation of these reforms would be guided by bureaucratic values that are recognized and discussed as part of a national political discourse. However, if fundamental bureaucratic values are unexamined, the tensions between reform efforts and applied civil service values may be obstacles to democratic reform and development capacity. The presence or absence of these obstacles emerges as gaps between espoused bureaucratic values and the perception of bureaucratic values held by civil service employees.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the ability of Kaufman's (1956) competing bureaucratic values theory (CBVT) to model perceptions of bureaucratic values held by civil service employees working for the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. The research focuses on measuring perceptions about bureaucratic values held by federal civil service employees in Ethiopia as a means to gain insight into whether or

not the structure of ethnic federalism as described in Ethiopia's 1995 constitution (Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (English Translation), 1995, Articles 47-49) affects civil service employees' perceptions of bureaucratic values. The study accomplishes three goals. The first goal is to establish a method of examining federal civil service employees' perceived awareness of formal personnel policies and their application in the work environment as reflections of bureaucratic values. Second, the study creates a baseline of information that may be used as a comparative framework for assessing perceived successful or failed implementation of policies. Third, the study may serve as a pilot for developing two additional surveys of civil service employees' perceptions. One survey would be administered nationally to federal civil service employees throughout the country, including to those located in Addis Ababa. The second survey would examine perceptions of civil service employees working at the *killel* (regional province) level about regional policies. Results of the second survey would provide useful information for understanding differences in perceived bureaucratic values at the federal and regional levels.

Theoretical Framework

The theory of competing bureaucratic values (CBVT) suggested by Herbert Kaufman (1956) provides a grounding for discourse about bureaucratic values in a democratic society. Based on an historical review of the impetus for a number of policy changes that affected government structure, bureaucracy and politics over time in the United States (US), Kaufman identified three fundamental values that were inculcated in the bureaucracy in order to effect those policy changes. Kaufman proposed these

bureaucratic values not as prescriptive, but as a framework within which the characteristics, direction, and the nexus of balance of power in government as it affects bureaucracy could be discussed and understood. Kaufman recognized that these bureaucratic values shifted with those of society as expressed through democratic processes and as correctives to policy courses that had eventually led to abuses or were no longer in alignment with societal desires. These values were identified as non-partisan technical competence, representativeness, and executive leadership, and it is within the arena of civil service bureaucracy that the competition among these values is played out. In short, bureaucratic values represent broad aspects of the constant dynamic between political and administrative counterpoint in public administration. The prominence and balance of these values shift in response to political, economic and social fluctuations.

In the context of transitioning countries, the need for non-partisan technical competence is straightforward. The value of non-partisan technical competence, (*referred to hereafter as neutral competence in this work*) refers to a bureaucratic commitment, free from political bias or agenda, to the selection and retention of the best and brightest competitors for civil service positions. The presence of this value both in spirit and application, strives to assure that those who can actually perform capably and efficiently will be employed and will be encouraged to promote improvement and progressive reforms through innovation and creativity in accomplishing their jobs. In Ethiopia, for example, the serious dearth of technically competent civil service employees, referred to as lack of capacity, threatens the ability of the civil service to perform ("Ethiopia structural adjustment credit pre-appraisal mission aide-memoire", 2001; Ayenew & Chanie, 2000; Chanie, 1999; Ethiopian Delegation, 2003; World Bank,

1999). Lack of capacity negatively impacts a country's development and invites other problems such as partisanship, lack of transparency and corruption (Adamolekun, 1999b; Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Cheru, 2002; Englebert, 2000; Evans & Rauch, 1999).

Participative government is one of the characteristics identified by the United Nations Development Program as necessary for Good Governance (United Nations Development Program, 1997) and is, essentially, a requisite for technical and economic assistance to SSA countries (World Bank, 1999). The bureaucratic value of representativeness includes the elements of passive and active representativeness and is encompassed in the notion of participative government. Passive representativeness is the selection of a civil service that is reflective of population characteristics through affirmative action, rigorous application of voting rights laws, voting districting laws or other applications that assure democratic representation of the polity (Kim, 1994; Riccucci & Saidel, 1997). Active representativeness is the selection of a civil service with attitudes that reflect those of the public at large. In general, the concept of active representativeness is that if the bureaucracy holds the same array of attitudes as the polity, public desires will be met through similar thinking in decision making (Kim, 1994; Meier & Nigro, 1976). The application of active representativeness places an internal control on bureaucratic behavior to assure that public interests are met. Both passive and active representativeness are central to generating collaborative partnerships between government, civil society and the private sector (Jembere, 2001), and creating such partnerships enhances the delivery of public goods and services. Representativeness as a bureaucratic value is essential to building an effective value-driven civil service, and those values must derive from the society it represents (Hecló, 2000). Without both

passive and active representation of society in government, transparency and accountability of government to society is jeopardized (Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999).

Part of the current debate about transparency and accountability in government as well as the issue of pervasive corruption centers around a distortion of the concept of executive leadership. Executive leadership is the ability of the executive to influence and to manage the bureaucracy to some degree (Bayart, 1993; Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Cheru, 2002; Englebert, 2000; Kaufman, 1956). The debate over executive leadership can be framed in two questions: how much influence is appropriate, and what should the vehicle of influence be? Clearly the executive must have some influence over the bureaucracy in order to assure policy implementation and an orderly process of governance. However, abuses of power, excesses of political influence and Machiavellian approaches to governance by executive branches of government are well documented (Bayart, 1993; Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Malesevic, 2000; Negash, 1996; Olowu, 1999a; Op de Beke, 2002; Otobo, 1999; Zewdie, 2001). A civil service that is impeded by politicization and/ or intimidated by the executive cannot effectively serve society as a neutral or representative system (Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Cheru, 2002; Dia, 1993; Mbaku, 1997; Olowu, 1999b; Op de Beke, 2002).

Methodology

Research Design

The research design for this study was observational and used mixed methods in data collection and data analysis (Creswell, 2003). Methods included quantitative survey research (Likert-type items), qualitative survey research (open-ended questions), and

qualitative semi-structured research (interviews) that followed the collection of survey data. Methods triangulation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Krathwohl, 1998) was used to augment interpretation of empirical data.

Research Questions

The overarching research question guiding the study was: *Within the structural context of ethnic federalism, does Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory predict federal civil service employees perceptions about bureaucratic values as measured by employee perceptions of competency practices related to hiring, transfer and promotion, career advancement opportunities, discrimination practices including bias based on ethnic identity, job stability, fairness and respect in the workplace, and organization attitudes toward disagreement, collaboration, and conformity?* Four research questions were derived from the overarching research question. The four questions were:

1. Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by demographic characteristics including self-identified ethnic community?
2. Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by personal work practices characteristics?
3. Does CBVT model the bureaucratic values of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership as perceived by Ethiopian federal civil service employees?

4. Do Ethiopian federal civil service employees perceive any one of the three bureaucratic values as most positive relative to the other two bureaucratic values?

A model of the factors affecting civil service employees' perceptions of bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism is shown in figure 1, below.

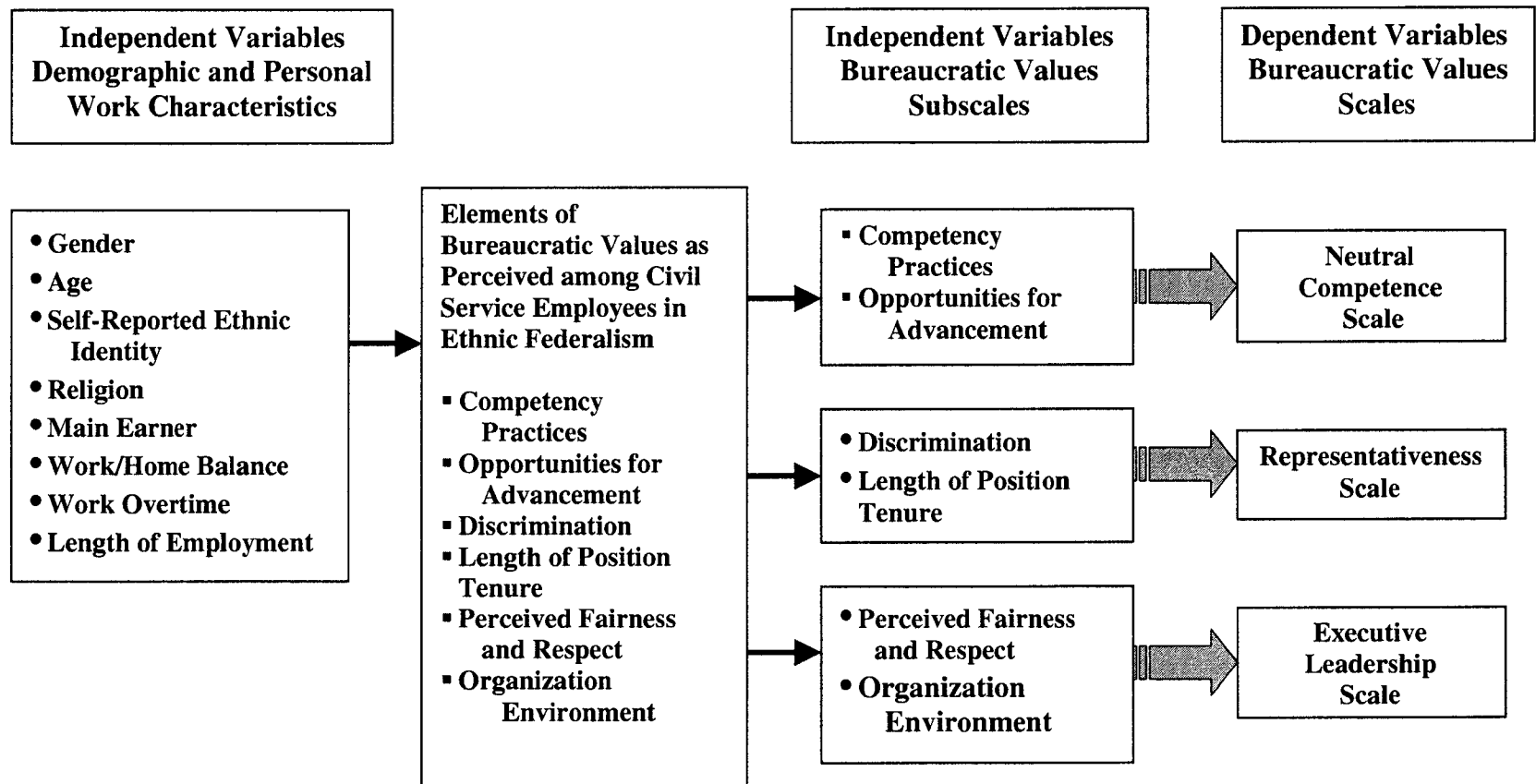
Instrumentation

The survey instrument for this study was modeled after two previously developed surveys, a British Civil Service diversity survey (Cabinet Office of the British Government, 1999) and a World Bank civil service reform survey (The World Bank Group, 2000). Certain themes and questions from the existing surveys and relevant literature were selected and modified to accommodate the purpose of the survey, which was to ascertain civil service employee perceptions about bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism. Individual questions were generated based on the four research questions. Cultural and political sensitivities as well as the structural realities of the present civil service environment in Ethiopia were considered in the development of the survey instrument.

Population Sample

The survey was distributed to 700 civil service employees located in the Administrative District of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, which is also the capital of the country. Three hundred eighty surveys were returned out of which 360 surveys were usable for analysis for a return rate of 51.4 percent.

FIGURE 1: Model of Factors Affecting Civil Service Employees' Perceptions of Bureaucratic Values in an Ethnic Federalism



Constraints of time, money and access dictated that survey distribution be limited to a concentrated area. Consequently, Addis Ababa presented the logical location where as many varied perceptions of civil service employment policies and procedures across the largest number of agencies possible could be captured. Because the survey instrument was written in English, participation was restricted to those civil service employees with at least a baccalaureate degree to assure English comprehension. No gender, age, job tenure or rank, race, religion, or ethnic origin restrictions were applied; however access to volunteer participants was restricted on the basis of agreement to allow participation by the ministry or agency head or the department head. Overall subunits from 18 of the 23 then-existing ministries and agencies were represented in the sample. Within one year after the survey, the federal civil service was reorganized to create the Ministry of Capacity Building where the Federal Civil Service Commission along with five other commissions and agencies are now housed.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data was analyzed using the SPSS program, version 11.0 (SPSS, 2001). Descriptive, bivariate and multivariate statistical analyses techniques available through the SPSS program were employed.

Qualitative data from open-ended questions and the follow-up semi-structured interviews were evaluated using content analysis to identify emerging themes and categories used to augment quantitative findings. Documents review was performed prior to survey development.

Significance of the Study

Although Weber asserted in the ideal bureaucratic type that rationality as law undergirds bureaucracy and informs its values (Rheinstein, 1954; Weber, 1922), in SSA, this may not be the case. In a study of 35 developing countries (Evans & Rauch, 1999) identified an apparent gap between stated bureaucratic policies and perceived bureaucratic values that was linked to economic performance. The study found a positive relationship between the presence of certain Weberian characteristics in a bureaucracy and a country's economic growth. The four SSA countries included in Evans' and Rauch's study fared poorly in terms of both applied "Weberian-ness" (p. 755) and economic growth.

The current research addresses a gap in knowledge about bureaucratic values specifically in an ethnic federalism. The study opens an important line of research about the influence of single-party-based executive leadership and its influence on the development of these values in a country transitioning to liberal democracy. The study is grounded in the growing body of literature that addresses the presence of certain bureaucratic values as critical factors in the advancement of developing countries. In a study about affect of the presence of neutral competence, for example, Evans and Rauch (1999) suggested a direct correlation with the rates of economic growth in developing countries. The current research provides an empirical interpretation of bureaucratic values as factors in the nexus of professional bureaucracy and the executive branch of Ethiopian government. The study expands the measurement of the presence of bureaucratic values to include neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership and measures directly the perceptions of civil service employees.

Substantively, Ethiopia posed extraordinary opportunities for studying the dynamics of competing bureaucratic values in a unique government structure. Ethiopia is the only constitutionally structured ethnic federalism in Africa ("Handbook of Federal Countries", 2002; Selassie, 2003). Simultaneously, the country is attempting to adopt liberal democracy for the first time in its millennial history (Cheru, 2002). Ethiopia, since the end of the civil war with Eritrea that is still at an uneasy peace since 2002, is a recent post-conflict state. This status poses unique challenges to legitimacy and participative government that affect bureaucracy and bureaucratic values (United Nations Development Program, 1999).

Specific to the survey research, the data was exceptional in two ways. First, the timeframe of survey administration encompassed a period from six through nine months after initiation of new CSRs based on merit-based practices and due process procedures ("Ethiopia federal civil servants proclamation", 2002; 77/2002, 2002). Timing of the survey captured perceptions of new practices as contrasted against prior practices. Additionally, the survey was the first distribution among a large sample of civil service employees of a mixed-methods instrument that could be compiled for statistical interpretation.

Limitations

Limitations of time, money and confidentiality were issues for this study. These issues constrained the number of surveys physically produced and distributed. Confidentiality issues included concerns about political sensitivity, trust, and perceived potential retaliation for participating in the survey.

While the timeframe of the study offered a unique opportunity as indicated earlier, it also posed a limitation. Conducting the survey so close to the time of implementation of major new CSRs may have distorted perceptions about new practices not yet fully integrated in practice. Given the length of time it takes to implement new policies in any large organization, this timing should be considered a limitation. However, administering the survey within this same proximity to prior practices probably contributed to respondents' clearer recollection and distinction of differences between previous and new practices.

Subsequent Chapters

The study follows a modified mixed methods research plan. Chapter One provided a brief overview of civil service reform in SSA, introduced the research problem and questions and the purpose of the study. Chapter One also summarized the theoretical framework and methodology and addressed the significance of the study and limitations of the study.

Chapter Two is a literature review that explored the theoretical framework of competing bureaucratic values (Kaufman, 1956) and the interactions and manifestations of these values through the civil service. Chapter Two elaborates on civil service reform in sub-Saharan Africa and provides an historical perspective of the bureaucracy of Ethiopia.

Chapter Three details the modified mixed methods approach used in the study design. Chapter Three also discusses the survey instrument development, selection of the sample population and the statistical procedures used to analyze the data.

Chapter Four presents sociodemographic data and detailed analysis of the results of data collection and statistical testing. Tests included crosstabulation with Phi or Cramer's V for examining relationships between independent variables and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for testing differences in mean variances for independent variables on the dependent variables individually. Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to identify significant differences among participants by group characteristics on bureaucratic value scales while controlling for interaction effects in the entire competing bureaucratic values model. Multiple linear regression (MLR) was used to identify factors predictive of the CBVT model. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to determine if a single most positive bureaucratic values scale emerged.

Chapter Five provides an overview of the study and discussion of the results. Discussion of policy implications of the research and recommendations for future research are presented.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Overview

The legal foundation of a country, that is the constitution (or legal conventions), has a profound influence on the structure and values inculcated in the bureaucracy (Ingraham, 1995, p. 299; Kaufman, 1956; Rohr, 2002). The processes and qualities of civil service systems to deliver public goods and services are functions *inter alia* of the translation of a nation's socio-political values to the bureaucracy. Weber (1922), for example, asserted that in the ideal bureaucratic type rationality manifest as law undergirds bureaucracy and informs its values ("Pendleton Act", 1883; Rheinstein, 1954; Weber, 1922). Thus the mores, standards and political philosophy of the polity are the theoretical genesis for a constitution, and also inform bureaucratic values as suggested by Kaufman (1956) and others (Hecl, 2000; Ingraham, 1995; Tompkins, 1995). As value shifts occur in the political and social milieu, bureaucratic values also shift to reflect these changes.

Since the fall of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War in the late 1980s, changes in bureaucratic values have mirrored the radical fluctuations in government structures and governance philosophies that continue to evolve today. These changes, in the form of liberal democracy, market-oriented government reforms, and social movements (Kettl, 2000, 2002; Mengistu & Vogel, 2005), have been driven by market forces through the spread of global capitalism (Gore, 1993; Kettl, 2000), by technology (Kettl, 2000; Ruchelman, 2003; Toffler & Toffler, 1994), and by human rights movements including the rise of ethnic consciousness (Abbay, 2004; Amoo, 1997; Cheru,

2002; Harbeson, 1998; Huntington, 1996; Joseph, 1998; Paul, 2000; Rupesinghe & King, 1992; Selassie, 2003; Tishkov, 1992). While the inception of government and bureaucratic reorientations were rooted in the anti-big-government ideologies popularly known as Thatcherism and Reaganism, rapid changes in technologies helped drive significant reform policies in countries in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) such as New Zealand, Australia, Great Britain, and the United State of America (US) (Gore, 1993). For states transitioning from command to market economies, the social-political development of growing ethnic consciousness and resulting conflicts have added considerably to reform pressures. Transitioning governments face the multiple demands of global engagement, reforming government and markets, and dealing with issues of participation and representation arising from growing ethnic consciousness and conflict (Cheru, 2002; Deng & Zartman, 2002; Harbeson, 1998; Janjic, 1995; Joseph, 1998)

The issue of ethnic consciousness and representation within transitioning countries may be as much a political strategy by party elites as a demand from the populace (Malesevic, 2000; Negash, 1996; Paul, 2000) with constitutional, structural and ultimately governance implications in either case. In the former Yugoslavia, for example, the 1974 constitution institutionalized the notion of ethnicity as a center piece of the political system by defining the republics as "...full-scale, ethnically defined nation-states within a loose federation" (Puhovski, 1995, p. 128) Despite international and centrist efforts to preserve the nation territorially, however, progressive decentralization gave way to the rise of ethnic exclusionism among the republics and to the eventual downfall of the federation (1995).

Malesevic (2000) asserted that the demise of the country was not due to long-standing conflicts among multi-ethnic republics that had been forced into a federation post-World War II as has been widely maintained. Instead, Malesevic (2000) argues that, [t]he power elite of socialist Yugoslavia used decentralization as a means of avoiding democratization and liberalization. Under pressure from below for further democratization of society, the government shifted the question of popular political participation to the level of inter-republic relations. By giving more power to the party elites of individual republics instead of to its citizens... [the Party]...preserved its monopoly within the political system...[P]ower was not devolved to the citizens of the individual republics but to the party elites of each constitutive unit. (p. 149)

Thus ethnic pluralism was promoted in name only at the center. Ethnic pluralism of the federal government was subjugated to ethnic separatism by the party elites in the republics, and as political power devolved to party elites in the republics, ethnic separatism escalated. The bureaucratic values of representativeness and neutral competence virtually disappeared; the center could no longer hold its ethnic and religious factions together in a loosely-knit federation (Akhavan, 1995). The culmination was a vicious civil war that broke the country into separate ethnic/religious states (Janjic, 1995; Puhovski, 1995) with the economic and political spoils in the hands of party elites (Malesevic, 2000).

India is another country that is ostensibly organized around the concept of ethnic diversity and representation. “Diversity is both India’s most spectacular strength and its most formidable challenge” (Nesiah, 2000, p. 53). The struggle for power in the hands of political elites at the center is based less on concerns for representation among ethnic communities, however, than it is on the struggle for economic and political control. State Governors appointed by the federal executive have the ability to override elected state officials. Elected Chief Ministers of states’ governments, who are supposed to represent independent state power bases, are at the mercy of federal executives and often experience rapid turnover if their actions and politics are not in line with the federal center. Critics argue that India’s affirmative action programs have actually concretized discrimination based on caste by identifying and protecting aggrieved categories. India’s struggle to achieve more representativeness and neutral competency to counterbalance the burden of executive leadership has been frustrated over time and even with changing political parties. Although affirmative action programs are in place, free elections are held, and states are prescribed by the constitution to function as independent spheres of political power, centrist forces still hold sway, perhaps less by design than by desire and a sense of insecurity (Nesiah, 2000).

Nigeria, with more than 250 distinct ethnic communities (“Country profile nigeria”, 2005), is a third example of a country that has taken a federal approach to “unite people who seek the advantages of membership of a common political unit, but differ markedly in [ethnic] descent, language and culture” (Forsythe, 1989, p. 4). These communities have placed significant pressures on political elites. Ethnic inclusiveness has been a foundational principle in Nigeria’s different five constitutions over the past

forty years (Otobo, 1999). The 1979 constitution, for example, included language addressing , “...linguistic, ethnic, religious and geographic diversity...”(Otobo, 1999, p. 299), as does the 1999 constitution . Despite these attempts to incorporate the spirit of ethnic diversity, Nigeria has suffered from a restrictive political environment under various military regimes, and attempts to incorporate the spirit of ethnic inclusiveness into the bureaucratic values of neutral competence and representativeness have faltered to negative effect on the ability of the civil service to perform (1999). Still plagued with widespread corruption, the country simmers in ethnic strife that is fueled by distortions in economic policies and uneven distribution of resources through the federal bureaucracy. Despite multiple reforms to the Nigerian civil service including the recognition of ethnic identity, Otobo acknowledges that the result has been a, “...confusing practice of merit principle and a quota system with a heavy dose of arbitrariness under military regimes,” (p. 299).

Ethiopia, after the ouster of a seventeen-year socialist regime in 1991 by guerrilla forces (Farer, 1979; Zewdie, 2001), formulated a constitution that was formally adopted in 1994, which organized regional provinces called *killels* on the basis of ethnic identity. The constitution, in a novel approach, extends the right of secession to all of the nations, nationalities and peoples living in Ethiopia (Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (English Translation), 1995). Similar to the former Yugoslavia, federal inclusiveness exists at the center while ethnic exclusivity resides at the regional state (*killel*) level.

In the years since the overthrow of Emperor Haile Selassie I in 1974, Ethiopia has undergone shattering political economy and societal changes (Adamolekun, 1999b;

Clapham, 1988; Gebeyehu, 1990b; Wubneh & Abate, 1988; Zewdie, 1991, 2001). The country has experienced the environmental crises of droughts, and the humanitarian crises of famine, AIDS, civil war, and ethnic conflicts, all while attempting to transition through changes in political economy from monarchy, through a socialist regime, to ethnic federalism. The national economy has transitioned from an imperial economy (1947-1974) through the commanding heights economy of the *Derg* (the military junta that overthrew Emperor Selassie) (1974-1991) to the current (1991-present) mixed-market system. Development of natural and human resources has been slow, at best, even with the infusion of external donor money and programs from sources such as international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and from multilateral donors such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Experts now believe that some donor programs, particularly the IMFs Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) may have hindered as much as helped Ethiopia (Amoo, 1997; Cheru, 2002; Joseph, 1998; Nunberg, 1997; Wescott, 1999). The country remains in a post-conflict state and has not yet achieved political reconciliation among vying ethno-political groups in order to establish state legitimacy within the country (Harbeson, 1998; Joseph, 1998; Paul, 2000). Further, the recent civil war with Eritrea, beginning in 2000 and ending in an uneasy peace settlement in 2004, placed tremendous human, financial, and military resource burdens on both countries, requiring the diversion of resources and focused effort away from stabilizing, legitimizing and energizing government and the bureaucracy.

In 1995 Ethiopia launched a constitution based upon the notion of ethnic federalism that, as Paul (2000, p. 173) observed, is a reconstruction of federated regional states "...wherein 'all sovereign power resides' *not* in the people of Ethiopia but among

its many, diverse 'nations, nationalities and peoples' ..." rather than in the nation of Ethiopia. Each of these entities and their respective sub-divisions are granted the corporate right to constitute themselves into self-governing states or local governments within a particular state. Each state in turn enjoys an unconditional right to "...self-determination, including the right to secession..." (Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (English Translation), 1995, Article 39, #1). Although many SSA countries acknowledge ethnic diversity and attendant rights to recognition, language, and traditions and the like, as does the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria discussed previously (Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999), Ethiopia's formal geo-ethnic arrangement is unique among government structures in Africa and among the 25 federalist countries in the world (Cohen, 1995; Forum of Federations, 2002; Harbeson, 1998; Paul, 2000; Selassie, 2003). Some experts question the logic of the notion of ethnic federalism on the basis of competing centrifugal forces that arise from linking geography to ethnic identity, the right to self-determination by the separate Nations, Nationalities and Peoples, and dependence on the federation for devolution of national resources (Basta Fleiner, 2000; Harbeson, 1998; Janjic, 1995; Malesevic, 2000; Paul, 2000; Puhovski, 1995; Selassie, 2003).

The ruling party in Ethiopia, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) maintains that the Constitution has laid the foundation for a democratic Ethiopia, and some observers agree (Cohen, 1995; Henze, 1998). However, other prominent African scholars (Editors, 1998; Harbeson, 1998; Joseph, 1998) contest this notion, maintaining that the recovery that Ethiopia has experienced since 1991 has not been based on democratic processes, "...although they have been so proclaimed to satisfy

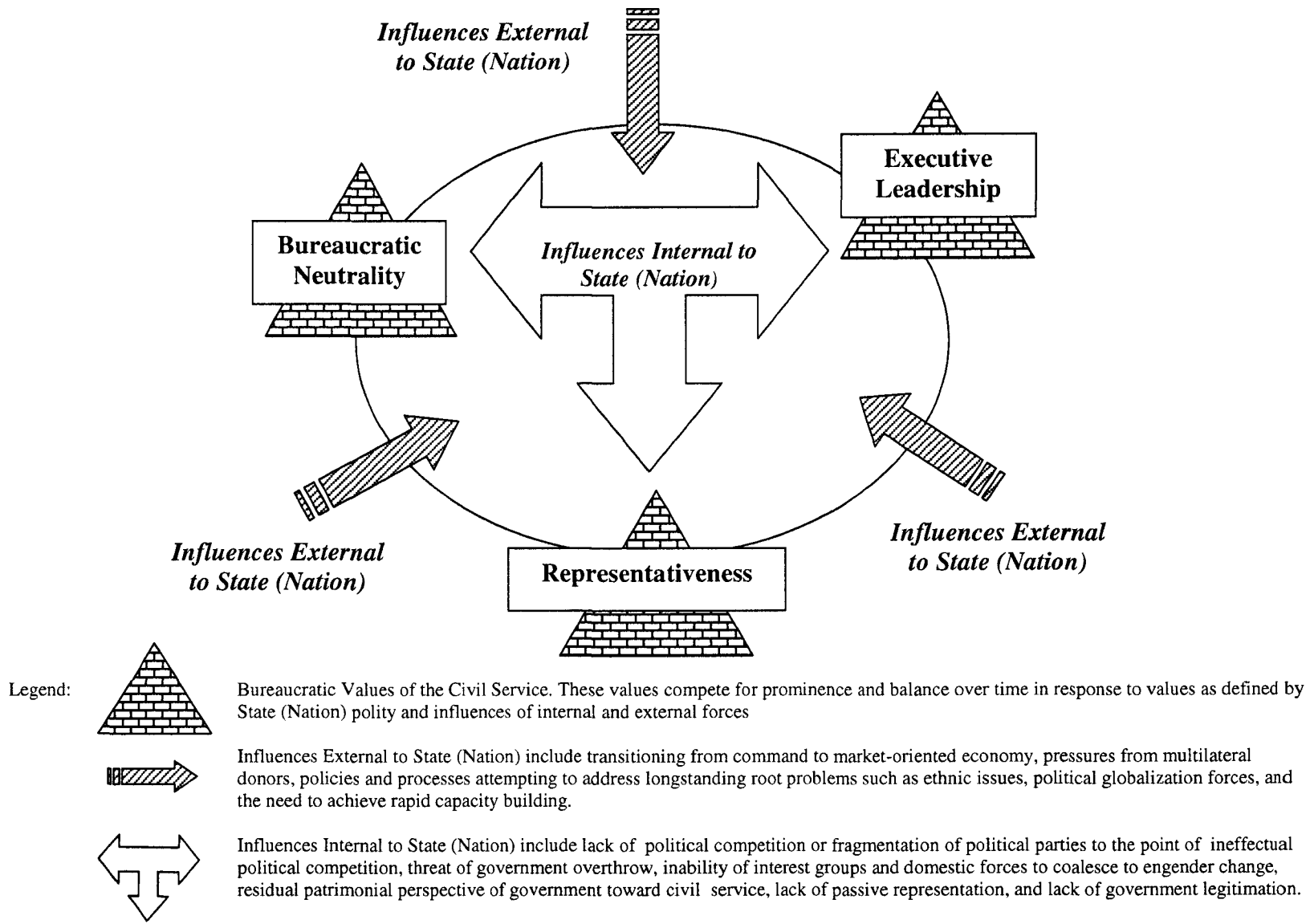
the rock-bottom standards that the donor community applies to 'post-conflict' states in Africa" (Joseph, 1998, p. 61). Telling outcomes after more than a decade are the continued slow pace of human and economic development, persistent ethnic conflict and sluggish CSR despite multilateral donor backing for CSR. Bureaucratic values that inform the civil service are unclear and appear unexamined with the exception of recent attempts to professionalize the system ("Ethiopia structural adjustment credit pre-appraisal mission aide-memoire", 2001; Ayenew, 1998; Chanie, 1999; Ethiopian Delegation, 2003).

The significance of ethnic federalism to this research is that changes to government structure imply adjustments to bureaucratic composition, structure, and values. These values are reflected in the organization, policies and practices of the civil service (Hecló, 2000; Henry, 1989; Ingraham, 1995; Kaufman, 1956; Lemay, 2002; Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, & McGrath, 2003; Rahman, 2001; Rohr, 2002; Tompkins, 1995). What has remained unknown until this study is any notion about the bureaucratic values that Ethiopian civil service employees perceived under prior government arrangements (constitutional monarchy and socialist regime) and since the implementation of the Civil Service Proclamations that established and modified the bureaucracy under the current government. The latest of these proclamations, the 2002 Civil Servants Proclamation (Proclamation 262/2002) along with Civil Servants Proclamation Regulation 77/2002, instituted significant changes in structure, merit, grievance, and classification policies. Ingraham's (1995) articulation of civil service systems aptly applies to the change to the bureaucracy inured by the proclamation. Ingraham explained, "Civil service systems have three basic purposes: ...to recruit

qualified personnel for public jobs;...reward and develop a public workforce; and...organiz[e] that workforce to meet public objectives. The civil service, as part of government, however, has the additional roles, "...to represent and be responsive to the citizenry, and to serve elected officials" (1995, p. xv). To these ends, what is of primary importance is that a country's civil service system internalizes and reflects the people's collective values, their national perspective on what government's roles should be, and the manner in which the government should carry them out.

Herbert Kaufman (1956), in the theory of competing bureaucratic values, explicated three categories that broadly summarize these values: neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership. A model of this concept of competing bureaucratic theory as it can be applied to transitioning states is presented in figure 2, below. Using Ingraham's descriptions and Kaufman's values definitions, creating and categorizing variables for study as factors of these values is somewhat straightforward. Recruiting and retaining a qualified workforce clearly relates to neutral competence. Representativeness includes both representing the polity (passive representativeness) and being responsive to the citizenry (active representativeness), while serving elected officials is at the core of the executive leadership value. As Kaufman (1956) noted, the prominence and significance of each of these values waxes and wanes over time in response to shifts in political and societal values. Another function of these values is to bring consistency, transparency and accountability to the process of governance by assuring, as Olowu (1999a) observed, that these collective values actually inform the civil service. In an ethnic federalism where states are divided along geo-social identities, these collective values become particularly important to help overcome a fractured sense of

Figure 2: A Conceptual Model of Kaufman’s Theory of Competing Bureaucratic Values in Transitional States



society (Basta Fleiner, 2000; Paul, 2000; Selassie, 2003). The influence that the interrelationship between government structure and civil service values has over what, how much, and to whom government services are provided, is significant. As Puhovski (1995, p. 129) pointed out in the case of the former Yugoslavia where, “[t]he more developed ethnic nations complained that they had to give too much money for the undeveloped parts of the state, while the underdeveloped complained...that they had not received their fair share of the country’s wealth.” The influence of bureaucratic values on resource distribution policies is not the only concern affected by government structure. In the collected volume, *The Future of Merit: Twenty Years after the Civil Service Reform Act* (2000), Newland (2000) and Heclo (2000) made compelling arguments for the impact of government reforms on bureaucratic values as perceived by federal civil service employees within their work environment. In particular, Heclo expressed concern that the increasing emphasis upon instrumental merit (technical expertise) in the US civil service over that of substantive merit (human-centered values) might lead to a dearth of compassion and creativity and a loss of bureaucratic values as a reflection of societal mores and principles. More recently, Svava (2004) observed an increase in politicization of bureaucracies worldwide with a growing emphasis on the value of executive leadership over neutral competence and representativeness, which is troubling at a time when the need for valuing capacity building and human rights is intensifying (Huddleston, 2000).

In spite of the egalitarian connotation of ethnic federalism, the question is how do employees actually perceive bureaucratic values in Ethiopia’s civil service? Actions by the current Ethiopian government appear to emphasize executive leadership in the

extreme, as indicated by Cheru's (2002, p. 34) characterization of Ethiopia as "managed democratization", and Joseph's (1998, p. 55) description as, "...at best semi-authoritarian practices." Such executive leadership dominance may affect civil service employees' perceptions about how they are able to carry out responsibilities, particularly in a context of potential political and ethnic biases in the bureaucratic work environment.

Bureaucratic Theories

Bureaucracy, in this research, refers to the executive arm government. In the context of Ethiopia, the term bureaucracy denotes the members of the civil service, which includes the "'non-political' or 'permanent executive' that is recruited to serve the government in the implementation of policies through the management and conduct of governmental affairs (Ayenew & Chanie, 2000) and excludes elected officials, legislators, judiciary, armed forces or federal police ("Proclamation 262/2002 ", Ethiopia Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 2002, Article 2, Section 1). Generally, while there is consensus on the importance of establishing a professional, educated, efficient, and effective workforce of administrators to serve government, there is no agreement on the political nature of this bureaucracy. In the French, German, and Japanese experiences, professional, objective competence ranks at least as high as political allegiance in recruiting civil servants. Scandinavian civil service, slightly less politicized than German and French, still emphasizes allegiance more than the Anglo-Saxon or American systems that are considered nearly obsessed with the conceptual insistence of neutral competence in bureaucracy (Mengistu & Vogel, 2004; Peters, 1996; Rohr, 2002).

The bureaucratic values of neutral competence and representativeness (Kaufman, 1956) have gained in importance and legitimacy particularly since the 1980s. During the decade Britain and the US made concerted efforts to reduce the role of government and reinforce neutral competence, accountability, and transparency. The reforms have had global effects. In the global context as a result of these effects, government reforms have been established based on values of accountability and transparency, and inclusivity as promoted by the World Bank and the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) under the rubric of Good Governance including (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2002; World Bank, 1992). The World Bank has made Good Governance a precondition for receiving loans and aid, and implies that countries, including developing nations, must demonstrate efforts to streamline and professionalize bureaucracy and civil service systems (Ayenew & Chanie, 2000; United Nations Development Program, 1999; World Bank, 1992). At the same time, however, executive leadership, under the “protective sophism” of democracy in African countries as discussed by Joseph (1998, p. 55), Cheru (2002), (Bayart, 1993), and Bayart, Ellis and Hibou (1999) has grown to overshadow neutral competence and representativeness to the detriment of bureaucratic performance.

To better understand bureaucratic values as factors in the “...nexus between the practice of public administration and the working relationship between professional bureaucracy and the executive branch of government...” (Mengistu & Vogel, 2005), particularly in an ethnic federalism, a brief overview of relevant bureaucratic theories is presented.

Bureaucracy exists to implement the policy of the executive and to assure the continued working of government. The organizing principle in bureaucratic theory is the

concept of authority, including the origin, control or autonomy of bureaucracy. Various iterations of bureaucracy have expanded and developed over time to encompass new evolutions and devolutions of bureaucratic authority and character, and even more rapidly and dramatically since the late 1980s. Classic theorists on the role of government, such as Hegel, Marx, Lenin, Weber and Michels, examined different dimensions of bureaucratic theory that are useful to the synthesis of bureaucracy in modern applications.

In the view of philosopher Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, bureaucratic authority stemmed from either religious or secular authority. Regardless, however, the function of the state was to represent the common interest (Lavine, 1989). Distribution of power in society was derived from the higher authority of the monarch, but Hegel saw bureaucracy as the link between state authority on the one hand and various groups in society on the other hand (Abrahamsson, 1977). Public officials were servants of the state, not of the monarch, and were “a corps of public servants, independent of the good will of the monarch and his ministry, dedicated to the interest of the state and with a loyalty transcending that to any particular person,” (1977, p. 37). The modern link with Hegel is reflected in the American experience of a bureaucracy as a representative, dischargeable corps of professionals that are at least in theory apolitical and who represent civil society while in the service of the current political leader (Mengistu & Vogel, 2004).

Marx and Lenin saw bureaucracy as an instrument of the economic machine of the elite capitalist ruling class, assuring control over all means of production and enslaving the proletariat to the profit of the wealthy. Authority relies on the power to coerce (law). Existence of the state (legal authority) is an instrument of control either through cooperation with the established rules and accepted norms or by oppression and

coercion by the capitalist class. In Marxist theory, bureaucracy ceases to exist when economic forces are freed from capitalist control through the redistribution of wealth and the subsequent increases in education and income of the proletariat (Abrahamsson, 1977; Wright, 1974). Lenin advocated smashing bureaucracy in order to expunge the philosophical as well as pragmatic influences of prior entrenched thinking and actions that were loyal to capitalist interests (Wright, 1974). The capitalist bureaucracy was to be exchanged for a representative and recallable cadre of government workers composed of the proletariat. However, the application of this idea breaks down at the level of administrative capacity to perform with adequate knowledge and professionalism, to provide stability in government over time, and the apolitical positioning of bureaucrats (neutral competence) who are not schooled in the foundations of bureaucratic administration. The collapse of the short-lived French Commune experiment of pure democratic bureaucracy (Rohr, 2002), although briefly successful, was a precursor of larger bureaucratic failures to come. Economics aside, the difficult and final result of smashing bureaucracy at the devolution of the Soviet Union into independent governments has been to maroon states without a stable professional core of bureaucrats who are neutral to politics yet loyal to the commitment of successful implementation of policy and continuity of government (Vojnic, 1995). In a strange twist, Lenin's (Wright, 1974) idea of bureaucracy appears somewhat similar to Jefferson's notion of the proper role of government:

...all officials, without exception, *elected and subject to recall at any time*

[emphasis added], their salaries reduced to the level of ordinary

'workmen's wages' – these simple and 'self-evident' democratic

measures, while completely uniting the interests of the workers and the majority of the peasants, at the same time serve as a bridge leading from capitalism to socialism (p. 429).

Given Jefferson's orientation (and outcomes) the comparison of administrative ideas is better made among Madison, Hamilton and Wilson as illustrated in Kettl (2002) rather than with Lenin. Jefferson's focus was centered more on representativeness while Madison's on balance of power, and both had concerns for accessibility and accountability to the people. Hamiltonian thinking, executive-centered, was an illustration of Kaufman's (1956) notion of the competing bureaucratic value of executive leadership (Mengistu & Vogel, 2004).

Michels' oligarchic model suggests that bureaucracy is a natural extension of social interactions within all organizations. The natural tendency is for a few in any organization to rise to power over the more amorphous mass of its membership as demonstrated in Michels' model of the elected executive with power over the employed bureaucrat. Whether or not the concentration of power in the hands of the few is a desired or ignoble quality is a moot point according to Michels. The emergence of leadership is inevitable and necessary to social interaction. Michels bases this reasoning on the several qualities extant in all societies regardless of economic or political systems, which make direct individual democratic representation impossible. Without an oligarchic hierarchy the sheer number of societal members that would be necessary to organize in order to provide services, gather ideas or to resolve disputes becomes insurmountable. Michels acknowledges the need for technical expertise and continuity in

government and points out the need for quick decision-making, which neither direct democracy nor bureaucratic organization is capable of accomplishing (Michels, 1915).

With regard to autonomy of bureaucracy, Michels and Marx are in agreement that autonomous bureaucracy is impossible due to the authority from which bureaucracy derives in each case. According to Michels all bureaucratic authority derives from the oligarchic structure and cannot exist as a “headless,” amorphous entity with no direction, while for Marx bureaucracy exists only as a function of capitalist control.

John Stuart Mill made a distinction in the characterization of bureaucracy beyond that of Hegel. Mill described bureaucracy as the “third elite” of a democratic society in which the “first elite” is its engaged citizenry. Bureaucratic authority derives from the polity to its elected representatives. Bureaucracy’s ascribed task is, “...the public’s business [performed by] a group that is specially trained for governing” (Warner, 2001, p. 408). Mill contended that a representative body cannot formulate or administer policies as efficiently or appropriately as a professional, technically competent bureaucracy. At the same time, however, the bureaucratic autonomy to perform independently of elected representatives or the public is restrained. “...the antagonistic interests of representative government and bureaucracy provide security for good government” (2001, p. 409). One element of this good government, fair representation, derives from a bureaucracy that is politically neutral but guided by the values of the larger society. A second element, continuity, derives from a stable, trained career bureaucracy that provides institutional memory through attention to long-term public interests over time as policies are deliberated and revised.

Mill engendered the notion that bureaucracy creates a unique role for public administration to facilitate public participation. Bureaucracy that accommodates public participation in the context of Good Governance enhances democracy (Op de Beke, 2002; Sharma, 1996; United Nations Development Program, 1997; Wescott, 1999), and calls into question whether neutrality is even possible in a non-democratic or single party state. Additionally, in order to accommodate public participation, bureaucracy requires specialized competence (public administration) that is separate from and operates without regard for political structure. This raises the question of whether or not bureaucratic neutrality is even desirable for states that are non-democratic, single-party, or hegemonic posing under the sophism of democracy (Harbeson, 1998; Joseph, 1998; Mengistu & Vogel, 2004).

More inclusive of the political economy is Weber's pure bureaucratic model that incorporates social, political and economic influences in the development of the state and its bureaucratic functioning. Weber warns, however, that too much power concentrated in the bureaucratic machinery of government is to be guarded against. In a legal-rational society, adherence to societal norms and laws should provide the consistency, non-partisanship (neutrality), and stability over time and through different changeovers in government that is desirable for the bureaucracy (Rheinstein, 1954; Weber, 1922). Weber's model of neutral, rational bureaucracy and Michel's naturally-occurring oligarchy are viewed as inevitable outgrowths of maturing government and civil society organization, and though they may be smashed through revolution, these phenomena will eventually return over time as naturally occurring phenomenon of organizational development (Abrahamsson, 1977; Fry, 1989; Michels, 1915; Rheinstein, 1954). In

every case, however, partisanship in the civil service system adulterates the neutrality of bureaucracy by mixing the politics of what is to be done with the bureaucratic act of how it is to be done.

In current theory, bureaucracy is the predominant organizational form in a legal-rational-based society. Theoretically, according to Weber (Rheinstein, 1954; Weber, 1922), norms of social, political and legal justice, and the degree of neutrality in the bureaucracy can be predictably derived from the larger society. This dependency on the social norm logically leads to an analysis of whether or not political structures are in some way matched to representativeness and are reflective of society as a whole (Abrahamsson, 1977; Kim, 1994; Meier & Nigro, 1976; Riccucci & Saidel, 1997).

In contrast to demonstrations of modern bureaucratic applications that align with Weber's and Michels' models, Marx's proletariat bureaucracy, which is proposed to rise successfully after the collapse of an elitist bureaucracy, has failed to manifest despite Soviet, Chinese and Ethiopia's 1974-1991 (under Mengistu Haile-Mariam) attempts to dismantle classism and elitism. It appears that Michels' argument for emerging oligarchy to inevitably to reappear and the stability of Weber's neutral bureaucracy is borne out by modern day Britain, France, Germany and North America, yet the role of bureaus, even in the context of these matured political economies continues to be in flux (Mengistu & Vogel, 2004).

Competing Bureaucratic Values

Comparing these or any other theories of bureaucracy and their respective characteristics is challenging. For example, is difficult to imagine that once a

bureaucracy has been destroyed that a radically different organization of social, economic and psychological set of interactions such as that proposed by Marx and Lenin would successfully emerge and remain viable over time. Neither Michels separation of the *elected* versus *employed* executive, which is reminiscent of Wilson's (1887) politics/administration and Simon's (1945) value/fact dichotomies, nor Weber's pure neutrality of bureaucrats has been realized, either. What is needed is a dynamic model that can reflect shifts in social norms and values, changes in law, and, if possible, simultaneously describes shifting philosophical approaches to government problem-solving. Herbert Kaufman's competing bureaucratic values model, which emerged in the late 1950s, appears to achieve these parameters to the benefit of resolving some of the difficulties in the application of classic bureaucratic theories. Kaufman's (1956) three constructs or doctrines of bureaucratic values constantly shift with various weight and emphasis under different political and economic fluctuations. Kaufman suggested that historically in the US the bureaucratic values of executive leadership, representativeness and neutral competence arose in response to unintended outcomes of government policies adopted to address previous problems. Fundamentally, these values represent shifts in philosophy as responses to bureaucratic needs of the state. At the same time, all coexist with different emphasis, prominence and balance according to their social acceptability by the polity, and in exploring these values, as Kaufman pointed out, "...the defense of one is often framed in terms of advancement of the others simultaneously" (p. 1067). Kaufman's theory is particularly relevant to the modern global milieu as illustrated by his prediction that, "...commitments to values that have become incompatible can produce only gulfs in the realm of ideas and confusion in proposals for governmental reform"(p.

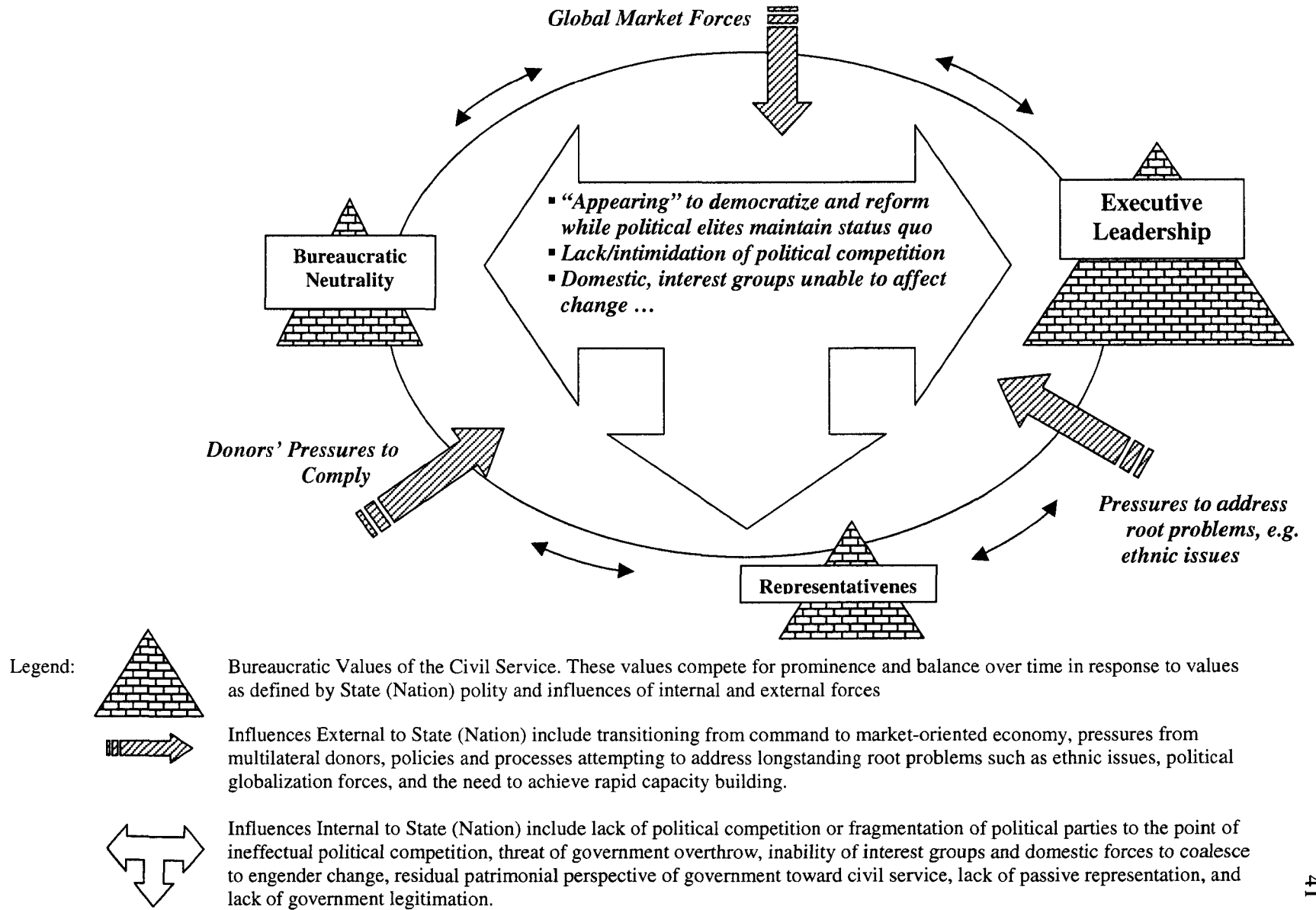
1058). A discussion of different aspects of the theory of competing bureaucratic values is presented below, and the theoretical elements are contextualized in the modern Ethiopia socio-political milieu. A model of Kaufman's theory specific to transitioning countries is presented in figure 3, below (Mengistu & Vogel, 2004).

Executive Leadership, Political Spoils and Partisanship

Kaufman characterizes executive leadership as a significant counterforce to representativeness and neutral competence (1956, p. 1063). The construct of executive leadership suggests that a country's leader, elected or otherwise, has the authority to appoint those who are disposed to implement the initiatives of the leader. This means that in non-democratic or one-party regimes the leader's vision may or may not correspond to the will of the people. The notion of executive leadership becomes problematic when a populace is subjected to bureaucrats who loyally change, implement, and carry out policies that may be mere rhetoric, or worse, that reward incompetence while limiting the fulfillment or even abusing the needs of the country (Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Cheru, 2002; Olowu, 1999a).

Another difficulty with the executive leadership construct in practical terms is that the number of appointees required may be so great that the task of appointing them is too physically demanding to accomplish (Henry, 1989; Ingraham, 1995; Patterson, 2000). Further, the number of qualified individuals available for appointment may be limited, thus virtually assuring questionable competence in at least some of those appointed, which may eventually lead to scandals, indictments, and loss of confidence due to public perception of corruption in government (Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Henry, 1989). An

Figure 3: Examples of Identified Forces Influencing Competing Bureaucratic Values in Ethiopia



example of the erosion of confidence in government based on incompetence is the continuing crisis within the Tigrean People's Liberation Front (TPLF) in Ethiopia. The TPLF faces accusations and counter accusations of corruption, abuse of power and of privatizing national wealth for private instead of public gain (United States Embassy in Ethiopia, 2002). This controversy has led to the further erosion of confidence in the Ethiopian People's Democratic Revolutionary Front (EPDRF) to govern (Human Rights Watch, 2003). This situation lends support to the notion that no civil service reform can successfully occur until government is viewed by the public not only as legitimate, but also as deserving of the public's confidence and trust (see figure 2, above). The perennial lagging progress in CSR and developmental capacity among SSA nations was addressed in Englebert's (2000) study, which found that state legitimacy was a significant and positive determinant of state capacity for development (p. 155).

In the current global context of economic competitiveness among international markets, country leaders are forced to embrace efficiency and effectiveness as directions for their civil service systems (Leavitt, 2000). To compete in global private markets, government must provide bureaucratic expertise and be able to assure bureaucratic stability, which contributes to market function during political changeovers. An elected chief executive has control over policy-making and policy-executing apparatus of the executive branch while bureaucratic loyalists are in key positions to assure that these strategies are advanced. It is the career bureaucrat, however, who provides expertise and stability in the government over time rather than a commitment to strict party loyalties (Henry, 1989; Ingraham, 1995a, 1995b; Kaufman, 1969). Further, if executive leadership is to be effective, strong support of values such as rule of law, transparency,

accountability, and responsiveness must be in place to curb the tendency of “[p]erson’s with authority...extend their use of it not simply to win additional influence but to win new grants of authority itself” (Lindblom, 1977, p. 25)

The classic American example of excess of executive leadership was President Jackson’s replacement of 90 percent of former President Adam’s bureaucratic appointees in the 1800s. The abuses of incompetence, bribery and graft were so great under Jackson’s administration that the phenomenon became known as the "spoils system" and prompted concerned intellectuals to lead a government reform of values and structural changes that culminated in the Pendleton Act of 1883 ("Pendleton Act", 1883). The reforms included implementation of a merit system for selection and pay of civil service employees, elimination of a permanent administrative class, separation of administration and politics, infusion of moral values in government, and improvement in managerial effectiveness (Brook, 2000; Henry, 1989)

In the context of Ethiopia’s 2002 Civil Service Proclamation, progressive language prohibited *inter alia* forcing civil servants to engage in political duties other than those established in job descriptions and the “improper” dismissal of employees . The issue at the crux of such policies, however, is whether the courts are able to act as an independent check and balance on the executive when ruling on “improper” dismissal of an employee and their subsequent reinstatement versus a mere iteration of policy. In an ethnic federalism, particularly under an executive leadership model, three central questions arise. Can the federal legislature deliver unbiased legislation; can the federal executive achieve unbiased policy implementation; and can the federal judiciary deliver unbiased legal interpretation without a nationally accepted, shared cultural value system

as opposed to the current constitution that upholds the right of eighty ethnicities to enact policy as their separate cultures dictate?

The Merit System for Maximum Outcome

Civil service merit-based systems, despite some current trends to move away from them (Maranto, 2000; Walters, 2002), are now so closely identified with civil service bureaucracy as to be intrinsic (Adamolekun, 1993; Brook, 2000; Henry, 1989; Ingraham, 1995; Pfiffner, 2000; Wilson, 1887). An outgrowth of reform of the spoils system era, merit systems are meant to establish a transparent and equally accessible process of hiring, promoting and remunerating government employees. The system is central to the foundation of neutral competence in civil service through independent selection based on education and experience, promotion based on competency, and incremental financial reward based on performance in the job (Ayenew & Chanie, 2000; Henry, 1989; Kaufman, 1956; Leavitt, 2000). The intention of unbiased selection of the best and brightest competitors for civil service positions strives to assure that those who can actually perform professionally and efficiently will promote improvement and progressive reforms through innovation and creativity in accomplishing their jobs.

Tenets such as equal pay for equal work, ("Proclamation 262/2002 ", Ethiopia Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 2002, Article 9, Sections 6-8), promotion based on competence ("Proclamation 262/2002 ", Articles 21-23), and the like are found in Ethiopia's civil service reform proclamation and iterate the tenets of Good Governance: legality, transparency and neutrality. Implementation, which means that these tenets are consistently, independently, and equally applied without bias, becomes a serious challenge for Ethiopia (Ayenew & Chanie, 2000; Chanie, 1999).

According to a 1998 report on Civil Service Reform in Ethiopia (World Bank, 1999), the prior four years showed advances in five areas: expenditure management and control; human resource management; top (strategic) management systems; service delivery; and ethics. The report, confirmed by others, discloses that major difficulties still facing Ethiopia lay in the areas of ethics, including elimination of corruption, reform of top management through the prime minister's office, and the de-professionalization of civil service employees due to poor compensation and pay systems (Ayenew, 1998; Ayenew & Chanie, 2000; Jembere, 2001; World Bank, 1999). The 2002 Proclamation notwithstanding, the authority to implement these policies appears exceedingly difficult under the separatist categorization of Ethiopia's ethnic representation-sensitive constitution that frames the foundation of governance (Harbeson, 1998; Paul, 2000).

Representative System, Values, Non-Elitism

Concerns for equality are mounting in the global context in terms of human rights, alleviation of poverty, sustainable human development, and the adherence to Good Governance. Participative government is one of the characteristics identified by the United Nations Development Program (United Nations Development Program, 1997) as central to Good Governance (see table 2) and to generating collaborative partnership (Jembere, 2001, p. 3-6). The promotion of an apolitical, professional civil service that is

Table 1: Governance and Characteristics of Good Governance

Governance can be seen as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences. *Good governance* is characterized by participation, transparency, accountability, rule of law, effectiveness and equity.

Characteristic	Definition
Participation	All men and women have a voice in decision-making either directly or through legitimate intermediary institutions that represent their interests. Participation is built on freedom of association and speech and the capacity to participate constructively. ¹
Transparency	Free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information directly accessible to those concerned with them. Enough information to understand and monitor processes, institutions and information. ¹
Accountability	Decision-makers in government, private sector, and civil society organizations are accountable to the public and to institutional stakeholders. Accountability differs depending on the organization and whether the decision is internal or external to an organization. ¹ Accountability requires freedom of information, stakeholders who are able to organize, and the rule of law. ²
Rule of Law	Legal frameworks fair and impartially enforced, particularly human rights laws. ¹
Effectiveness and Efficiency	Processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making best use of resources. ¹
Equity	All men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their well-being. ¹
Responsiveness	Institutions and processes attempt to serve all stakeholders. ¹
Consensus Orientation	Mediation of differing interests to reach broad consensus on best interests for the group and, where possible, on policies and procedures. ¹ Requires participation, transparency, equity, and accountability.

Sources: ¹UNDP (1997). *Governance for Sustainable Development*. United Nations Development Program. ²Governance for sustainable human development: A UNDP policy document. (ND). Accessed on September 22, 2003 on the World Wide Web at: <http://magnet.undp.org/policy/glossary.htm>.

representative of a population through affirmative action, rigorous application of voting rights laws, voting districting laws or other applications that assure democratic representation of civil society while avoiding the tyranny of the majority (Madison, 1787), is essential to building an effective civil service. A value-driven civil service must derive those values from the civil society it represents. Inherently, without coherent, cohesive representation of civil society in government, there can be no civil system to serve the society. Jembere's (2001, p. 13-14) observation that: "[t]he urgent priority in Africa, therefore, seems to be to rebuild state capability by overhauling public institutions and checking the abuse of state power. Creating closer partnerships with the private sector and civil society will help immensely to enhance the delivery of public and collective services", reflects the view of other scholars, as well (Adamolekun, 1993; Adamolekun, 1999b; Amoo, 1997; Ayenew & Chanie, 2000; Bayart, Ellis, & Hibou, 1999; Chanie, 1999; Cheru, 2002; Englebert, 2000; Fukuyama, 2004; Harbeson, 1998; Joseph, 1998; Leonard & Straus, 2003; Nunberg, 1997; Olowu, 1999a; Otobo, 1999). Thus the very nature of a civil service system that is representative of a collective polity must have some national context within which to discuss the collective meaning of political neutrality.

One paradox of Ethiopia is that the stability and strength of the ancient kingdoms that assured Ethiopia's place as the oldest independent country (Paul, 2000; Zewdie, 1991, 2001) have been disrupted by modern developments that have now placed Ethiopia among the world's emerging nations. For Ethiopia and its ethnic-based government, the character, function and capacity needs of bureaucracy pose unique questions in terms of achieving balance among bureaucratic values in the face of the

predominance of executive leadership (Chanie, 1999; Selassie, 2003). The requisite pre-conditions for neutral competence (Caiden, 1996) and the accomplishment of civil service 'reform' in the ethnic federalism environment are problematic (Chanie, 1999). "We the Nations, Nationalities and Peoples of Ethiopia..." as stated in the Preamble to the Constitution, presents a crucial obstacle to achieving neutral competence and representativeness. In this style of ethnic federalism, *ethnic* implies separation (Nations, Nationalities and Peoples) wherein each ethnic group maintains a significant degree of autonomy including decreased collective accountability for its actions (the right to secede), while *federalism* requires a collective approach to government, representation, and accountability, presumably for the good of the nation as a whole (Akhavan, 1995; Harbeson, 1998; Olowu, 1996; Selassie, 2003).

Asmerom (1996, p. 173-174) describes the separation of ethnic identities based on two perspectives: the first "objective primordialist" and the second "subjective situationalist". The objective primordialist perspective assumes that people will associate, trust and cooperate with those of like kinship, language, politic, and geographic identity and will *disassociate* with those unlike their objective identity. The subjective situationalist perspective casts doubt on the ability of cultures with significant differences to resolve their interpersonal conflicts satisfactorily and to come to agreement on social and political power structures. Theoretically, innately unique and different characteristics are presumed to create a separation among ethnicities that is impossible to overcome. At the same time, these differences are the bases for establishing ethnic states that remain separated by such things as different traditional laws, cultures, and perspectives on power. In the Ethiopian context, however, a country that has existed for such a long time

has evolved beyond clear ethnic distinctions through the cross-fertilization of cultures and through mediated articulations such as marriage. As Paul (2000, p. 177) put it, “Greater Ethiopia has been described as a multicultural museum, unique even in the African context of pluralistic societies...Most of Ethiopia’s many nations and peoples are too small, too lacking in resources, and often too divided to wield much political clout .” It is now difficult to establish clearly demarcated differences among the 80 ethnic groups of Ethiopia. Identifying wholly separate states based on ethnicity and culture cannot actually be accomplished, contrary to the language of the Constitution. To base the fabric of federalism on these false separations is not only disruptive at the national level, but creates disunity and suspicion at the regional and local levels. The insistence on viewing the country as divided by ethnicity is an ontological approach that has detrimental influence on processes vital to the survival and well being of Ethiopia. This ethnocentric approach influences the policy development, participation, and implementation processes, changes the dynamic of civil society development and interaction, impedes neutral interpretation of societal will, challenges conflict management within the polity, and deflects both interest and monies away from the growing economic gap between the wealthy and the poor.

The idiosyncrasy of Ethiopia’s ethnic federalism suggests the appropriateness of examining classic bureaucratic values in government in this particular context and, further, implies that some assessment of perceptions of those values as viewed by the bureaucracy is warranted.

Historical Perspective

Ethiopia has an ancient and unique history among the countries of SSA. Throughout the colonial period on the African continent, Ethiopia maintained independence from foreign rule. The roots of modern-day bureaucracy in Ethiopia are commonly traced to *Negus* (King) Menelik II (1889-1913) (EthiopianDelegation, 2003; Zewdie, 1991, 2001). Menelik had begun the strategic vision of modernization for Ethiopia while *negus* of Shewa, a northeastern kingdom. Menelik had begun laying the groundwork for a unified government system by developing a network of outlying areas that in return for allegiance and harmony were allowed autonomous local control. Menelik established Addis Ababa as the permanent capital of Shewa, the first permanent capital in Ethiopia in more than two hundred fifty years signifying political and military stability. He established the first ministerial system responsible for public sector services including banking, hospitals, schools, a postal system, a newspaper, and printing press. Menelik expanded the empire to incorporate areas of coffee growing, ivory harvest and gold mining in order to trade these economic resources for weapons to secure Ethiopia against Italian colonialists. In 1889 at Adwa, Menelik led Ethiopian forces against the Italians entrenched along Ethiopia's Red Sea coast. The Ethiopians defeated the Italians in a remarkable effort that established recognition and respect for Ethiopian skills in diplomacy and statesmanship among colonialist powers including the British, French and Germans (Zewdie, 2001). Even though Menelik suffered a debilitating stroke, he had the political and administrative acumen to establish a Council of Ministers to assist in affairs of state. Menelik's heir, Empress Zewditu, appointed a regent and heir to the throne, *Ras* (Head) Teferi. *Ras* Teferi, like Menelik, believed in the modernization of Ethiopia and

continued efforts to establish schools, government ministries, and engagement with foreign countries. When the empress died in 1930, *Ras Teferi* ascended to the throne as Emperor Haile Selassie and continued modernization and organization of the country.

Haile Selassie concretized and expanded efforts to establish the system of government bureaucracy that Menelik had begun forty years earlier. In 1931, Selassie proclaimed Ethiopia's first constitution, which while formalizing the absolutism of the monarchy did establish a bicameral parliament. The constitution also defined the judicial structure, defined the relationship between the nobility and the monarchy and, .guaranteed the rights and benefits of the people [citizens] due them as Ethiopians," (Mahtama-Sellase as cited in Zewdie, 2001, p.141). In 1955, the constitution was modernized although the provisions for universal suffrage, human rights, and freedom of speech were mitigated by the limitations of laws (Zewdie, 1991, 2001). Beginning in 1941 with an order that distributed the various functions of government among different of ministries, the scope and authority of civil service work was, in essence, being defined as well. From the 1940s through the early 1960s modern technologies and market influences prompted expansion of the number of government ministries, and in 1966 the Central Personnel Agency was established to rationalize laws, policies and structure across the civil service (Ethiopian Delegation, 2003).

Although the monarchy was overthrown by the military junta, the *Derg*, in 1974, the concept of stability of the civil service that Haile Selassie had initiated endured in some measure despite the subsequent 17-year socialist regime (1974-1991). The transition to a command economy managed by the socialist *Derg* led to a reversal of land privatization practices and to the nationalization of the country. Ministries were

expanded and added to accommodate government take-over of services provision and economic production. The ranks of civil service workers swelled as administrative and human resource policies were fitted to the philosophy of a command economy and to the detriment of competence and performance. As the Ethiopian Delegation (2003, p. 2) concisely put it, “In the process the distinction between political appointment and the merit system disappeared.” In the end, the *Derg* was forced to close some ministries altogether and to trim others because of the lack of human and economic capacities.

The socialist regime created a number of issues that continue to influence modern Ethiopia along the lines of a structural change model wherein escalation of behaviors on both sides of a conflict change the psychological states and behaviors of both sets of actors/recipients (Pruitt & Kim, 2004). Scholars have explicated these changes (Clapham, 1988; Harbeson, 1988). Paul (2000), however, provides an excellent summary of the issues and their persistence as influences in the creation of the current constitution and the entrée of the current political coalitions within the ruling party. The first of these issues was the break-up of the Amahra elite that had been influential under Haile Selassie. Although the composition of the *Derg* was also predominantly Amahra, the murderous tactics of dictator Mengistu Haile-Mariam caused significant schism among them. Some were impassioned by the revolution while others who opposed Mengistu’s tactics were slaughtered or fled the country. The *Derg*’s brutal suppression of these various factions ultimately led to, “...an enormous diaspora and ‘brain drain...’” (2000, p. 185). Second, the simmering Eritrean struggle for independence escalated into war as an outgrowth of opposition to Mengistu’s repressive tactics including the murder of Eritrea’s leader, General Aman Andom, who had eventually been co-opted by the *Derg*.

Third, the *Derg*'s attempt to communalize peasant farmers had two opposing effects that resulted creating a fractious group - peasant farmers. The farmers were empowered by the *Derg* through the creation of communal organizations but were deeply resentful of the party's attempt to impose socialist measures such as collectivism and resettlement. The fourth issue, which is perhaps most directly linked to Ethiopia's present constitutional ethnic-based structure, was the rise of ethno-nationalism as Oromo and Tigrayan groups pressed for autonomous regions, soviet-style. Although promised by the *Derg*, this vision eventually became treasonous, and the *Derg* suppressed ethnic nationalists' rebellions with terrible brutality. Two groups that both eventually became liberation forces, the Tigrayan People's Liberation Front (TPLF) and the Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF), managed to coalesce in spite of different political aims. As the two fronts fought to liberate Ethiopia from the *Derg*, the TPLF began organizing ethnic-based political parities to support and maintain liberated territory. When the *Derg* collapsed in 1991, the coalition transformed into a new party that now rules the government of Ethiopia.

The present government, the Ethiopian Peoples Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF), was born as an "umbrella party...a country-wide coalition of ethnic based parties controlled by the TPLF leadership, overtly designed to govern Ethiopia in the future" (Paul, 2000, p. 187). In several swift and strategic political moves, the TPLF created the post-conflict Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE), and eventually worked with the International Monetary Fund (IMF), a multilateral economic donor that affected legal and market reforms with influence on bureaucratic values as illustrated in figure 3, above. Laws were enacted in an attempt to stabilize the country and establish

the political context for future reform measures. By 1994, the transitional constitution that had established the legal structural framework of ethnic federalism was adopted as the permanent constitution. Also in 1994, a federal civil service reminiscent of the CPA under Haile-Selassie was reinstated by proclamation as the Federal Civil Service Commission (FCSC) (Proclamation No. 8/1995).

The role of the new FCSC included human resource management for federal employees and technical support for newly-devolved regional (*killel*) governments. However, under enforced retrenchments as part of the IMF Structural Adjustment Program (SAP), more than 15,000 workers lost their jobs in an effort to move toward public administration principles of efficiency and economy. Regardless of whether dismissals were made on the basis of political favoritism or ethnic identities as some claim, the long term effect has been twofold. First, the dismissal and voluntary departure of senior civil service personnel diminished the institutional memory of the civil service. Second, the retrenchment called into question the way in which merit-based policies espoused by the government were being practiced, particularly in light of positions that were filled on the basis of political considerations (Ethiopian Delegation, 2003). This question of legitimacy lingers and affects the Federal Civil Service today. These problems together with outright lack of administrative capacity continue to plague the performance of the civil service and, hence, the delivery and accessibility of services to the public at large.

A series of Policy Framework Papers authored jointly between the TGE and the IMF, 1992-1996, laid out an implementation plan for various reforms including that of the civil service. The second of these papers called for a review of problems in the civil

service from the local (*woreda*) to the federal levels. The review was conducted in 1996 by a task force appointed by the Prime Minister's office, and from the recommendations of the task force the government implemented a five-part reform, the Civil Service Reform Program (CSRP). The scope of these reforms extended beyond the civil service and the endeavor has now become a burgeoning effort with mixed success. An outgrowth of this reform effort was a new civil service law, known as Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 2002 (Proclamation 262/2002) accompanied by a new legal procedure to deal with grievances and employee discipline procedures (Regulation 77/2002). The proclamation, with twelve parts divided into 95 articles, makes provisions for employees' rights including the description of job duties, job security, placement and assignment, employee performance evaluations and salary increases within a formal salary scale, employee redress for wrongful dismissal, and some medical benefits. Governments at regional and local levels are granted the right to employ, promote, or transfer employees independent of the federal government. In short, the federal government launched its civil service reform program in 1996 and submitted the program to the legislative body in 2001 to make it into law (2002) with the overall mission, "...to equip Ethiopia with a civil service that is capable of achieving government, economic and social policies efficiently and effectively and that promotes democracy and federalism," (Report on Civil Service Reform Program in Ethiopia as of 1998).

Summary

The literature review was completed in order to establish a contextual reference for the application of CBVT to the concept of ethnic federalism, particularly to the case of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. The review identified theoretical factors that might be predictive of bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism that is transitioning from post-conflict state status and a commanding heights economy to liberal-style democracy and a free-market system. These theoretical factors are inherent to the constructs of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership as examined in this study. The literature review discussed the importance of technical competence, participative and representative government, and the professionalization and depoliticization of the civil service for effective delivery of public goods and services. The influences of the structure and process of competing bureaucratic values upon a bureaucracy's ability to perform on the public's behalf in a democratic setting were reviewed. Development of the research questions and hypotheses of this study were guided by the theoretical factors that maybe predictive of bureaucratic values as suggested by CBVT.

Chapter III presents the research methodology for the study, the hypotheses to be tested, and the statistical techniques that will be applied to the hypotheses.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Introduction

This study was designed to ascertain the ability of Kaufman's Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory to model perceptions about bureaucratic values held by civil service employees working in the ethnic federalism of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Constructs intended to measure the bureaucratic values of neutral competence; representativeness and executive leadership were tested in an ethnic federalism for the first time. The survey instrument developed for the study was administered to 700 federal civil service employees located in the capital city of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. The survey responses generated the database for the study and established a baseline of information about employees' perceptions of bureaucratic values based on organizational practices and attitudes within the civil service system.

Setting

The present civil service system under the current government in Ethiopia was established in 1995 by the adoption of Proclamation No. 8/1995, which created the Federal Civil Service Commission (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 1995). In January 2002, Civil Service Proclamation 262/2002 and Regulation 77/2002 were adopted with the objective of modernizing the civil service system with particular focus on establishing transparency, creating professional standards, and defining explicit recognition of rights and responsibilities within the civil service system (World Bank, 2002). These reform laws emphasized the establishment of merit-based hiring,

promotion and transfer procedures, grievance and due process procedures, and establishment of a commission to hear complaints of discrimination and harassment.

There have been numerous attempts at such civil service reforms (CSR) in the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). According to various studies conducted by the World Bank, IMF, and others implementation of CSR in these countries has typically taken at least a decade to produce demonstrable effects, positive or negative, in terms of stabilization after retrenchment, implementing merit-based practices, and/or establishing equity and transparency. Moreover, the success of CSR in SSA has been mixed (Special Programme of Assistance (SPA) for Africa, 1995; Wescott, 1999; World Bank Group, 1993), and according to some, attempts to measure “success” has been inconsistent at best (Adamolekun 1993, p. 2-3; Adamolekun 1999a; Englebert 2000; Nunberg 1997; Op de Beke 2002; Wescott 1999)

The study period, July through September 2002, presented a unique window of opportunity to collect civil service employees’ perceptions about the system at the time of transition into formal merit-based and due process practices. Study data captured employees’ perceptions of prior practices and the extent to which new practices were known among employees. Participants in the study represented 43 subunits from 18 of the 23 principle ministries and agencies in existence in 2002. Substantial reorganization of the federal civil service occurred after the research period (Federal Civil Service Commission, pp. 1-3).

Research Design

The research design was observational using modified mixed methods and methods triangulation (Creswell 2003; Krathwohl 1998; Denzin and Lincoln 1994). Methods triangulation is employed in order to, "...[add] rigor, breadth and depth to any investigation" (Denzin and Lincoln 1994, p.2). The modified mixed methods approach included quantitative data gathering by administration of a survey instrument with Likert-type items and qualitative data gathering including documents review prior to survey development, open-ended questions in the survey instrument, and semi-structured interviews conducted post-survey. Modifications to a full mixed methods approach were based on practical limitations of the study (*User-Friendly Handbook for Mixed Methods Evaluation* 1994; Patton 1990; Greene 1994). Limited access to employees, concerns about confidentiality and security, and time constraints precluded the use of focus groups as well recording or transcription of semi-structured interviews.

Data Collection

Individuals with backgrounds in public administration and business who were associated with Addis Ababa University acted as survey administrators. Administrators assisted with survey distribution and collection, briefed respondents on survey completion, and answered questions about the survey. Surveys had no identifying markings, were completed confidentially by respondents, placed and sealed in unmarked envelopes by respondents, and returned directly to the independent survey administrator. No incentives were offered to respondents for participating in the survey, nor were there any disincentives. Because empirical research about the civil service in Ethiopia was an

unfamiliar concept, many employees questioned the purpose, nature, and uses of the survey instrument and results. Those who did not wish to participate after having their questions answered were not obligated to do so, and there were no repercussions for refusal. No signed consents were required. After reading the introductory letter (see Appendix A), listening to a briefing on survey completion, and having questions answered, if a potential respondent chose to complete the survey, the respondent's participation was accepted as informed consent.

The study was exempted from Institutional Review Board requirements for Human Subjects Research by the College of Business and Public Administration Committee (see Appendix B).

Instrumentation

The survey instrument developed for this study is shown in Appendix A. The instrument has 83 items; eight items were open-ended questions, 51 were Likert-type questions, and 24 were categorical items. Development of constructs and variables to measure bureaucratic values was based on information found in the literature including two civil service surveys previously administered in other country settings, which were a British Civil Service diversity survey (Cabinet Office of the British Government 1999) and a World Bank civil service reform survey (The World Bank Group 2000). Relevant themes and questions from these existing surveys were selected and modified to accommodate the purpose of this study, which was to ascertain civil service employee perceptions about bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism.

Additional information from prior research by Mengistu and Vogel (2001), and three reviewed documents informed the survey. Documents reviewed were the Constitution of Ethiopia, Civil Service Proclamation 262/2002, and Regulation 77/2002. A model of variables that were generated from these sources is shown in figure 1, above. Information from the civil service proclamation and regulation documents provided insight into the scope of the efforts to professionalize the Ethiopian civil service that had been recognized as needed within the federal civil service system. Semi-structured interviews of six civil service employees were conducted after the initial survey. A script of the questions used in the semi-structured interviews is given in Appendix C. Data from the semi-structured interviews added to the interpretive context of the survey results as suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (1994), Greene (1994), Krathwohl (1998) and Patton (1990).

Individual survey items and scales were generated from the overarching research question addressed by this study, which was: *Within the structural context of ethnic federalism, does CBVT predict federal civil service employees perceptions about bureaucratic values as measured by employee perceptions of competency practices related to hiring, transfer and promotion, career advancement opportunities, discrimination practices including bias based on ethnic identity, job stability, fairness and respect in the workplace, and organization attitudes toward disagreement, collaboration, and conformity?* Survey items were organized into 11 sections which were: information about respondent's organization, *q1-3*; "You and Your Organization", *q4-11*; "Work Life Balance", *q12-18*; "Fairness and Equality", *q19a-j, q20a-g*; "Diversity", *q21-32*; "Career Development", *q33-35, 36a-g, 37a-e, 38a-f, 39a-b*;

“Biographical Information”, *q40-42*; open-ended question about self-identified ethnic communities, *q43*; question about religious affiliation, *q44*; gender, *q45*; open-ended general comments; *unnumbered*.

Cultural and political sensitivities as well as the structural realities of the present civil service environment in Ethiopia were considered in the development of the questions. The survey instrument was reviewed for face, construct and content validity by two panels of experts. Panelists’ specific fields of expertise were Ethiopian civil service, government, politics, law, education and culture. Members of one expert panel were from the Ethiopia diaspora located in the Hampton Roads area of Virginia and in Washington, D.C. The second expert panel was composed of Ethiopians located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Recommendations for changes to the survey by both teams of experts were incorporated into the instrument prior to administration of the survey in Addis Ababa.

Criterion validity for the measure Neutral Competence Scale used in this research was provided by a previous study by Evans and Rauch (1999, p. 761). Evans and Rauch found that meritocratic hiring practices and career advancement opportunities based on Weber’s (1922; Rheinstejn 1954) ideal type in the bureaucracies of 35 developing nations were significant predictors of the rate of economic development. The present study used questions about similar characteristics of meritocratic hiring practices and career advancement opportunities to create the measure Neutral Competence Scale and its two subscales.

Variable Definitions

Fifty-eight variables were included in the database for statistical analysis, are discussed in the following “Dependent Variables” and “Independent Variables” sections. Three variables were constructed dependent variables; eight variables were independent variables, which were four demographic variables and four variables related to personal work characteristics. These 11 variables are shown in table 2, below. The remaining 47 variables were six constructed subscales and the 41 variables that were used to construct the subscales. These 47 variables are shown in table 3, below. Additionally, the composition and reliability of the three constructed dependent variables and the six constructed subscales are presented in table 3.

Table 2: Database Variables

Variable Name	Database Variable Name	Subscales scores added to comprise Dependent Variable
Dependent Variables		
Neutral Competence Scale	neutcsc	Competency Practices Opportunities for Advancement
Representativeness Scale	repscor2	Discrimination Length of Position Tenure
Executive Leadership Scale	execscr2	Perceived Fairness and Respect Organizational Environment
Independent Variables		Survey Question Number
<i>Socio-demographic:</i>		
Gender	q45	45
Age	q42	42
Self-reported ethnic identity	eth5	43
Religion	rec44	44
<i>Personal Work Characteristics</i>		
Main earner	q12	12
Work/home balance	rec14	14
Work overtime	rec15	15
Length of Employment	rec41	41

Dependent Variables

Neutral Competence Scale. According to Kaufman (1956, p. 1060) the bureaucratic value of neutral competence is the "...ability to do the work of government expertly, and do it according to explicit, object standards rather than to personal or party or other obligations and loyalties." In order to measure the construct of neutral competence for this study, a scale called Neutral Competence Scale was created by adding the sum of the scores of two subscales. The Neutral Competence Scale had a minimum possible value of 3, a maximum possible value of 87, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of .8354. Scores on the Neutral Competence Scale indicate the degree to which federal civil service employees hold a positive perception that competency practices and opportunities for advancement exist and are available to them in their organization and in the federal civil service as a whole. In other words, a more positive score on the Neutral Competence Scale indicates a more positive perception of Neutral Competence as a bureaucratic value in the Ethiopian Federal Civil Service.

The two subscales comprising the Neutral Competence Scale were Competency Practices scale and Opportunities for Advancement scale. Each of these subscales was constructed from questions grouped by the use of principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The Competency Practices scale was intended measure the extent to which employees viewed federal civil service recruiting, hiring, transfer and promotion practices to be based on ability to perform necessary work for a position rather than on the basis of cronyism, bias or other selection criteria unrelated to the work. (Brook 2000; Ingraham 1995; Rheinstein 1954; Tompkins 1995; Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (English Translation) 1995). There is current debate

about the efficacy of placing primary emphasis on competency or merit-based practices among public administration theorists in third-wave countries (Newland 2000; Walters 2002; Maranto 2000; Kettl 2000; Toffler and Toffler 1994). However, evidence of the critical need for an emphasis on a competent civil service in developing countries is replete in the CSR literature (Adamolekun 1999b; Amoo 1997; Bayart 1993; Bayart, Ellis, and Hibou 1999; Chanie 1999; Cheru 2002; Englebert 2000; Evans and Rauch 1999; Jembere 2001; Leonard and Straus 2003; Mbaku 1997; Op de Beke 2002; Rahman 2001). The Competency Practices scale was comprised of the sum of the scores on six variables: Inside Recruitment Fair (q20b), Horizontal Transfer Fair (q20c), Evaluation Fair (q20d), Training/Development Fair (q20e), Overall Recruitment Fair/Merit-based (q20f), and Overall Transfer Fair/Merit-based (q20g). The Competency Practices scale had a minimum possible value of 0, a maximum possible value of 24, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of .7268.

The Opportunities for Advancement scale was intended measure the extent to which employees viewed training, promotion and career advancement to be accessible and available to all qualified employees on the basis of ability related to job performance rather than on the basis of cronyism, bias or any other criteria unrelated to professional job performance. Personnel training, development and advancement is vital to an integrated, motivated, and cohesive civil service ((Lemay 2002; Quinn et al. 2003; Tompkins 1995). Assuring access to career advancement opportunities has been demonstrated to act as an internal control to dampen corruption activities and is a significant factor in increasing rates of economic development among developing countries (Olowu 1999a, 1999b; Bayart, Ellis, and Hibou 1999; Englebert 2000; Evans

and Rauch 1999). The Opportunities for Advancement scale was comprised of the sum of the scores on fifteen variables: Opportunities available to all (*q35*), Recoded Impact-Professional leave, job change (*rec36c*), Impact-Promotion process (*rec36e*), Recoded Impact-Mentor or role model (*rec36g*), Recoded Stereo-Family Obligation positive (*rec37ap*), Recoded Stereotype -Skills and abilities positive (*rec37bp*), Recoded Stereotype-Age positive (*rec37cp*), Recoded Stereotype-Gender positive (*rec37dp*), Recoded Stereotype-Ethnicity positive (*rec37ep*), Recoded Prevent [promotion]-Illness Positive (*rec38ap*), Recode Prevent [promotion]- Different Locations, No Notice Positive (*rec38bp*), Recode Prevent [promotion] - Different Locations No Consultation positive (*rec38cp*), Recode Prevent [promotion] - Different Locations No Money positive (*rec38dp*), Recode Prevent [promotion] - Different Locations No Training positive (*rec38ep*), and Recode Prevent [promotion] - Required Long Hours positive (*rec38fp*).

The Opportunities for Advancement scale had a minimum possible value of 3, a maximum possible value of 63, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of .8611.

Representativeness Scale. According to Kaufman (1956, p. 1058) the bureaucratic value of representativeness is a civil service that embodies – "...champions of the indigenous populations...against...executive oppression" as active representation and the general characteristics of the polity as passive representation (Kim 1994; Meier and Nigro 1976; Riccucci and Saidel 1997). In order to measure the construct of representativeness for this study, a scale called Representativeness Scale was created by adding the sum of the scores of two subscales. The Representativeness Scale had a minimum possible value of 1, a maximum possible value of 35, and a Cronbach's alpha

coefficient of reliability of .6973. Scores on the Representativeness Scale indicate the degree to which federal civil service employees hold a positive perception that non-discrimination practices and job stability exist in their organization and the federal civil service as a whole. In other words, a more positive score on the Representativeness Scale indicates a more positive perception of Representativeness as a bureaucratic value in the Ethiopian Federal Civil Service.

The two subscales were called Discrimination scale and Length of Position Tenure scale. Each subscale was constructed from questions grouped using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The Discrimination scale was intended measure the degree to which employees considered valuing diversity and non-discrimination, which are official tenets of the federal civil service, to be present within their organizations (*Proclamation 262/2002 Ethiopia Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 2002; Ethiopian Delegation 2003*). The scale measured perceptions about attitudes toward diversity and discrimination practices held by administrators and colleagues and how safe employees felt they would be were they to report violations. The scale also measured employees' knowledge about due process rights related to discrimination complaints and grievances that were newly implemented by Civil Service Regulation 77/2002. The Discrimination scale was comprised of the sum of the scores on seven variables: Organization Values Diversity (*q22*), Manager Values Diversity (*q23*), Colleagues Value Diversity (*q24*), Procedures in Organization For [Reporting] Discrimination (*q26*), Safe To Report Discrimination (*q27*), Procedure Outside of Organization for [Reporting] Discrimination (*q28*), and Safe to Report [Discrimination] Outside [of the Organization] (*q29*). The Discrimination scale had a minimum possible

value of 0, a maximum possible value of 28, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of .7386.

The Length of Position Tenure scale was intended measure the extent to which particular groups of employees experienced job stability. In light of past civil service retrenchments as part of multilateral donor Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) (Ayenew 1998; Ayenew and Chanie 2000; Chanie 1999; Ethiopian Delegation 2003), job stability is an issue; coupled with frequent position changes among particular ethnic, age or religious groups may be indicative of practices aimed at decreasing representation from these groups. The Length of Position Tenure scale was comprised of the sum of the scores on three variables: Opportunities Available to All (*numwkrec*), Impact-Promotion Process (*rec2*), and Recode Impact-Mentor or Role Model (*rec3*). The Length of Position Tenure scale had a minimum possible value of 1, a maximum possible value of 6, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of .5898.

Both components of the construct of representativeness, active and passive representativeness (Center for Women in Government & Civil Society 2005; Kim 1994; Meier and Nigro 1976; Riccucci and Saidel 1997; Abrahamsson 1977), were addressed in the survey instrument. Information pertaining to statistical representation in the categories of geographical region (*killel*), language, religion, ethnicity, gender and age was collected. Due to cultural and political sensitivities, confidentiality and perceived security issues, direct questions about active representation such as political affiliation were not asked. However, because of the strong association of the ruling party with ethnic and regional identities, questions about self-identified ethnic community (*q43*), discrimination and diversity (*q21-32*), and length of time in a particular position and

geographic location (*q1-3*) as indicators of job stability were included in the survey. These variables were used as indicators of ethnic and political representativeness.

Executive Leadership Scale. According to Kaufman (1956, p. 1063) the bureaucratic value of executive leadership is the concept of "...bui[ding] up...chief executives...to take charge of the machinery [of government]." Executive leadership is a counterpoint in the competition for balance among bureaucratic values (Henry 1989; Ingraham 1995; Kaufman 1956; Maranto 1989). The rise in predominance of executive leadership globally is becoming a sensitive bureaucratic issue (Bayart 1993; Bayart, Ellis, and Hibou 1999; Kaufman 1969; Maranto 2000; Svava 2004; Tompkins 1995). Due to cultural and political sensitivities, executive leadership was addressed indirectly on the survey instrument through questions about how valued employees felt for their work-related capabilities regardless of affiliations, how freely employees felt about expressing opinions different from administration, and the impact of perceived social and ideological affiliations. In order to measure the construct of executive leadership for this study, a scale called Executive Leadership Scale was created by adding the sum of the scores of two subscales. The Executive Leadership Scale had a minimum possible value of 0, a maximum possible value of 34, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability .7320. Scores on the Executive Leadership Scale indicate the degree to which federal civil service employees hold a positive perception that fairness and respect for employees and freedom from political coercion exist in their organization and the federal civil service as a whole. In other words, a more positive score on the Executive Leadership Scale

indicates a more positive perception of Executive Leadership as a bureaucratic value in the Ethiopian Federal Civil Service.

The two subscales were called Perceived Fairness and Respect scale and Organization Environment scale. Each subscale was constructed from questions grouped by principal component analysis using a varimax rotation. The Perceived Fairness and Respect scale was intended to measure the extent to which employees perceived their ability to function within the civil service to be free from political agenda or influence (Asmerom 1996; Caiden 1996; Tompkins 1995). Since direct questions about political concerns could not be asked due to cultural and political sensitivities, proxies such as professional treatment regardless of ethnicity, religion, educational background, and the like were asked. The Perceived Fairness and Respect scale was comprised of sum of the scores on six variables: I am Recognized (*q5*), Treated Fairly (*q7*), Employees [are] Recognized (*q10*), [Fair Treatment Regardless of] Ethnicity (*rec19cc*), Education Background (*rec19hh*), Job Classification (*rec19ii*). The Perceived Fairness and Respect scale had a minimum possible value of 3, a maximum possible value of 18, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability .6409.

The Organizational Environment scale was intended to measure the extent to which employees perceived the environment to be free from pressure to conform to the ruling party's political ideology (Asmerom 1996; Bayart, Ellis, and Hibou 1999; Brook 2000; Caiden 1996; Englebert 2000; Olowu 1996). The Organizational Environment scale was comprised of the sum of the scores on four variables: Safe to Challenge (*q6*), Encouraged [to] Apply Talent (*q11*), Recode Conform [to] -Ideology (*rec39a*), Recode Conform [to] - Social (*rec39b*). The Organizational Environment scale had a minimum

possible value of 0, a maximum possible value of 16, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of .6353.

Table 3, below, shows the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and composition of the three dependent variables and related subscales.

Table 3: Composition and Reliability of Dependent Variables and Subscales		
Dependent Variable	Subscales	Components of <u>Subscales</u>, Variables and Survey Question Numbers
Neutral Competence Scale (sum of scores on 2 subscales) Minimum - Maximum Scores: 3-85, $\alpha=.8354$	<u>Competency Practices:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competency practices scale (sum of scores on 6 items) Minimum - Maximum Scores: 0-24, $\alpha=.7264$ 	<u>Specific Competency Practices</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruitment, transfers, evaluation, training/development: q20b-e
	<u>Opportunities for Advancement:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities for advancement scale (sum of scores on 15 items) Minimum - Maximum Scores: 3-63, $\alpha=.8611$ 	<u>Overall Competency Practices</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall recruitment, transfers fair, q20f-g <u>Obstacles to Advancement</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Illness, transfers, lack of notice, consultation, money, training, long hours required: rec38ap-rec38fp <u>Personal Characteristics</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stereotypes: family obligations, skill & abilities, age, gender, ethnicity : rec37ap-ep <u>Access to Leave, Promotion, Mentor</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact of having professional leave or job changes, promotion, mentor or role model: rec36c, rec36e, rec36g <u>Training, Evaluation and Access</u> Opportunities available: q35
Representativeness Scale (sum of scores on 2 subscales) Minimum – Maximum Values: 1-35, $\alpha=.6931$	<u>Discrimination:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Score on discrimination scale (sum of scores on 7 items) Minimum – Maximum Scores: 0-28, $\alpha=.7472$ 	<u>Discrimination Reporting:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedures, safe to report: q26-29
	<u>Length of Position Tenure:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Score on length of position tenure scale (sum of scores on 3 items) Minimum - Maximum Scores: 1-6, $\alpha=.5904$ 	<u>Organization Values</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Org, Mgr, Colleagues value diversity: q22-24 <u>Length of Position Tenure:</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • number of positions since 1994 numwkrec: q1 • transfers rec2, rec3: q2, q3

Table 3: Composition and Reliability of Dependent Variables and Subscales (continued)		
Dependent Variable	Subscales	Components of Subscales, Variables and Survey Question Numbers
Executive Leadership Scale (sum of scores on 2 subscales) Minimum – Maximum Values: 3-34, $\alpha=.7324$	<u>Perceived Fairness and Respect:</u> • Score on perceived fairness and respect scale (sum of scores on 6 items) Minimum - Maximum Scores: 3-18, $\alpha=.6409$	<u>Fairness and Participation:</u> • Ethnicity, education, job class: rec19cc, hh, ii <u>Recognition</u> Recognition, fairness, respect differences: q5, q7, q10
	<u>Organizational Environment:</u> • Score on organization environment scale (sum of scores on 4 items) Minimum – Maximum Scores: 0-16, $\alpha=.6442$	<u>Conformity:</u> • Social/Political rec39a-b <u>Collaboration:</u> Safety, Collaboration: q6, q11

Independent Variables

Gender. Gender was a categorical variable (q45): male, female.

Age. Age was a mutually exclusive categorical variable (q42). Age ranges were: less than 20 years old, 20 through 29 years, 30 through 39 years, 40 through 49 years, and 50 and older.

Self-Identified Ethnicity. An open-ended survey question (q 43) asked respondents to indicate an ethnic community with which they identified, their mother tongue and/or the killel from which they considered themselves to be from. Responses were collapsed into three major ethnic categories: Amhara, Oroma, and Tigray (U.S. Library of Congress, 2003; CIA Fact Book, 2004; Paul, J., 2000). Due to the large number, missing data were recategorized as “Declined to Answer” and maintained in the database as an indication of respondents’ reluctance to disclose ethnic identity.

Religion. Religion was a categorical variable (q44): Ethiopian Orthodox, Catholic, Protestant, other Christian, Muslim, Jewish, other religion, and none. Once

data were collected, responses were collapsed into the major categories: Ethiopian Orthodox, Muslim, Protestant, and a single category called, “Other Christian, Catholic, other religions, and “no religious affiliations.

Main Earner. Main earner was a categorical variable (*q12*): yes, no.

Respondents were asked if they considered themselves the main income earner for their family.

Work/Life Balance. Work/life balance was a categorical variable (*rec14*): yes, no.

Respondents were asked if they felt as if they were able to successfully meet the demands of professional work life and the demands of home life.

Work/life balance is considered to be an important indicator of stressful working conditions or work policies that are too inflexible to allow employees to deal with the exigencies of personal life.

Work Overtime. Work overtime was a categorical variable (*rec15*): yes, no, sometimes. The response category “sometimes” was combined with “yes” in order to dichotomize the variable.

Working overtime can be viewed in two ways. In one way working overtime may be viewed as income supplement and, as such, a positive employment aspect. On the other hand, working overtime may be an indicator of inordinate workload, low pay, or a negative employment strategy to discourage employees to the point of resignation.

Length of Employment. Length of Employment was a mutually exclusive categorical variable (*rec41*): Less than 0-5 yrs, 6-10 yrs, 11-15 yrs, 16 or more yrs. The current government has been in place since 1991; the civil service was not officially re-established until 1994. This variable captured information that indicated which

employees had experienced political regime changes and, consequently, profound shifts in bureaucratic values and structures.

Population and Sample

The survey instrument was distributed to a purposive sample of 700 civil service employees located in the Administrative District of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Distribution was limited to voluntary participants who possessed baccalaureate or higher degrees in order to assure English comprehension and writing skills as the survey was written in English. English is the language used for instruction in institutions of higher education in Ethiopia. Three hundred eighty surveys were returned; 360 surveys were usable for statistical analysis. This produced a final response rate of 51.4%, which, given the difficulties of access, distribution, and confidentiality issues and developing country status, is an acceptable rate for the study (Ibeh and Brock 2004) .

Civil service employees holding a baccalaureate or higher degree comprise approximately 14.5 percent (N=45,514, n=6,619) of all federal civil service employees, and an estimated 73 percent of degreed employees work in Addis Ababa (n=4,831). Usable returned responses represent approximately 7.5 percent of eligible employees working in Addis Ababa (Federal Civil Service Commission 2004, p. 5; Ethiopian Delegation 2003). Respondents from 18 out of 23 federal ministry- and agency-level organizations participated in the study.

Distribution of surveys was based on three criteria: 1) accessibility, which was agreement by the supervisor, department head, and/or Minister to allow employee participation; 2) possession of baccalaureate degree or higher, which ensured that

respondents were able to comprehend and complete the survey instrument, which was written in English; and 3) voluntary participation by qualified employees. A minimum of 10 percent of college graduates employed in each of the participating organizational subdivisions received surveys. No other restrictions were applied.

The city of Addis Ababa is the country capital, the largest urban area in Ethiopia, and is home to the central headquarters and large branch offices of a variety of federal ministries, agencies, commissions and departments. As such Addis Ababa was the most logical location to reach the broadest cross-sample of participants from the federal civil service, ethnic communities, language groups, and religious affiliations in light of project constraints of time, money and access.

Demographics

Gender. Study participants were 14.4 percent female (n=52) and 85.6 percent male (n= 308). Compared to female federal civil service employees in the federal civil service system overall (n=19,046, 41.8 %), female study participants, after adjusting for education, were underrepresented by approximately 10.3 percent (Federal Civil Service Commission 2004, pp. ii, iv). Compared to male federal civil service employees in the federal civil service system overall (n=26,468, 58.2 %), male study participants were overrepresented in the study, after adjusting for estimated education rates, by approximately 11.4 percent (Federal Civil Service Commission 2004, pp. ii, iv) .

Age. Respondents' ages ranged from 20 to over 50 years. The mode age was 30-39 years (46.9%) , which was comparable to the overall federal workforce mode age of 33-42 (40.4%) years as shown in table 5 and figure 4, below (Federal Civil Service

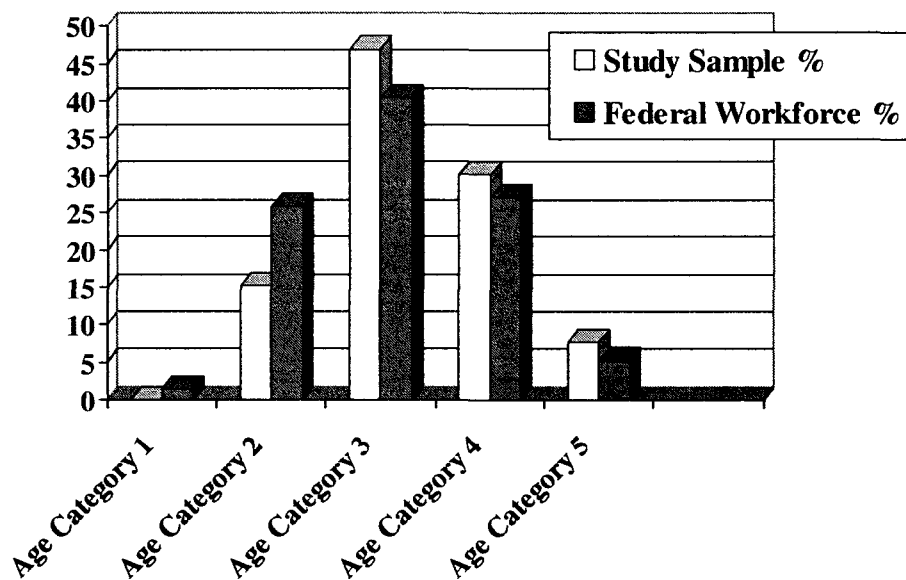
Commission 2004, p. 4). There were no employees under age 20 in the study. Age category 20-29 years included 15.6% of respondents, 40-49 years 30.0%, and the 50 and older category had 7.5% of respondents.

Table 4: Ages of Federal Civil Service Workers

Age Category	Study Sample	% of N=360	% of N=45,514	Federal Civil Service ^a
1	<20	0	1.4	<23
2	20-29	15.6	25.9	23-32
3	30-39	46.9	40.4	33-42
4	40-49	30.0	27.1	43-52
5	50 and older	7.5	5.2	53 and older
	TOTAL	100.0	100.0	

^a (Federal Civil Service Commission 2004, p. 4)

Figure 4: Ages in Percentage: Study Sample to Federal Workforce



Self-Identified Ethnic Groups. Ethiopia's ethnic diversity plays a central role in the structural framework of the Ethiopian Constitution (Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ehtiopia [English Translation], 1995, Articles 39, 46, 47). Approximately 80 distinct ethnic communities live in the country. Consequently, an ethnically diverse sample of federal civil service employees was anticipated for the study. Participants self-identified as belonging to seventeen distinct ethnic communities, nine multi-ethnic categories, and some chose to identify by nationality rather than by ethnic community, designating themselves as "Ethiopian" (5.2%, n=19). Fourteen percent of participants (n=51) did not respond to the open-ended survey question asking, "Please tell us your ethnicity..." (q43). Those not responding were included in the database as "Declined to Answer." Data were collapsed into five categories as shown in table 6, below. Distribution of respondents among ethnic community categories was: Amhara 45.0 percent, Oroma 11.9 percent, Tigray 6.9 percent, Other 21.9, and Declined to Answer 14.2 percent.

As the literature suggests considerable sensitivity to the issue of ethnic identity, was reflected in study participants' responses to the survey. In contrast to the non-response of 51 study participants, fifty participants (13.8%) chose to elaborate further.

Table 5: Self-Reported Ethnic Identity

Ethnic Communities	Study n (%)	Ethnic Communities as Estimated Percentage of Country Population ^a
Amhara	162 (45.0)	(40)
Oroma	43 (11.9)	(40)
Tigrai	25 (6.9)	(10)
All Other	79 (21.9)	(10)
Declined to Answer	51 (14.2)	
Total Respondents	360 (99.9*)	

^a Estimation of percent of population based on data from a variety of sources including: U.S. Library of Congress 2003, CIA Fact Book 2004 , and J. Paul, 2000.

It was anticipated that a correlation among self-identified ethnicity, primary language and home killel might be great enough to indicate a substitution effect; however, this was not the case. Due to a low number of responses to the portion of question (*q43*) that asked about primary language and/or home killel, these two variables were eliminated from analysis.

Religious Affiliation. Although as a whole Ethiopia is a religiously diverse country, the sample population was not as diverse (see table 7, below). Ethiopian Orthodox and other Christian-based religious affiliations were over represented compared to the population. Nearly seventy-seven percent (n=277) of participants indicated affiliation with the Ethiopian Orthodox Church, 12.5 percent (45) were Protestant, 5.8 percent (n=21) had “other” or no religious affiliation, and less than five percent (n=17) were Muslim.

Table 6: Religious Affiliations		
Religion	Study n (%)	Religion as Estimated Percentage of Country Population ^a
Ethiopian Orthodox	277 (76.9)	40-45%
Muslim	17 (4.7)	40-45%
Protestant	45 (12.5)	} 10-15%
Other Christian, Catholic, other religions, and no religious affiliations	21 (5.8)	
^a Estimation of percent of population based on data from sources including: U.S. Library of Congress 2003, CIA Fact Book 2004.		

Data Analysis

A database for the study was created using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program, version 11.0 (SPSS 2001). Data from the surveys were coded, entered into the database and cleaned. Univariate statistical analysis was done. Missing data for demographic variables were minimal: religion (2.4%, n=9), age (0.8%, n=3), and gender (1.8%, n=7). These cases were eliminated from the database. Cases with missing self-identified ethnic data were kept in the database and recoded as “Declined to Answer” in order to indicate respondents’ reluctance to disclose ethnic identity, rather than eliminated using listwise deletion, which would also have been an appropriate option (Mertler and Vannatta 2002; Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). A conservative approach to imputing missing data for Likert-type items was taken. The number of missing values was minimal, ranging from less than one percent to less than eight percent for any single item. Missing values were imputed as the median score for the item in order to preserve the median value as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) and

Munro(2001). Data was examined for univariate outliers using descriptive statistical analysis. Seven variables were eliminated due to data differences between dichotomous categories being equal to or greater than the 90-10 percent split threshold as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), Mertler and Vannatta (2000), and Munro (2001). All seven of the eliminated variables were subcategories of Question 19 and related only to Question 19. These variables were [Discrimination on the basis of]: Gender dichot (rec19aa), Disability dichot (rec19nn), Age dichot (rec19dd), Religion dichot (rec19ee), Family Responsblts dichot (rec19ff), Health Problems dichot (rec19gg), Other [Basis for Discrimination] dichot (rec19jjj). All subscales and scales were examined for multivariate outliers using stem-and-leaf plots, box-and-whisker plots and Mahalanobis distance. Four multivariate outlier cases in the subscales were identified on the basis of χ^2 values exceeding the critical value $\chi^2=18.548$, $df = 6$, $p= .001$). Two multivariate outlier cases in the dependent variables scale were identified on the basis of the χ^2 value exceeding the critical value $\chi^2=12.838$, $df = 3$, $p=.001$). The cases were examined for any unusual characteristics. Since the cases were well represented by other cases on the independent variables, the six cases were eliminated. All subscales and scales were examined for normality using descriptive statistical analysis including skewness, histograms, and scatterplots and found to be acceptable. Levene's homogeneity of variance tests were conducted for all IVs on subscales and scales; for all Levene's $p>.05$, thus there were no violations of the homogeneity of variance assumption (Mertler and Vannatta 2002; Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996).

For the remainder of statistical analyses, all alpha levels were set at .05. Ordinal level data from Likert-type items were treated as interval data. Bivariate analyses of the

independent variables included cross tabulations using Phi or Cramer's V to identify significant relationships between categorical variables. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to test whether, among the three dependent variables, one dependent variable had a significantly highest score based on a comparison among z-scores.

Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to assess differences in mean vectors of independent variables on the six subscales and the three dependent variables. MANOVA is a multivariate statistical technique that controls for interaction effects while testing whether differences among independent variables on several dependent variables have occurred by chance. The technique tests for differences in mean vectors of independent variables on several dependent variables simultaneously (Mertler and Vannatta 2002; Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). MANOVA is particularly relevant for this study for two reasons. First, because of the dynamic interactive nature of competing bureaucratic values over time (Kaufman 1956), MANOVA offered an analytic technique to examine a snapshot of this dynamic at the time of the study by controlling for interaction effects among dependent variables. The MANOVA technique provides a more comprehensive and statistically accurate representation of employees' perceptions of bureaucratic values than individual ANOVAs would have provided since the three bureaucratic values scales were significantly but only slightly correlated ($r=.274-.377$, $p=.05$) (Mertler and Vannatta 2002; Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Prior to conducting MANOVA, multivariate screening was conducted for variance-covariance using Box's M ; for all test results $p>.05$. The second reason MANOVA is particularly appropriate is that the subscales and scales in the study are normally distributed and require no transformations.

Multiple linear regression (MLR) was used to examine the ability of Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory to model bureaucratic values among Ethiopian federal civil service employees. Basic assumptions for MLR were met including normality (distribution of residuals normal with skewness for all models >-1 and <1) and homoscedasticity (scatter- and normal probability plots of residuals against independent variables). The assumption of an acceptable case-to-independent variable ratio was met. The number of cases required was calculated using the conservative formula ($N = (50) + (104 + m)$), where $m = 10$, the maximum number of IVs used in three of the regression models in this study, and $N =$ the number of required cases, 164 (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Cook's distance test for identifying outliers of influence was calculated. No additional outliers were eliminated. Checks for multicollinearity and singularity were performed by screening for high standard errors of regression coefficients. Tolerance statistics were $>.1$.

Hypotheses

Seventy-nine research hypotheses were generated from the four research questions. Seventy-two (1-72) hypotheses were tested in order to answer Research Questions One and Two. These hypotheses were tested for significant differences in mean scores of independent variables on the six subscales and the three dependent variables using MANOVA. Six hypotheses (73-78) were tested in order to answer Research Question Three. These hypotheses were tested using MLR to determine the ability of the independent variables and subscales to explain the variance of the three dependent variables using MLR. One hypothesis (79) was tested using repeated

measures ANOVA in order to answer Research Question Four. Statistical results were used to determine whether or not among the three dependent variables one was most positive based on a comparison of z-scores. All research hypotheses and statistical testing techniques are shown in table 7.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests

Hypotheses Related to Research Question 1: Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by demographic characteristics?

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Gender-Related Hypotheses: **MANOVA**

1. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by gender.
2. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by gender.
3. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by gender.
4. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by gender.
5. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by gender.
6. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by gender.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

7. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by gender.
8. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by gender.
9. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by gender.

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Age-Related Hypotheses: MANOVA

10. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by age group.
11. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by age group.
12. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by age group.
13. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by age group.
14. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by age group.
15. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by age group.
16. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by age group.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

17. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by age group.

18. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by age group.

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Self-Identified Ethnic Community-Related Hypotheses: **MANOVA**

19. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by self-identified ethnic community category.

20. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by self-identified ethnic community category.

21. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by self-identified ethnic community category.

22. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by self-identified ethnic community category.

23. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by self-identified ethnic community category.

24. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by self-identified ethnic community category.

25. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by self-identified ethnic community category.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

26. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by self-identified ethnic community category.
27. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by self-identified ethnic community category.

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Religious Affiliation-Related Hypotheses:**MANOVA**

28. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by religious affiliation category.
29. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by religious affiliation category.
30. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by religious affiliation category.
31. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by religious affiliation category.
32. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by religious affiliation category.
33. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by religious affiliation category.
34. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by religious affiliation category.
35. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by religious affiliation category.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

36. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by religious affiliation category.

Hypotheses Related to Research Question 2: Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by personal work practices characteristics?

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Main Earner Status-Related Hypotheses:

MANOVA

37. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by main earner category.

38. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by main earner category.

39. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by main earner category.

40. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by main earner category.

41. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by main earner category.

42. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by main earner category.

43. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by main earner category.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

44. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by main earner category.

45. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by main earner category.

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Work/Home Balance-Related Hypotheses:

MANOVA

46. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by work/home balance category.

47. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by work/home balance category.

48. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by work/home balance category.

49. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by work/home balance category.

50. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by work/home balance category.

51. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by work/home balance category.

52. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by work/home balance category.

53. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by work/balance category.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

54. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by work/balance category.

Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Working Overtime-Related Hypotheses:

MANOVA

55. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by work overtime category.

56. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by work overtime category.

57. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by work overtime category.

58. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by work overtime category.

59. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by work overtime category.

60. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by work overtime category.

61. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by work overtime category.

62. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by work overtime category.

63. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by work overtime category.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)**Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Length of Employment-Related Hypotheses:****MANOVA**

64. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Competency Practices subscale by length of employment category.
65. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by length of employment category.
66. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by length of employment category.
67. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by length of employment category.
68. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Discrimination subscale by length of employment category.
69. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by length of employment category.
70. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by length of employment category.
71. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Representativeness Scale by length of employment category.
72. Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by length of employment category.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

Hypotheses Related to Research Question 3: Does CBVT predict the bureaucratic values of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership as perceived by Ethiopian federal civil service employees?

Bureaucratic Values by Factors Hypotheses: **MLR**

73. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of neutral competence as represented by Neutral Competence Scale will be predicted by gender, age, ethnic community, religious affiliation, main earner status, work/home balance, work overtime, length of employment, and Discrimination, Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, and Organization Environment subscales.
74. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of neutral competence as represented by Neutral Competence Scale will be predicted by Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales.
75. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of representativeness as represented by Representativeness Scale will be predicted by gender, age, ethnic community, religious affiliation, main earner status, work/home balance, work overtime, length of employment, and Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, Perceived Fairness and Respect, and Organization Environment subscales.
76. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of representativeness as represented by Representativeness Scale will be predicted by Neutral Competence and Executive Leadership Scales.

Table 7: Research Hypotheses and Statistical Tests (continued)

77. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of executive leadership as represented by Executive Leadership Scale will be predicted by gender, age, ethnic community, religious affiliation, main earner status, work/home balance, work overtime, length of employment, and Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, Discrimination, and Length of Position Tenure subscales.
78. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of executive leadership as represented by Executive Leadership Scale will be predicted by Neutral Competence and Representativeness Scales.

Hypothesis Related to Research Question 4: Do Ethiopian federal civil service employees perceive any one of the three bureaucratic values as most positive relative to the other two bureaucratic values?

Bureaucratic Values by Relative Positiveness

Hypothesis: **Repeated Measures ANOVA**

79. There will be a significant difference in the degree to which the values of Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales converted to z-scores are perceived to be positive by Ethiopian federal civil service employees.
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Qualitative Analyses

Documents review was conducted on the Constitution of Ethiopia, Civil Service Proclamation 262/2002, and Regulation 77/2002. The documents provided substantive

and contextual knowledge (Greene 1994; Denzin and Lincoln 1994; Janesick 1994), about the legal foundation of the Ethiopian federal civil service (Janesick 1994; Paul 2000; Rohr 2002; Selassie 2003) and organizational practices of the civil service (Ayenew and Chanie 2000; Chanie 1999; Ingraham 1995; Brook 2000)

Qualitative responses to open-ended survey questions (see Appendix A, *q2.2*, *q3.2*, *q19j*, *q32*, *q43*, and *Comments*) were analyzed for consistency and/or themes. Questions *q2.2* and *q3.2* asked participants about work locations and reasons for changing locations. Question *19j* asked respondents to list any characteristics other than those listed in *q19a-q19h* for which they felt they had been unfairly treated, and *q32* asked respondents to give the name of the department or institution that they thought was responsible for handling harassment or discrimination questions. Responses to these four questions were integrated in the results reporting in Chapter IV and discussion of results in Chapter V as augmentation to qualitative results. Responses from question *q43* and *Comments* were compiled and analyzed for predominant themes. Discussion of these results are integrated into Chapter IV and Chapter V.

Data from the six anonymous semi-structured survey questions were compiled and analyzed using content analysis. Themes that confirmed efforts to professionalize the federal civil service emerged as did obstacles to achieving CSR in Ethiopia. Remarks from the data are included throughout Chapter IV and Chapter V as support, contrast or explication of findings from the quantitative data. Due to concerns for confidentiality, no identifying information is reported. Notes will be destroyed after completion of the study.

Data Analysis Summary

The data analysis presented for Research Questions 1 and 2 identified factors related to the Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales. Factors were examined individually and together using a variety of statistical techniques to assure comprehensive analysis and to produce the most parsimonious models of competing bureaucratic values. Data analysis for Research Question 3 tested the ability of the factors in Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory to predict the three bureaucratic values scores. Data analysis for Research Question 4 tested whether or not one dependent variable score among the three could be identified as the most positive score based on a comparison of z-scores. Chapter IV presents the results of the analyses performed in this chapter.

CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis

Results of the quantitative analyses of the data from this research and the answers to the four research questions are provided in this chapter. Results of the qualitative data analyses are also provided.

Descriptive Statistics

Discussion of descriptive statistics for the demographic independent variables was presented in Chapter III. Discussion of the descriptive statistics for the four independent personal work characteristics variables is presented below. A table of descriptive statistics for the demographic and personal work characteristics independent variables is provided in Appendix E, tables E1-E8.

Personal Work Characteristics

Main Earner. The majority of respondents who reported being the main income earner for the family (71.4%, n=257).

Work/Life Balance. The vast majority of respondents reported being able to balance the demands of work and home (78.9%, n=284), although about one-fifth of employees (21.1%, n=76) reported that they were unable to balance these demands.

Work Overtime. Nearly 70 percent (68.9%, n=248) of all respondents indicated working overtime, about half on an occasional basis (47.8%, n=172) and about one fifth

on a regular basis (21.1%, n=76). One-third of respondents reported working no overtime (31.1%).

Length of Employment. The modal category of length of employment was 16 or more years; over one-third of respondents were in this category (38.1%, n=137). The next largest group of respondents had been employed in the civil service for 11-15 years (23.6%, n=85) followed by new employees who had been employed for five years or less (20.6%, n=74). Employees who had worked between 6-10 years comprised the smallest group of respondents (17.8%, n=38.3).

Measures

As discussed in Chapter III, the three dependent variables, Neutral Competence Scale, Representativeness Scale and Executive Leadership Scale were each composed of two subscales. Subscales were constructed using continuous, ordinal, and nominal variables. Ordinal level variables generated from Likert-type items were treated as interval level variables. Mean values of dependent variables by independent variable are shown in table 8, below.

The metric for subscales and scales was not a homogenous measurement; therefore no direct comparison among dependent variable mean values could be made. However, the values of the Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales were converted to *z*-scores. *Z*-scores were tested using repeated measures ANOVA in order to determine the relative “positiveness” among the three bureaucratic value scales.

Table 8: Mean Values of Dependent Variables by Independent Variables

Independent Variable	Neutral Competence Scale Min: 3 - Max: 85		Representativeness Scale Min: 1 - Max: 35		Executive Leadership Scale Min: 3 - Max: 34	
	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD	Mean	± SD
Gender						
Male	53.45	12.09	20.13	5.16	22.52	4.31
Female	52.50	12.85	20.98	5.14	21.31	3.95
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.603		.271		.060	
Age						
20-29	51.80	12.37	21.05	5.04	22.86	4.01
30-39	51.92	12.38	19.75	5.03	21.53	4.31
40-49	55.70	11.48	20.39	5.27	23.18	4.37
50 and older	55.59	12.26	21.19	5.62	23.04	4.37
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.042*		.272		.008**	
Self-Identified Ethnic Community						
Amhara	53.14	12.40	19.48	5.08	22.40	4.01
Oroma	56.07	12.26	21.28	5.68	22.98	4.32
Tigrai	52.52	12.70	21.12	5.57	21.72	4.16
Declined to answer	49.25	13.44	20.16	5.33	20.86	4.53
Other	55.05	10.11	21.06	4.61	23.04	4.50
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values >.05	.047*		.090		.045*	
Religious Affiliation						
Ethiopian Orthodox	53.27	12.64	20.06	5.20	22.27	4.31
Muslim	50.53	11.76	21.53	4.23	23.24	3.75
Protestant	55.69	10.06	21.11	5.42	22.33	4.40
Other	51.10	10.23	19.90	4.53	22.52	4.29
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.350		.430		.839	
Main Earner Status						
Yes	51.09	11.50	20.65	4.84	22.38	4.04
No	54.21	12.37	20.09	5.28	22.33	4.38
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.028*		.355		.918	
* Significant at $p=.05$			**Significant at $p=.01$			

Table 8: Mean Values for Dependent Variables by Independent Variable (continued)

Independent Variable	Neutral Competence Scale Min: 3 - Max: 85		Representativeness Scale Min: 1 - Max: 35		Executive Leadership Scale Min: 3 - Max: 34	
	Mean	+ SD	Mean	+ SD	Mean	+ SD
Work/Home Balance						
Yes	50.32	12.97	20.29	5.05	21.07	4.66
No	54.12	11.87	20.24	5.19	22.68	4.11
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.016*		.944		.003**	
Work Overtime						
Yes	53.79	12.32	20.27	5.047	22.55	4.21
No	52.25	11.88	20.22	5.41	21.88	4.41
Total	53.31	12.19	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.266		.942		.165	
Job Tenure						
0-5 years	52.03	12.31	20.93	4.78	22.16	4.12
6-10 years	53.53	12.29	20.63	4.99	21.78	4.28
11-15 years	51.68	12.50	19.47	5.43	21.74	4.73
16 or more years	54.92	11.82	20.20	5.24	23.07	4.00
Total	53.31	11.82	20.25	5.15	22.34	4.28
<i>p</i> values	.192		.310		.074	
* Significant at $p=.05$		**Significant at $p=.01$				

Bivariate and Multivariate Analyses

As indicated in Chapter III, two types of bivariate analyses were conducted.

Crosstabulation using Phi or Cramer's V to identify significant relationships between categorical variables was performed. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to test the degree of relative positiveness of each of the three dependent variables transformed to z-scores. Repeated measures ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis 79 in order to answer Research Question 4.

Two types of multivariate analyses were conducted to test the remaining hypotheses. One-way MANOVA was used to test Hypotheses 1-72 to answer Research Questions One and Two. MANOVA calculates differences in mean vectors of independent variables on two or more dependent variables while controlling for effects among dependent variables and independent variables simultaneously. Two sets of results were calculated. The first set of results showed the differences in mean vectors of the eight independent variables (demographic and personal work characteristics) on the six subscales (Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices). The second set of results calculated the differences in mean vectors of the eight independent variables on the three bureaucratic values scale variables (Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales).

MLR was used to test Hypotheses 73-78 in order to answer Research Question 3. MLR calculates the ability of each independent variable in a model to explain some portion of the variance in the dependent variable while simultaneously controlling for effects of the other independent variables. In order to construct the most parsimonious MLR models, two MLR models were constructed for each bureaucratic value scale; a total of six MLR models were calculated. The first of the two models used the eight demographic and personal work characteristic variables plus four subscales unrelated to the dependent bureaucratic value scale being tested in a particular model. The second MLR model used the two unrelated bureaucratic values scales as independent variables to determine the accuracy of these scales in predicting the other bureaucratic value scale.

The two models for each bureaucratic value were compared to determine how well each set of factors explained the variance in the bureaucratic value being examined. In other words, the MLR models were constructed in order to determine how well Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory, as measured by this study, modeled perceived bureaucratic values of the Ethiopian federal civil service employees who participated in the study.

The results of the bivariate and multivariate results are discussed below in the context of answering the four research questions.

Research Questions One and Two

1. Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by demographic characteristics including self-identified ethnic community?
2. Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by personal work practices characteristics?

Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics Relationships

Gender. Not surprisingly, significantly more men than women were main income earners ($\chi^2(1, N=360)=9.158, p=.002, \phi=-.159, p=.002$) with nearly three-quarters males (74.4%, n=229) indicating main earner status and more than half of females (53.8%, n=28) indicating main earner status.

A one-way MANOVA was calculated to determine the effect of gender on six dependent variables: Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, and Competency Practices subscales. Results showed a significant difference in mean vectors of the subscale Organizational Environment (Wilk's $\Lambda = .93$, $F(1, 358) = 4.40$, $p < .001$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .07$). One-way ANOVA was conducted as a follow-up.

The ANOVA calculations ($F(1,358) = 13.64$, $p < .001$) showed that men had a significantly higher mean score ($M = 9.50$, $SD = 2.75$) than women did ($M = 7.96$, $SD = 2.93$, $p = .001$). Results from the ANOVA test are shown in table 9, below. The Organization Environment subscale had a minimum possible score of 0 and a maximum possible score of 16. Means and standard deviations for the Organization Environment subscale by gender are shown in table 9.1, below.

Table 9: ANOVA Results for Organization Environment Subscale by Gender

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Males	Reference				
Females	105.30	1	105.30	13.64	<.001**
Total	33856.00	360			

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 9.1: Means and Standard Deviations by Gender for Organizational Environment Subscale

	M	SD
Males	9.50	2.75
Females	7.96	2.93

The ANOVA test revealed that there were no significant differences between men and women's mean vectors within the other five subscales. The results of the ANOVA test for these subscales are given below in table 10.

MANOVA computation revealed that there were no significant differences among mean vectors for Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales by gender (Wilks' $\Lambda=.98$, $F= (3, 356) =.23$, $p=.08$).

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Gender.

Significant differences in mean vectors of the subscale Organizational Environment by gender were found by conducting a MANOVA statistical test (Wilks' $\Lambda= .93$, $F(1, 358)= 4.40$, $p<.001$, multivariate $\eta^2=.07$). The Organizational Environment subscale had a maximum possible score of 16. ANOVA calculations ($F(1,358)=13.64$, $p<.001$) showed that men had a significantly higher mean score ($M=9.50$, $SD=2.75$) than women did ($M=7.96$, $SD=2.93$) on the subscale. On the basis of the results of this analysis, Research Hypothesis Six, "Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Organizational Environment subscale by gender," is accepted. There were no significant differences between mean scores for men and women on Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices subscales. Researches Hypotheses One through Five, therefore, are not accepted.

A MANOVA test revealed no significant differences between mean scores for men and women on the Neutral Competence, Representativeness, or Executive

Leadership Scales (Wilks' $\Lambda=.98$, $F=(3, 356)=.23$, $p=.08$). On the basis of this analysis, Research Hypotheses Seven, Eight, and Nine are not accepted.

Age. Significant relationships between the numbers of respondents in age group categories and self-identified ethnic community categories were found using crosstabulations ($\chi^2=(12, N=360)=23.43$, $p=.02$ $V=.15$). Among all age categories, the predominant self-identified ethnic community was Amhara as shown below in table 10. More than half of those aged 20-29 years (53.6%, $n= 30$) as well as those aged 50 and older (51.9%, $n=14$) were Amhara. Nearly a quarter of the age group 50 or older was Tigrai (22.2%, $n=14$). These individuals 50 or older also represented a quarter of all of those in the study who had indicated Tigrai as their ethnic community.

Table 10: Age by Self-Identified Ethnic Community

Age in years	Ethnic Community by %					TOTAL
	Amhara all ages	Oroma all ages	Tigrai all ages	Other all ages	Declined to Answer all ages	
	45.0%	11.9%	6.9%	21.9%	14.2%	100%
20-29	53.6	14.3	3.6	16.1	12.5	100.0
30-39	43.2	13.0	7.7	24.9	11.2	100.0
40-49	41.7	10.2	3.7	23.1	21.3	100.0
50 and older	51.9	7.4	22.2	11.1	7.4	100.0

There was a significant difference among age groups by main earner status ($\chi^2=$ (12, N=360) =37.54, $p<.001$ $V=.32$). Among those aged 40-49, 75 percent (n=81) were main earners. Not surprisingly, nearly three-quarters of those aged 30-39 years were main earners (74.5%, n=126), and, among main earners this age group comprised the largest percentage, half (49.0%). All of the 50 or older employees were main income earners (n=27); however, among the youngest age group more than half were not main earners (58.9%, n=33).

There were significant differences in the numbers of employees in age groups by work/life balance category ($\chi^2=(3, N=360)=11.26$, $p=.010$ $V=.18$). The majority of employees in every age group indicated being able to balance these competing demands, and older employees indicated the highest group percentage being able to do so (88.9%, n=24). This group was followed by those aged 40-49 (88.0%, n=95), aged 30-39 (72.8%, n=123), and aged 20-29 (75.0%, n=42). About a quarter of employees aged 30-39 and aged 20-29 indicated they were not able to balance work/life (27.2%, n=33) and (25.0% n=14).

There were no significant differences in the numbers of employees by age categories on the basis of working overtime. The majority of all respondents, 63.5 to 74.1 percent indicated working work overtime.

Due to observed cell counts of zero in some categories, no test for significant differences in number of employees in age categories by length of employment categories were calculated. Not unexpectedly, however, nearly all employees aged 20-29 had been employed 0-5 years (87.5%, n=49), and nearly all employees aged 50 or older had been

employed 16 or more years (92.6%, n=25). The majority of employees aged 40-49 years had also worked 16 years or longer (78.7%, n=85). About forty percent of employees aged 30-39 had worked 11-15 years (41.4% n=70), and almost a third had worked 6-10 years (30.2%, n=51).

A one-way MANOVA was performed to determine significant differences in mean vectors on the six subscales by age categories. Significant differences were found between multiple age categories, aged 40-49 (Wilks' $\Lambda = .93$, $F(1, 351) = 4.14$, $p < .001$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .04$) and aged 50 and older (Wilks' $\Lambda = .96$, $F(1, 351) = 2.64$, $p = .02$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .04$) for five bureaucratic values subscales: Opportunities for Advancement, Organizational Environment, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Length of Position Tenure, and Competency Practices. The results from the MANOVA test indicated no significant differences in any subscales for the aged 20-29 group (Wilks' $\Lambda = .977$, $F(1, 35) = 1.38$, $p = .22$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .02$) and no significant difference in the Length of Position Tenure subscale. One-way ANOVAs were conducted as follow-up tests on the five subscales indicated.

The results of the ANOVA computation showed a significant difference in the mean scores of two age categories on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale ($F(3, 356) = 3.09$, $p < .03$), 40-49 year olds and the reference group, 30-39 year olds. Results of the ANOVA calculation are presented in table 11, below. The Opportunities for Advancement subscale had a minimum possible score of 3 and a maximum possible score of 63. Mean scores for employees aged 40-49 ($M = 47.93$, $SD = 10.87$) were significantly higher than those of the reference group, employees aged 30-39 ($M = 43.41$,

$SD=13.24$). Mean scores and standard deviations are presented for the two age categories in table 11.1, below.

Table 11: ANOVA Results for Opportunities for Advancement Subscale by Age

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
30-39 years	Reference				
20-29 years	79.12	1	79.12	.52	.47
40-49 years	1341.27	1	1341.27	8.82	.003*
50 and older	246.28	1	246.28	1.62	.20
Total	5536.78	359			

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 11.1: Means and Standard Deviations for Opportunities Advancement Subscale by Age Category

	M	SD
20-29 years	44.79	11.50
30-39 years	43.41	13.24
40-49 years	47.93	10.87
50 or older	46.67	13.57

ANOVA revealed an overall significant differences in Organizational Environment subscale mean scores among age groups ($F(3,356)=23.74, p=.03$). The results from the post hoc Scheffe' test, however, indicated that the differences specific age groups were not significant ($p=.12$)

Although MANOVA indicated overall model significance as presented above, the follow-up ANOVAs for the three subscales, Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect and Competency Practices, indicated that differences among age

groups were not significant: Length of Position Tenure ($F(3, 356)=1.727, p=.16$), Perceived Fairness and Respect ($F(3, 356)=.82, p=.48$), and Competency Practices ($F(3, 356)=.2.38, p=.07$).

MANOVA calculations were made to determine differences in mean vectors among age categories on the three bureaucratic values scales, Neutral Competence, Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales. Significant difference was found among multiple age groups on all three scales (Wilks' $\Lambda=.97 F(3,354)=4.06, p<.01$ multivariate $\eta^2=.03$). ANOVA tests were calculated for each bureaucratic value.

Although ANOVA calculation for Neutral Competence Scale by age categories indicated significant differences overall ($F(3, 356)=2.76, p=.04$), the result of the Scheffe' post hoc test did not reveal significant differences among particular groups ($p=.40$).

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Age.

Significant differences were found in the mean scores of the Opportunities for Advancement subscale between age categories using a MANOVA statistical test (Wilks' $\Lambda=.93, F(1, 351)= 4.14, p<.001$, multivariate $\eta^2=.04$). The procedure was followed by an ANOVA calculation. ANOVA revealed that mean scores of employees aged 40-49 ($M=47.93, SD=10.87$) were significantly higher ($F(3,356)=3.09 p<.03$) that those of employees aged 30-39 ($M=43.41, SD=13.24$). Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 11, "Federal civil service employees will have significantly

different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by age group,” is accepted.

The MANOVA calculation also revealed no significant differences on other subscales of Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, or Competency Practices among age categories. Based on these results, Research Hypotheses 10 and 12 through 15 are not accepted.

A MANOVA calculation to determine mean vector differences in the Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales among age groups revealed no significant differences among specific age groups. Based on this result Research Hypotheses 16 through 18 are not accepted.

Self-Identified Ethnic Communities. Crosstabulation revealed significant differences ($\chi^2(3, N=360)=57.07, p=.000 V=.23$) in the numbers of self-identified ethnic community members among religious affiliation groups (see Appendix E, table E4). The predominant self-identified ethnic community among all respondents was Amhara (45.0%, n=162), and the predominant religious affiliation for all respondents was Ethiopian Orthodox (76.9%, n=277). Thus, it was not surprising to find that the majority of Amhara were Ethiopian Orthodox (87.0%, n=141) and that the majority ethnic community within the Ethiopian Orthodox category was Amhara (50.9%, n=141). For all ethnic categories, Ethiopian Orthodox was the majority religious affiliation ranging from 92.0 percent (n=23) of those identified as Tigray to 51.2 percent (n=22) of those identified

as Oroma. Within the Oroma group, however, over one-third were Protestant affiliates (34.9%, n=15).

There were no other significant relationships between respondents on the basis self-identified ethnic community group by any of the personal work characteristics independent variables.

A MANOVA test was conducted to determine if any mean vector differences among ethnic community groups on the subscales existed. No significant differences were found. A summary of the MANOVA results is presented below in table 12.

A MANOVA test was conducted to determine if any mean vector differences among ethnic community groups on the bureaucratic values scales existed. No significant differences were found. A summary of the MANOVA results is presented in table 13, below.

Table 12: MANOVA Results for All Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Self-Identified Ethnic Group

Group	Wilks' Λ	<i>F</i>	df	<i>p</i>	η^2
Tigrai	Reference				
Amhara	.99	.69	3	.66	.01
Oroma	.99	.78	3	.59	.01
Other	.99	.76	3	.60	.01
Declined to Answer	.99	.83	3	.55	.01

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 13: MANOVA Results for All Bureaucratic Values Scales by Self-Identified Ethnic Group

Group	Wilks' Λ	<i>F</i>	df	<i>p</i>	η^2
Tigrai	Reference				
Amhara	<1.0	1.29	3	.28	.01
Oroma	.99	.72	3	.54	<.01
Other	.99	.87	3	.46	<.01
Declined to Answer	<1.0	<.50	3	.69	<.01

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Self-Identified Ethnic Community. A MANOVA procedure was used to determine significant differences in mean scores among self-identified ethnic community categories. No significant differences were found on Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices subscales. MANOVA calculations revealed no significant differences in mean scores on the Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales among self-identified ethnic community categories. Based on these analyses, Research Hypotheses 19-27 are not accepted.

Religious Affiliation. Among religious affiliations, there were significant differences by length of employment ($\chi^2=(9, N=360)=18.51, p=.030 V=.13$). Among the Ethiopian Orthodox category, 41.2 percent (n=114) had worked 16 years or longer, and those employees comprised 83.2 percent of that length of employment group. Nearly

half (47.6%, $n=10$) of those in Other religious affiliate category had worked 16 years or longer, and only one from that religious category had worked 11-15 years. The remaining distribution of religious affiliate groups' among length of employment categories was relatively even ranging from 15.5 percent ($n=43$) of Ethiopian Orthodox working 6-10 years to 35.3 percent of Muslims ($n=6$) working 11-15 years (see Appendix I, table I5).

MANOVA calculations were made to determine differences in mean vectors among religious affiliation categories on the six subscales. A significant difference was identified between religious categories on the subscale of Length of Position Tenure (Wilks' $\Lambda=.95$ $F(6,354)=3.80$, $p<.01$ multivariate $\eta^2=.05$). An ANOVA test was calculated for the subscale Length of Position Tenure. No other significant differences were on the other subcategories were indicated.

The ANOVA test revealed that an overall difference in subscale means among religious affiliation categories was significant ($F(3, 356)=6.01$, $p<.01$). Results of the ANOVA calculation are presented below in table 14. Results of a Scheffe's post hoc test showed that the mean scores for civil service employees in the Other religious category ($M=4.52$, $SD=.93$) were significantly lower than those of the reference group, Ethiopian Orthodox ($M=5.30$, $SD=.82$). The Length of Position Tenure Subscale had a minimum possible score of 1 and a maximum possible score of six. Mean scores and standard deviations for the Length of Position Tenure subscale are presented by religious affiliation category in table 14.1 below.

Table 14: ANOVA Results for Length of Position Tenure Subscale by Religious Affiliation

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Ethiopian Orthodox	Reference				
Protestant	1.72	1	1.72	2.42	.12
Muslim	<.001	1	<.001	.001	.98
Other	11.75	1	11.75	16.56	<.001**
Total	265.32	359			

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 14.1: Means and Standard Deviations for Length of Position Tenure Subscale by Religious Affiliation

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Ethiopian Orthodox	5.30	.82
Protestant	5.09	.973
Muslim	5.29	.77
Other	4.52	.93

Results of the MANOVA calculation revealed no significant differences in mean vectors on the Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales among religious affiliation categories. The results of the MANOVA procedure are presented below in table 15.

Table 15: MANOVA Results for All Bureaucratic Scales by Religious Affiliation Category

Group	Wilks' Λ	F	df	p	η^2
Ethiopian Orthodox Protestant	Reference				
Muslim	.99	1.02	3	.38	.01
Other	.90	1.31	3	.27	.01
	<1.0	.34	3	.76	<.01

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Religious Affiliation. A significant difference was found in mean scores of the Length of Position Tenure subscale among religious affiliation categories using a MANOVA (Wilks' $\Lambda=.95$ $F(6,354)=3.80$, $p=.003$ multivariate $\eta^2=.054$) procedure followed by an ANOVA test ($F(3, 356)=6.01$, $p=.001$). Out of a possible maximum score of six, Federal civil service employees in the Other religious affiliation category had a significantly lower mean score on this subscale ($M=4.52$, $SD=.93$) than did those employees in the Ethiopia Orthodox category ($M=5.30$, $SD=.82$). Research Hypothesis 30, "Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Length of Position Tenure subscale by religious affiliation category," is accepted on the basis of the results of this analysis. MANOVA calculations revealed no significant differences in mean vectors on the Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices subscales among religious affiliation categories. Research Hypotheses 28, 29, and 31-33 are not accepted

Based on calculation of a MANOVA test, there were no significant differences in mean vectors on the Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales among religious affiliation categories. Research Hypotheses 34 through 36 are not accepted.

Main Earner. Length of employment differed significantly among main earners ($\chi^2=(3, N=360)=26.14, p<001 V=.27$). Nearly half of main earners (43.2% $n=111$) had worked 16 years or longer, and more than a quarter 26.1% $n=67$) had worked 11=15 years. Not unexpectedly, 81.0 percent ($n=111$) of those working 16 or more years were main earners.

A MANOVA test was conducted to determine if any mean vector differences between main earner categories on the six subscales existed. No significant differences were found (Wilks' $\Lambda=.98 F(6,353)=1.22, p=.30$ multivariate $\eta^2=.02$).

MANOVA calculations revealed a significant difference between mean vectors on bureaucratic values scales and main earner categories (Wilks' $\Lambda=.98 F(3,356)=2.62, p=.05$ multivariate $\eta^2=.02$). An ANOVA calculation showed that the significant difference was between main earner categories on Neutral Competence Scale ($F(1, 358)=4.86, p=.03$). Main earners having a higher mean Neutral Competence Scale ($M=54.21, SD=12.37$) than those who indicated they were not the main earner for their family ($M=51.09, SD=11.50$). The Neutral Competence Scale had a minimum possible score of 3 and a maximum score of 85. The results of the ANOVA calculation are shown

in table 16, below. Mean scores and standard deviations of the Neutral Competence Scale by main earner status are given in table 16.1, below.

Table 16: ANOVA Results for Bureaucratic Values Scales by Main Earner

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Neutral Competence	715.25	1	715.25	4.86	.03*
Representativeness	22.82	1	22.82	.86	.36
Executive Leadership	<.001	1	715.25	<.001	.99
Total Neutral Competence	53353.53	359			
Total Representativeness	9538.00	359			
Total Executive Leadership	6344.60	359			

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 16.1: Means and Standard Deviations on Neutral Competence Scale by Main Earner

	M	SD
Main Earner	54.21	12.37
Not Main Earner	51.09	11.50

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Main Earner. MANOVA calculations revealed no significant differences in mean vectors on the Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices

subscales (Wilks' $\Lambda=.98$ $F(6,353)=1.22$, $p=.30$ multivariate $\eta^2=.02$). Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 37 through 42 were not accepted.

The MANOVA test did reveal, however, a significant difference in mean vectors for Neutral Competence Scale by main earner category and no significant differences in Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales mean values by main earner category (Wilks' $\Lambda=.98$ $F(3,356)=2.62$, $p=.05$ multivariate $\eta^2=.02$). The ANOVA test showed that the difference in mean scores by main earner category for Neutral Competence Scale was significant ($F(1, 358)=4.86$, $p=.03$). The maximum possible value for Neutral Competence Scale is 85. Main earners had a higher mean Neutral Competence Scale ($M=54.21$, $SD=12.37$) than those who indicated they were not the main earner for their family ($M=51.09$, $SD=11.50$). On the basis of the results from this analysis, Research Hypothesis 43, "Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by main earner category," is accepted. Also on the basis of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 45 and 45 are not accepted.

Work/Life Balance. More than three-quarters of respondents (78.9% $n=284$) indicated being able to cope with demands of work and home. There was a significant difference in this variable by length of employment categories ($\chi^2=(3, N=360)=8.15$, $p=.04$ $V=.15$). Among those who indicated being able to balance work and home demands, nearly half (41.5%, $n=118$) had worked 16 or more years. The second highest number of employees able to balance demands of work and home were those who had

worked 11-15 years (23.2%, n=66). More than one-fifth of employees categorized themselves as unable to balance work and home and were distributed across all length of employment categories with exactly 25 percent in each category (0-5 years n=19, 6-10 years n=19, 11-15 years, n=19, 16 or more years n=19).

A MANOVA calculation was performed on the mean vectors for the six subscales by work/life balance categories. Significant differences were found in the mean values of the six subscales by those who indicated being able to balance work and home demands and those who indicated they could not (Wilks' $\Lambda=.95$ $F(6,353)=2.92$, $p=.01$ multivariate $\eta^2=.05$). The ANOVA test indicated that Opportunities for Advancement ($F(1,358)=5.79$, $p=.02$) and Perceived Fairness and Respect ($F(1,358)=9.33$, $p<.01$) subscales differed significantly by employee category. Results of the ANOVA calculation are shown in table 17, below.

Those able to balance work/life had a higher mean Opportunities for Advancement score ($M=46.04$, $SD=12.17$) than those indicating they could not balance work/life ($M=42.20$, $SD=13.03$). The minimum possible score for Opportunities for Advancement subscale was 3 and the maximum possible value was 63. Those indicating balancing work/life had a higher mean Perceived Fairness and Respect score ($M=13.33$, $SD=2.48$) than those indicating they were unable to balance work/life ($M=12.34$, $SD=2.66$). The minimum possible score for Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale was 3 and the maximum possible value was 18. Mean scores and standard deviations of the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale and the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by work/life balance status are given below in tables 17.1 and 17.2, respectively.

Table 17: ANOVA Results for Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Work/Life Balance

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Length of Position Tenure	.47	1	.47	.64	.43
Organizational Environment	24.23	1	24.23	3.05	.08
Perceived Fairness and Respect	59.05	1	59.05	9.33	.002*
Competency Practices	.93	1	.93	.05	.82
Discrimination Scale	2.30	1	2.30	.09	.76
Opportunities for Advancement	883.09	1	883.09	5.79	.02*
Total Length of Position Tenure	265.32	359			
Total Organizational Environment	2868.22	359			
Total Perceived Fairness and Respect	2325.38	359			
Total Competency Practices	6778.86	359			
Total Discrimination Scale	8728.40	359			
Total Opportunities for Advancement	55536.78	359			

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 17.1: Means and Standard Deviations on Fairness and Respect Subscale by Work/Life Balance

	M	SD
Able to Balance	13.33	2.48
Unable to Balance	12.34	2.66

Table 17.2: Means and Standard Deviations on Opportunities for Advancement Subscale by Work/Life Balance

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Able to Balance	46.04	12.17
Unable to Balance	42.20	13.03

Using the MANOVA test, significant differences (Wilks' $\Lambda=.97$ $F(3,356)=4.27$, $p<.01$ multivariate $\eta^2=.04$) were found in the mean vector values of Neutral Competence Scale and in the mean vector values of Executive Leadership Scale by work/life balance status. The ANOVA test indicated that mean values on these two bureaucratic values were significantly different by employee category: Neutral Competences Scale ($F(1,358)=5.91$, $p=.02$), and Executive Leadership Scale ($F(1,358)=158.92$, $p<.01$). ANOVA also revealed that employees who indicated being able to balance work/life demands had significantly higher mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale ($M=54.12$, $SD=11.87$) than those who could not ($M=50.32$, $SD=12.97$). The minimum possible value on the Neutral Competence Scale was 3 and the maximum possible value was 85. Similarly, those able to balance work/life demands had higher mean Executive Leadership Scales ($M=22.75$, $SD=4.03$) than those who could not ($M=21.12$, $SD=4.60$). The minimum possible value on the Executive Leadership Scale was 3 and the maximum possible value was 34. Results of the ANOVA calculation are shown in table 18, below. Mean scores and standard deviations of Neutral Competence and Executive Leadership Scales by work/life balance status are given below in tables 18.1 and 18.2, respectively.

Table 18: ANOVA Results for Bureaucratic Values Scales by Work/Life Balance

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Neutral Competence	865.94	1	865.94	5.91	.02
Representativeness	.130	1	.13	<.01	.94
Executive Leadership	158.92	1	158.92	9.20	<.01
Total Neutral Competence	53353.53	359			
Total Representativeness	9537.99	359			
Total Executive Leadership	6344.60	359			

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Table 18.1: Means and Standard Deviations on Neutral Competence Scale by Work/Life Balance

	M	SD
Able to Balance	13.33	2.48
Unable to Balance	12.34	2.66

Table 18.2: Means and Standard Deviations on Executive Leadership Scale by Work/Life Balance

	M	SD
Able to Balance	13.33	2.48
Unable to Balance	12.34	2.66

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Work/Life Balance. MANOVA calculations revealed significant differences in mean vectors on the Opportunities for Advancement and Perceived Fairness and Respect subscales (Wilks'

$\Lambda=.95$ $F(6,353)=2.92$, $p=.01$ multivariate $\eta^2 <.05$). Employees able to balance work/life demands had significantly higher mean values on both subscales. Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypothesis 47, “Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Opportunities for Advancement subscale by work/life balance category,” is accepted. Based on the results of this analysis, also, Research Hypothesis 48, “Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Perceived Fairness and Respect subscale by work/life balance category,” is accepted. Research Hypotheses 46, and 49 through 51 are not accepted.

A MANOVA procedure revealed significant difference in mean vectors on the Neutral Competence and Executive Leadership Scales by work/life balance category Wilks' $\Lambda=.97$ $F(3,356)=4.27$, $p<.01$ multivariate $\eta^2 =.04$). Employees able to balance work/life demands had significantly higher mean values on both bureaucratic value scores. Based on this analysis, Research Hypothesis 52, “Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Neutral Competence Scale by work/life balance category,” is accepted. Also, Research Hypothesis 54, “Federal civil service employees will have significantly different mean scores on the Executive Leadership Scale by work/life balance category,” is accepted. Research Hypothesis 53, based on these analyses, is not accepted.

Work Overtime. Crosstabulations revealed no significant relationships between demographic or personal work characteristics variables by work overtime categories.

A MANOVA test was conducted to determine if any mean vector differences between work overtime categories existed on the subscales Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices. No significant differences were found (Wilks' $\Lambda=.99$ $F(6,353)=.68$, $p=.67$ multivariate $\eta^2=.01$).

MANOVA was calculated to determine if any mean vector differences between work overtime categories on the subscales existed. No significant differences were found (Wilks' $\Lambda=.99$ $F(3,356)=.94$, $p=.42$ multivariate $\eta^2=.01$).

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Work Overtime. A MANOVA procedure was used to determine significant differences in mean scores on the subscales between work overtime categories. No significant differences were found on Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices subscales (Wilks' $\Lambda=.99$ $F(3,356)=.94$, $p=.42$ multivariate $\eta^2=.01$). Based on the results of these analyses, Research Hypotheses 55 through 60 are not accepted.

MANOVA calculations revealed no significant differences in mean scores on the Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales between work overtime categories (Wilks' $\Lambda=.99$ $F(3,356)=.94$, $p=.42$ multivariate $\eta^2=.01$). Based on the results of these analyses, Research Hypotheses 61-63 are not accepted.

Length of Employment. Significant differences in the numbers of employees by length of employment within particular categories have been presented previously. In summary these variables were age categories, religious affiliation categories, main earner categories, and work/life balance categories.

A MANOVA test was performed to determine if significant differences in mean vector values existed in the six subscales by length of employment categories. The test revealed that there were no significant differences in the mean values. Results of the MANOVA test are shown in table 19, below.

Table 19: MANOVA Results for All Bureaucratic Values Subscales by Length of Employment Category

Group	Wilks' Λ	<i>F</i>	df	<i>p</i>	η^2
0-5 years	reference				
6-10 years	.94	1.86	6	.09	.03
11-15 years	.98	1.13	6	.35	.02
16 years	.97	1.73	6	.11	.03

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

A second MANOVA procedure was calculated to determine if significant differences in mean vectors of the Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales existed by independent variable categories. No significant differences were found. Results of the MANOVA test are shown below in table 21.

Table 20: MANOVA Results for All Bureaucratic Values Scales by Length of Employment Category

Group	Wilks' Λ	F	df	p	η^2
0-5 years	reference				
6-10 years	<1.0	.46	3	.71	<.01
11-15 years	.99	1.13	3	.34	.01
16 years	.98	2.27	3	.08	.02

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Length of Employment. A MANOVA procedure was used to determine significant differences in mean scores on the subscales between length of employment categories. No significant differences were found on Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, Organizational Environment, Discrimination, Opportunities for Advancement, or Competency Practices subscales. Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 64 through 69 are not accepted.

MANOVA calculations revealed no significant differences in mean scores on the Neutral Competence, Representativeness or Executive Leadership Scales between work length of employment categories. Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 70 through 72 are not accepted.

Summary of Results on Subscales and Bureaucratic Values Scales by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics Factors. The results of these bivariate and multivariate analyses answer Research Questions One and Two. The results support,

in part, affirmative answers to these research questions. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership did differ by both demographic and personal work characteristics on five unique factors. The significant factors were gender, age category, religious affiliation category, main earner category, and work/life balance category. Table 21, shown below, summarizes the dependent variables that were significantly affected by these five factors and the alternative hypotheses that are accepted based upon the results of bivariate and multivariate statistical analyses.

Table 21: Dependent Variables by Significant Factors and Hypotheses Accepted

Alternative Hypotheses Accepted	Dependent Variable by Factor	Direction of Relationship with Factor
6	Organizational Environment Subscale by Gender	Positive, Males
11	Opportunities for Advancement Subscale Age	Positive, Category Aged 40-49 Years (Reference Category = 30-39 Years)
30	Length of Position Tenure by Religious Affiliation	Inverse Category "Other Religion" (Reference Category = Ethiopian Orthodox)
43	Neutral Competence Scale by Main Earner	Positive, Main Earner
47	Opportunity for Advancement Subscale by Work/Life Balance	Positive, Work/Life Balance
48	Perceived Fairness and Respect Subscale by Work/Life Balance	Positive, Work/Life Balance
52	Neutral Competence Scale by Work/Life Balance	Positive, Work/Life Balance
54	Executive Leadership Scale by Work/Life Balance	Positive, Work/Life Balance

Factors as Predictors of Bureaucratic Values Scales

Three MLR models were constructed for each bureaucratic value scale. The first model used the eight demographic and personal work characteristic variables plus four subscales unrelated to the dependent bureaucratic value scale being tested in a particular model. The model was calculated with all variables in the first iteration. A second iteration, model two, was calculated using the stepwise method for selecting variables. The stepwise method adds one variable at a time to the model at a preset significance level (.05) with regard to the variable's contribution to the model, i.e. the model's ability to account for variance in the dependent variable. The procedure recalculates the model after each new variable has been added and removes variables that no longer contribute to the change in significance of the F statistic at a preset level of significance (.10). The more parsimonious model was selected and compared to a third model. The third MLR model regressed two bureaucratic values scales as independent variables on the third bureaucratic value scale in order to determine the accuracy of the two factors to explain the variance in the dependent variable.

Each of the final two models were calculated in order to test Research Hypotheses 73 through 78 and answer Research Question Three. Additionally, the more parsimonious of the two models is the representation of the particular bureaucratic value in the context of CBVT. In other words, the MLR models were constructed in order to determine how well CBVT, as measured by this study, modeled the perceived bureaucratic values of the Ethiopian federal civil service employees who were study

participants. Results of the MLR modeling are discussed in the context of testing Research Hypotheses 73 through 78 and answering Research Question 3.

Research Question Three

3. Does CBVT model the bureaucratic values of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership as perceived by Ethiopian federal civil service employees?

Neutral Competence Scale by Demographic, Personal Work Characteristics and Subscales Factors, Model One (NC1). MLR was used to construct a model to determine the ability of 12 independent variables to predict the dependent variable Neutral Competence Scale. The independent variables were: gender [*q45*], age [*dumage1, dumage 2, dumage3*], self-identified ethnic community [*dumeth1, dumeth2, dumeth3, dumeth4*], religious affiliation [*dumrelg1, dumrelg2, dumrelg3*], main earner [*q12*], work/life balance [*rec14*], work overtime [*rec15*], and length of employment [*dumloe1, dumloe2, dumloe3*], Discrimination [*discrMSC*], Length of Position Tenure [*jbtncsps*], Perceived Fairness and Respect [*fairsca2*], and Organizational Environment [*orenviro*]). Data screening and tests for homogeneity, and variance co-variance were completed as discussed in Chapter III. Correlations among variables in the full model were significant but acceptable ($r = -.15, p < .001$ to $r = .44, p < .001$) based on suggested ranges for correlation ($r =$ within $\pm .85$). Multicollinearity was acceptable based on suggested

tolerance $>.1$. Tolerance in the model was $>.21$. (Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996; Mertler and Vannatta 2002).

Regression results of the first iteration of the full model (NC1) indicated that the overall model significantly predicts the Neutral Competence Scale, $R = .49$, $R^2_{adj} = .196$, $F(21, 338) = 5.16$, $p < .001$. However, the model accounts for only 19.6 percent of variance in the Neutral Competence Scale. A summary of the regression coefficients is presented in Appendix G, table G1 and shows that only four of the 12 variables significantly contributed to the model: Main Earner, and subscales Discrimination, Perceived Fairness and Respect, and Organization Environment. All factors were positively related to Neutral Competence Scale. A positive relationship between a factor and the dependent variable indicates that for each unit of change in the dependent variable the independent variable will change by a multiple of the unadjusted beta value in the same direction. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Predicted Score on Neutral Competence Scale} = & 26.98 + 3.31(\text{Main Earner}) \\ & + .52(\text{Discrimination}) + 1.12(\text{Perceived Fairness and Respect}) + .54(\text{Organization} \\ & \text{Environment}). \end{aligned}$$

The stepwise regression model NC2 yielded a significant model with approximately the same level of explanation of variance, $R = .46$, $R^2_{adj} = .199$, $F(5, 354) = 18.80$, $p < .001$ in five iterations. The model accounts for 19.9 percent of variance in the Neutral Competence Scale. The model summary showing the contribution to change in the model by adding the variables is shown in Appendix J, table J4.2. Because the

results of the stepwise regression model found the same significant factors as Model NC1 plus an additional factor, a third model was not calculated. The summary of regression coefficients presented below in table 22 shows that five factors significantly contributed to the model: main earner, declined to answer (those who chose not to disclose identification with a particular ethnic community), and the Perceived Fairness and Respect, Discrimination, and Organization Environment subscales. All factors were positively related to Neutral Competence Scale. Within the model the five factors explained 99.0 percent of the variance in model equation. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\text{Predicted Score on Neutral Competence Scale} = 32.27 + 1.26(\text{Perceived Fairness and Respect}) + .52(\text{Discrimination}) + .55(\text{Organization Environment}) + 3.47(\text{Main Earner}) + 1.26(\text{Declined To Answer}).$$

Table 22: Coefficients for Neutral Competence Model NC2, 5 Factors – Stepwise Method

Factors	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	32.27		10.12	<.001**		
Self-Identified Ethnic Community						
Tigrai			(reference)			
Declined to answer	1.26	.26	5.37	<.001**	.34	.28
Main Earner	3.47	.13	2.71	.007*	.12	.14
Subscales						
Discrimination	.52	.21	4.27	<.001**	.29	.22
Perceived Fairness and Respect	1.26	.26	5.37	<.001**	.34	.28
Organization Environment	.55	.13	2.53	.01*	.26	.13

* significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Neutral Competence Scale by Representativeness and Executive Leadership

Factors, Model 2 (NC3). MLR was used to construct a model to determine the ability of Representativeness [*repscor2*] and Executive Leadership [*execscr2*] Scales to predict the dependent variable, Neutral Competence Scale. Data screening and tests for homogeneity, and variance co-variance were completed as discussed in Chapter III. Correlations among variables in the model were significant and low ($r=.28, p<.001$ [*repscor2*] and $r=.38, p<.001$ [*execscr2*]) and acceptable based on suggested ranges for correlation ($r=$ within $\pm .85$). Multicollinearity was acceptable based on suggested tolerance $>.1$. Tolerance in the model was .92 (Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996; Mertler and Vannatta 2002).

Regression results of the full model (NC3) indicated that the overall model significantly predicts the Neutral Competence Scale, $R= .42, R^2_{adj} = .170, F(2, 357)= 37.79, p<.001$. However, the model accounts for only 17.0 percent of variance in the Neutral Competence Scale. A summary of the regression coefficients is presented in table 23, below, and shows that both of the other bureaucratic values scores significantly contributed to the model. Since there were only two factors used in the model, no stepwise procedure was calculated. Within the model the two factors explained 51.0 percent of the variance in the model equation. Both factors were positively related to Neutral Competence Scale. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\text{Predicted Score on Neutral Competence Scale} = 23.22 + .46(\text{Representativeness}) + .93(\text{Executive Leadership}).$$

Table 23: Coefficients for Neutral Competence Model NC3, 2 Factors

Factors	<i>B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	23.22		6.61	<.001**		
Representativeness	.46	.19	3.84	<.001**	.28	.20
Executive Leadership	.93	.32	6.4	<.001**	.38	.32

* significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results of Neutral Competence Scale by Factors. Two regression models were produced each using 12 factors regressed on Neutral Competence Scale, NC1 and NC2. The more parsimonious model was the stepwise regression method model, which was significant at $p < .001$; the model explained 19.9 percent of variance in the dependent variable. All factors were positively related to the dependent variable. Ninety-nine percent of the variance in the dependent variable that was accounted for by the model was explained by five factors.

A third MLR model (NC3) was calculated using Neutral Competence Scale as the dependent variable and Representativeness Scale and Executive Leadership Scale as the independent variables. The model was significant at $<.001$; however the model only explained 17.0 percent of variance in the dependent variable. Within the model the two factors explained 51.0 percent of the variance in the model equation.

Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 73, “Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of neutral competence as represented by Neutral Competence Scale will be predicted by gender, age, ethnic community, religious affiliation, main earner status, work/life balance, work

overtime, length of employment, and Discrimination, Length of Position Tenure, Perceived Fairness and Respect, and Organization Environment subscales,” is accepted in part. The results support main earner, declined to answer, and subscales Discrimination, Perceived Fairness and Respect, and Organization Environment as strong predictors within a model of low predictability of Neutral Competence Scale.

Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 74, “Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of neutral competence as represented by Neutral Competence Scale will be predicted by Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales,” is accepted. The results support Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales as moderate predictors within a model of fair predictability of Neutral Competence Scale.

Representativeness Scale by Demographic, Personal Work Characteristics and Subscales Factors, Model 1 (REPI). MLR was used to construct a model to determine the ability of 12 independent variables to predict the dependent variable Representativeness Scale. The independent variables were: gender [*q45*], age [*dumage1*, *dumage 2*, *dumage3*], self-identified ethnic community [*dumeth1*, *dumeth2*, *dumeth3*, *dumeth4*], religious affiliation [*dumrelg1*, *dumrelg2*, *dumrelg3*], main earner [*q12*], work/life balance [*rec14*], work overtime [*rec15*], and length of employment [*dumloe1*, *dumloe2*, *dumloe3*], Competency Practices [*comptcsc*], Opportunities for Advancement [*opptysc*], Perceived Fairness and Respect [*fairsca2*], and Organizational Environment [*orenviro*]). Data screening and tests for homogeneity, and variance co-variance were

completed as discussed in Chapter III. Correlations among variables in the full model were significant but acceptable ($r = -.48, p < .001$ to $r = .54, p < .001$) based on suggested ranges for correlation ($r =$ within $\pm .85$). Multicollinearity was acceptable based on suggested tolerance $> .1$. Tolerance in the model was $> .22$.

Regression results of the first iteration of the full model (REP1) indicated that the overall model significantly predicts the Representativeness Scale, $R = .42, R^2_{adj} = .121, F(21, 338) = 3.36, p < .001$. However, the model accounts for only 12.1 percent of variance in the Representativeness Scale. A summary of the regression coefficients is presented in Appendix G, table G2 and shows that only four of the 12 variables significantly contributed to the model: Amhara (self-identified ethnic community), and the Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Organization Environment subscales. Three of the factors were positively related to Representativeness Scale. The Amhara self-identified ethnic category was inversely related. In an inverse relationship between an independent factor and a dependent variable, for every positive unit of change in the dependent variable the independent variable score decreases one multiple of the unadjusted beta value. For the regression models dummy variables were created in order to represent the various ethnic categories mathematically. The reference ethnic category was Tigrai. Thus for every positive unit of change in Representativeness Scale by the Tigrai category the Amahara category experienced a decrease of 2.19 multiplied by the Amhara Representativeness Scale. The prediction equation based on this model is:

Predicted Score on Representativeness Scale = 12.59 -2.19(Amhara)
 +.20(Competency Practices) + .005(Opportunities for Advancement) +
 .36(Organization Environment).

The stepwise regression model REP2 yielded a significant model with approximately the same level of explanation of variance, $R = .39$, $R^2_{adj} = .141$, $F(5, 354) = 12.83$, $p < .001$ in five iterations. The model accounts for 14.1 percent of variance in the Representativeness Scale. The model summary showing the contribution to change in the model by adding the variables is shown in Appendix J, Table J5.2. Because the results of the stepwise regression model found the same significant factors as Model REP1 plus an additional factor, a third model was not calculated. The summary of regression coefficients presented in table 24, below, shows that five factors significantly contributed to the model: Amhara, gender, and Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Organization Environment subscales. Four of the factors were positively related to Representativeness Scale, and, as previously explained, the self-identified ethnic category Amhara was inversely related to Representativeness scale. Four factors were positively related and one was inversely related to the dependent variable. Within the model, the five factors accounted for 78.9 percent of the variance in the model equation. The prediction equation based on this model is:

Predicted Score on Representativeness Scale = 11.462 + .22(Competency Practices) + .39(Organization Environment) – 1.56(Amhara) + .006(Opportunities for Advancement) + 1.49(Gender).

Table 24: Coefficients for Representativeness Model REP2, Factors – Stepwise Method

Factors	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	11.46		8.65	<.001**		
Gender	1.49	.10	2.03	.043*	.06	.11
Self-Identified Ethnic Community						
Tigrai			(reference)			
Amhara	-1.58	-.15	-3.10	.002*	-.14	-.16
Main Earner						
Subscales						
Competency Practices	.22	.19	3.74	<.001**	.24	.20
Opportunities for Advancement	<.001	.14	2.66	.008*	.22	.14
Organization Environment	.39	.21	4.1	<.001**	.24	.21
* significant at .05, ** significant at .001						

Representativeness Scale by Neutral Competence and Executive Leadership

Factors, Model 3 (REP3). MLR was used to construct a model to determine the ability of Neutral Competence [*neutcsc*] and Executive Leadership [*execscr2*] Scales to predict the dependent variable, Representativeness Scale. Data screening and tests for homogeneity, and variance co-variance were completed as discussed in Chapter III. Correlations among variables in the model were significant and low ($r=.28$, $p<.001$ *neutcsc* and $r=.28$, $p<.001$ *execscr2* and acceptable based on suggested ranges for correlation ($r=$ within $\pm .85$). Multicollinearity was acceptable based on suggested tolerance $>.1$. Tolerance in the model was .86. (Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996; Mertler and Vannatta 2002)

Regression results of the full model (REP3) indicated that the overall model significantly predicts the Representativeness Scale, $R = .34$, $R^2_{adj} = .109$, $F(2, 357) = 22.94$, $p < .001$. However, the model accounts for only 10.9 percent of variance in the Representativeness Scale. A summary of the regression coefficients, presented below in table 25, shows that both of the other bureaucratic values scales significantly contributed to the model. Both factors were positively related to Representativeness Scale. Since there were only two factors used in the model, no stepwise procedure was calculated. Both factors were positively related to Representativeness Scale. Within the model, the two factors explained 41.0 percent of variance in the model equation. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\text{Predicted Score on Representativeness Scale} = 10.09 + .21(\text{Neutral Competence}) + .20(\text{Executive Leadership}).$$

Table 25: Coefficients for Representativeness Model REP3, 2 Factors

Factors	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	10.09		6.55	<.001**		
Executive Leadership	.25	.20	3.73	<.001**	.28	.19
Neutral Competence	.009	.21	3.84	<.001**	.28	.20

* significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results of Representativeness Scale by Factors. Two regression models were produced each using 12 factors regressed on Representativeness Scale,

REP1 and REP2. The more parsimonious model was the stepwise regression method model, which was significant at $p < .001$; the model explained 14.1 percent of variance in the dependent variable. One factor, Amharha ethnic category, was inversely related to the dependent variable. Seventy-eight percent of the variance accounted for in the dependent variable by the model was explained by five factors.

A third MLR model (REP3) was calculated using Representativeness Scale as the dependent variable and Neutral Competence Scale and Executive Leadership Scale as the independent variables. The model was significant at $< .001$; however the model only explained 10.9 percent of variance in the dependent variable. Within the model, the two factors explained 41.0 percent of variance in the model equation.

Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 75, “Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of representativeness as represented by Representativeness Scale will be predicted by gender, age, ethnic community, religious affiliation, main earner status, work/home balance, work overtime, length of employment, and subscales Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, Perceived Fairness and Respect, and Organization Environment,” is accepted in part. The results support Amhara, gender, and Competency Practices, Organization Environment, and Opportunities for Advancement subscales as moderate predictors within a model of fair predictability of Representativeness Scale.

Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 76, “Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of representativeness as represented by Representativeness Scale will be predicted by

Neutral Competence and Executive Leadership Scales,” is accepted. However, the results support Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales as moderately low predictors within a model of very low predictability of Neutral Competence Scale.

Executive Leadership by Demographic, Personal Work Characteristics and Subscales Factors, Model 1 (EXEC1). MLR was used to construct a model to determine the ability of 12 independent variables to predict the dependent variable Executive Leadership Scale. The independent variables were: gender [*q45*], age [*dumage1*, *dumage2*, *dumage3*], self-identified ethnic community [*dumeth1*, *dumeth2*, *dumeth3*, *dumeth4*], religious affiliation [*dumrelg1*, *dumrelg2*, *dumrelg3*], main earner [*q12*], work/life balance [*rec14*], work overtime [*rec15*], and length of employment [*dumloe1*, *dumloe2*, *dumloe3*], Competency Practices [*comptcsc*], Opportunities for Advancement [*opptysc*], Discrimination [*discrmisc*], Length of Position Tenure [*jbtncscps*,]). Data screening and tests for homogeneity, and variance co-variance were completed as discussed in Chapter III. Correlations among variables in the full model were significant but acceptable ($r = -.48, p < .001$ to $r = .33, p < .001$) based on suggested ranges for correlation ($r =$ within $\pm .85$). Multicollinearity was acceptable based on suggested tolerance $> .1$. Tolerance in the model was $> .22$.

Regression results of the first iteration of the full model (EXEC1) indicated that the overall model significantly predicts the Executive Leadership Scale, $R = .51$, $R^2_{adj} = .215$, $F(21, 338) = 5.687, p < .001$. The model accounts for 21.5 percent of variance in the Executive Leadership Scale. A summary of the regression coefficients is presented in

Appendix G, table G3 and shows that seven of the 12 variables significantly contributed to the model: gender, age 20-29 years (employee's age category), work/life balance category, 16 or more years (length of employment), and the Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Discrimination subscales. Six of the factors were positively related to Executive Leadership Scale while gender (in this case female since the reference group was male) was inversely related to Executive Leadership Scale. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Predicted Score on Executive Leadership Scale} = & 12.09 - 1.32(\text{gender}) + 1.70(\text{age} \\ & 20\text{-}29 \text{ years}) + 1.20(\text{work/life balance category}) + 2.14 (16 \text{ or more years}) + \\ & .25(\text{Competency Practices}) + .005(\text{Opportunities for Advancement}) + \\ & -.005(\text{Discrimination}). \end{aligned}$$

The stepwise regression, model EXEC2, yielded a significant model with the same level of explanation of variance, $R = .48$, $R^2_{adj} = .215$, $F(6, 353) = 17.37$, $p < .001$ in six iterations. The model accounts for 21.5 percent of variance in the Executive Leadership Scale. The model summary showing the contribution to change in the model by adding the variables is shown in Appendix J, table J6.2. Because the results of the stepwise regression model EXEC2 found one fewer significant factor than did Model EXEC1 and produced the same R^2_{adj} at the same significance level, a third model was not calculated. Model EXEC2 is the more parsimonious model. The summary of regression coefficients presented in table 26, below, shows that six factors significantly contributed to the model: gender, work/life balance category, 16 or more years (length of

employment), and the Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Discrimination subscales. Five factors were positively related to the dependent variable while female gender was inversely related. Within the model the six factors accounted for 97.0 percent of the variance in the model equation. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\text{Predicted Score on Executive Leadership Scale} = 12.87 - 1.31(\text{female}) + 1.23(\text{work/life balance category}) + 1.10(16 \text{ or more years}) + .25(\text{Competency Practices}) + .005(\text{Opportunities for Advancement}) + -.17(\text{Discrimination}).$$

Table 26: Coefficients for Executive Leadership Model EXEC2, 6 Factors – Stepwise Method

Factors	<i>B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	12.87		12.56	<.001**		
Gender	-1.31	-.11	-2.35	.02*	-.10	-.12
Length of Employment						
0-5 years			(reference)			
16 years or longer	1.10	.13	2.69	.008*	.14	.14
Work/Life Balance	1.23	.12	2.52	.01*	.16	.13
Subscales						
Competency Practices	.25	.26	5.23	<.001**	.33	.27
Opportunities for Advancement	.005	.15	.230	.003*	.27	.16
Discrimination	-.17	.20	3.94	<.001**	.29	.21

* significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Executive Leadership by Neutral Competence and Representativeness Factors,

Model 3 (EXEC3). MLR was used to construct a model to determine the ability of

Neutral Competence [*neutcsc*] and Representativeness [*repscor2*] Scales to predict the dependent variable, Executive Leadership Scale. Data screening and tests for homogeneity, and variance co-variance were completed as discussed in Chapter III. Correlations among variables in the model were significant and low ($r=.38, p<.001$ *neutcsc* and $r=.28, p<.001$ *repscor2* and acceptable based on suggested ranges for correlation ($r=$ within $\pm.85$). Multicollinearity was acceptable based on suggested tolerance $>.1$. Tolerance in the model was .92 (Munro 2001; Tabachnick and Fidell 1996; Mertler and Vannatta 2002)

Regression results of the full model (EXEC3) indicated that the overall model significantly predicts the Executive Leadership Scale, $R= .42, R^2_{adj} = .168, F(2, 357)= 37.30, p<.001$. However, the model accounts for only 16.8 percent of variance in the Executive Leadership Scale. A summary of the regression coefficients is presented below in table 27 and shows that both of the other bureaucratic values scales significantly contributed to the model. Since there were only two factors used in the model, no stepwise procedure was calculated. Both factors were positively related to the dependent variable. Within the model, the two factors explained 50.9 percent of the variance in the model equation. The prediction equation based on this model is:

$$\text{Predicted Score on Executive Leadership Scale} = 13.39 + .11(\text{Neutral Competence}) + .15(\text{Representativeness}).$$

Table 27: Coefficients for Neutral Competence Model NC3, 2 Factors

Factors	<i>B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	23.22		6.61	<.001**		
Representativeness	.46	1.9	3.84	<.001**	.28	.20
Executive Leadership	.93	.32	6.4	<.001**	.38	.32

* significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results of Executive Leadership Scale by Factors. Two regression models were produced each using 12 factors regressed on Executive Leadership Scale, EXEC1 and EXEC2. The more parsimonious model was the stepwise regression method model, which was significant at $p < .001$; the model explained 21.5 percent of variance in the dependent variable. One factor, female, was inversely related to the dependent variable. Ninety-seven percent of the variance accounted for in the dependent variable by the model was explained by six factors.

A third MLR model (EXEC3) was calculated using Executive Leadership Scale as the dependent variable and Neutral Competence Scale and Representativeness Scale as the independent variables. The model was significant at $<.001$; however the model only explained 16.8 percent of variance in the dependent variable. Within the model the two factors explained 50.9 percent of the variance in the model equation.

Based on the results of this analysis, Research Hypotheses 77, “Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of executive leadership as represented by Executive Leadership Scale will be predicted by gender, age, ethnic community, religious affiliation, main earner status, work/life balance, work

overtime, length of employment, and Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, Discrimination, and Length of Position Tenure subscales,” is accepted in part. The results support gender, work/life balance category, 16 or more years (length of employment), and the Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Discrimination subscales as strong predictors within a model of low predictability of Executive Leadership Scale.

Research Hypotheses 78, “Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the bureaucratic value of executive leadership as represented by Executive Leadership Scale will be predicted by Neutral Competence and Representativeness Scales,” is accepted based on the results of this analysis. However, the results support Representativeness and Executive Leadership Scales as only moderate predictors within a model of fair predictability of Executive Leadership Scale.

Summary of Results of Bureaucratic Values Scales by Factors. The results of these multivariate analyses answer Research Questions Three. The results support an affirmative answer to the research question. Perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership did predict the values of Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales in CBVT. Overall, however, factors were not strong predictors of bureaucratic values scales. Significant demographic factors were gender, and self-identified ethnic community category. Two demographic variables were inversely related to dependent variables in two models. In the Representativeness Scale

model, Amhara ethnic category was inversely related to Representativeness Scale. In the Executive Leadership model, female gender was inversely related to Executive Leadership Scale. Significant personal work characteristics factors were main earner status, work/life balance, and 16 years or longer employment. Significant bureaucratic values subscales were Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, Discrimination, and Perceived Fairness and Respect. Table 28, below, presents a summary of the bureaucratic values scales by factors. The statistic measuring the amount of variance explained by the model is given (R^2_{adj}). Also, the statistic indicating the amount of variance within the regression model that each factor explains is given (β).

Table 28: Summary of Bureaucratic Values Models by Factors

Factors	Contribution β	Bureaucratic Value	Variance Explained R^2_{adj}
Self-Identified Ethnic Community Tigray (reference group)			
“Declined to Answer”	.26		
Main Earner	.13	Neutral	
Discrimination	.21	Competence	20.0%
Perceived Fairness and Respect	.26		
Organization Environment	.13		
Self-Identified Ethnic Community Tigray (reference group)			
Amhara	-.15		
Male (reference group)			
Female	.10	Representativeness	14.1%
Competency Practices	.19		

Table 28: Summary of Bureaucratic Values Models by Factors (continued)

Factors	Contribution β	Bureaucratic Value	Variance Explained R^2_{adj}
Opportunities for Advancement	.14		
Organization Environment	.21		
Male (reference group)			
Female	-.11		
Work/Life Balance	.12	Executive	21.5
16 Years or Longer Employment	.13	Leadership	
Competency Practices	.26		
Opportunities for Advancement	.15		
Discrimination	.20		

Relative Positiveness of Bureaucratic Values Scales. An integral characteristic of CBVT is the dynamic relationship among Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership. This is a difficult phenomenon to measure and cannot be fully captured in a static survey. Nevertheless, the study attempted to take a snapshot of these values by means of constructed scales that included various data levels from categorical to continuous. No standardization of question type was attempted, and there was no common metric among the bureaucratic values scales

In order to determine the relative relationship among the three bureaucratic values scales, the values for each scale were converted to z -scores. The conversion to z -scores standardized the scales so that variances were equal across the measurements. A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to determine if one scale was more positive relative to

the other two scales. The analysis was performed in order to test Research Hypothesis 79 and to answer Research Question Four.

Research Question Four

4. Do Ethiopian federal civil service employees perceive any one of the three bureaucratic values as most positive relative to the other two bureaucratic values?

The results of the repeated measures ANOVA indicated no significant difference among the scales. Results of the analysis on the z-scores of Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales are shown below in table 29.

Table 29: Repeated Measures ANOVA Results for Comparison of Bureaucratic Values Scales Converted to z-Scores, Between Subjects Effects

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Bureaucratic Values					
Linear	.000	1	.000	.000	1.00
Quadratic	.000	1	.000	.000	1.00
error (BURVALUS)	223.67	359	.623		
	271.09	359	.755		

*significant at .05, ** significant at .001

Summary of Results of Relative Positiveness of Bureaucratic Values Scales. A repeated measures ANOVA was calculated to determine if, among the z-score conversions of Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales one scale was more positive relative to the other two scales. Results showed no significant difference among the scales. Based on this analysis, Research Hypothesis 79, “There will be a significant difference in the degree to which the values of Neutral Competence, Representativeness, and Executive Leadership Scales converted to z-scores are perceived to be positive by Ethiopian federal civil service employees,” is not accepted. Results of the analysis answered Research Question Four in the negative. Based on CBVT, Ethiopian federal civil service employees did not perceive any one of the bureaucratic values as most positive compared to the other two values.

Qualitative Results

Documents Review

The three documents reviewed were the Constitution of Ethiopia, Civil Service Proclamation 262/2002, and Regulation 77/2002. Information from the documents added “...insight into the shape of the study that previously was not apparent,” (Greene 1994, p. 213). In particular the documents highlighted the fact that legal bases for merit-based practices as indicated in Proclamation 262/2002 and due process practices as indicated in Regulation 77/2002 had not been in place prior to their adoption. This contrast served to reinforce the importance and substance of the effort to professionalize that the federal civil service had undertaken immediately prior to the study.

These documents provided a reference point for understanding comments made by respondents in open-ended questions and for understanding emerging results from quantitative analysis. Overall, the context provided by these documents helped to illustrate the distance between civil service reform theory and practice as it has been experienced in Ethiopia. To this same end, the information gathered by the semi-structured interviews illuminated the difficulty of making headway on the ground in a bureaucratic system while political elites are preoccupied with political survival.

Results from the documents review were informational versus structural. Among the outcomes of the review was the influence in survey development, instrumentation and analysis. One example of this influence was the inclusion of questions pertaining to fairness and respect in the survey instrument. Another influence was evident during data interpretation of the Discrimination and Organization Environment subscales. It was clear, for example, that employees were not yet well acquainted with due process rights within the civil service system or the creation of the Civil Service Administrative Tribunal, a commission to hear grievances and discrimination complaints (77/2002 2002). Without document review, the implication of this absence historically might have been missed and the fact that more than three-quarters of survey respondents still had no idea where to go for help might have been simply appeared as an anomaly.

Responses to Fair and Equitable Treatment

Question 19 (*q19*) provided respondents with the opportunity to indicate whether or not they had experienced fair or unfair treatment in the work environment on the basis of nine categories: gender, disability, ethnicity, age, religion, family responsibilities, health problems, educational background or job grade or classification. An open-ended “other” category was provided as well. Responses to question 19 were included as one of the subcategories within the Discrimination bureaucratic values subscale. Responses by category are shown in table 30, below, and were quite positive overall. Two areas in particular did have about 20 percent negative responses, however. These were comments about unfair treatment on the basis of ethnicity and on the basis of job classification. Although few responses to the open-ended question addressed the job classification issue, several responses shed light on treatment on the basis of ethnicity (table 31, below). One participant concisely captured dual concerns expressed by other participants about ethnic and political bias when they wrote, “In addition to ethnicity, there is political biasedness (sic).” Another employee indicated experiencing poor treatment, “Due to open criticism of unfair governance by top officials in the institution [and the] one-man ruling system.” Concerns about leadership skills were expressed by about one fourth of those providing written responses. One participant stated, “[There is] [l]ack of professional confidence in the managers and immediate supervisors.” As counterpoint, almost no unfair treatment was reported on the basis of personal characteristics aside from ethnicity, which is a very positive response indicative of acceptance of diversity among participants. As one respondent wrote, “[There is] no discrimination in [the] current organization.”

Table 30: Fair and Equitable Treatment Responses

Category	Yes (% of N=360)	No (% of N=360)
Gender	96	4
Disability	97	3
Ethnicity	81	19
Age	92	8
Religion	95	5
Family Responsibilities	95	5
Health Problems	97	3
Education	88	12
Job Classification	82	18

**Table 31: Open Ended Responses to “Other” by Category
n=32 (8% of N=360)**

Category	Yes (% of n=32)	No (% of n=32)
Political	0	28
Training	0	25
Leadership Skills	0	28
Seniority	0	9
There is no unfair treatment	9	0

General Comments by Respondents

The survey instrument offered respondents an opportunity to comment upon any subject they wished. Twenty percent of all respondents (n=72) volunteered comments on

a variety of subjects. Within those responding, gender, age, and self-identified ethnic community categories were represented. Respondents were 88% males, 12% females; 24% aged 20-29, 48% aged 30-39, 17% aged 40-49, and 11% aged 50 and older; and 49% Amhara, 18% Other, 14% Declined to Answer, 11% Oroma, and 8% Tigrai. About forty percent (n=29) of those who made general comments had also responded to Question 43, which was the question about self-identified ethnic community.

Comments included suggestions about survey administration and structure, and ideas for topics that were not addressed by the survey. A number respondents voiced distaste for questions about ethnic identity, expressed concerns about political interference in the work of the civil service, fear of retaliation, and frustrations about discrimination. Participants also expressed a variety of positive feelings that ranged from appreciation for the survey research, and expressions of optimism about hoped-for benefits from the new civil service reforms. Participants proposed a number of organization leadership, management, and supervisory questions that had not been included in the survey instrument. These types of questions had purposely not been addressed because the study was not intended as an assessment of supervisory skills and leadership. Clearly, however, respondents had a desire to make improvements in leadership, management, and organization quality. These may be topics for future research and are presently being explored through civil service programs (Ethiopian Delegation 2003). A table of comments organized by survey item categories is presented in Appendix F.

Semi-Structured Survey Comments

The purpose of the semi-structured interview is to elicit topical responses in a milieu that promotes spontaneous answers in the general direction of the interview theme (Fontana and Frey 1994). Less formal and more malleable than structured interview methodology, the semi-structured process promotes interaction between the interviewer and interviewee on the basis of rapport and interest as information emerges. Since standardization of the information produced through the interview process was not of concern in this study, interviewees were free to ask questions of the researcher, and new questions were posed to the interviewee based on emerging line of inquiry that appeared most fruitful to yield contextual information.

The interviews fulfilled two purposes. The first purpose was to gather information about the approaches, challenges, and accomplishments related to CSR efforts in Ethiopia. The second purpose, which was critical to the theoretical development of this study, was to garner the opinions of experienced civil service employees about existing bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism. The picture that emerged illustrated a country burgeoning under the weight of attempting simultaneous transformations of structural economic, political, government and social systems. In short, the picture that emerged was that of SSA countries as was introduced in Chapter I: insertion in the global system, garnering resources to stay afloat, attempting to modernize without adequate political, economic and technical capacity in place, and attempting to respond to the demands of the polity including root problems such as ethnic conflict.

The list of interview questions is given in Appendix C, and comments from survey participants are reported throughout Chapter V. Interviewees were voluble in their comments about the civil service and the reform programs, and because participants represented different organizational levels and responsibilities, their shared perspectives served to explicate the complexities facing Ethiopia's federal civil service system. There were six comprehensive themes that emerged from these interviews. The themes gave support to the validity of the study.

First, many civil service employees, and the bureaucracy in general, are, multitasked, over-tasked and activities are under-planned. "An extensive series of workshops were needed...strategic planning is difficult and continuous training on what it is and how to do it is needed." Second, due to political pressures and interference, there have been repeated failures at policy implementation including unplanned changes in policy direction. "We still have political appointees leading when we could have inserted neutral technocrats for implementing a strategic plan for stability and neutrality. That got discussed but never advanced," one interviewee remarked. Donor pressure to reform and comply was a third broad theme. This pressure was "...a two-edged sword..." meaning that some of the reforms were necessary, but not all reforms fit the structural and philosophical context of the Ethiopian civil service. The importance of historical context for CSR in Ethiopia in particular, was the fourth theme. Interviewees made a number of comparative references to CSR in other SSA countries indicating Ethiopia's uniqueness among them. "In relation to other reform movements in Africa, implementation of reform movements in Ethiopia has not been long or slow." Interestingly, Ethiopia's

history has several versions as Farer (1979), Negash (1996), Paul (2000), Zewdie (2001) and others have documented. The interviewees were right to insist on covering particular passages in Ethiopia's modern history to ground the logic of current efforts to move forward. A fifth theme was the ethnic thread that runs through the structural context of government by virtue of the constitution. The apparent paradox is that the federal government overtly insists on non-discrimination on the basis of ethnicity while at the killel level, as one interviewee illustrated, "Any[one, even less qualified] would get a job ahead of me if I weren't of the majority ethnic group in that region." The undercurrent of unease about ethnicity as a means to categorize individuals appeared to be a nagging issue. Sixth, and finally, fatigue was evident: donor fatigue, employee fatigue, resource fatigue, and emotional fatigue. One interviewee remarked that even the consultants brought in by the multilateral donors to help with CSR said, "You Ethiopians are trying to eat the elephant. The whole thing." There was laughter, but at the same time the frustration with an entire system, "...trying to do too much so nothing gets accomplished," was palpable. "Civil service employees working on the reform projects are working three days a week on the project and working two or three more days at their regular jobs trying to keep services going and trying to move ahead. Some are even working on Saturdays," which was remarkable since Saturday is considered to be the Sabbath in some of the religious faiths represented in the study.

One of the frustrating and yet most appealing qualities of qualitative research is the fact that the researcher is legitimately considered a research instrument as much involved in the process of discovery as the survey instrument (Denzin and Lincoln 1994;

Patton 1990). In light of this fact, it bears acknowledging that experiencing the character, commitment and diligence of the interviewees was one of the highlights of this study.

Summary of Data Analysis

The quantitative data analysis procedures outlined in Chapter III were followed in order to test the 79 research hypotheses and answer the four research questions posed by this study. In this section each research question is presented with a summary of findings about the question.

Research Questions One and Two Conclusions

Research Question One asked, “Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by demographic characteristics including self-identified ethnic community?” Table 28 (above) contains the predictor demographic variables with adjusted beta values that were shown to be significant in MLR modeling of each bureaucratic values scale. Within each model, demographic variables make a modest to low contribution to the model’s ability to predict the bureaucratic value scale. Among bureaucratic values models, it can be seen that two types of demographic variables appear, gender and self-identified ethnic group. The factors within each variable differ by model and also differ in the direction relation to the scale. The absolute value of the adjusted beta coefficient indicates the amount of variance within the model equation that the factor is able to explain. In other words, in the Neutral Competence Scale model, the

“Declined to Answer” factor contributed 26 percent of the model’s ability to accurately predict the Scale.

These findings indicate that bureaucratic values do differ by demographic characteristics, but only on two characteristics: self-identified ethnic community, specifically the Amhara and the “Declined to Answer” categories, and by gender.

Research Question Three asked, “Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by personal work characteristics?” Table 28 also shows the personal work characteristics that contributed to the MLR model. Across the three bureaucratic values models, only three personal work characteristics contributed to two of the models. Main earner had an adjusted beta coefficient of only .13 in the Neutral Competence Scale model, and work/life balance and the 16 years or longer employment category had low coefficients as well. It can be concluded that, overall, bureaucratic value scales differ by personal work characteristics.

Research Question Three Conclusion

Research Question Three asked, “Does CBVT model the bureaucratic values of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership as perceived by Ethiopian federal civil service employees?” Examining the adjusted R^2 coefficients shown in table 28, it can be seen that CBVT does predict the bureaucratic values across the three models but modestly. The Executive Leadership Scale model, for example, was able to explain 22 percent of the variance in the Executive Leadership Scale when

employing the factors shown, and, so was the strongest predictive model. For this and each of the other bureaucratic values scales, the subscale factors contributed significantly and were the strongest predictors of any of the factors within the models.

Research Question Four Conclusion

Research Question Four asked, “Do Ethiopian federal civil service employees perceive any one of the three bureaucratic values as most positive relative to the other two bureaucratic values?” The statistical test, repeated measures ANOVA, examined the relationship among the three bureaucratic values scales to determine if any of the scales were most positive in relative terms to the other two scales. Because the scales were not on a common metric, the scales values were converted to z-scores and compared. No significant differences could be detected. The answer to Research Question Four remains unknown.

Qualitative Analysis Summary

Data from the open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews provided richness and depth to the quantitative findings. Themes that emerged from the qualitative data confirmed the information that was gleaned from the literature, particularly about factors affecting perceptions of bureaucratic values on the ground in the context of Ethiopia. Concerns about bias based upon ethnic identity and political pressures emerged from both the survey data and the interviews. Other themes were workload,

donor pressure, historical context, fatigue, and over-reaching resource capacity both structurally and in terms of human capacity.

CHAPTER V

Findings, Discussion, and Conclusion

This study sought to determine the efficacy of Kaufman's (1956) competing bureaucratic values theory to model perceptions about bureaucratic values held by civil service employees working in the ethnic federalism of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. The study was grounded in the growing body of literature that addresses the presence of certain bureaucratic values as critical factors in the advancement of developing countries. The literature review identified a gap in knowledge about bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism. The specific research problem for the study was the fact that the influence of single-party-based executive leadership on the development of bureaucratic values in a country transitioning to liberal democracy is unknown. The research sought to answer four research questions that were generated from the overarching research question, which was: *Within the structural context of ethnic federalism, does Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory predict federal civil service employees' perceptions about bureaucratic values as measured by employee perceptions of competency practices related to hiring, transfer and promotion, career advancement opportunities, discrimination practices including bias based on ethnic identity, job stability, fairness and respect in the workplace, and organization attitudes toward disagreement, collaboration, and conformity?* The research questions and their answers are indicated throughout the discussion of the findings presented below.

Through the application of competing bureaucratic values theory, the study sought to establish an empirical interpretation of bureaucratic values as factors in the nexus between professional bureaucracy and the executive branch of the Ethiopian

government. The research attempted to measure the values of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership by analyzing demographic and personal work characteristics data and the perceptions of civil service employees about policies and practices related to bureaucratic values, which were Research Questions One, Two and Three as presented in Chapter I and discussed in Chapter IV. The research also attempted to determine empirically the relative relationship among the three competing bureaucratic values; the attempt to determine this relationship was Research Question Four, as presented above in Chapter I and discussed in Chapter IV.

By identifying and measuring these values, critical insight may be gained into the obstacles to democratic and development reform that manifest as tensions between reform efforts and applied civil service values. The presence or absence of these obstacles emerges as the gaps between espoused bureaucratic values and the perception of bureaucratic values held by civil service employees. In essence, the fundamental link between public policy implementation and democratic values held by the public is to be reflected in bureaucratic values. Syllogistically then, bureaucratic values represent a measure of how well the manner in which a government performs its responsibilities reflects the mandate of its electorate.

Data from the answers to a survey of the perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about bureaucratic values generated the data base that was used to complete the research. The sample was a purposive convenience sample. The data base contained 360 usable cases with three dependent variables (bureaucratic values scales) and 12 independent variables categorized as four demographic, four personal work characteristics, and six bureaucratic values subscales. Survey data were collected from

federal civil services employees who held a baccalaureate or higher degree. Employees from 18 out of 23 federal government ministries, agencies and commissions participated in the study.

The data were analyzed using descriptive, bivariate (Chi square, Phi and Cramer's V) and multivariate (multiple analysis of variance and multiple linear regression) statistical techniques. The analyses were made in order to test the ability of the Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory to model the perceived bureaucratic values of federal civil service employees working in an ethnic federalism.

Discussion

Predictors of Bureaucratic Values

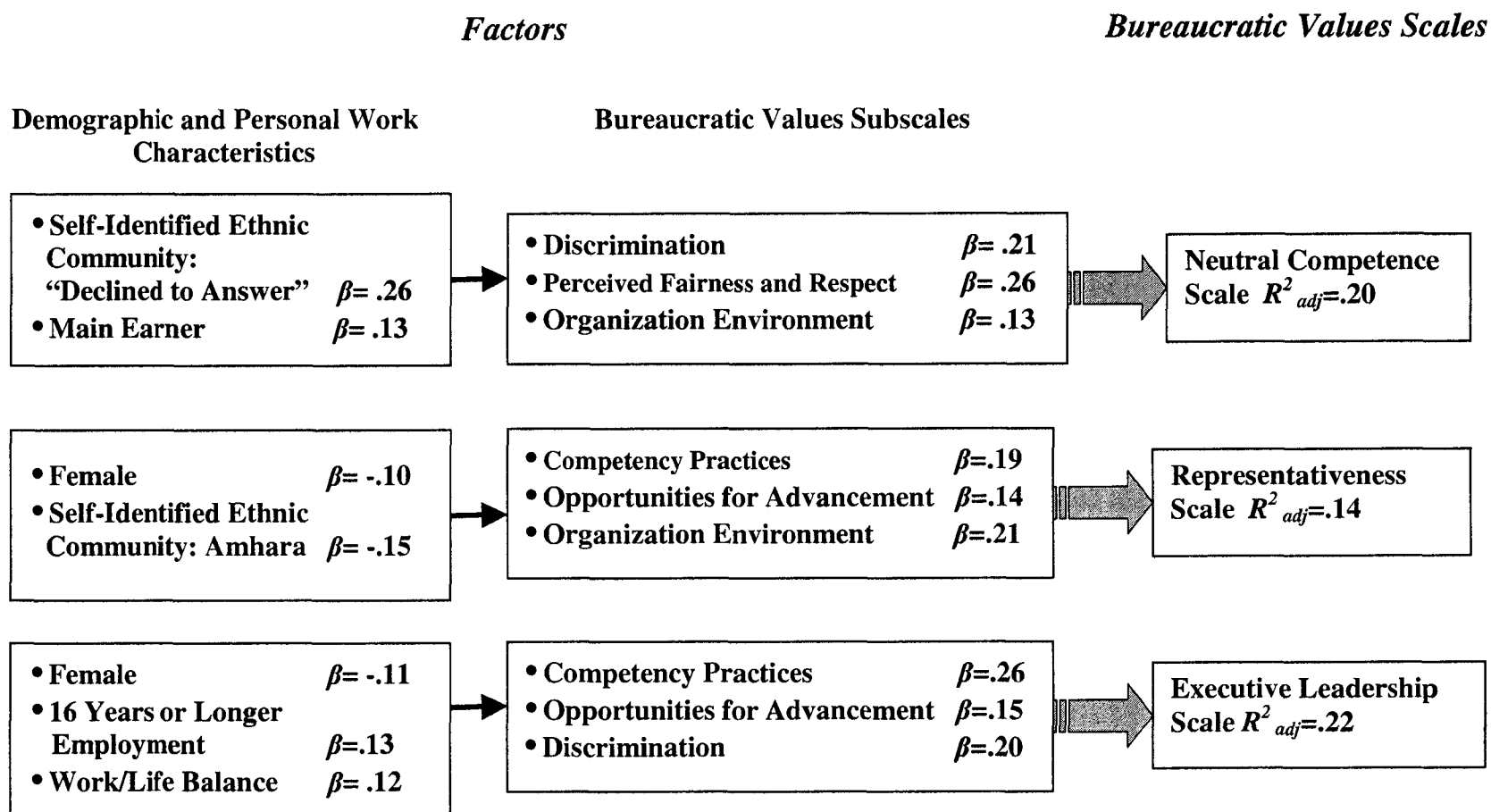
At the outset of the study, the bureaucratic values to be used in framing the research were identified using Herbert Kaufman's (1956) work on administrative doctrine. Kaufman, in developing his notion of competing bureaucratic values, identified three administrative doctrines: neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership. Kaufman's Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory described the dynamic of shifting predominance among these doctrines or values over time in reaction to public demands for policy reforms. These doctrines echoed the fundamental values of government written into the US constitution as distinguished in the late 19th century by Wilson (1883). Among others, Rohr (2002) and Ingraham (1999) explicated the fact that the values of a country's constitution, as a reflection of the will of a populace, also inform the bureaucratic values of the civil service. The existence and exploration of this linkage among constitution, polity, government, and bureaucratic values has been a focus of

classic and contemporary public administration literature including literature addressing civil service reform in SSA. The current research selected predictors of these three bureaucratic values based upon classic and contemporary bureaucratic theory, other civil service surveys, and civil service reform concerns in SSA.

The study was fruitful in that the research accomplished the exploratory goal of the study. The current research supports Kaufman's theory of competing bureaucratic values based on three multiple linear regression models, one for each bureaucratic value (see figure 5, below), and provides a positive answer to Research Question Three: *Does CBVT model the bureaucratic values of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership as perceived by Ethiopian federal civil service employees?* Each of the bureaucratic value models was statistically significant although accuracy in predicting the three bureaucratic values as perceived by federal civil service employees was modest and varied by model ($R^2_{adj} = .14-.22$). Factors that were found to be statistically significant predictors varied across models. The accuracy of combined factors within each respective model to predict the relevant bureaucratic value differed, also. Five factors were found to be the best predictors of Neutral Competence Scale; five factors were found to be the best predictors of Representativeness Scale; and six factors were found to be the best predictors of Executive Leadership Scale. The factors in each model are discussed below.

Neutral Competence Scale Model. The factors in the Neutral Competence Scale model, as previously defined in Chapter III, are: Self-Identified Ethnic Community “Declined to Answer,” Main Earner, Discrimination Subscale, Perceived Fairness and

Figure 5: Summary of Factors Affecting Civil Service Employees' Perceptions of Bureaucratic Values in an Ethnic Federalism



Respect Subscale, and Organization Environment Subscale. The fact that these factors were significant in the Neutral Competence Scale Model provided positive partial answers to Research Questions One: *Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by demographic characteristics including self-identified ethnic community?*, and Research Question Two: *Do perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the values of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership differ by personal work practices characteristics?*

The first factor in the Neutral Competence Scale model is a demographic variable related to ethnic identity. This factor is a point of interest in this study because of the linkage to ethnic identity as a structural principle of Ethiopia's constitution. The fact that an ethnic identity factor emerged as a significant predictor within the Neutral Competence Scale model has two implications. The first implication is that ethnic identity does play some role with regard to employees' perceptions about hiring, promotion, and other competency practices as identified in the survey. The second implication is that, whatever the perceived role of ethnic identity may be, that role is less positive for employees in the "Declined to Answer" category than for employees in the self-identified Tigray (statistical reference) category. It is outside the scope of the model to explain the role. The model does, however, indicate that ethnic identity is a concern expressed among employees. One interviewee noted, "The current government has a preoccupation with ethnic identity that is straining the cultural and social fabric within the civil service and in the country." The second factor is a personal work characteristic variable, main earner. This variable is noteworthy in terms of the bureaucratic need to

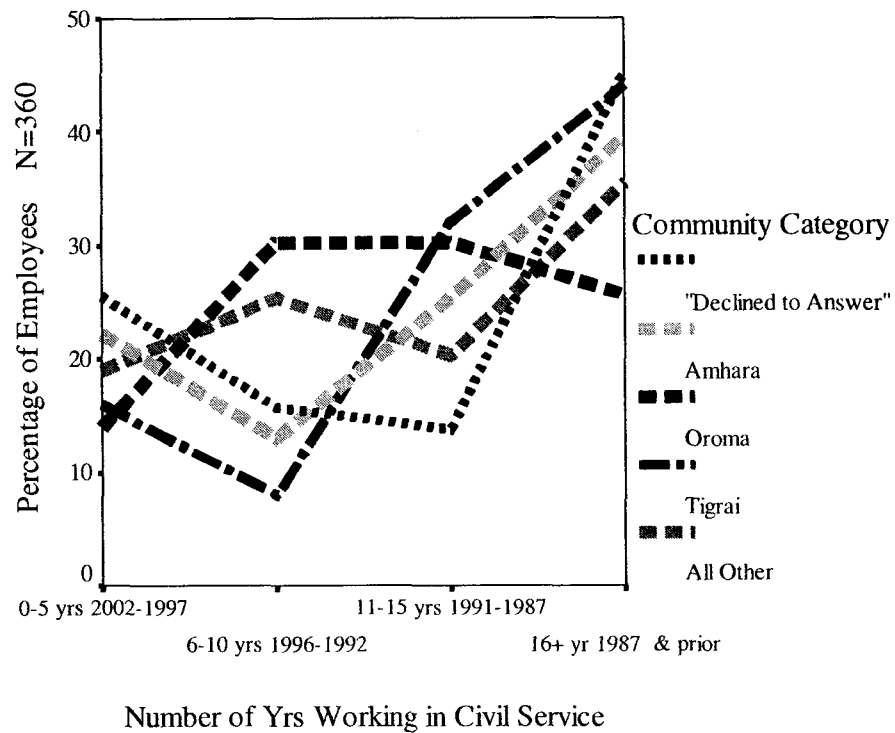
attract and maintain qualified employees. However, the prestige and security that is associated with holding a civil service position in the Ethiopian economy is important as well. Eighty percent of employment in Ethiopia is agrarian. One interviewee highlighted the importance of holding a steady civil service position in contrast to a position based on faltering agrarian conditions. “[Because of the economy] [t]he government is adopting an austerity approach to in general that includes civil service employees. Ten years ago the GNI [global national income per capita] was \$100USD. Now it is \$89USD.” The implication is that as the agrarian sector falters due to drought and other conditions, civil service employees who are main earners become increasingly sensitive and, perhaps, more positive toward the value of their positions.

The remaining three factors in the Neutral Competence Scale are bureaucratic values subscales. The first of these subscales, Discrimination, was linked to neutral competence by one interviewee who said that the government, “...has mandated a process of working with others, but there are problems. People in higher positions think subordinates are not working. People in different ethnic groups think that others are not working, and in regional areas even though practices might be good they are marginalized at the federal level.” The second subscale, Perceived Fairness and Respect, accounted for more than a quarter of the model’s explanatory power. Perceived Fairness and Respect was reflected in the comments of another interviewee. “The civil service has lost its institutional memory through retrenchments. Now civil service standards are being lowered because people with less education are being hired. Discrimination is made on the basis of the ethnic group printed right on the ID card.” Findings emerged from the data (see figure 6, below) to suggest that retrenchments in the civil service had

dramatic effects on workforce composition at two points in time. The first effect appears to coincide with the collapse of the *Derg* and takeover by the current government in 1991. This change is reflected in marked drops in the percentage of employees in particular ethnic groups at the 11-15 years length of employment category and most dramatically among the “Declined to Answer” category. Similarly, the second change appears to coincide with the 1997 Structural Adjustment Program retrenchment of federal civil service employees and is reflected in drops in percentages of employees at the 6-10 years of employment category, most markedly among the Tigrai category. The third significant factor was the Organization Environment Subscale. One interviewee addressed the concept of this subscale in this way:

In the context in which reforms are occurring, compared with [the notion of] ‘reinventing government,’ the [Ethiopian] government programs have not had laudable achievements. In a multi-party system a government in power for five years should be able to undertake what this government has and to achieve it in that time. Here it is different. We could have done better in the second round of elections [meaning voting in fewer candidates belonging to the dominant party or coalition parties during the 2000 elections]. Now other issues related to whatever the government wants take priority over the reform agenda.

Figure 6: Workforce Composition by Self-Identified Ethnic



Community

Summary, Neutral Competence Scale Model. The Neutral Competence Scale is a consistent measure in that all of the significant factors relate positively to the scale. Thus, main earners and those who chose not to self-identify with an ethnic community perceived a positive association among Neutral Competence in the civil service system and discrimination, organization environment, and fairness and respect. The factors within the model are able to explain 20 percent of the variance in perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about the concept of neutral competence as measured by this research.

Representativeness Scale Model. The factors in the Representativeness Scale model as previously defined in Chapter III, are: female gender, Self-Identified Ethnic

Community “Amhara,” Competency Practices Subscale, Opportunities for Advancement Subscale, and Organization Environment Subscale.

The first two factors in the Representativeness Scale model are demographic variables; the fact that these factors were significant in the Representativeness Scale Model provided positive partial answers to Research Questions One, as presented above. The first demographic variable, gender, indicates that females (males were the statistical reference group) were less enthusiastic in their perceptions about Representativeness on the bureaucratic scale than were males, which was supported by the remarks of one interviewee: “There are not many women in the expert category.” The second demographic characteristic was Self-Identified Ethnic Community Category “Amhara”. The factor is inversely related to the Representativeness Scale meaning that employees in this category perceive themselves as less represented than employees in the Tigray category (the statistical reference group). In the Representativeness Scale model, as in the Neutral Competence Scale model, ethnic identity emerges as a significant factor. However, the emergence of this factor in the Representativeness Scale model is, perhaps, more noteworthy than its emergence in the Neutral Competence Scale Model because the *raison d’être* for ethnic federalism is, theoretically, to assure representation for all ethnic groups. Interestingly, no direct comments were made about either of these ethnic groups in the qualitative data. Also, no personal work characteristic variables were significant predictors in this model.

The remaining three significant factors were bureaucratic values subscales; the fact that these subscales were significant in the Representativeness Scale Model provided positive partial answers to Research Question Three, as presented above. The

Competency Practices Subscale represented about one-fifth of the Representativeness model's ability to predict perceptions among civil service employees. One of the fundamental goals of the CSR program is to, "establish a system that may attract and retain competent professionals dedicated to serve the public," (Ethiopia Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 2002, pg. 1658). The predictivity of this factor was reflected in a high number of survey respondents' and interviewees' remarks about competence among civil service employees. One interviewee's comment in particular seemed to capture both the difficulty and the optimism associated with this value:

Implementation is very difficult for most policies. We have had a lot of training to implement these civil service reforms. This will eventually have a good outcome, I think, but the chain gets broken – the links [between agencies and people] are broken right now. The training will make people more cooperative and fruitful. There is a government-wide emphasis now with training at all levels...There is much broader consciousness of the need for reform among the civil service people. The government has made people more aware within the past two years.

The interviewee went on to remark that awareness was being raised, also, by foreign non-governmental organizations as these agencies worked with various populations of interest and government employees. The second subscale factor is Opportunities for Advancement. Remarks among survey respondents indicated problems with equitable access to training opportunities, although interviewee comments indicated massive training opportunities to a high number of employees. On the one hand, "[An] extensive

series of workshops on how to do performance evaluation and linking performance planning with strategic planning is underway with 100 classes involving about 100 institutions. This reform requires strong leaders,” remarked one interviewee. On the other hand, survey respondents indicated that access to career advancement opportunities were based on seniority rather than function. “[F]urther in-country or abroad training opportunities are mostly given to those working in the organization more than ten years,” and “...allowance [for] training should not be evaluated by the number of years of service, but by the impact of the training on the work.” From either perspective, however, these remarks support the significance of the Opportunities for Advancement component of the model. The third subscale, Organization Environment was a stronger predictor in this model than in the Neutral Competence model. However, its presence in both models confirms the significance of the construct as a component of CBVT.

Summary, Representativeness Scale Model. The Representativeness Scale model is positively predicted by four significant factors and inversely predicted by one significant factor. Results indicated that female employees perceive a positive association between Representativeness Scale and the subscales of Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Organization Environment but proportionally less (90%) so than their male counterparts. Those employees in the ethnic community category Amhara have a negative view of these same factors in relationship to the Representativeness Scale compared to employees in the Tigray ethnic community category. The significant factors within the model are able to explain 14 percent of the

variance in perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service employees about representativeness as measured by this research.

Executive Leadership Scale Model. The factors in the Executive Leadership Scale model as previously defined in Chapter III, are: female gender, 16 Years or Longer Employment, Work/Life Balance, Competency Practices Subscale, Organization Environment Subscale, and Discrimination Subscale. The fact that demographic, personal work characteristics and subscales of bureaucratic values are significant factors in this model affirms a positive partial answer to Research Questions One, Two and Three as presented above.

The first significant factor in the Executive Leadership model is the demographic variable gender. In this model, females have negative perceptions about Executive Leadership compared to males. However, there were no direct observations about differences in opinions between female and male perceptions on this value among the comments offered by survey respondents and interviewees. Females did not score significantly differently from men on the subscale factors in this model although females did score significantly lower than men on the survey items measured by the Executive Leadership Scale score on the survey. There are two significant personal work characteristic variables as factors in the model. The first of these factors is Work/Life Balance. Employees who perceived themselves as able to balance work/life demands also had a positive view of Executive Leadership in the model. The second work-related characteristic is the Length of Employment category 16 years or longer. Both of these variables suggest that employees who had developed work/life coping strategies and/or

who were experienced civil service employees who had endured significant changes in political regimes perceived Executive Leadership positively.

Summary, Executive Leadership Scale Model. The Executive Leadership Scale model is positively predicted by five significant factors and inversely predicted by one significant factor. Female employees perceived a positive association between Executive Leadership Scale and Competency Practices, Opportunities for Advancement, and Discrimination Subscales, but proportionally less (89%) so than their male counterparts. The factors within the model are able to explain 22 percent of the variance in perceptions of Ethiopian federal civil service about executive leadership as measured by this research.

Summary of Predictors of Bureaucratic Values

The current research attempted to capture the essential characteristics of bureaucratic values through a contemporary model of Herbert Kaufman's competing bureaucratic values theory and to translate these characteristics empirically. Not only are the constructs of neutral competence, representativeness and executive leadership broad, the tools developed to measure them are subjective. Nevertheless, the three bureaucratic values models developed by this study are modestly able to predict perceptions about bureaucratic values of federal civil service employees in the ethnic federalism of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

The Representativeness Scale model is the weakest model of the three ($R^2_{adj} = .14$). Although the factors within the model are supported in the literature, the five significant factors were able to account for slightly less than 80 percent of the model variance. The factors in each of the other models accounted for 97 percent or more of

model variance. One subscale in the original Representativeness Scale model, Length of Position Tenure, was very weak ($\alpha=.59$). Questions in this particular subscale were unable to adequately distinguish and capture the perceptions of survey participants about transfers or other position changes. Even though Length of Position Tenure scores were reported for all cases, the low inter-item reliability suggests that the factor has low discriminate reliability. This means that the latent factor(s) actually being measured may not have been Length of Position Tenure but some other tangential construct. Further, structural characteristics of the sample population, social desirability bias, and the delicacy of asking politically-oriented questions may have been obstacles to obtaining a stronger subscale.

An attempt was made to establish a relative measure of positiveness among the competing bureaucratic values scales; however, the results of the analysis showed no significant differences among the three scales, and, thus, indicates that no answer can be determined from the research to Research Question Four, which was: *Do Ethiopian federal civil service employees perceive any one of the three bureaucratic values as most positive relative to the other two bureaucratic values?* . The inability of the analysis to demonstrate a relative positiveness among the three bureaucratic values scales should be ascribed more to the fact that there was no common metric among the scales than to any lack of a relationship among the constructs of neutral competence, representativeness, and executive leadership.

Limitations of the Findings

A number of factors impinge on the external validity of this study. Selection bias was inherent due to the need to restrict participation to those employees with a baccalaureate or higher degree to assure reading and writing comprehension in English. Access to potential participants was restricted by voluntary agreement or lack of agreement on the part of the supervisor or department head to allow access to employees. Respondent participation within a consenting department or agency was voluntary as well. Consequently, no information is available about any differences that might have existed between the departments and agencies that agreed to allow access to employees as participants and those that did not. Likewise, no information is available about any differences between employees who volunteered to participate and those who did not, nor for employees who possessed a higher education degree and those who did not. Although confidentiality was kept to a maximum, social desirability bias was assumed to be a limitation, particularly for questions addressing sensitive issues such as ethnicity and religion.

One important and positive distinction about the physical limitation of distributing surveys only in the capital of the country, Addis Ababa, is that Addis is not an ethnically designated region but an administrative area. As such, Addis Ababa and the surrounding area offer the largest urban geographical location unassociated with any particular ethnic community. The city has a diverse cross section of the entire country's demographic mix. It must be noted, however, that, due to the limitations posed by the population frame and the sample size, the results of this study may not be generalizable to the whole of the Ethiopia federal workforce, particularly to those working in the rural areas

of the county regardless that approximately 33,000 out of 45,500 (73%) of federal employees are in located in the Addis Ababa area (Ethiopian Delegation, 2003; Federal Civil Service Commission, 2004).

Contribution to Theory

The current research provides support for the application of Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory as a framework for examining bureaucratic values as perceived by federal civil service employees in an ethnic federalism, namely Ethiopia. Other research has attempted to link certain aspects of bureaucratic values to economic development, good governance, corruption and state legitimacy. However, the literature indicated that a void existed in area of comprehensive assessment of bureaucratic values by the application of the CBVT framework. This research creates a contemporary Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory Model applicable to a developing country and provides the initial work that addresses this gap.

Recommendations

Policy Implications

Findings of this study suggest that a comprehensive analysis of an empirical interpretation of Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory could provide a foundation for explicating the values of the professional bureaucracy as influenced by the executive branch of government and the electorate. The examination of these values could act as a framework for discussion of the processes of bureaucratic change to meet the demands facing SSA countries and in particular those of Ethiopia. Specifically, the individual

models representing a contemporary iteration of Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory that were developed in this study provide a theoretically grounded translation of bureaucratic values into empirical measures. These tools, as expression of a contemporary CBVT model, can be employed to energize and guide discourse about government in the context of “instrumental” and “substantive” values; that is, “values for right ways of doing something, and values for right ways of being something” relative to a country’s constitution and polity (Hecl 2000, p. 233). The models and the contemporary CBVT developed in this study are instruments of empowerment that can be used to facilitate discussion about the desires of the people not simply in the context of what is to be done, but about the manner in which it is to be accomplished. Clearly, discussion of values in government is not new. However, the application of these bureaucratic values models does propose a new way to examine these issues, and, by extension, creates the potential for new strategies for aligning bureaucratic values, constitutional values, and the values of the polity .

The question of which bureaucratic value should be prominent or emphasized within a particular country setting is, at its core, a constitutional question for which competing bureaucratic values theory is a barometric rather than a prescriptive framework. In this context, the bureaucratic value of representativeness intuitively emerges as critical given the preamble of the Ethiopian constitution, which purports consensus among multi-nationalities and multi-ethnic communities on behalf of the federation. Concomitantly, the development of neutral technical competence within the federal civil service, one of the four challenges facing SSA countries as discussed in Chapter I, is vital to Ethiopia’s advancement as a nation. The emphasis on executive

leadership, with regard to government leadership, may be less of a concern than the current issue of legitimacy, as discussed in Chapter II. Regardless of the fact that the study was unable to determine a perceived predominant value among federal civil service workers, findings do indicate that significant concerns exist about differences in bureaucratic practices that are perceived to be based upon ethnic identity and gender. These are characteristics that are integral to the values of representativeness and neutral competence within the government and, in the case of gender, indicate that very different realities exist for women than for men with regard to executive leadership. As previously discussed, identifying and measuring these values provides critical insight into obstacles to democratic and development reforms that manifest as gaps between espoused bureaucratic values and the perception of bureaucratic values held by civil service employees. To carry the syllogistic interpretation to its logical conclusion, the bureaucratic values measured by this research suggest that the manner in which the government has performed its responsibilities is out of accord with the mandate of the electorate as espoused in the constitution.

These policy implications suggest three recommendations for action. Two of the recommendations involve specific policy activities, while the third recommendation is broad and, ideally, should be a preliminary action step. The first of the two specific policy recommendations is that the Civil Service Commission create a task force to identify, discuss and confirm existing policies that reflect bureaucratic values consistent with the constitution and the expressed desires of the electorate. The findings from this research could be used as a preliminary framework for identifying those policies. The task force would review and distill from existing policies a conceptualization of

bureaucratic values into an appropriate context, such as a white paper or values handbook, which would provide civil service employees with the direction and knowledge to infuse these values into the workplace environment and into the performance of public services delivery.

The second recommendation is that the suggested Civil Service Commission task force use the preliminary findings from this study to identify specific policy implementations and practices that contradict the espoused bureaucratic values. A relevant example is the study finding that suggests that women's organizational reality, with regard to perceptions about executive leadership, is significantly different from that of men. Once specific elements of this perceived disparity were explored, these elements might be addressed through diversity training, gender sensitivity training, and scrutiny for consistent and fair enforcement of harassment, discrimination, and competency-based hiring practices.

The third policy recommendation is broad. Successful public policy development and implementation require the political will of those in political power. The identification and iteration of competing bureaucratic values may pose a particular challenge to this need since the outcome of any open forum of public discussion about values may carry negative political implications. This type of policy activity requires a mature approach by government toward establishing a safe and open process for public dialogue, assessing current political stances, and the acceptance and movement of public values forward into public discourse and public service implementation.

Future Research

Findings of the study suggest four lines of future research. The first line of research is related to one of the three goals of the current study. The first goal of the study was to provide a baseline of information for comparative research. This goal has been accomplished; however, additional analyses of current research findings are needed in order to identify gaps in the models and improve their interpretation. The second line of proposed research is to validate the current study. This line of research would include the administration of a survey instrument based upon refinements of the current instrument. Distribution of the new survey would be among a random sample of civil service employees throughout Ethiopia with the inclusion of a comparison group. This second line of proposed research would establish some measure of generalizability and improved accuracy in terms of statistical interpretation of the models. Such an enhanced iteration of the current research could potentially provide the basis for comparative study across disciplines including, economic models along the lines of Evans and Rausch (2002). The third line of suggested research is to conduct a similar survey among government employees at the killel level in Ethiopia. Myriad challenges to governments at the regional level in transitioning countries such as devolution and decentralization have been documented in the literature. It may be that identifying and clarifying any differences in bureaucratic values that exist between the regional and federal levels could facilitate resolution of these differences and policy implementation. The fourth line of proposed research is the further exploration of the contemporary competing bureaucratic values theory as a model for application in other transitioning countries.

Conclusion

The current research supports the efficacy of Competing Bureaucratic Values Theory in modeling perceptions about bureaucratic values held by federal civil service employees in the ethnic federalism of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. The bureaucratic values models that were created to represent CBVT had modest accuracy in predicting factors related to employees' demographic and personal work characteristics and to employees' perceptions related to bureaucratic values. The findings indicate that statistically significant predictors of bureaucratic values vary across individual Neutral Competence, Representativeness and Executive Leadership value models. Predictors also vary in strength and direction. Results of the analysis of relative positiveness among the three bureaucratic values models were unable to determine the influence of one-party executive leadership on the bureaucratic values of the civil service in Ethiopia. However, the current research does provide a framework that can facilitate discourse about bureaucratic values. Clarification of the identity and vision for national bureaucratic values of the Civil Service in empirical terms for consideration by the polity, the government, and external entities can facilitate an appropriate context in which the answers to policy questions that ask, "Is this appropriate to Ethiopia?" can be measured.

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APPENDIX A**Ethiopia Civil Service Survey Administered in
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia July – September 2002**

Date

Dear Madam or Sir:

Your assistance and cooperation are needed to conduct a study of the reforms and changes that have been occurring in Ethiopia's Ministries, Departments and Agencies since 1994 (European calendar). The questionnaire is being given to a sample of individuals in various government organizations in order to determine how these reforms and changes are viewed by you and your colleagues.

The study will be used for academic purposes to establish a baseline of information for government reform in Ethiopia. The results will be viewed in the context of other countries that have also undertaken strategies to advance and promote a competent and diverse professional bureaucracy. The questionnaire has been developed and modified based on the information gathered from other national surveys of countries interested in achieving excellence in bureaucracy.

All surveys are absolutely confidential. We appreciate your willingness to participate in this survey. Thank you for your time and effort.

Sincerely,

Berhanu Mengistu, Ph.D., Professor
International Conferences on Public Management, Policy and Development
Graduate Center for Urban Studies and Public Administration
Old Dominion University
Norfolk, Virginia 23529
U.S.A.

In cooperation with,

Ato Mohammed Seid
Addis Ababa University
Faculty of Business and Economics
Department of Management and Public Administration

Instructions for completing the questionnaire:

- **All surveys are confidential.**
- **Do not put your name on the survey or the envelope.** Your individual survey will not be identified, and all responses will be reported only in aggregate.
- Please read each question and check the response that most accurately reflects your perception.
- “Your organization” or “my organization” means the ministries, departments or agencies in which you have worked from 1994 to the present (European calendar).
- If a question does not seem to apply to you, please mark “don’t know” and continue.
- If you make an error, cross it out and indicate your actual response.

1. What organization(s) (Ministry, Department or Agency) have you worked for on a full-time basis since 1994? Please list your current organization first.
-
-

1.1. Are you also working elsewhere on a part-time basis? Yes No

2. Since 1994 have you worked or are you currently working in a *killel other than the one that you identify as the one you are from?* Yes No

2.1 If yes, please tell us where: _____

2.2 If yes, please tell us why: _____

2.3 If yes, was this move: Temporary Permanent

3. Since 1994 have you worked or are you currently working in any place ***other than*** Addis Ababa? Yes No

3.1 If yes, please tell us where: _____

3.2 If yes, please tell us why: _____

You and Your Organization

Please note that there are no right or wrong answers. Your opinion is what we are interested in.

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your organization?
(Please check only one box in each row.)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
4. I have a clear idea about how my job relates to my organization's objectives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
5. My contributions and achievements are recognized and acknowledged	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. It is safe to openly discuss and challenge the way things are done in my organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I am treated with fairness and respect	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I believe that my organization applies a policy of diversity in hiring, promotion and transfer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. My organization respects individual differences (e.g. cultures, backgrounds, ideas)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Employees are recognized for their contributions and achievements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Employees are encouraged to apply their different talents to the full extent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Work Life Balance

12. Are you the main income earner/provider for your family? Yes No

13. Are you the primary caretaker for children or a sick or elderly relative? Yes No

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
14. I have been able to balance my home and work life without hindering my career	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Do you regularly work in excess of your required hours (overtime)?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>		

If you answered "yes" to question 15, go to question 16, otherwise, go to question 19.

	Under 4 hours	4 to 8 hours	9 to 16 hours	Over 16 hours
16. In the average week, how many hours do you work in excess of your required hours?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
17.	I have to work beyond the required hours to keep up with my workload	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	I have to work beyond my regularly scheduled hours because I am expected to be seen there early and late.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Fairness and Equality

19. Do you feel that you have been treated unfairly by your immediate supervisor, general manager, colleagues or others in your organization as a result of any of the following:

	Yes	No	Does not apply
a. Gender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Disability	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Ethnicity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Age	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Religion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Family responsibilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Health problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Educational background	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. Grade/Job classification	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j. Other (<i>please specify</i>)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about **polices, procedures and promotions** and their application on the basis of individual **merit**.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
a. Recruitment of candidates from outside of the organization who are equally or more qualified than internal candidates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
b.	Promotion and advancement from within the organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c.	Horizontal transfers (e.g. from department to department or from ministry to ministry)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d.	Appraisal (e.g. annual formal evaluation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e.	Training and development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f.	Overall I think the way people are recruited into my organization is fair and based on individual merit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g.	Overall I think the way people are transferred from one ministry to another is fair and based on individual merit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Diversity

In addition to treating the staff with *fairness and equality*, *diversity* implies that your organization respects and recognizes individual differences such as language, religion, gender, political orientation, etc. In the context of this definition of *diversity*, to what extent would you agree or disagree with the statements below?

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
21.	I believe that the Civil Service System values diversity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	I believe that my organization values diversity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23.	I believe that my immediate manager values diversity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24.	I believe that my colleagues value diversity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25.	I value diversity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

If you have been, or were to be, harassed or discriminated against, to what extent do you think you would agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
26. There is a formal procedure I can follow if I need to talk to someone <i>within</i> my organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. I am able to report the situation without worrying that this would have a negative impact on my employment or professional advancement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. There is a formal procedure I can follow if I need to talk to someone <i>outside</i> of my organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. I am able to report the situation to someone <i>outside</i> of my organization without worrying that this would have a negative impact on my employment or professional development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. My organization would support me whether I reported the situation to someone in my organization or to someone outside of my organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Do you know if there is a department in your organization or an institution outside of your organization that is responsible for handling questions or concerns about harassment or discrimination on any basis?	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>			

32. If you answered yes to question 31, please tell us the name of the department or institution:

Career Development

When answering the following questions, please think about the **opportunities that you believe you have** to develop yourself and your career within your Ministry, Department or Agency as well as within the Civil Service as a whole.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
33. I am satisfied with the availability of opportunities to advance my career	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. I am satisfied with the availability of opportunities to improve my skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. I am satisfied that these opportunities are equally available and accessible to all employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

There are many things that influence the career opportunities open to you. Some may have a positive impact and help you to develop in your chosen career. Others may have a negative effect or hinder your career.

36. What **impact, if any**, have the following elements and situations had upon your career development?

	Helped a lot	Helped a little	No impact	Hindered a little	Hindered a lot	Doesn't apply
a. Access to training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Work experience outside the Civil Service System	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Professional leave, job change, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. The appraisal system	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. The promotion process	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Maternity leave	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Having a mentor or role model	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

37. Do you feel that **assumptions (stereotypes)** that have been made about you have prevented you from advancing in your career?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
a. Because of your family obligations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. About your skills and abilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
c.	Because of your age	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d.	Because of your gender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e.	Because of your ethnicity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f.	Because of anything else (<i>please specify</i>)....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

38. Do you feel that any of the following factors have **prevented you from advancing** in your career?

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
a..	Chronic illness or extended sickness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b.	Requirement to work in different locations, possibly on short notice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c.	Requirement to work in different locations without first being consulted	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d.	Requirement to work in different locations without financial support for relocation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e.	Requirement to work in different locations without adequate and appropriate training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f.	Requirement to work long or additional hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

39. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement: To advance in my organization it is important to conform to:

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
a.	Prevailing ideology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b.	Social, political or other connections	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Biographical Information

In order to help us generate a scientific and appropriate academic study, the following information is needed. This information will be used for analytic purposes only so that we can see how different groups of employees feel. **All responses are completely confidential.** No one from your organization or the Civil Service System will ever see your completed questionnaire. We encourage you to answer all of these questions. Even if you choose to answer only some of them, your ideas are still important.

40. What is your current grade/pay scale?

Director	Middle Manager	Other (<i>please specify</i>)
Administrator	Assistant Manager	_____
Senior Manager	Supervisor	

41. How long have you been working in the Civil Service System?

Less than 2 yrs	6-10 yrs	16-20 yrs	26 yrs or more
2-5 yrs	11-15 yrs	21-25 yrs	

42. What is your age?

Under 20	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 & over
----------	-------	-------	-------	-----------

43. Please tell us your ethnicity, primary language (mother tongue) and/or the killel that you identify as the one you are from. If you would like to make additional comments about this given or claimed identity, please do so on the following lines.

44. Please indicate which of the following best describes your religious affiliation (Please ***select only one***):

Ethiopian Orthodox	Muslim
Catholic	Jewish
Protestant	None
Other Christian	Other
(<i>please specify</i>) _____	(<i>please specify</i>) _____

45. Please indicate your gender:

Male	Female
------	--------

Comments

If you have any comments you would like to make about any of the questions asked in this questionnaire or about questions that you think should have been asked but were not, feel free to write them in the space provided below:

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Do not put your name on the questionnaire or on the envelope. Please place your questionnaire in the envelope provided, seal the envelope, and return the questionnaire in the sealed envelope to the person who gave you the questionnaire.

If you have questions about this questionnaire please contact:

Professor Berhanu Mengistu, Ph.D.
International Conferences on Public Management, Policy and Development
Graduate Center for Urban Studies and Public Administration
Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia 23529
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APPENDIX B

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

**Letter of Exemption from the College of Business and Public
Administration Committee for Human Subject Research**

Economics Department
2044 Constant Hall
Norfolk, VA 23529-0221
Phone: (757) 683-3567
Fax: (757) 683-5639

David D. Selover
Associate Professor of Economics

March 28, 2005

(757) 683-3541
dselover@odu.edu

Elizabeth Vogel
Department of Urban Studies and Public Administration
College of Business and Public Administration
2084 Constant Hall
Old Dominion University
Norfolk, Virginia 23529

RE: Human Subjects Review Exemption

Dear Elizabeth:

This letter is to inform you that the College of Business and Public Administration Research, Library, and Human Subjects Committee (2003) found your research project entitled, "Perceptions of Civil Service Employees about Bureaucratic Values in the Ethnic Federalism of Ethiopia," to be exempt from University IRB review under VA Code 32.1-162.17.

Your research employs survey or interview procedures that are completely anonymous, does not involve any government funding, and is unobtrusive. For these reasons there is no need to review your research proposal before the University IRB Committee.

Sincerely yours,



David D. Selover
Chairperson
Research, Library, and Human Subjects Committee
College of Business and Public Administration

APPENDIX C

Semi-Structured Interview Questions and Themes from Responses

The purpose of the semi-structured interview is to elicit topical responses in a milieu that promotes spontaneous answers in the general direction of the interview theme (Fontana & Frey, 1994). Less formal and more malleable than structured interview methodology, the semi-structured process promotes interaction between the interviewer and interviewee on the basis of rapport and interest as information emerges. Since standardization of the information produced through the interview process was not of concern in this study, interviewees were free to ask questions of the researcher, and new questions were posed to the interviewee based on emerging lines of inquiry that appeared most fruitful to yield contextual information.

The interviews fulfilled two purposes. The first purpose was to gather information about the approaches, challenges, and accomplishments related to CSR efforts in Ethiopia. The second purpose, which was critical to the theoretical development of this study, was to garner the opinions of experienced civil service employees about existing bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism.

Script for Semi-Structured Interviews

Thank you for taking the time to meet with me today. As the person who arranged our interview explained, the questions we are going to discuss are related to the Civil Service Survey that was conducted last year. I understand that you are familiar with that survey. Is this correct? (Interviewee response.)

In order for you to feel free to respond as openly as you would like, no identifying information will be associated with your remarks. For example no name, position, or department information will be identified in my report of our interview, and your remarks will be added to those of the others I am interviewing, so no one will be able to be identified. I will be making some notes as we talk, and these will be the only record of our discussion. Is this all right with you? (Interviewee response.) Do you have any questions before we begin? (Interviewee response.)

1. What, in your opinion, was the impetus for the passage and implementation of Federal Civil Servants Proclamation 262/2002?
2. What has been your experience of the implementation of these changes in terms of information dissemination, acceptance and application among civil service workers?
3. What affects, if any, do you think the new form of government created under the 1994 constitution, ethnic federalism, has had on civil service employees and the system with respect to the following areas:
 - a. Hiring, promotions, and transfers?
 - b. Diversity in the workforce?
 - c. Bias or discrimination?
 - d. Policy implementation without political interference?
4. Do you have other comments that you would like to make?

Themes from Responses

1. Civil service employees are multi-tasked, over-tasked, and activities are inadequately planned.
2. The civil service suffers repeated failures in policy implementation.
3. The government experiences significant donor pressures to reform the civil service sector.
4. The historical context of Ethiopia as a country and specifically of the civil service is integral to understanding the importance, function and values of the civil service.
5. Concerns about ethnicity in the context of policy implementation, personnel practices and reform are pervasive.
6. The civil service was operating under conditions of donor fatigue, employee fatigue, resource fatigue, and emotional fatigue.

APPENDIX D

Self-identified Ethnic Communities

The ethnic communities listed below were incorporated into the five major categories shown in table 6, Chapter IV for statistical computing purposes. Decisions about categorization were made on the basis of reported primary language, birth killel and other identifying information that respondents provided.

Self-Identified Ethnic Communities Reported in Addition to Major Category Groupings Shown in Table 6, Chapter IV

Ethnic Communities	n	Included in 5 Major Categories as:
Afar	1	Other
Agew	2	Other
Dawiro	1	Other
Erob (Irob)	1	Tigrai
Guragie	22	Other
Hadiya	4	Other
Kenbata	3	Other
Korie	1	Other
Shekacho	1	Other
Shinasha	2	Other
Sidamo	1	Other
Siltea	2	Other
Welayta	1	Other
Worji	1	Other
Amhara-Agew	1	Other
Amhara-Guragie	1	Other
Amhara-Oromo	6	Other
Amhara- Tigrai	1	Other
Ethiopian	14	Other
Ethiopian-Amhara	2	Other
Ethiopian-Agew	1	Other
Ethiopian-Tigrai	3	Other
Guragie-Tigrai	1	Other
Oromo-Amhara-Guragie	1	Other
TOTAL	74	

APPENDIX E

Descriptive and Bivariate Statistics: Demographic, Personal Work Characteristics

Table E1: Descriptive Statistics Demographic, Personal Work Characteristics		
Variable	TOTAL	
	N=360	100%
	n	%
Gender		
Male	308	85.6
Female	52	14.4
Age		
20-29	56	15.6
30-39	169	46.9
40-49	108	30.0
50 and older	27	7.5
Self-Identified Ethnic Community		
Amhara	162	45.0
Oroma	43	11.9
Tigrai	25	6.9
Declined to answer	51	14.2
Other	79	21.9
Religious Affiliation		
Ethiopian Orthodox	277	76.9
Muslim	17	4.7
Protestant	45	12.5
Other	21	5.8
Main Earner Status		
Yes	257	71.4
No	103	28.6
Work/Home Balance		
Yes	284	78.9
No	76	21.1
Work Overtime		
Yes	248	68.9
No	112	31.1
Length of Employment		
0-5 years	74	20.6
6-10 years	64	17.8
11-15 years	85	23.6
16 or more years	137	38.1

Table E2: Crosstabulations for Gender by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Gender by Age Categories $p=.125$					
Age Categories					
Gender	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 or older	TOTAL
	12.5%	38.9%	27.5%	6.7%	100%
	N=360				
Male	14.6	45.5	32.1	7.8	308
Female	21.2	55.8	17.3	5.8	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$**

Gender by Self-Identified Ethnic Community $p=.493$						
Ethnic Community by %						
Gender	Amhara	Oroma	Tigrai	Other	Declined to Answer	TOTAL
	45.0%	11.9%	6.9%	21.9%	14.2%	100%
	N=360					
Male	44.2	12.7	7.5	22.4	13.3	308
Female	50.0	7.7	3.8	19.2	19.2	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$**

Gender by Religious Affiliation $p=.099$					
Religious Affiliation by %					
Gender	Ethiopian Orthodox	Protestant	Muslim	Other	TOTAL
	76.9%	12.5%	4.7%	5.8%	100%
	N=360				
Male	78.6	10.7	4.9	5.8	308
Female	67.3	23.1	3.8	5.8	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$**

Gender by Main Earner $p=.002^*$			
Main Earner by %			
Gender	Yes	No	TOTAL
	71.4	28.6	100%
	%	%	N=360
Male	74.4	25.6	308
Female	53.8	46.2	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$ $\chi^2(1, N=360)=9.158, \phi=.159$**

Table E2: Crosstabulations for Gender by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics (continued)

Gender by Work/Home Balance $p=.414$			
Work/Home Balance by %			
Gender	Yes	No	TOTAL
	78.9%	21.1%	100%
			N=360
Male	79.2	20.8	308
Female	76.9	23.1	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$**

Gender by Work Overtime $p=.547$			
Work Overtime by %			
Gender	Yes	No	TOTAL
	68.9%	31.1%	100%
			N=360
Male	68.8	31.2	308
Female	69.2	30.8	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$**

Gender by Length of Employment Categories $p=.530$					
Length of Employment Categories by %					
Gender	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 ears	16 or more yrs	TOTAL
	20.6%	17.8%	23.6%	38.1%	100%
					N=360
Male	20.1	16.9	24.7	38.3	308
Female	23.1	23.1	17.3	36.5	52

*** $p<.05$, ** $p<.001$**

Table E3: Crosstabulations for Age by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Age by Self-Identified Ethnic Community $p=.024^*$						
Ethnic Community by %						
Age	Amhara	Oroma	Tigrai	Other	Declined to Answer	TOTAL 100% N=360
	45.0%	11.9%	6.9%	21.9%	14.2%	
20-29 yrs	53.6	14.3	3.6	16.1	12.5	56
30-39 yrs	43.2	13.0	7.7	24.9	11.2	169
40-49 yrs	41.7	10.2	3.7	23.1	21.3	108
50 or older	51.9	7.4	22.2	11.1	7.4	27
*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .001$		$\chi^2 (12, N=360)=23.43, V=.147$				

Age by Religious Affiliation $p=.174$					
Religious Affiliation by %					
Age	Ethiopian Orthodox	Protestant	Muslim	Other	TOTAL 100% N=360
	76.9%	12.5%	4.7%	5.8%	
20-29 yrs	69.6	14.3	5.4	10.7	56
30-39 yrs	76.9	14.2	5.3	3.6	169
40-49 yrs	79.6	12.0	3.7	4.6	108
50 or older	81.5	0	3.7	14.8	27
*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .001$					

Age by Main Earner $p < .001^{**}$			
Main Earner by %			
Age	Yes	No	TOTAL 100% N=360
	71.4%	28.6%	
20-29 yrs	41.1	58.9	56
30-39 yrs	74.6	25.4	169
40-49 yrs	75.0	25.0	108
50 or older	100.0	0	27
*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .001$		$\chi^2 (3, N=360)=37.541, V=.323$	

Table E3: Crosstabulations for Age by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics (continued)

Age by Work/Home Balance $p=.010$			
Work/Home Balance by %			
Age	Yes	No	TOTAL
	78.9%	21.1%	100%
			N=360
20-29 yrs	75.0	25.0	56
30-39 yrs	72.8	27.2	169
40-49 yrs	88.0	12.0	108
50 or older	88.9	11.1	27
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$		χ^2 (3, N=360)=11.255, V=.177	

Age by Work Overtime $p=.479$			
Work Overtime by %			
Age	Yes	No	TOTAL
	68.9%	31.1%	100%
			N=360
20-29 yrs	62.5	37.5	56
30-39 yrs	67.5	32.5	169
40-49 yrs	73.1	26.9	108
50 or older	74.1	25.9	27
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$			

Age by Length of Employment Categories ***na					
Length of Employment Categories by %					
Age	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 ears	16 or more yrs	TOTAL
	20.6%	17.8%	23.6%	38.1%	100%
					N=360
20-29 yrs	87.5	10.7	1.8	0	56
30-39 yrs	12.4	30.2	41.4	16.0	169
40-49 yrs	2.8	5.6	13.0	78.7	108
50 or older	3.7	3.7	0	92.6	27
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$		*** observed cell count 0=2			

Table E4: Crosstabulations for Self-Identified Ethnic Community by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Self-Identified Ethnic Community by Religious Affiliation ***n/a					
Religious Affiliation by %					
Self-Identified Ethnic Community	Ethiopian Orthodox	Protestant	Muslim	Other	TOTAL 100% N=360
	76.9%	12.5%	4.7%	5.8%	
Amhara	87.0	5.6	4.3	3.1	162
Oroma	51.2	34.9	7.0	7.0	43
Tigrai	92.0	4.0	0	4.0	25
Other	58.2	20.3	7.6	13.9	79
Declined to Answer	88.2	7.8	2.0	2.0	51
*p<.05, **p<.001		***cells with expected count <5=45%			

Self-Identified Ethnic Community by Main Earner p=.263*			
Main Earner by %			
Self-Identified Ethnic Community	Yes	No	TOTAL 100% N=360
	71.4%	28.6%	
Amhara	67.3	32.7	162
Oroma	76.7	23.3	43
Tigrai	84.0	16.0	25
Other	75.9	24.1	79
Declined to Answer	66.7	33.3	51
*p<.05, **p<.001			

Self-Identified Ethnic Community by Work/Home Balance p=.868			
Work/Home Balance by %			
Self-Identified Ethnic Community	Yes	No	TOTAL 100% N=360
	78.9%	21.1%	
Amhara	79.6	20.4	162
Oroma	83.7	16.3	43
Tigrai	80.0	20.0	25
Other	75.9	24.1	79
Declined to Answer	76.5	23.5	51
*p<.05, **p<.001			

Table E4: Crosstabulations for Self-Identified Ethnic Community by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics (continued)

Age by Work Overtime $p=.671$					
Work Overtime by %					
Self-Identified Ethnic Community	Yes	No	TOTAL		
	68.9%	31.1%	100%		
			N=360		
Amhara	71.6	28.4	162		
Oroma	67.4	32.6	43		
Tigrai	64.0	36.0	25		
Other	63.3	36.7	79		
Declined to Answer	72.5	27.5	51		
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$					

Age by Length of Employment Categories $p=.087$					
Length of Employment Categories by %					
Self-Identified Ethnic Community	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16 or more yrs	TOTAL
	20.6%	17.8%	23.6%	38.1%	100%
					N=360
Amhara	22.2	13.0	25.3	39.5	162
Oroma	14.0	30.2	30.2	25.6	43
Tigrai	16.0	8.0	32.0	44.0	25
Other	19.0	25.3	20.3	35.4	79
Declined to Answer	25.5	15.7	13.7	45.1	51
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$					

Table E5: Crosstabulations for Religious Affiliation by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Religious Affiliation by Main Earner $p=.950$			
Main Earner by %			
Religious Affiliation	Yes	No	TOTAL
	71.4	28.6	100%
	%	%	N=360
Ethiopian Orthodox	71.5	28.5	277
Protestant	68.9	31.1	45
Muslim	76.5	23.5	17
Other	71.4	28.6	21

*** $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .001$**

Religious Affiliation by Work/Home Balance $p=.643$			
Work/Home Balance by %			
Religious Affiliation	Yes	No	TOTAL
	78.9%	21.1%	100%
			N=360
Ethiopian Orthodox	79.1	20.9	277
Protestant	84.4	15.6	45
Muslim	70.6	29.4	17
Other	71.4	28.6	21

*** $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .001$**

Religious Affiliation by Work Overtime $p=.240$			
Work Overtime by %			
Religious Affiliation	Yes	No	TOTAL
	68.9%	31.1%	100%
			N=360
Ethiopian Orthodox	69.7	30.3	277
Protestant	62.2	37.8	45
Muslim	64.7	35.3	17
Other	76.2	23.8	21

*** $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .001$**

Table E5: Crosstabulations for Religious Affiliation by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics (continued)

Religious Affiliation by Length of Employment Categories $p=.030^*$					
Religious Affiliation	Length of Employment Categories by %				TOTAL 100% N=360
	0-5 years 20.6%	6-10 years 17.8%	11-15 years 23.6%	16 or more yrs 38.1%	
Ethiopian Orthodox	18.4	15.5	24.9	41.2	277
Protestant	31.1	26.7	20.0	22.2	45
Muslim	17.6	29.4	35.3	17.6	17
Other	28.6	19.0	4.8	47.6	21
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$		$\chi^2 (9, N=360)=18.508, V=.131$			

Table E6: Crosstabulations for Main Earner by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Main Earner by Work/Home Balance $p=.643$					
Work/Home Balance by %					
Main Earner	Yes	No	TOTAL		
	78.9%	21.1%	100%		
	N=360				
Yes	79.4	20.6	257		
No	77.7	22.3	103		
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$					

Main Earner by Work Overtime $p=.240$					
Work Overtime by %					
Main Earner	Yes	No	TOTAL		
	68.9%	31.1%	100%		
	N=360				
Yes	69.3	30.7	257		
No	68.0	32.0	103		
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$					

Main Earner by Length of Employment Categories $p=.030^*$					
Length of Employment Categories by %					
Main Earner	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	16 or more yrs	TOTAL
	20.6%	17.8%	23.6%	38.1%	100%
	N=360				
Yes	14.4	16.3	26.1	43.2	257
No	35.9	21.4	17.5	25.2	103
*$p<.05$, **$p<.001$					
$\chi^2 (9, N=360)=18.508, V=.131$					

Table E7: Crosstabulations for Work/Home Balance by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Work/Home Balance by Work Overtime $p=.264$					
Work Overtime by %					
Work/Home Balance	Yes	No	TOTAL		
	%	%	100%		
			N=360		
Yes	70.4	29.6	284		
No	63.2	36.8	76		
*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .001$					

Work/Home Balance by Length of Employment Categories $p=.043$					
Length of Employment Categories by %					
Work/Home Balance	0-5	6-10	11-15	16 or	TOTAL
	years	years	years	more yrs	100%
	%	%	%	%	N=360
Yes	19.4	15.8	23.2	41.5	284
No	25.0	25.0	25.0	25.0	76
*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .001$		$\chi^2 (3, N=360) = 8.146, V = .150$			

Table E8: Crosstabulations for Work Overtime by Demographic and Personal Work Characteristics

Work Overtime by Length of Employment Categories $p=.240$					
Length of Employment Categories by %					
Work Overtime	0-5 years %	6-10 years %	11-15 ears %	16 or more yrs %	TOTAL 100% N=360
Yes	19.0	16.1	23.8	41.1	248
No	24.1	21.4	23.2	31.3	112

*** $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .001$**

APPENDIX F

Responses to General Comments Section of Survey Instrument

Responses to the general comments section of the survey instrument are presented in the table below. Responses pertaining to specific questions in the survey are presented in the numeric order of the questions addressed. General comments are presented by theme.

Comments Arranged by Numeric Order of Questions

Comments pertaining to: “information about respondent’s organization”, *q1-3*:

- My answers refer to ...[organization]...as I worked there until ____ 2002
 - Please be informed that all responses pertinent to "my organization" refer only to the...[organization]...in which I have worked for last 6-1/2 years until ____ 2002. This is because that the [organization]... in which I am currently working is a newly established office and it is too early to comment about it.
 - My answers apply to ...[organization]...since have only been working for the ...[organization]... since ____ 2002.
-

Comments pertaining to: “You and Your Organization”, *q4-11*:

- Q 10: I don't have evidence for this matter [employee recognition].
-

Comments pertaining to: “Work Life Balance”, *q12-18*:

- Q16-18: Working overtime without pay: if one is working overtime without pay, you should know why.
 - Excuse me please, I don't like to answer details of [these] questions.
-

Comments pertaining to: “Fairness and Equality”, *q19a-j, q20a-g*:

- Q19c: But not in my current office [discrimination].
- Q19a: "This question is not clear."; Q 19 comment: The items from a-i do not apply to me. My unfair treatment originated simply because I happened to be their Senior.

Comments Arranged by Numeric Order of Questions (continued)

- On policy and procedures regarding promotion and training: The department is not interested to people a chance.
- I have never seen a manager or administrator who encourages you to have appropriate behavior and confidentiality. Every manager is running his own business. I haven't seen anyone sacrifice to his/her poor civil society for the last four years. The situation is very discouraging.
- ...[P]olitical assignees in the organization and hindering others; the managers simple (sil[l]y) aspirations about what they would be rather than [what] their organization [could be] including the employees; influence of [lack of] respect for individual ideas/talent/on the job activities.
- For evaluation and promotion in career, the social interaction or relation with the immediate supervisor is important factor
- Evaluation is made on the basis of 6 months, not annual
- In principle equal pay for equal jobs, but in many CS orgs same jobs done by diff employees with different salaries. Grades differ because of work experience. In principle jobs should be classified based on job descriptions, but doesn't occur in reality.
- Q: 20d: Appraisal is not clear most of the time. Q. 20e: Very difficult to comment as there is no clear policy on training.
- Q 20e: it is limited to short term training (even it [short term training] is scarce sometimes) organizations are working within the government's system of administration/leadership.
- Overall I think the way people are transferred, recruited into my organization is unfair and based on political membership & ethnicity.
- On Policies/ procedures/ promotions "don't know" because most of time the Department Head or Supervisor won't give a release, so even if you want to go, it may be difficult. On job promotion, only here 8 years; must be here 10 to be promoted.
- People who are assigned to head governmental institutions usually come with their unfair prejudices that seniors are problem makers and challengers. This is not always true.

Comments pertaining to: "Diversity", q21-32:

- Civil servants and complaint handling [not done well]...
- Q21: It (CS System) values political attachment.

Comments Arranged by Numeric Order of Questions (continued)

- Q21-31 [Things are] not good in light of the existing Ethiopian situation. Would like you to know I don't belong to any one political party in Ethiopia, and naturally to none of the ones outside. I gave my opinion independently.
- 1) Loss of promotion, access to training & responsibility due to ethnicity, Oromo. Harassment also. 2)) Investment, land acquisition, etc. questions are not treated equally due to ethnicity differences.
- With regard to diversity, Q 21-24, I afraid that my organization will not be free from the influence of political orientation, so my answers refer to this bloody political orientation.
- In CS personalities of managers affect the system (principles, policies...). No higher body checking, supervising managers (how interpreting policies).
- No check on authority, treatment of employees; only on physical and financial achievements.
- If you have a good connection; with the General Manager of the Authority, whatever the connection may be, you have access to every benefit, such as training, study tour, participate in workshops abroad, to promotion, etc. If you challenge him, you lose everything. Yes, everything!!
- Comments on career development in CS: some training opportunities but is not equally given to all employees. They give chances as they wish, i.e. if the Administrator of Financial Lends hates you the change will be given to [someone] he favors.

Comments pertaining to: “Career Development”, q33-35, 36a-g, 37a-e, 38a-f, 39a-b:

- Q35: The meager opportunities [for career development].
- Q36a: Helped lot & hindered lot because it has personal benefit only. On one hand those trained don't apply it after training. On other hand when they train, they leave regular work so it hindered a lot as far as work is concerned [Q30a-g: Career influences].
- I have little access to training, why I don't know.
- My comment is there must be systematic rearrangement in the structure; I am an economist but am placed as an accountant. I can do alternately, but there is no room to accommodate/ place me.
- Q37a-e: The leaders, the managers who are deciding on[e's] fa[te]. You can imagine what the output can be (stereotyped on ethnicity). Not now; the real cause is politics usually. [They are]...[s]elf-centered without ability, [and] who think for our country's development the least compared to their subordinates....

Comments Arranged by Numeric Order of Questions (continued)

- Q 37d: But not considerably. Q 38 a-f: Doesn't apply.
- Q37e: But not now [in my current office].
- I have been prevented from advancing because I have openly challenged my bosses.
- Q 38: Is ambiguous. Item a could be a factor, but don't know for sure.
- Although I have tried to respond to Q 38, the factors mentioned from a-f don't apply to my situation.
- Prevented from advancing because I had to fulfill the interests of my bosses.
- Q 38f: The work is not available to my profession [overtime].
- Q39a - b: These have nothing to do with my organization. Comment: the questions should focus on the Ethiopian context properly, especially after merging the two ministries. Doing this so the office can use the capacity of expertise effectively/fully.
- When I was brought to coordinator of the project it was my choice on the basis that I worked outside of A[ddis] A[baba] for more than ____ years. I was ...[position and organization]...and getting...[rate of pay]...ETB [Ethiopian birr]/month salary, appointed by the Prime Minister's Office. Because of my preference to come to AA I could not complain...[about]...my previous salary, and I was forced to get only...[rate of pay]... ETB, but now...[rate of pay]...ETB due to change of scale all over the country. But similar ...[position title]...in East Africa get top pay, up to ...[rate of pay]...USD/mo, but here in Ethiopia, incentive is nil. I still survive and do my job but life is not easy. Working hard and getting fair payment is not yet practiced in Ethiopia.

Comments pertaining to: “open-ended question about self-identified ethnic communities”, q43:

- I like Oromo culture and tradition.
- I am [afraid] of answering these type[s] of questions. Talks that are like to be futile. NEEDS TRANSLATION.
- I am an Ethiopian. I don't accept differentiation of population by ethnicity. Population differentiation by ethnicity open opens a big door for discrimination, isolation, hostility.
- I can't really understand why Q43 is asked for the purpose of the survey.
- Considering the nature of questions you have asked, Q43 does not really have any relevance.
- I do not see the importance of question 43...

Comments Arranged by Numeric Order of Questions (continued)

- Maybe you need this questionnaire for academic purposes, otherwise the question of ethnicity shouldn't come up as we Ethiopians dislike such new fashion[ed] word[s] called "ethnicity" which is a political weapon of the State.
- Please do not go with the current ethnic politics of the country. Students should learn with the mother tongue language in primary school, but a country should have a national language.

Comments pertaining to: “question about religious affiliation”, q44:

- ...I do not see the importance of question 44.

Comments Arranged by Theme

General comments, *open-ended unnumbered*:

Expectations for the new civil service reforms:

- I expressed my ideas based on present conditions, but the new civil service system will improve the negative comments. Please, review the new civil service system that starts from Hamle 94 Ethiopian Calendar [January 2002, Gregorian Calendar].
- The civil service reform program will be successful if and only if the civil service society is going to be ready to cooperate with the system [e]specially on the following three basic concepts of reform: transparency, responsibility, accountability (TRA).
- We expect the new civil service structure to reform and the civil service working condition efficiency is very poor. It has a great impact on the whole country development since our country is the los[er].
- ...filling [out] this type of questionnaire for this specific purpose is a bridge for changing the situation into development...
- I will be happy if I contribute something based on key objectives of progress in community development and that enables to control food security. It would have been good if your questionnaire includes awareness building approach which gives more conscience to organizations. And community development and empowerment of the disadvantaged people at the grassroots level that enables to use different strategies to advance and promote a competent and diverse professional bureaucracy.

Comments Arranged by Theme (continued)

Suggestions for other topics to explore:

- Attention should be given to knowledge & managerial skills of top management group and different questions should be raised in this area. If the questionnaire included the people's attitudes on the existing economic, social, political situation on the national level, it could be important for the understanding your institutional/organizational targeted questions.
- Should have included questions on salary, benefits, etc.
- How much percent are you feeling satisfied with the service your are getting from your bosses? (since some of them are excellent and some are the opposite - 85%.
- In my opinion this paper doesn't take into account the current civil service reform program that was effective Jan. 2002. It would have been better if some of the questions had taken this reform into consideration.
- Pay and other financial benefits; employee benefits & incentives; non-financial motivators. What makes one work in civil service; merits & demerits of working in civil service; which members of employees' families are working in the civil service?
- ...your questionnaire [did] not include governance issues, realistic democracy functionality, reaction of the masses toward this and other social issues, rules, legal issues, and the government.
- Questions should have been included regarding the mission and objectives of the institution and job satisfaction aspects for the employee.
- I am not happy with the questions asked because they do not ask [about] the [causes of] the real problem[s]... Thanks.
- The questionnaire doesn't contain any questions about relationship between training, experience and efficiency.

Comments about the survey instrument and survey administration:

- "Have you conducted a pre-test" on the questions? It would be better and right the questionnaire to be filled by you or Enumerators
- ... But in some area of this questionnaire like 19c there should be added column for full fill of question correctly, i.e." sometimes". Finally some questions under this questionnaire not clear, not defined well.
- Excellent questionnaire.
- Your questions must be clear or open and the question must be related better to our culture and society.

Comments Arranged by Theme (continued)

- ...[F]ormat is good, but there are some technical words that are difficult to be understood by non-social student or graduate, e.g., by medical professionals, so it is better to give a highlight or definition on some of the words you used.
- I found the questionnaire is very interesting and easy to fill in without causing a lot of inconvenience.
- It would have been better if some of the questions were open-ended so that one can write something (explanation) for the disagree or agree questions. Thank you.
- I'd like to extend my deep appreciation for those who designed this questionnaire as it is clear and to the point. Thank you.
- If I am not wrong, why don't you put killel in this way: 'killel'?
- In the question[naire] headings should have been coupled with the detailed tick marks written in sub-headings.
- Most of the questions are not clear; it would have been better written in Amharic. Since all the questions are close ended
- Questionnaire not clear & hard to answer, so can't answer properly. Some questions beyond my work experience & time of employment.
- Some of the question items seem to only target civil servants and gives little room for those in higher institutions
- Since I am a lecturer, most of the questions above concern me a [very] little.
- No comment except appreciation about the flow of your questions. This is my profession in questionnaire development.
- Some of the questionnaire is vague, for the next time more to others
- Some questions are not self explanatory, i.e. they need further explanation
- Some questions are tough and fragmented
- The questions are a bit unclear.
- The questions are comprehensive, [but] they are not clearly written, especially in some areas. I mean some of them are very short. I have been participating in similar conferences, i.e. the International Conference on Public Management & Development Administration in ECA, Addis Ababa sponsored by or in collaborative effort of African & American institutions & organizations
- The questions are specific. Would be better if they were open-ended.
- Overall I think most of the questions are good and well designed except question 36 which is difficult to understand. Thank you.

Comments Arranged by Theme (continued)*Use of the research:*

- Does this research have end users or is it an academic exercise?
- No comment. This is enough. But I have a question. Do you think you would genuinely conduct the research?
- What is the final result and effect, or emphasis, of this survey?
- I am glad I got this chance and...Does your research really make a difference? [T]hank you!

Miscellaneous:

- Good luck!
- Good luck!
- Thank you for giving me chance to explaining my feelings.
- I have no comments, [but] anyway thank you.

APPENDIX G

Multivariate Statistics of Bureaucratic Values Models with All Factors

Table G1: Coefficients for Neutral Competence Scale Model NC1, 12 Factors – Full Model

Factors	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	26.979		4.371	<.001**		
Gender	.849	.025	.477	.633	-.027	.026
Age						
20-29	-1.209	-.036	-.506	.613	-.053	-.027
30-39			(reference)			
40-49	2.695	.101	1.523	.129	.129	.083
50 and older	2.258	.049	.836	.404	.053	.045
Self-Identified Ethnic Community						
Amhara	1.318	.054	.547	.585	-.013	.030
Oroma	2.182	.058	.754	.451	.083	.041
Tigray			(reference)			
Declined to answer	-2.578	-.074	-.932	.352	-.135	-.051
Other	1.626	.055	.618	.537	.076	.034
Religious Affiliation						
Ethiopian Orthodox			(reference)			
Muslim	-4.339	-.076	-1.555	.121	-.051	-.084
Protestant	.677	.018	.350	.727	.074	.019
Other	-4.530	-.087	-1.702	.090	-.045	-.092
Main Earner	3.312	.123	2.400	.017*	.116	.129
Work/Life Balance	1.679	.056	1.146	.253	.127	.062
Work Overtime	-.939	-.036	-.743	.458	-.059	-.040
Length of Employment						
0-5 years (reference)			(reference)			
6-10 years	-.234	-.007	-.100	.921	.008	-.005
11-15 years	-1.958	-.068	-.826	.410	-.075	-.045
16 or more years	-1.532	-.061	-.605	.546	.103	-.033
Subscales						
Perceived Fairness/Respect	1.119	.234	4.575	<.001**	.335	.241
Organization Environment	.541	.125	2.392	.017*	.256	.129
Discrimination	.518	.210	4.096	<.001**	.290	.217
Length of Position Tenure	-.950	-.067	-1.311	.191	-.075	-.071

* significant at .05, ** significant at $\leq .001$

Table G2: Coefficients for Representativeness Scale Model REP1, 12 Factors – Full Model

Factors	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bivariate <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
(Constant)	12.585		5.946	<.001**		
Gender	1.309	.089	1.687	.092	.058	.091
Age						
20-29	.126	.009	.119	.906	.067	.006
30-39			(reference)			
40-49	.603	.054	.767	.443	.017	.042
50 and older	1.176	.060	.979	.328	.052	.053
Self-Identified Ethnic Community						
Amhara	-2.185	-.211	-2.061	.040*	-.136	-.111
Oroma	-.688	.043	-.536	.592	.073	-.029
Tigray			(reference)			
Declined to answer	-.768	-.052	-.628	.530	-.008	-.034
Other	-.694	-.056	-.596	.551	.083	-.032
Religious Affiliation						
Ethiopian Orthodox			(reference)			
Muslim	1.173	.048	.950	.343	.055	.052
Protestant	.280	.018	.329	.743	.063	.018
Other	-.900	-.041	-.782	.435	-.017	-.042
Main Earner	-.725	-.064	-1.182	.238	-.049	-.064
Work/Life Balance	-.592	-.047	-.912	.362	-.004	-.050
Work Overtime	.008	.007	.146	.884	-.004	.008
Length of Employment						
0-5 years (reference)			(reference)			
6-10 years	-.363	-.027	-.352	.725	.034	-.019
11-15 years	-.857	-.071	-.815	.415	-.084	-.044
16 or more years	-.954	-.090	-.845	.399	-.008	-.046
Subscales						
Competency Practices	.200	.169	.007	.003*	.244	.161
Opportunities for Advancement	.005	.130	2.453	.015*	.221	.132
Perceived Fairness/Respect	.107	.053	.935	.350	.190	.051
Organization Environment	.362	.198	3.665	<.001**	.242	.195

* significant at .05, ** significant at $\leq .001$

Table G3: Coefficients for Executive Leadership Scale Model EXEC1, 12 Factors – Full Model

Factors	B	β	t	p	Bivariate r	Partial r
(Constant)	12.092		5.841	<.001**		
Gender	-1.322	-.111	-2.222	.027*	-.103	-.120
Age						
20-29	1.695	.146	2.098	.037*	.050	.133
30-39			(reference)			
40-49	.309	.034	.509	.611	.132	.028
50 and older	-.363	-.023	-.392	.695	.051	-.021
Self-Identified Ethnic Community						
Amhara	.663	.079	.808	.420	.009	.044
Oroma	.461	.036	.466	.642	.048	.025
Tigray			(reference)			
Declined to answer	-.266	-.022	-.282	.778	-.132	-.015
Other	1.209	.119	1.352	.177	.090	.073
Religious Affiliation						
Ethiopian Orthodox			(reference)			
Muslim	1.031	.052	1.084	.279	.044	.059
Protestant	-.166	-.013	-.252	.802	-.010	-.014
Other	-.289	-.016	-.317	.751	.018	-.017
Main Earner	-.399	-.043	-.843	.400	-.001	-.046
Work/Life Balance	1.195	.116	2.408	.017*	.158	.130
Work Overtime	-.409	.045	-.948	.344	-.079	-.052
Length of Employment						
0-5 years (reference)			(reference)			
6-10 years	.619	.056	.772	.441	-.060	.042
11-15 years	1.045	.106	1.290	.198	-.085	.070
16 or more years	2.142	.248	2.480	.014*	.140	.134
Subscales						
Competency Practices	.250	.259	5.092	<.001**	.328	.267
Opportunities for Advancement	.005	.137	2.703	.007*	.268	.145
Discrimination	.161	.189	3.716	<.001**	.288	.198
Length of Position Tenure	-.005	-.010	-.189	.850	-.046	-.010

* significant at .05, ** significant at $\leq .001$

Curriculum Vitae

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Education

- 2005 Old Dominion University
Ph.D. Public Administration & Urban Policy
Cognate: Health Economics
(Defense May 2005, Degree award August 2005)
- 1981 University of Michigan School of Public Health
Ann Arbor, Michigan
Master of Health Services Administration
- 1978 Loretto Heights College, University Without Walls
Denver, Colorado
B.A. Health Services Administration; Minor: Creative
Writing Graduation with Distinction

Work

- 2005 – Present Adjunct Faculty
College of Health Sciences
Department of Community and Environmental Health
Professions
- 2005 Adjunct Faculty
College of Health Sciences
- 2004 – 2005 Instructor and Graduate Teaching Assistant
College of Health Sciences
Department of Community and Environmental Health
Professions
- 2004 Project Director and Research Associate
Tri Services Nursing Research Program
Old Dominion University Research Foundation, Norfolk,
Virginia

2003	Congressional Fellow, Women's Research and Education Institute Office of Representative Carolyn B. Maloney Washington, DC
1999 - 2004	Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia College of Business and Public Administration Graduate Center for Urban Studies and Public Administration Graduate Research Associate
1991 - 1997	Awakenings, Inc., Virginia Beach, Virginia Medical Administrator
1985 to Present	The Wealth and Wellness Company, Norfolk, Virginia President
1985 - 1986	Pediatric Education and Research Foundation, Norfolk, Virginia Vice-President for Administration
1982 - 1985	Indiana University Medical Center, Indianapolis, Indiana Assistant Director of Hospitals
1981 - 1982	Indiana University Medical Center, Indianapolis, Indiana Administrator, Nursing Services

Honors, Recognition and Service Positions

2005	2005 Presidential Citation of Merit, American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC
2005	Supplemental Dissertation Stipend Award, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA
2005	Recognition for Outstanding Participation and Support as Program Director, TriService Nursing Research Program Grant "Air Force Combat Casualty Aeromedical Nursing Post September 11, 2001", Norfolk, VA
2004	Member, Committee for Succession Planning, American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC

- 2004 Member, Dwight Waldo Award Selection Committee, American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC
- 2004 Graduate Assistant Excellence Award, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA
- 2003 – 2005 Co-Chair, Publications Committee, American Society for Public Administration
- 2003 Appointment, Congressional Fellow, Women's Research and Education Institute, Washington, DC.
- 2002 Appointment, 2002 Virginia Governor's Fellow, Richmond, VA.
- 2002 Recipient, Theodore F. and Constance C. Constant Graduate Scholarship, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia.
- 2001 Program Co-Chair, International Conference on Public Policy, Management and Development. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. June 3-6, 2001.
- 2000 – 2002 President, Ph.D. Association, Urban Services Doctoral Program, Old Dominion University.
- 2000 – 2001 Outstanding Ph.D. Student of the Year, College of Business and Public Administration, Urban Services Management, Old Dominion University.
- 2000 Recipient, Theodore F. and Constance C. Constant Graduate Scholarship, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia.
- 1998 Among top 10 athlete fundraisers in Mid-Atlantic Region Leukemia Society of America, Marine Corps Marathon, Washington, D.C. Marathon finisher.
- 1997 and 1999 President's Club Award, Shaklee Corporation, San Francisco, California (for business growth).

- 1997 – 1999 Vice-President for Communications, Tidewater Area Shaklee Sales Leaders Association (regional business management association).
- 1996 Winner, Virginia State Toastmasters International Debate Competition.
- 1996 Assistant Area Governor, Toastmasters International.
- 1995 – 1996 Awarded Able Toastmaster International status (ATM); won numerous first and second place speaking awards in regional and state competitions.
- 1994 President, Toastmasters International Team Shaklee Speakers (Area speaking club).
- 1987 President, Tidewater Area Shaklee Sales Leaders Association (TASSL).
- 1984 Guest Faculty: International Project Hope curriculum development for Master of Health Administration Program for First and Second Teaching Hospitals and Xian University, Xian, People's Republic of China. Lectures on Ambulatory Care Organizational Design for university faculty, hospital administrators and medical staff.
- 1978 First Recipient, M. Elizabeth Vogel Scholarship Fund. Established by Aspen Valley Hospital Board of Directors, Aspen, Colorado in recognition of my outstanding job performance, community service and academic achievement. Later granted to employees choosing to pursue higher education in health care.

Memberships:

- Current:
- American College of Healthcare Executives
 - American Public Health Association
 - American Society for Public Administration
 - Daughters of the American Revolution
 - International MENSA Society
 - Phi Kappa Phi Honor Society
 - Pi Alpha Alpha Honor Society
 - Planned Parenthood of Southeastern Virginia

Board Member

University of Michigan Alumni Association
 University of Michigan Alumni Mentor to Students
 Virginians Against Domestic Violence
 Virginia Public Health Association
 Working Group for Civil Service Reform, International
 Conferences on Public Policy, Management and
 Development
 Working Group for HIV/AIDS, International Conferences
 on Public Policy, Management and Development

Teaching Experience:

- 2005 “Health Care Delivery Systems”. Graduate level course. Lecture, televised and web-based. Community and Environmental Health Professions, College of Health Sciences, Old Dominion University. Instructor of Record (Course development and instruction).
- “Public and Community Health Administration”. Undergraduate and graduate level course. Web-based. Community and Environmental Health Professions, College of Health Sciences, Old Dominion University. Instructor of Record (Course development and instruction).
- 2004 “Public and Community Health Administration”.
- “Municipal Clerks, Ethics and Applications.” Advanced course. Certified Municipal Clerk Institute, Executive Development Center, Old Dominion University. (Course development and instruction).
- “Introductory Ethics for Municipal Clerks”. Certified Municipal Clerk Institute, Executive Development Center, Old Dominion University. (Course development and instruction).
- “Health Policy and Politics”. Joint class conducted between Old Dominion University Master of Public Administration Program and Eastern Virginia Medical School, Master of Public Health Program. Co-instructor. (Joint course development and co-instruction).

- 2003 “Ethics in Public Service”. Old Dominion University Certified Municipal Clerk Institute.
- 2002 Data Interpretation Methods in Health Care. Old Dominion University, Ph.D. Program in Urban Services. Co-Instructor.
- 2000 – Present Substitute for professors in Urban Studies/Public Administration and Health Sciences from time to time. Department of Urban Studies and Public Administration at Old Dominion University does not offer formal Teaching Assistant positions.
- 1996 – 1997 Coordinator’s Achievement Conference: Structure, Process and Outcomes for Building Successful Teams, Shaklee Corporation, Conference Center, Wakefield, Virginia. This business development course was taught 4 times over two-year period.
- 1996 Leadership Series, The Wealth and Wellness Company, Virginia Beach, Virginia. Twelve-week course on leadership paradigms and practices. Developed marketing strategy and curriculum in addition to teaching course.
- 1995 – 1996 Preventive Health Seminars, Awakenings, Inc., Virginia Beach, Virginia. Series of classes available to public on preventive care, nutrition, stress management, men’s, women’s and children’s health, and how to select appropriate alternative/complementary therapies.
- 1996 Journaling: The Inward Journey, Awakenings, Inc., Virginia Beach, Virginia. This course covered methods, interpretation and uses of journal writing based on the teachings of Ira Progoff and Lucia Capacchione.
- 1984 Ambulatory Care, Organization Design and Systems Development, Second Teaching Hospital, Xian, People’s Republic of China. Lecture series to professors, physicians and medical administrators in conjunction with Project Hope.

Work Responsibilities:

Graduate Teaching Assistant and Adjunct Assistant Professor: Department of Community and Environmental Health Professions, College of Health Sciences, Old Dominion University. Develop and teach CHP 720 “Health Care Delivery Systems”, and CHP450/550 “Public and Community Health Administration”. Assist with research for various grants, grant applications and projects as requested by faculty including database development, methodological recommendations, statistical analysis. Manuscript development and editing.

Grant Manager and Research Assistant: TriService Nursing Research Program Grant, Old Dominion University Research Foundation. Supervise day to day operations in collaboration with Principal Investigator. Budgetary oversight, financial reporting. Establish and maintain project documentation, technical, financial reports and data bases. Participate as qualitative researcher including coding and data analysis. Perform quantitative data analysis, interpretation, and preparation of reports and manuscripts for publication.

Congressional Fellow: Women’s Research and Education Institute, Office of Representative Carolyn B. Maloney. Public policy analysis, research and write legislation. Coordinate legislation development with other congressional offices in House and Senate. Prepare speeches for Congresswoman including floor statements; opening statements, questions and testimony for hearings. Interface with private, public agencies and constituents. Attend committee meetings and hearings to brief Congresswoman. Knowledge in government relations, legislative procedures.

Graduate Research Associate: Research associate of Director of Ph.D. Program in Urban Services Management, College of Business and Public Administration, Old Dominion University. Responsible for research and writing on topics of interest for publication, including globalization, privatization, healthy cities concepts, and economic development, public health, civil society and civil service reform. Assist with course development including text book selection, syllabus preparation, teaching preparation and, from time to time, teaching.

The Wealth and Wellness Company: Owner of preventive care, wellness training businesses. Responsible for implementing two-pronged approach to holistic, self-care: product process and leadership training. Responsible for long-term strategic planning, interim and short-term business plan development and implementation including budgeting, staffing, marketing and training. Develop and maintain leadership training and guidance programs with active partnership marketing teams. Responsible for creating and implementing public service programs in preventive care, various self-care health topics as well as business development and leadership education. Have been actively involved

in environmental assessment and monitoring programs such as Alliance for the Chesapeake Bay, Lead-Free Richmond program.

Awakenings, Inc.: Medical administrator for day-to-day operations, long-term and mid-term strategic planning, budgeting and business operations for private psychotherapy practice. Involved in creation, design and implementation of new programs; responsible for services expansion and business growth. Responsible for contract negotiations with third-party reimbursement systems. Supervisory responsibilities.

Pediatric Education and Research Foundation: Vice President responsible for definition, development and implementation of the Foundation in conjunction with Children's Hospital of the King's Daughters and Eastern Virginia Medical School (EVMS). Coordinated roles and responsibilities of physicians, developed, coordinated and assessed new programs and research projects. Responsible for day-to-day administration, planning, budgeting and operation of clinics affiliated with Children's Hospital of the King's Daughters and EVMS.

Indiana University Hospitals: Responsible for the planning, monitoring and control of operational and capital budgeting process for Departments of Nursing across 5 hospitals (5,000 employees) on the university medical center campus. Member of Indiana University Medical Center Employee Reclassification Project entailing review, redefinition and redesign of job descriptions and pay classifications of all personnel on the Indiana University Medical Center campus in Indianapolis, in coordination with Indiana University main campus, Bloomington, Indiana.

Assistant Director of the five hospitals on the Indianapolis Medical Center Campus. Responsible for thirteen departments across the five hospitals, including inter alia Ambulatory Care, Radiological Services, Physical Therapy. Responsible for organizational redesign of 145 outpatient care clinics, including computerization of services delivery. Responsible for planning, coordination, construction and operational implementation of Women's Day Surgery facility and Outpatient Oncology Clinic. Responsible for search, hiring/firing Department Heads in 13 departments. Administrative Staff member, Medical Executive Committee. Member of Big-10 Universities Ambulatory Care and Emergency Room Planning and Guidance Committee.

Editorial Positions:

Journal of Global Awareness. Associate Editor. Norfolk, Virginia: Global Awareness Society International. Spring 2003.

Journal of Global Awareness. Editorial Assistant. Norfolk, Virginia: Global Awareness Society International. Spring 2002.

Conference Proceedings of the June 2001 International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development. Associate Editor. Norfolk, Virginia: International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development. December 2001.

Journal of Global Awareness. Editorial Assistant. Norfolk, Virginia: Global Awareness Society International. Spring 2001.

Journal of Global Awareness. Editorial Assistant. Norfolk, Virginia: Global Awareness Society International. Spring 2000.

Conference Proceedings of the International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development, 1997 & 1999. Editorial Assistant. Norfolk, Virginia: International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development. Spring 2000.

Publications:

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. (in press). Bureaucratic neutrality among competing bureaucratic values in an ethnic federalism: The case of Ethiopia. *Public Administration Review*.

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. (in press). Theoretical approaches to bureaucratic neutrality: Application in an ethnic federalism [S. Asefa & P. Milkias (Eds.)]. *Northeast Africa Studies* 9(2).

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. (2004). Theoretical underpinnings of bureaucratic neutrality in an ethnic federalism. *Journal of Ethiopian Development Studies* 1(1).

Vogel, E. (2002). Book review of "Evaluation: an integrated framework for understanding, guiding and improving policies and programs" by Melvin M. Mark, Gary T. Henry and George Julnes. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 2000 in *Journal of Global Awareness* 3(3), Spring.

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. (2001). Bureaucratic neutrality in ethnic federalism: The case of Ethiopia. In B. Mengistu and E. Vogel (Eds.), *Conference Proceedings of the June 2001 International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development* (92-101). Norfolk, Virginia: International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development.

Vogel, E. & L. Tsegaw (2001). The impact of HIV/AIDS policy differences on outcomes: A comparative analysis between Uganda and Ethiopia. In B. Mengistu and E. Vogel (Eds.), *Conference Proceedings of the June 2001 International Conferences on Public*

Policy, Management and Development (458-464). Norfolk, Virginia: International Conferences on Public Policy, Management and Development.

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. (2001.) Parastatals. *The Oxford Companion to Politics of the World*. London: Oxford University Press.

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. (2001). Privatization. *The Oxford Companion to Politics of the World*. London: Oxford University Press.

Manuscripts in Preparation:

DeBate, R. & E. Vogel. "Gender Differences Among Dentists Regarding Knowledge of Eating Disorders and Secondary Prevention Practices." Submitted April 2005.

Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. "Privatization in Ethiopia: Public Good or Private Gain?" Submission anticipated Fall 2005.

Plichta, S., Vogel, E. & Y. Zhang. "Women Working Toward a Violence-free Life: An Evaluation of Short-term Shelter Stays for Battered Women." Submission anticipated Fall 2005.

Ternus, M., Turner, M., Ray, M., Cheatwood, S, Houseman, C. Plichta, S. & E. Vogel. "Air Force Aeromedical Evacuation Nursing of Combat Casualties Post 9-11". Submission anticipated Fall 2005.

Vogel, E. & B. Mengistu. "Terminal Accession: An Essay on the Transition of Power in Government." Submission anticipated Fall 2005.

Vogel, E. & P. Cornell. "Building Ethical Behavior in Municipal Employees." Submission anticipated Winter 2005.

Vogel, E. "Privatization of Public Health in the US." Submission anticipated Winter 2005.

Conference Presentations:

Papers:

"Pursuit of Professionalism in Bureaucracy: Perceptions about Bureaucratic Values of Civil Service Employees in the Ethnic Federalism of Ethiopia." Vogel, E. & B. Mengistu. Paper presented at International Conference on Public Management, Policy and Development, Dakar, Senegal, June 17-24, 2005.

“Public Perceptions of Privatization in Ethiopia: A Case for Public Good or Private Gain?” Mengistu, B., Vogel, E. & M. Ayenew. Paper presented at International Conference on Public Management, Policy and Development, Dakar, Senegal, June 17-24, 2005.

“Perceptions of Civil Service Employees about Merit, Diversity and Discrimination in the Civil Service System of an Ethnic Federalism.” Vogel, E. & B. Mengistu. Paper presented at International Conference on Public Management, Policy and Development, Maputo, Mozambique, July 24-26, 2003.

“Imperatives of Social Capital in Development: The Dynamic Relationships among Human Capital, Political-Legal Frameworks, and Social Capital.” Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. Paper presented at Global Awareness Society International, Washington, DC, May 22-25, 2003.

“Privatization: Public Good or Private Gain? A Case Study.” Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. Paper presented at Global Awareness Society International, Washington, DC, May 22-25, 2003.

“Privatizing Public Health in the United States.” Paper presented at American Society for Public Administration, Washington, DC, March 15-18, 2003.

“Perceptions of Civil Service Employees about Merit, Diversity and Discrimination in the Civil Service System of an Ethnic Federalism.” Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. Paper presented at National Conference of Minority Public Administrators, Hampton, VA, February 5-8, 2003.

“Women Working Toward a Violence-free Life: An Evaluation of Short-term Shelter Stays for Battered Women.” Plichta, S., Vogel, E. & C. Marks. Paper presented at American Public Health Association Annual Conference, Philadelphia, PA, November 9-13, 2002.

“Privatizing Public Health in the United States.” Paper presented at American Public Health Association Annual Conference, Philadelphia, PA, November 9-13, 2002.

“Privatizing Public Health in the United States.” Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Global Awareness Society International, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. May 23-26, 2002.

“Bureaucratic Neutrality in Ethnic Federalism: The Case of Ethiopia.” Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. Paper presented at the International Conference on Contemporary Development Issues for Ethiopia, University of Western Michigan, Kalamazoo, Michigan. August 16-18, 2001.

“Bureaucratic Neutrality in Ethnic Federalism: The Case of Ethiopia.” Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. Paper presented at the International Conference on Public Management, Policy and Development, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. June 3-6, 2001.

“The Impact of HIV/AIDS Policy Differences on Outcomes: A Comparative Analysis Between Uganda and Ethiopia.” Vogel, E. & L. Tsegaw. Paper presented at the International Conference on Public Management, Policy and Development, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. June 3-6, 2001.

“Factors Affecting Dissertation Progress.” Vogel, E. & P. Dunning. Paper presented at the National Conference of the American Society for Public Administration, Rutgers University, Newark, New Jersey. March 10-13, 2001 (by invitation).

“Factors Affecting Dissertation Progress.” Vogel, E. & P. Dunning. Paper presented at the 24th National Teaching Public Administration Conference, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, February 4-5, 2001.

Posters:

“Gender Differences Among Dentists Regarding Knowledge of Eating Disorders and Secondary Prevention Practices.” DeBate, R. & E. Vogel. Accepted for poster presentation at Old Dominion University Research Day, Norfolk, VA, April 6, 2005.

“Social Capital as the Nexus of Human Capital, Institutional Arrangements, and Spatial Configuration.” Mengistu, B. & E. Vogel. Accepted for poster presentation at Old Dominion University Research Day, Norfolk, VA, April 6, 2005.

“Air Force Aeromedical Evacuation Nursing of Combat Casualties Post 9-11.. Ternus, M., Turner, M., Ray, M., Cheatwood, S, Houseman, C. Plichta, S. & E. Vogel.

“Health Care Needs of Women in a Domestic Violence Shelter: A Pilot Study.” Plichta, S., Vogel, E., & T. W. Babineau. Poster presentation at American Public Health Association Annual Conference, Washington, DC, November 6-10, 2004.

“The Impact of HIV/AIDS Policy Differences on Outcomes: A Comparative Analysis Between Uganda and Ethiopia.” Vogel, E. & L. Tsegaw. Poster presentation at American Public Health Association Annual Conference, Philadelphia, PA, November 9-13, 2002.

“Factors Predicting Cost and Length of Stay of Acute Psychiatric Inpatients.” Banks, C., Jenkins, T., Kumar, S., Ranne, J., Rubino, G., Tweed, S., Vogel, E., Zhang, Y., & S. Plichta. Poster presentation at American Public Health Association Annual Conference, Philadelphia, PA, November 9-13, 2002.

“Women Working Toward a Violence-free Life: An Evaluation of Short-term Shelter Stays for Battered Women.” Plichta, S., Vogel, E. & C. Marks. Poster presentation at Eastern Virginia Medical School National Public Health Day Conference, Norfolk, Virginia. April 2002.

“Privatizing Public Health.” Poster presentation at Eastern Virginia Medical School National Public Health Day Conference, Norfolk, Virginia. April 2002.

“The Impact of HIV/AIDS Policy Differences on Outcomes: A Comparative Analysis Between Uganda and Ethiopia.” Vogel, E. & L. Tsegaw. Poster presentation at Eastern Virginia Medical School National Public Health Day Conference, Norfolk, Virginia. April 2002.

“Factors Predicting Cost and Length of Stay of Acute Psychiatric Inpatients.” Banks, C., Jenkins, T., Kumar, S., Ranne, J., Rubino, G., Tweed, S., Vogel, E., Zhang, Y., & Plichta, S. Poster presentation at Eastern Virginia Medical School National Public Health Day Conference, Norfolk, Virginia. April 2002.

“Privatizing Public Health.” Poster presentation at Old Dominion University Health Sciences Research Day, Norfolk, Virginia. March 20, 2002.

“The Impact of HIV/AIDS Policy Differences on Outcomes: A Comparative Analysis Between Uganda and Ethiopia.” Vogel, E. & L. Tsegaw. Poster presentation at Old Dominion University Health Sciences Research Day, Norfolk, Virginia. March 20, 2002.

“Factors Predicting Cost and Length of Stay of Acute Psychiatric Inpatients.” Banks, C., Jenkins, T., Kumar, S., Ranne, J., Rubino, G., Tweed, S., Vogel, E., Zhang, Y., & Plichta, S. Poster presentation at Old Dominion University Health Sciences Research Day, Norfolk, Virginia. March 20, 2002.

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