UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST AND CENTRAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

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BY

NAA ADJELEY SUTA ALAKIJA

Thesis submitted to the Department of Sociology and Anthropology of the Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Cape Coast in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Sociology

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

    I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:……………….............. Date:…………………....

Name: Naa Adjeley Suta Alakija

Supervisors' Declaration

    We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:……………….............. Date:……………..

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to explore factors influencing the low representation of women in management positions in University of Cape Coast and Central University College. An exploratory qualitative research design was employed to undertake the study. A survey questionnaire was completed through interviews with forty-eight workers in management positions in both universities.

Among the respondents, the majority were males, married, aged 30 - 34 and held at least a post-graduate degree. Generally, the respondents were of the view that women are not well represented in management positions. Notable reasons they gave included lack of requisite qualifications on the side of women and institutions not being gender sensitive. The problems women in management positions face were stressful career workload and domestic/family responsibilities and these keep them from climbing the managerial ladder. The respondents were of the view that women need more opportunities to excel and aspire for management position.

The findings of the study indicate that the women who participated in the study experienced little or no challenges and constraints before they advanced to management positions, at least not to the same extent as after they were already in management. The situation can be improved if institutions formulate policies geared at helping women with leadership potentials and implement employment equity policies so as not to advantage one group over another.

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DEDICATION

To my beloved family: my husband, Nana and my children Nana Yaw and Ewurabena. Walk on, with hope in your heart, and you'll never walk alone.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Women are capable of performing duties and functions just as men do. They, like men, have the talents and capabilities of contributing effectively to nation building. Prominent historical examples of women leaders are Deborah, the judge, in the Old Testament, Joan of Arc, leading the French army, and Yaa Asantewaa, leading the Ashantis to fight the British (Addo-Adeku, 1992). Women have assumed responsibilities as Prime Ministers of nations, such as Golda Meier in Israel, Indira Ghandi in India, Benazir Bhutto in Pakistan, Margaret Thatcher in Britain, Helen Johnson Sirleaf as President of Liberia and many more. We can also talk of the late Dr (Mrs.) Esther Ocloo, one of the leading industrialists in Ghana. The brilliant feats of leadership exhibited by these women are enough proof that women are capable of holding effective leadership roles given the opportunity and co-operation.

Although there are considerable variations in the respective roles of women and men in different cultures in recent times, there is no known society in which women are more powerful than men (Adu, 1999). To a large extent, there exists a highly even distribution of sexes within all sectors of the labour force and public offices where women find themselves located in lower paid and less skilled jobs. Perhaps the most dramatic change that has occurred is

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the increase in the number of both men and women receiving formal education, and thus becoming available for formal sector employment. In the early years after Ghana's independence, it became for some a matter of national pride to have women in highly placed positions, as was the case when Nkrumah appointed three women ministers to his cabinet in 1985 (Adepoju & Oppong, 1994)

It is a truism that some years past, women were not known in the circles of authority. Gender roles and attitudes towards them prevented women from getting to managerial positions. They were relegated to the background most probably because society at the time believed the woman's place was in the kitchen and all her time was taken up with bearing children, bringing them up and supporting the family. Therefore, all activities and positions that were considered to be the most important and accorded the highest prestige were defined as the special province of men and especially appropriate for men. This was the time when only few women had the opportunity of pursuing formal education and when only few women managed to attain university education.

Women all over the world appear to have been exposed either covertly or overtly to discrimination in various ways – at work, in the home, at school and in local and international politics. In fact, even within the UN system, women are conspicuously fewer in leadership positions.

Although there are now many highly qualified women in Ghana, they do not have equal representation in leadership positions in the universities and in education at large. Dr Gloria Nikoi former Chancellor of UCC has been the only woman Chancellor ever in the memories of Universities in Ghana, and it

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was only recently (2008) that a woman was appointed the Vice Chancellor of the University of Cape Coast. A few of them have also been appointed as Deans, Heads of Departments, Faculty Officers, Deputy registrar and Senior Assistant Registrars in Ghana's public and private universities.

These days, women are rubbing shoulders with men in sectors of employment especially in education. Therefore, there is no reason why the gender gap should persist.

There are compelling arguments pertaining to human rights to support women's participation in the labour market. Women make up more than half of the population and more than one third of the workforce. Therefore, it is only fair that they must be granted their right to full citizenship and equal opportunity and treatment in employment.
It is also a matter to social justice to combat discrimination against women by allowing them to participate in all levels of employment in Ghana.

A lot of efforts have been made over the years to raise women's educational standards to enable many of them assume leadership roles in all aspects of national development. For instance, the introduction of the Accelerated Development Plan in 1951, the Seven-Year Plan for Natural Resources and Sustainable Development and the Education Act of 1961 have all helped to increase female participation in education at all levels, thereby paving the way for the advancement of women in the Ghanaian society and their subsequent rise to leadership positions (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

Similarly, the formation of women's organizations, such as the Federation of Gold Coast Women (FGCW) in 1954, later known as the Ghana

Assembly of Women (GAW), concerned itself with the socio-economic and political problems of the Ghanaian woman. It had among its objectives, the promotion of leadership of Ghanaian women. In pursuance of these objectives, the GAW among others, "organized leadership courses for women throughout the country" (Vieta, Weekly Spectator: Jan. 29. 1994:14).

On the international scene, women have become the focus of international programmes and conferences. In 1972 the UN General Assembly proclaimed 1975 as International Women's Year to be devoted to women's issues, to achieve equality for women and to ensure the full integration of women in the total development effort.

Following the World Conference of the International Women's year in Mexico, the UN General Assembly proclaimed 1976-1985 as the UN Decade for women. The objectives of the decade required that women play a central role as intellectuals, policy-makers, decision-makers, planners, and as contributors to and beneficiaries of development. In 1985, at the Nairobi UN Conference, the "Forward-looking" strategies for the Advancement of Women during the period 1986-2000 presented measures to overcome obstacles for the advancement of women. At its General Conference in 1989 UNESCO stressed the following priorities, namely:

   (i) to improve women's status;

   (ii) to reduce illiteracy rates particularly among women;

   (iii) to increase women's participation in decision-making position at local, national, and international levels; and

   (iv) to increase the number of women in management and policy-making positions in all walks of life (UNESCO, 1993).

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The desire to achieve the goals and objectives of the International Women's Year inspired the Government of Ghana to set up the National Council on Women and Development (NCWD) in 1975 to promote the advancement of the Ghanaian woman in all walks of life. A number of seminars, workshops and fora have been organized by the NCWD to encourage women in the Ghanaian society to be more confident and take up leadership roles. At one of these fora, Miss Doris Kuma, the Kadjebi District Officer of the NCWD at the time urged women to "compete with men for leadership and development, and to participate in decision-making on issues that affect you and your communities" (Dzamboe, Daily Graphic Feb.5, 1994:16).

The victory scored so far on the emancipation of women has been unimpressive. A 1990 evaluation of the "Forward-looking" strategies by the United Nations Commission on the status of women revealed that the world community had become more conscious of and sensitive to issues affecting women but there seemed to be some loss of momentum in implementation. A lot more remained to be done and this is exactly what the Fourth World Conference on Women scheduled for September 4, 1995, in Beijing, China, aimed at doing. Under the theme, "Equality, Development and Peace", this conference aimed at providing the opportunity to assess how much has been achieved to bring out women's strengths, skills and talents and to move on from there to achieve the goals set for the decade. The overall objectives of this conference were to:

(i) Evaluate the work already done in the implementation of the 1985 Nairobi Forward-looking strategies for the Advance of women;

(ii) Address the key issues which have been identified as representing fundamental obstacles to the advancements of the majority of women, such as effective participation in decision-making, poverty, health, education, violence, women's human right and women and peace; and

(iii) Create the impetus in society for women to move forward, well-equipped to meet the challenges and demands of the 21st Century for political, economic, scientific and technological developments (Dansua, Weekly Spectator, October 1, 1994).

In spite of all the efforts being made to raise the status of women and the fact that rules guarantee equal rights to education and empowerment for both sexes in Ghana, it appears the number of women in leadership positions in all walks of life has not changed much. Women still occupy a secondary and inferior position to that of men. Can the small number of women in leadership positions, generally found in Ghana and in both universities, be due to women's own attitudes towards leadership? Are women themselves believers in social norms that militate against their rise to leadership positions? Do they contribute to and reinforce discrimination, if any? The quest for answers to the above questions has sparked off the interest of the writer to research into the extent to which women in management positions are so few in the selected Universities.

Statement of the Problem

It is an undeniable fact that the development process of any country rests on the shoulders of both men and women. It has been observed that

although Ghanaian women play a significant role in the development of many communities, only a few of them are found in managerial positions. A look at the number of women holding leadership positions at all levels in Ghana indicates consistent male dominance.

Few women find themselves occupying positions of authority in formal power structures. In the Fourth Republic under the National Democratic Congress (NDC), only eight percent of parliamentarians were women and less than eight percent District Assembly members were women (Prah 2002;85). Currently, before the NDC took over power in 2009 there were about 25 women in parliament, 19 of them representing the New Patriotic Party and 6 representing the National Democratic Congress. According to statistics compiled by the NCWD, (1994), women's participation in the power structure of the country stands at about 20 percent.   From   all indications, women in Ghana, especially those in the low-income groups, have more limitations to their self-development than men (Prah, 2002). In 1992, equal opportunities were laid down in the 1992 Constitution and were supposed to be encoded in the formal policies of all government organizations. Many people are, therefore, of the view that gender discrimination does not exist in Ghana.

Today Ghana can boast of women in all major professions such as judges, lawyers, doctors, engineers, Pilots, university lecturers, bankers, accountants and administrators who have made, and are still making, immense contributions to various aspects of national development. However, in spite of the increasing number of highly qualified and competent women, the number

of women in public and private organizations and occupations are still small compared with their male counterparts.

Tables 1 and 2 show women staff in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College by category in 2008.

Table 1 Distribution of Men and Women in University of Cape Coast (2008)

Category	Total	Female	Male
Teaching staff	480	63(13%)	417(87%)
Senior members (administrators)	84	17(20.2%)	67(79.8%)
Senior staff	854	357(42%)	497(58%)
Junior staff	2270	449(19.8%)	1821(80.2%)

Source: Personnel Department, UCC, 2008

Table 2 Distribution of Men and Women in Central University College (2008)

Category	Total	Female	Male
Senior members (Administrators)	28	4(14.3%)	24(85.7%)
Senior staff	80	47(58.8%)	33(41.2%)
Junior staff	103	63(61.2%)	40(38.8%)

Source: Human Resource Department, CUC, 2008

Tables 1 and 2 also show the staff strength of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) and the Central University College (CUC) respectively, with women making up 63 of the total number of 480 teaching staff. Women

constitute 357 out of the 854 senior staff grade, decreasing further to 17 at the senior member grade, a position where administrative decisions are made. It could also be noted that women make up 449 out of 2270 junior staff grade. Similar variations with respect to gender were recorded for CUC. Out of 28 senior members (administrators), only 4 are females (Table 2). The case is different for CUC in that there are more females compared to males in the senior staff and junior staff positions. This may be an indicator that CUC is quite gender sensitive compared to UCC even though the figures for males and females in the senior staff position are quite close. The tables show a picture of the low representation of women in various positions in both universities.

The researcher chose a public and a private university as her research sites because she wanted to ascertain the differences between both universities in terms of year of establishment, policies governing them and perhaps other reasons that may lead to the low representation of women in management positions.

According to the World Bank (1985), the high inequality especially in the accumulation of human capital is a constraint to growth. There is also strong evidence that investing in women generates important benefits for society in the form of lower child mortality, higher educational attainment, better nutrition, slower population growth. They further argued that Investing in women ensures the quality and sustainability of economic growth.

There is, therefore, the need for women to be accorded their equal rights and opportunities at all levels of national life and also adopt a generalized approach to bridge the gender gap by taking into consideration the different needs of men and women.

Ghana's 2000 population census (Government of Ghana, 2002) shows that women constitute about 51 per cent of the total population. Yet there are significantly fewer women than men in management positions in the university of Cape Coast and the Central University College.

Objective of the Study

The main objective of the study was to determine why low numbers of women are found in high status positions in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College.

The Specific Objectives were to:

1. Examine the criteria for the appointment of staff into management positions in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College;

2. Examine the factors affecting the appointment of women to management positions in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College;

3. Determine the extent to which the reproductive role of women in the family affect their appointment to management positions at the University of Cape Coast and Central University College;

4. Examine the assessment criteria of women in management positions by management in the University of Cape Coast and the Central University College;

Research Questions

On the basis of the objectives of the study, the following research questions were posed to guide the study.

1 What criteria are used in appointing staff to management positions in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College?

2 What are the main factors affecting the appointment of women to management positions in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College?

3 To what extent does the reproductive role of women in the family affect their appointment to management positions in the University of Cape Coast and Central University College?

4 How does management assess the performance of women in management positions in the University of Cape Coast and that of Central University College?

Scope of the Study

The research was aimed at analyzing factors affecting the low representation of women in management positions in the University of Cape Coast and the Central University College. However, time constraints and inadequate material and financial resources did not permit the researcher to carry out research that covers a broader variety of higher educational institutions; thus the study covered the two Universities, that is a public and a private one to be able to compare better the various policies guiding the running of both universities. The limited area of study, coupled with the sampling procedure to be used may not allow for total generalization of the

findings. There is, therefore, the need for further research to be carried out in other universities of the country. This would help make a confirmation or otherwise of the findings of the study and generalize them for other parts of the country.

Significance of the Study

It is of no doubt that women in management positions in Ghanaian Universities are few, and this research will therefore serve as a baseline for tackling this issue in the University of Cape Coast and the Central University College. The research seeks to get a better insight of the extent to which a few women are in management positions and to examine the main factors leading to the low representation of women in management positions in both Universities. This will also go a long way to help in policy formulation.

Limitations

Ideally, this research should cover the whole of Ghana. But it is limited to only two universities.

Operational Definition of Terms

The operational meanings of terms for the purpose of this study are as follows:

1. Leadership/management positions and high status positions refer to:

   a) Heads of Departments

   b) Faculty Officers

   c) Deans

d) Vice Chancellor

e) Pro Vice Chancellor

f) Registrar

g) Deputy Registrars

h) Senior Assistant Registrars

i) Hall Masters/Wardens

2. Faculty:

Job titles of Associate Professor, and Professor and Senior Lecturer.

Organization of the Study

The study is embodied in five chapters. Chapter One comprises the background to the study, statement of problem, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, operational definition of concepts and organization of the study.

Chapter Two constitutes the review of available literature related to the study, while Chapter Three outlines the methodology and procedures for conducting the study. These include the population and the sample, the instruments, and the procedures for the collection and analysis of the data.

Chapter Four deals mainly with the actual analysis of data collected followed by a discussion of possible reasons for the occurrence of the results. The final chapter consist of the summary, conclusions and recommendations as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Over the past few years women have been able to make a number of inroads in achieving management positions yet they continue to be underrepresented in organisations across the world. This has attracted the attention of both male and female researchers to devote a lot of resources in finding out why gender inequalities exist in society. This chapter has been devoted to present a review of the literature on some of the relevant issues pertaining to women's economic roles and their position in public life. These include; gender, history of women in higher education, the glass ceiling, women's reaction to sexism in the academy, networking, networks and gender, mentors, the female male approach, barriers to the advancement of women into leadership positions; and special problems of women administrators.

Gender and gender inequality

Feminist scholars continue to disagree on how gender inequity is defined, and how gender equity can be achieved. However there is agreement that the concept of gender is socially constructed, that women and their experiences have historically been excluded from the development of knowledge, and that feminisms in all their diversity demand that the balance

of power relationships be changed politically, structurally, and interpersonally (Schmuck, 1996). Until the first-wave feminist critique, gender was not considered important in society and was subsequently ignored. Women were wives and mothers in a stratified patriarchal society, deriving their status from their fathers and husbands, and, therefore, did not need to be heard, nor studied. The first-wave feminists, with a limited focus on the rights of middleclass women, argued against inequality and a corrupt social system maintained by and for the benefit of men (Wollstonecraft, 1792). Mary Wollstonecraft was one of the earliest Western women to articulate an understanding of the depth of gender inequality in her society. She believed that if socialized equitably, both men and women would develop character and virtue. She was very clear that the cause of women's oppression was men.

By the late nineteenth century, the major influence on society was Darwin's ideology of the survival of the fittest, which included the sexual selection of men as the more evolved, and more varied, sex (Solomon, 1985). This positioned men as being in control of society to bring order over the "simpler" women (middle and upper class) who were placed on a pedestal and "protected" from having to labour outside of the home, for which they would need an education. Accordingly, feminists promoted a separate but equal life for women, reflecting two other current strains of thought prevalent at that time.

The modernist belief in the inherent rationality of all people implied that women had the potential to possess the same intelligence as men, and the belief that women were different from men, nevertheless, were melded by the feminist movement into a resistance coined by Estelle Freedman as

"separatism as a strategy" (Nidiffer, 2001a;141). Women argued that their separate sphere was distinct from but equal to the men's sphere. However this strategy was less than successful as it mirrored the rise of specialization and professionalization in the public sphere, reproducing gender schema, and reinforcing the male norm (Valian, 2000). The separation of the theoretical (considered masculine) from the practical (feminine) was the common division (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001), limiting choices for women in both the private and public spheres.

Beginning with Woolf and Simone de Beauvoir, the second-wave of feminism began to problematize the definition of "woman" and to reveal the invisibility of women in the public sphere. Throughout the late seventies and early eighties, several approaches to challenging gender inequity emerged, settling into three broad theoretical areas of liberal feminism, radical feminism, and socialist feminism (Luke, 2001). Liberal feminists argued for equality from Wollstonecraft's perspective of natural rights, whereas radical feminists argued for women's difference and the need for alternative women-centered systems. Socialist feminism also argued for separate systems but those which dismantled capitalist institutions.

With the rise of poststructuralism, and the emergence of postcolonial theorizing within feminist thought, as Carmen Luke (2001) notes: The essentialist, totalizing construct of feminine subjectivity gave way to one celebrating identity politics based on kaleidoscopic difference and diversity, hybridity, and multiplicity. (Luke, 2001; 11) Feminist thought moved along within the postmodern wave "toward epistemological uncertainty, the rejection of metanarratives and universalisms" (Luke, 2001; 11). Feminist

scholars began to deconstruct resistant discourses and to value the difference of experience. For women in Ghana the challenge to be seen and heard, and the challenge made to men to see themselves, has given them an insider/outsider status in society and within academic institutions. Literature exposes the continuing difficulties women have in their daily lives within a male norm society. This is especially apparent in academia where men in faculty or administrative positions can look vertically and horizontally and see nobody, or few like them.

Voice and silence have been used by feminist scholars as metaphors for "women's views of the world and their place in it" (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarul, 1986). Women are beginning to claim back the power of their own lives but continue to face many obstacles. Men dominate work place conversations just as they control classroom discussion (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). Men's reinforcement in the skills of interruption and speaking with confidence, received through their educational experience, render women powerless in the boardroom. A workplace culture of male dominance is continued and becomes more likely to reproduce itself, when men are supported and promoted because of the historical mores of society and the institution. In a landmark work, Joan Acker (1990), argued convincingly that all organizations are inherently gendered and not gender neutral, as they might appear. Lundgren and Prah (2010), also believe that many organizations, including universities are gendered in the sense that they are dominated by male values and interests, which permeates relationships between women and men. Through the largely unconscious, systemically constructed, gender

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inequity reproduced in part by institutions of higher education, society has difficulty breaking the cycle.

History of Women in Higher Education

Within higher education, women have struggled against gender inequity in ways that mirror the wider societal movements. From separatist strategies of the early women's colleges, through the development of coeducation, women and some men within institutions of higher education have challenged the resistant discourse of gender difference. In the past girls were educated, but primarily in domestic studies, so that they could assist their husbands and educate their sons (Rudolph, 1962). College education was considered unnecessary for women, as it was for most young men, due to its emphasis on the classics.

However there were individual resistors to the societal norms, both men and women, who developed colleges for women and who accepted women into previously all male institutions. The growth of the state universities and the establishment of the land-grant colleges in the U.S gradually popularized coeducational higher education, starting in the West and then gaining acceptance in the East (Rudolph, 1962).

Between 1902 and 1912 there was a large increase in the numbers of women enrolling in co-educational institutions (Solomon, 1985). This produced a new fear that women would take over and, by implication, devalue the education that colleges provided. One solution to this threat was to encourage segregation through the curriculum, with the division of courses into "those which were useful, full-blooded, and manly, and those which were

ornamental, dilettantish, and feminine" (Rudolph, 1962; 324). The curriculum became a battleground for faculty concerns over student enrolments, with the view that unless men enrolled in a course in large numbers the subject would be devalued (Solomon, 1985).

The historical gendering of the curriculum and the subverted ideology that women do not need to be in institutions of education can be resistant to change in many forms. Sadker (1994), found the most gender biased teaching practices in education occurred not in high school, but in the college classroom. Men are twice as likely to monopolize the class discussions and women are twice as likely to be silent. At Harvard, Krupnick (1985), also discovered a phenomenon where males perform, and females, even the most academically talented ones, watch the performance.

When females did speak they were more likely to be interrupted. They were also more likely to preface their comments with self-deprecatory comments. Hall and Sandler (1982), found that professors gave males more nonverbal attention as well as increased eye contact, waited longer for an answer, and were more likely to remember the names of the males. However, despite the many barriers that existed and continue to exist, education has been, and continues to be, the way for women to uncover gender inequity and to redress the balance of power (Solomon, 1985).

Now that women especially in the west are in equal numbers as students in higher education, the variety of educational options need to continue to be equalized and women faculty promoted to professorships. Here again, the historically gendered curriculum can be a barrier to career advancement. Women "chose" literature, social sciences, health courses

(except medicine) and liberal arts while men claimed the "hard" sciences and professions such as engineering, law, and medicine (Sadker & Sadker, 1994).

Although these barriers are changing, it is still difficult for women to succeed in the hard sciences, and many report a continuing hostile environment in many law and medical schools (Thomas, 1990). Where men have controlled a discipline historically there is difficulty for women in both finding mentors and in being promoted to positions of power. Even in education, where women earn the most Ph.D.'s, less than half of the faculty are women.

The Ghanaian case is not very different, according to Awumbila (in Tsikata 2001), women were disabled from applying for clerical and administrative jobs whiles the few who went to school were trained in home making. As if that was not enough, Science and technology subjects, such as, physics, mathematics and engineering have become the preserve for males. Any female who ventures into such an area is viewed as having encroached (Andam, 1993; Anamuah-Mensah, 1995 in Brown et al 1996). The low percentage of female participation in tertiary education according to Prah, (2002) needs to be understood as an end result of the more general constraints that women face in education thus several researchers argue that socio-cultural factors are important barriers to female education .

The Glass Ceiling

The Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (1995; iii) defined it as a metaphor "an invisible – but impenetrable – barrier between women and the executive suite, preventing them from reaching the highest levels of the

business world regardless of their accomplishments and merits". The glass ceiling is considered an almost impenetrable invisible barrier preventing women, minorities and men who do not fit the bill from obtaining senior management positions. Cracks by the small numbers who do achieve, soon repair themselves. It can be penetrated again but as equality and diversity boredom or denial is met with political ill will - recruitment, selection and training and promotion imbalance is less likely to be transparent or properly scrutinised for discrimination.

It is apparent in higher education where women faculty are rarely full professors, and, if they are, it is in the humanities. As a general rule, the lower the faculty rank, the higher the percentage of women (Headlee, 1996). Structural gender bias, that is organizational bias existing within the policies and procedures of the university, is one explanation given for the slow rise of women into positions of authority.

Laura Perna's (2001), study examined the employment status of faculty and their reported family responsibilities with regard to gender equity issues. She found that even after controlling for differences in race, family responsibilities, human capital, and structural characteristics, women are more likely than men to hold full-time, non-tenure positions: that is, they hold positions of lower status in the academic labour market hierarchy. Further, the effects of family responsibilities are less advantageous for women than for men. Perna proposes that women get less support for research activities, less collegial support, and have higher teaching loads that affect their movement up the academic hierarchy.

The American Association of University Professors' (AAUP) response to inequity in higher education centered on family responsibilities and academic work. In their statement they suggested that "institutional policies may be easier to change than institutional cultures" (Professors, 2000). Little has been written on the role individual men and women play in the maintenance of sexism in the academy. This may be because it takes the form of more subtle sex discrimination in the implementation of "gender-neutral" departmental policies and procedures.

The literature suggests many reasons for this metaphorical "glass ceiling" (Commission, 1995), reflecting each scholar's epistemology and ideology. Some scholars and hiring committees construe the problem as there being only a limited pool of "qualified" women from which to select when filling high level administrative and tenured faculty positions[1]. The noted reasons for this small pool have included women's "choice" not to pursue positions of authority and the "biological difference" which proposes that women's inherent nature (emotionality, resistance to risk taking, and irrational methods of decision making) (Lipman-Blumen, 1992) prevents most women from achieving the skills needed to be effective in positions of authority. Other cited reasons are women's exclusion from the male informal communication networks (the "good old boy" system) and an absence of role models and mentors which various programs have tried to address. The "Chilly Climate" of higher education is not yet warming (Sandler, Silverberg, & Hall, 1996). For the past three decades feminist scholars have described both the overt and the hidden societal and institutional reasons for the limited number of women in positions of authority. They have challenged the notions of choice and

difference, revealing historical patterns of gender-segregated occupations, unexamined beliefs of male heterosexual privilege, and systemic practices of racism and sexism. Feminists within educational administration have suggested that keeping the focus on women, individually and collectively, as the problem allows the dominant discourses of educational leadership to go unexamined for gender and racial biases. Some authors believe that current practices in universities not only disadvantage women collectively, but also may disempowered women individually through the reproduction of hierarchical patterns of power.

Women's failure to move up to higher managerial positions is attributed by Kottis (1993) in Brown, Anokye & Britwum 1996), to the way in which power is acquired, maintained and exercised in bureaucratic organizations. In order to perform successfully and advance in their careers, managers have to acquire informal power associated with their positions. Informal power is developed on the basis of a network of relationships.

Other attitudes that promote the "Glass Ceiling" are male views about the capabilities, attributes, roles and aspirations of women which Kottis (1993) in (Brown, Anokye & Britwum 1996), describes as outmoded. Such male views however create a situation where women have to work harder than men in order to gain the esteem of their male superiors, peers and subordinates. Women are judged by a criterion which is entirely different from those applied to their male counterparts: a criterion that reflects dominant cultural perceptions about what women's roles and attributes should be. Hardworking women are labelled as being "unfeminine". those who try to find a middle way between their career and personal life are "criticized as not being adequately

committed to their work"(Klottis 1993 in Brown, Anokye & Britwum 1996).The "glass ceiling" according to Still(1992) is not always erected by external forces alone. It is also self imposed by women who have imbibed the dominant male culture into which they have been socialized.

Women's Reactions to Sexism in the Academy

The stresses experienced by women faculty in the university setting have been reported as being different in both quantity and quality as compared to the stresses experienced by men (Carli, 1998). Carli (1998) suggests that women react in different ways to these gender-related professional stresses, expressing denial, lower feelings of entitlement, self-blame, and reduced feelings of control. Denial occurs when women individually experience sexism but fail to recognize and name their experience as such. Believing that gender bias no longer exists due to its subtly, as described previously, women may attribute their experience to bad luck or blame some aspect of themselves (Carli, 1998).

They may further conclude that their experience was unique to them. Carli describes telling a story at a conference about a woman who had come up for tenure and had found some files had disappeared from her packet. Following her talk many women from the audience and the presentation panel expressed that they had experienced the very same thing. Sometimes women recognize discrimination towards other women but not toward themselves because recognizing that victim status is aversive. As Carli (1998; 280) states "women who acknowledge that they are discriminated against must also

acknowledge that they lack control and that their colleagues and institutions are treating them unfairly".

The results of several studies suggest that women typically are satisfied with lower rewards than men, and that they do not feel as entitled to higher compensation as men do (Major, 1987; Moore, 1992). Moore (1992) found that with women faculty the knowledge of being part of a group that is under compensated actually lowered women's feelings of entitlement. That is, the more women faculty believed that they were with other similar faculty who were underpaid, the less pay they thought they should receive. Moore concludes that these lower feelings of entitlement are due to women's lower status in society and thus they expect and receive lower pay. Self-blame, i.e., taking personal responsibility for events is common in women in academia especially in the domain of research and scholarly productivity (Carli, 1998). Blaming themselves for their lack of advancement can lead to reduced feelings of control.

Some studies have found that women tend to attribute their success at work with external factors including luck (Fox & Ferri, 1992; Heilman & Kram, 1978; Reid, 1987). If some women perceive a lack of control over their own career success then levels of stress increase and women must use passive or active coping strategies to enact change. One of the coping strategies reported by Carli (1998) is for women to seek out social support response to stress. In the university two options for support are networking and mentors.

Networking

Scholars are producing growing evidence that women in higher education have historically acted as change agents, that is, they have

simultaneously both acted upon the institution as well as being acted upon by the institution (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001). One form this interaction can take place in is through the use of a networking strategy. Through forming professional networks and organizations women continue to act upon the institution, and women's scholarship is beginning to reveal historically "that women's administrative networks were broader and deeper than one might imagine" (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001; 3).

Scholars who studied women-centered groups in the 1960's suggested that even mature women, although expected to be invested in maintaining the status quo, do instead "embrace activism in various, unexpected forms" (Bashaw, 2001;25). Academics have been noted to have benefited from networking in five different ways: collaboration, exchange of information, support, career strategizing, and visibility (O'Leary & Mitchell, 1990). Through networks academics can further their careers by collaborating on projects, finding information about policies and procedures, gaining professional support in their work, discussing ways to further their careers, and providing ways to increase their visibility both within the institution and within their profession. Supports are networking and mentors.

Networks and Gender

In higher education "old-boy" networks have been in existence since the seventeenth century (O'Leary & J.M., 1990) where they were called the "invisible college." This was the group of favoured scholars who controlled finances, reputations, and the fate of new research and scientific ideas (Prize & Beaver, 1966). This pattern has continued both formally and informally since

with challenges to its existence only emerging in the late 1970's/1980's (O'Leary & Mitchell, 1990). Several scholars have noted the exclusion of women from these networks in both the research and departmental arenas (Mitchell, 1987; Simon, Clark, & Galway, 1972; Zuckerman & Cole, 1975). Mitchell's study (1987) suggested that women were beginning to rely on female colleagues forming an "old girl" network of connections.

Professional organizations, including the Association for Women in Education and other women movements, have provided women with significant networking and leadership opportunities (Jones & Komives, 2001). Examples in Ghana includes, The Women's caucus of The University of Cape Coast and old girls Associations of various schools in Ghana women's wings from the already existing organizations such as the Trade Union Congress (TUC), Ghana National Association of Teachers GNAT) Registered Nurses Association, Ladies Associations in work places as well as Women's Self Help Associations and religious- based Women's Associations (Tsikata, 1989; Manuh, 1993 in Tsikata 2001).

However, as Lipman-Blumen asserts, these networks of women are less like the informal, elite, male informal networks and are more open, formal, and inclusive (Lipman-Blumen, 1992). O'Leary and Mitchell (1990) suggest that women may be reluctant to join networks because of the lack of sufficient women to form effective networks in the first place.

Mentors

Mentorship, as reported by O'Leary and Mitchell (1990), derives from Greek mythology and describes support and guidance given by an older adult

to a younger adult to help them advance through life and work. Today, mentoring is described as a hierarchically structured relationship whose function is to sponsor and coach the younger person towards career goals and to provide the psychosocial functions of role-modelling, acceptance, counselling and friendship (Kram, 1988). For women a variety of different types of mentorship relationships have been described such as short-term mentors, peer mentors, and horizontal mentors who may be older and with longer job experience at the same level as the person being mentored (Duff, 1999).

Research on the utility of a mentoring relationship for advancing the careers of women in higher education has been inconclusive. Research conducted in the 1980's suggested that mentoring is a very valuable tool for women in administrative positions in the university in assisting them to advance (Durnovo, 1988; Moore, 1992; Queralt, 1982 as reported in Scanlon, 1997). However, later studies have also addressed the disadvantages of mentoring and the difficulties facing women in acquiring mentors. Scanlon (1997; 49) cites research suggesting that women in mentoring relationships may develop dependency upon a male mentor or may demonstrate "adoption of male values in order to be sponsored and accepted". Further, with the limited number of women in senior positions restricting the availability of mentors, married women will often use their spouses in that role (Anderson & Ramey, 1990). Scanlon (1997; 55) concludes that "mentoring, while a powerful tool, is only one means for breaking through the glass ceiling".

Another reported reason for the failure of women to support other women at work through mentoring has been called the "Queen Bee"

syndrome. Queen Bees were described by Staines, Travis, and Jayerante (1974), as women who have achieved professional success, are strongly individualistic, and tend to deny the existence of sex discrimination. They were in positions of power but failed to help other women succeed. Various explanations have been offered as to why the Queen Bees were not supportive of other women. Kanter (1977), suggested that they feared other successful women challenging their power.

Bardwick (1977), offered an alternative interpretation of the so-called Queen Bee behaviours. She suggested that senior women did not feel powerful, but that junior women saw senior women's power as a barrier to their own success. Therefore, the relationship between senior and junior women is constrained by the resentment of the junior woman coupled with her need to ingratiate herself with the senior woman. Thus, the Queen Bee senses the ambivalence of the junior woman towards her and gains little reciprocity in the mentor relationship. There has been little recent research to confirm or refute the presence of the Queen Bee phenomenon. However, feminist and critical race theorists suggest that women can be both oppressed and the oppressors, particularly Western women who have greater access to resources and power secondary to their shared culture with Western men (Thompson, 1998).

Female - Male Approach

Research shows women have similar high needs for achievement, power and administrative autonomy but low needs for affiliations. They have shown that they are career orientated rather than career family focused. This is

similar to men. Women and men are equally committed; Statham (1987) found women tend to be task and relational orientated where men appeared to be image engrossed and autonomy invested. Women will respond to poor performance of a subordinate focusing on equality and rules, men normally consider rules only, if indeed they deal with poor performance at all.

Women enjoy competence and mastery of the challenge always looking for the next goal; they have a 'greater cycle' of work involvement making work life balance lop-sided. Such persistent work practice can lead to less family time, health issues and reducing quality of life Gordon (1991:173). He suggests that women entrap themselves by male norms rather than being in a position to challenge and change the rules adding,

"It is difficult to have a balanced life without stepping off the fast track"

How can they? When organizational messages define the requirement for a successful career as one hundred per cent commitment and women want to prove their commitment. Women quote the reasons for their success as experience, high visibility, and people skills. Few gave importance to the women's point of view, rather than what needed to be done. Women reaching the highest positions are seen as strong willed and highly competent Bilamora and Wheeler (2000).They interviewed forty-eight successful senior women managers in Canada and revealed that strength of commitment to their careers was an integral part of their identity and work priority in their lives. It is likely that this work ethic results in women remaining single or childless or using childcare. In later years many regretted either not having children or not spending enough time while their children were growing up.

Even though there are some husbands and partners who are willing to help, child care, dependent relative care, house management and shopping tend to fall to women meanwhile both women and men work the same hours. Both experience stress at work. Nelson and Burke (2000), found common stressors of; role conflict and ambiguity; responsibility for people; dull monotonous work; time pressures and conflicting demands. Extra dimensions of organisational politics and barriers, overload, social and sexual behaviours and work/home conflict can further act as stressors for women. Anti stress, models can help here. Time management, healthy diet, some exercise, plenty of sleep, listen to relaxation tapes, reading, music and family time all help.

Institutions of higher education are complex organizations working within a societal context that promotes the marginalization of women. It has been well documented that the organizational structures, processes, and cultures of higher education are embedded with practices that reproduce inequality and inhibit change (Bensimon & Marshall, 1997; Blackmore, 1999; Park, 1996; Rinn, 1994; Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1992). Despite women now composing slightly more than one-half of all undergraduates and earning one third of doctoral degrees worldwide (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001), there continues to be a small number of women and especially women in higher-level positions in institutions of higher education.

For women in higher education the social construction of gender and its structural basis in the academy continues to provide barriers to success. Examining the organizational charts of the majority of universities demonstrates how men continue to be in positions of power while women occupy the lower echelons and the behind-the-scenes departmental jobs that

allow men to be successful. Thus, in education and educational administration, as in society, women have been, and continue to be, the "wrong" gender. As Virginia Woolf (1929; 35) said: Women have served all these centuries as looking-glasses possessing the magic and delicious power of reflecting the figure of man at twice its natural size.

Women trying to advance their careers have, historically, encountered a "glass ceiling". Today, in many ways, they encounter a "looking-glass ceiling" where the "inferiority" of women continues to reflect and enlarge the men who maintain positions of prestige and leadership. Texts abound that describe the necessary characteristics that leaders should possess, and they are ones of strength, risk taking, and rationality to which only the "right" gender can aspire.

Barriers to the Advancement of women into Leadership Positions Discrimination against Women

Discriminatory appointment and promotion practices constitute barriers to women's advancement into leadership positions. Borcelle (1985), observes that sex discrimination begins right from birth. Parents, as the initial educators, treat their daughters and sons differently and, thus, perpetuate prejudices and old-fashioned representations. For instance, they want to produce boys who are tough, courageous and prepared to command obedience and respect from other children whilst girls are trained to be gentle and obliging. She further states that the school intensifies the process of differentiation. Teachers, according to her, show sexism in sharing work between boys and girls; it is the boys who do gardening and learn to handle

tools whilst the girls do sewing and knitting. It is the boys who are asked to take the class attendance registers to the head teacher's office, to write the date on the blackboard, to distribute exercise books, all of which show that the teacher has more confidence in boys than in girls thus turning the girls into "second-class" individuals who are expected always to be followers. Borcelle (1985), believes that women theoretically have the same right to work as men, but in practice they lag far behind the men especially in terms of administrative occupations.

Stromquist (1989), shares similar views with Borcelle. Citing a study on dropouts from Yeoman's (1985) study, he states that teachers considered that educating girls had less value than educating boys. Therefore, they asked girls fewer questions, gave them fewer positions of responsibility and let them get away with lower standards of work than boys. From these findings, Stromquist concludes that teachers are equally responsible for perpetuating sexism and reducing females to second-class individuals.

Many studies in the gender and education literature imply that teachers play an important part in the thwarting of girls' potential. Reporting on a research on gender and education, Acker (1988; 309), states the general trends as follows: In many classrooms, teachers persistently spend more time with the boys, accord more value to male experience, treat the boys more as named individuals and identities…Girls on average participate in 44% of classroom interactions, although they are likely as boys to volunteer to answer teacher's questions. Girls get less criticism but also less instructions; boys received more academic and more behavioural criticism…"

Commenting on the above summary, Acker argues that this pattern of differential treatment of the sexes marginalizes the females and further reinforces their position as second-class individuals.

The study by Acker (1988), again shows that teachers are reluctant to accept equal opportunity initiatives such as girls into Science and Technology; probably for fear that girls cannot do as well as boys. Acker (1988), believes the behaviour of teachers is rooted in tradition rather than malice. According to him, research has shown that girls in single-sex schools perform better in science subjects than their counterparts in co-educational schools. Their successes have been attributed to various factors including:

a) More opportunities for class participation and leadership; and

b) Less gender stereotyping by teachers and the girls themselves.

From Acker's observation, teachers appear to be in favour of sex equality in its most general terms but skeptical about feminism. He advocates for educational innovation concerned with sex equality.

Citing Date-Bah's survey on "Sex inequalities in urban employment in Ghana", Adoo-Adeku (1992), indicates that employers consider women not as strong as men to supervise effectively. She states that 21 percent of employers admitted that they did not like employing women on some jobs for fear that they might become pregnant and go on maternity leave. According to the employers, pregnancy poses problems like payment for maternity leave, absence on maternity and the fear that work would be affected by women's new family commitments after child birth. Some employers fear such problems would affect general productivity. Adoo-Adeku (1992), observes that the results from Date-Bah's survey depicts a kind of sex stereotyping

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which stems largely from cultural practices and socialization based upon roles and statutes of the sexes. She concludes that some employers discriminate against women when appointing officers to leadership roles solely for fear of reasons stated above.

Like the employees in Date-Bah's (1986), study believed that men are more hard-working than women. Both the input and output of men are greater than that of women. Men are very responsible and spend more time at their work-places than do women. They argue that their traditional role as mothers and housewives makes them less efficient and effective at their workplaces. At any particular moment they have to go on maternity leave or even go home to attend to a sick child. Besides, some women have serious problems during their menstrual period. They are prone to getting sick often more than men do and therefore, when a woman is employed her productivity is definitely low.

Pregnancy, new motherhood and single parenthood are areas of concern to many employers in the developed countries. A case study on "The Expectant Executive and the Endangered Promotion" reviewed by Mock & Bruno (1994), reveals that employers are often thrown into a dilemma when women in general, and expectant mothers in particular, are to be promoted and given a leadership role. Jim, an employer, was reluctant to promote Diane, an expectant executive, to a vacant leadership post although she was the most qualified candidate in the establishment at the time. Jim's main fear was that Diane's absence during maternity leave might affect productivity and the future of the company might be at risk. Looking at this issue critically, Mock & Bruno (1994), wonder whether a man would be denied a leadership position when he is the most qualified, and yet has to go on leave because of a sudden

illness. The reviewers are of the opinion that if women are ever to get an equal footing with men in career advancement, the companies must begin to consider pregnancy and motherhood as normal occurrences in business that can be accommodated with minimal disruption and maximum benefit to the company and family alike.

In furtherance of the above consideration, Shavlik and Tourchton (cited in Green, 1988) indicate that in U.S.A. a number of laws, regulations, and executive orders have been promulgated to advance the cause of equality for women in education and employment. Some of the major ones include: the Civil rights Act of 1964 prohibiting discrimination in employment on the basis of race, colour, religion or sex; the Elementary/Secondary Act of 1972, the first law prohibiting discrimination against students on the basis of sex; the Equal Pay Act of 1963, prohibiting differential pay rates for women and men doing the same work, and the Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978, asserting that pregnant women shall be treated the same for all employment-related purposes as other persons not so affected but are similar in some form in their ability or inability to work. They therefore, call upon institutions to realize that accommodating women is worth the price.

Citing a study by Schmuck, (1975; 12) Biklen and Branigan (1980), state that not only is there a strong cultural norm that encourages men to seek managerial positions and discourages women from the same attempts found, but the study also reveals that differential treatment is given males and females when appointing them to administrative positions. They continue that, whereas some women described the sort of discrimination they faced on the job, other women pointed out that women face discrimination before the final selection

process.   Some male administrators had this to say: "*It's easier to work without women. Principals and superintendents are a management team. It fosters interdependence and mutual support. We need each other for survival. It's no evil liaison –It's just pure politics. I wonder if we could hang together so well if some of us were women. I work very closely with the principals. We work long hours and sometimes very late. Frankly, I would be reluctant to hire a woman principal especially if she were attractive. I might have some hell to pay at home*". They then conclude that women are not underrepresented in leadership positions because they are less competent or less qualified than men are but it is simply because women are discriminated against.

According to Dine (cited in UNESCO, 1993) several writers have noted that in spite of the difficulties that women face in gaining access to education, there are women well-qualified for academic positions who nevertheless fail to be selected. She is of the view that a man is preferred just because he is a man, and adds that discriminatory appointment and promotion practices constitute barriers to women's advancement into leadership positions.

Another set of discriminatory attitudes that hinder women's representation in educational leadership refers to problems of job training and selection processes. According to Biklen and Brannigan (1980), colleges and universities make no special effort to select women for training to become principals: women teachers receive less encouragement from supervisors to become administrators and strong bias exists against appointing women to administrative positions. They further point out that, to be appointed to an administrative position, women must possess superior qualifications and skills.

They suggest that since women's needs are similar to men's in those areas generally regarded as "competence areas" for administrators and managers, they must also be given training and advancement opportunities throughout their careers to prepare them for new challenges and a changing world. They need to be viewed and respected as persons with varied strengths and weaknesses.

In recruitment to senior positions and the derivation of benefits in the workplace, women face discrimination because it is assumed that they lack the qualities that are essential for successful managerial careers (Dirasse, 1991). Ardayfio-Schandorf (1990) in (Brown, Anokye & Britwum, 1996) notes from the work of Oppong and Abu (1987) that the rate at which women progress in the formal sector is slower than men ,women fail to derive optimum benefits from their work and as such lose opportunities for promotion as a result of conflict imposed by their work and conjugal responsibilities.

Women in the formal sector are unable to take up opportunities offered such as postings outside their regions, as well as training and self-advancement programmes. Married women do not want to disrupt their family life and unmarried ones habour the fear that a suitable partner might not be found in a new and strange environment. Another form of discrimination according to Lundgren and Prah (2010) is economic discrimination. They argue that the academy by its nature is unfriendly to women and that there is an economic issue having to do with monetary factors which affects the lives of academics everywhere. These factors have to do with women being clustered at the lower end of the academic ladder and few women being in top administrative positions, which implies that women generally have lower

salaries and experience structural promotion limitations. All of these circumstances they say place them at the lowest end of an already low pay scale making them suffer economic discrimination.

Problems Women Face in their Work Lives:

Social Sexual behaviour

Social sexual behaviour is alive and well though it may be semi dormant due to legislation or discipline enquiries and high profile media cases. Sexual harassment unwanted attentions, and sexual jokes flourish and are just as damaging as in the past. Morris's (1996) study of police officers in a major American City found 37 per cent reported increased sexual harassment from supervisors and more demeaning behaviour from peers, while men in the study did not make similar reports. Often male supervisors mismanage reports of such behaviours. The dominant male culture often excludes alternative views but includes institutional misconceptions about women, and include what is natural for men. They tend to believe their decisions are reasonable and sound, even from the heart, and are wounded at suggestions of sexism.

Marshall (1985), analysed data from one of the earlier discussed field study of twenty-five women in educational administration careers in the United States of America (U.S.A.) .The re-analysis reveals that women who move into administrative positions acquire stigma and become marginal. Her findings show that a woman's appearance, characteristics, attitudes and behaviours attributed to her because of her sex stigmatize her. The women's job performance is discredited or seen as manly and the woman in leadership position has difficulty gaining peer acceptance.

Marshall (1985), further points out that, in education, men are encouraged to move into the management and leadership positions which hold prestige and higher salary. Men can combine the duties of administrators with societal expectations whereas women who seek administrative positions deviate from women's roles and introduce a deviant pattern in administrative roles.

Marshall (1985), states that many women experience role conflict as they attempt to fill homemaker roles and the demand of an administrative position. This creates a major barrier to women's career development. She observes that administrative positions demand nearly total immersion, long hours, many evening meetings, and high personal visibility. Men have met these expectations usually with their wives' support and have been rewarded with promotions and higher pay. According to her, this model of total devotion to the job has become a career norm. But for women, the norm conflicts with women's roles; women are less likely to have spouses, children and community associates who will tolerate, support and regard them for immersing themselves in their careers.

Biklen (1980), commenting on "constraints women face in their workplace", cited Bailyn (1975) as saying that the relationship between family and career has been seen as a difficult one for women. This is because of the conflicting expectations that woman who work and who are family members must face. She points out that the nature of one's family certainly plays a role in determining the degree of difficulty. The absence of children, for example, increases the likelihood that the women will work professionally, and the age of the children plays a role in determining the question of career continuity.

She argues that some executive never consider a women for a job if travel is involved for fear of breaking up her marriage.

Biklen (1980), enumerates other problems associated with working women. She points out that whereas men could move their families to their new stations when promoted to administrative roles and transferred, women could not do the same. She states that the problem of combining a career and family life is lessened for women only when the husband is accommodating. Support received from the husband is seen as essential for a successful wife and administrator. A married man usually receives professional support from his wife but most of the married women do not receive the same professional support from their husbands. She advises that the professional woman who marries "must early face the fact that she has no helper at home".

Oppong and Abu (1987), in a case study in Tamale, Ghana, reveal that many women gave evidence of role conflict and time strain associated with mother/work roles even though there was considerable delegation of child care responsibilities. The researchers point out that the woman's activities become numerous and complex. She bears and nurses children and at the same time acts as the socialiser. Lundgren and Prah (2010; 172) agrees that the female academic suffers from cultural pressures defining her as a 'mother', 'wife', domestic worker. She is drained of time and energy as she tries to fit her intellectual life around her productive duties, duties that are undervalued, unpaid and often unrecognized. These numerous activities, they claim, hinder women's upward mobility to leadership roles.

Williams (1978), argues that, if society depends on working mothers for the development of the nation, it must then take the responsibility for

making it possible for mothers to work without reducing the quality and strength of their family life. She suggests the establishment of day care centres or nursery schools to cater for the young children while their mothers are at work. She makes reference to the Russian Trade Union which has tried to reduce the time spent on household duties to the minimum by "improving the retail trade system, public catering and the service industries". She explains that other facilities like laundry reception centres have been opened on "factory premises" to help the working mother. The all round concern of the Trade Union organization for women workers, she states, helps them more effectively to combine their work with household duties. Touching on the Ghanaian situation, she advises the National Council on Women and Development (NCWD) to work hand in hand with Trade Unions in Ghana to find solutions to the problems facing the working woman/mother.

Dine (cited in UNESCO, 1993), points out that where women have been successful in gaining academic or professional positions, they frequently face cultural barriers. The difficulties are attributed to their dual responsibilities as wife/mother and professional woman. In some cases, the traditional role is accepted without question and the professional role is secondary. Dine (1993), notes that many academic women in India put family responsibilities before their academic career. Similarly, women in Malaysian universities, who are quite well represented at middle management level, are less concerned about their poor promotional prospects than men because they consider their primary responsibilities to be their families. She cites a study by Parikh (1989), which reveals that professional women everywhere suffer great tension in their attempts to reconcile their professional and traditional roles.

According to UNESCO (1993), many researches have shown that, for many women, a professional career is dependent on the grace and favour of the husband. Without the support of the spouse the academic woman cannot be a successful wife and administrator. According to her, in the Arab states and India, women generally; require the permission of the male to work. She therefore, views the attitude of some husbands as a contributory factor to the small number of women in educational leadership.

Added to the above, UNESCO (1993) indicates that women frequently progress haltingly in their careers because of breaks for child-bearing and child-rearing. Lack of adequate child-care facilities and absence of industrial rights to parental leave have been major barriers to career advancement for women in industrialized countries. She further observes that stereotyped notions about women constitute major barriers to women's advancement. For instance, assertiveness is frequently interpreted as aggression and most women find it difficult to exert authority over males. Most often women in some cultures find it impossible to rise to leadership positions because of male resistance to women in management positions. Dine feels that so long as there are no structures and policies to deal with discrimination or to support women in their multiple roles of wife/mother/professional women, the problem of having few women in leadership positions will always persist.

Self-Imposed Restraints:

From a study conducted by Rimmer and Davies (1985), the authors indicate that women themselves are to be blamed for their small number in administrative position. They describe their sort of thinking as the "Victim-

blaming model". They state that women are found to be less aggressive, less competitive and more emotional. They are not natural leaders; they lack confidence in competitive situations; they are not clearly work-oriented and cannot handle responsibility. They argue that women do not plan careers in ways that men do; women are very inactive in pursuing administrative goals. They contend that: While men often plan their move into administration several years before it occurs, women may not think much about being an administrator until the opportunity arises. Therefore, many women who go into teaching do so primarily because of their choice to work, work which is suitable for women and work which will be compatible with home and family demands. Men on the other hand, tend to view teaching as a stepping stone to higher positions in education or in other fields.

According to Shakeshaft, (1989: 83), women are blamed for "low self-image, lack of confidence and lack of motivation". She argues that women do not take interest in applying for certain posts for which they could be considered. Many female teachers take leadership positions in activities in schools but will not do so in the community. Shakeshaft (1989), cites a study conducted by Schmuck (1976), on deterrents to women's careers in school management. She points out that many women do not see themselves as school administrators or lack confidence to pursue such an end. She concludes that, since self-confidence affects the way women are perceived as well as the ways they perceived themselves, women can be blamed for not being appointed to leadership positions.

Setiadarma (1993), observes that the most fatal "internal" obstacle which keeps a woman concerned and prevents her from becoming her full self

is what Dowling (1983), calls "The Cinderella Complex". This attitude, she says, consists of psychological dependence of a woman who wants to be taken care of and protected by another person. Setiadarma (1993) sees this dependency as a sort of network of attitudes and fears which do not give enough encouragement to a woman to develop the potentials she has and to realize her own aspirations. She concludes that women themselves seem to help prevent their own advancement.

Sah (1994), observes at a seminar held in Accra which discussed a report on the Status of Women in Ghana, that for the Beijing Conference scheduled for 1995 in China, and perhaps subsequent ones to achieve their fullest objectives, women must change their own attitudes. He stated that they need to be self-confident and conscientious, break certain socio-cultural bounds and take some women leaders as role models. He arrived at those conclusions because during the seminar, a participant recounted a very sad experience of a female chief in the Northern Region of Ghana. According to her, since the woman was enstooled as chief, she has grown very lean, an indication of an uneasiness with the position. Many factors could explain her present predicament but lack of confidence cannot be ruled out. Sah indicated that during very critical and hectic decision making time especially, consultation, it is often heard, "let us go and see the old lady" (Times: October, 21, 1994: 6). Sah argues that this is ample proof that womanhood is a repository of wisdom. But what do women say? "… Let me give my female suggestion", and the like; these, he points out, are all points to their lack of courage and confidence. He advises women to discard certain socio-cultural misconceptions and attitudes. He concludes that so far as Ghana is concerned,

the way has already been paved for women's integration into the society since the 1992 Constitution insists on equality before the law. Women must, therefore, move out of their shells and act.

Hammond (1993), observes that the inferior status of women becomes difficult to improve when women themselves are convinced of their limited potential and tend to follow traditional patterns and social expectations.

Pounder (1988), Citing Smith (1979) states that women have been found to have less commitment to work and career development. They also have lower career aspirations. Surprisingly, most women are afraid to take on responsibilities even when they are qualified. This, he believes, are among the factors which seem to constrain women from becoming as upwardly mobile as their male counterparts.

Thaman and Pillay (1993), view women's attitudes towards themselves as a possible reason for the under-representation of women in senior positions at the university. They indicate that many of those women tend to down-play their particular skills and abilities, as drawing attention to one's past achievements is often considered as boastful and, therefore, socially unacceptable. This, they claim, may mean that many women who are qualified to apply for jobs at the University of the South Pacific (USP) do not do so. Similarly, the state, of those who are already employed, very few will apply for promotion, and/or put themselves up as possible candidates for senior administrative positions. This means that the most common path towards promotion for such women will be nominated by their respective heads of departments. They suggest that women need to be given some encouragement

to take on responsible jobs for which they are quite capable but would not otherwise volunteer.

Special Problems of Women Administrators

Training

A situation analysis of children and women in Ghana (UNICEF, 1990) reveals that most establishments organize in-service training programmes for their employees. In theory, all categories of employees have equal access to in-service training relevant to their rank and position. However, the majority of working women have fewer opportunities for training and self-advancement due mostly to their reproductive and nurturance roles and duties. In addition, traditional beliefs concerning the value of women's work, employer's prejudices, the demands of marriage and conventional notices of what is fit and proper behaviour for married women all combine to place women at a disadvantage.

In reporting possible factors for the under-representation of women at the top level management, Thaman and Pillay (1993) observe that few women hold senior management positions at the University of South Pacific because there is no policy relating specifically to preparing women to take on such tasks. They state that the University Charter precludes any form of discrimination on the basis of sex, ethnicity and religion, the assumption being that everyone is treated equally and that everyone who joins the staff has an equal chance of pursuing a career. However, this is not the case in practice. They suggest that there should be a strong staff training programme aimed at assisting more women to improve their knowledge and skills.

Physical Differences:

Borcelle (1985), has observed that employers normally defend their attitudes towards women on the notion that women are physiologically inferior and, therefore, are not competent to take up leadership roles. She points out that for part of the time each month, women are not at their physical best; for headaches, indisposition and pain sometimes accompany menstruation. This has led to hasty generalizations, irrespective of the fact that these five or six days of discomfort have never prevented housewives, servants, female workers and female administrators from carrying out their regular duties without flinching.

The period covering pregnancy, childbirth and breast-feeding, is also reckoned as a factor disrupting women's working activity. Borcelle (1985) argues that without this interruption, a woman cannot fulfil her function as a mother in the perpetuation of the human species, in the maintenance of a working population commensurate with the needs of the national economy, and in the development and strengthening of the family unit. It is in recognition of the important role played by mothers that every country of the world has enacted protective labour laws and introduced social measures to enable women to fulfil their procreative function without hindrance.

Women in Ghana

According to Tsikata (2007), women in Ghana are yet to enjoy full citizenship rights after fifty years of Ghana's independence. She argues that "while they have been accorded formal rights of citizen by successive

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Ghanaian constitutions, this is undermined daily by discriminatory policies and practices in public and private and within the state and society"(Tsikata 2007:163).she argues that while women continues to make significant contributions to the economy and society through their productive and care activities and have made progress in educational attainment and their self organization in defense of their rights, full citizenship has eluded them.

An important element of the context of women's citizenship to Tsikata is the state of the policy arena and policies. In the fifty years of Ghana's existence as an independent country, women's right and gender equity issues have not featured consistently on government policy agendas. While recognition of the importance of gender equity, both officially and in public, has increased since the 1980s, this has not translated into gender aware policies and policy outcomes (Tsikata 2007). She further argued that even though women have been appointed ministers of state to handle the affairs of women by promoting women's right and gender equity, they preferred instead to concentrate on other activities such as provision of micro credit facilities for women.

In the post-colonial period women and men have occupied distinct positions in the Ghanaian labour force which is highly segmented both in terms of industry and employment status (Ofei-Aboagye, 1996; Bortei-Doku Aryeetey, 2000; Awumbila, 2001; Heintz, 2005 in Tsikata, 2007). Rural men are engaged in both food and cash crop cultivation on a larger scale and have the majority of the existing public and private formal economy wage jobs in the urban areas, and a smaller percentage of them work in the private informal

economy. Conversely, rural women are predominantly involved in food crop cultivation and small scale trading and also in private informal sector in trading and other service activities in the urban areas (Tsikata, 2007). Tsikata continued by arguing that women are predominant in the poorer segments of the informal economy in a highly gender segregated labour force because of their generally low levels of education and training, their bigger burden of unpaid care work and decades of discriminatory policies in employment. All these divisions owe their substance and vitality to the legacy of colonial policies (Roberts, 1987; Allman, 1996; Akyeampong & Agyei-Mensah, 2006 in Tsikata, 2007).

These differences in employment status between men and women arising from the dual segmentation of the labour force according to Heintz (2005 in Tsikata 2007) have resulted in gender inequalities in earnings, the control of productive resources and poverty levels. The control of productive resources such as land labour, capital, technologies and time is an important aspect of livelihood prospects in agricultural economies such as Ghana. Meanwhile there is gender inequalities in the control of such resources which militates against women's enjoyment of the economic aspects of their citizenship (Bortei-Doku Aryeetey, 2000; Awumbila, 2001 in Tsikata,2007).

The biggest gains of Ghanaian women have been in the area of education when we talk about social development. Between 1960 and 2008, women's educational attainments recorded dramatic improvements and these are the results of four decades of policies to promote girls' education because of the persistence of gender inequalities in education from primary to tertiary

levels (Tsikata, 2007). Ghanaian public universities also instituted their own processes of affirmative action to improve gender representation in enrolments. The programme involves admitting women with one aggregate lower than the cut-off point and this is thought to be the reason for the registered increases in percentages of female students (Tsikata, 2007).according to her the significant increases in the percentage of women have also coincided with an overall increase in student numbers leading to an increase in residential facilities for women, however the progress with education should not obscure the fact that close to 40% of women in Ghana, as opposed to 23% of men (a ratio of 2:1), have no formal education. Also apprenticeships for artisanal training are another example of the serious gender differentials in education in Ghana. A lot has been and is being done to get women to the top and to bridge the gender gap.

Theoretical Framework

The study was guided by the liberal feminist theory. Liberal feminism according to (Anderson 2006) is rooted in the history of liberalism as a mode of political theory , one that developed particularly over the course of the nineteenth century and it is centred on the premise of equality and the capacity for existing democratic social institutions to create equal rights and equal opportunity for all. Although rooted in thought over 200 years old, liberalism is the foundation for democracy, it promotes the removal of particularistic barriers , that is, practices that discriminate based on particular characteristics such as gender, race, and religion. Liberal feminism is characterized by an emphasis on individual rights and equal opportunity. It

assumes that the inequality of women stems both from the denial of equal rights and from women's learned reluctance to exercise their rights. In effect the goal of liberal feminism is equality that is the construction of a social world where all persons can exercise individual freedom (Anderson 2006). Although to many this seems like an ideal solution for promoting gender equality, it also has some fundamental limitations.

Even with its strengths, liberal feminism can be criticized for its focus on individual autonomy and the absence of an analysis of structured inequality. The theory, like the liberal philosophy on which it is based, does not include an analysis of race or class differences and assumes that the basis for inequality lies mostly in past tradition, not in the continuing operation of systems of power and privilege. However opponents of affirmative action argue that the theory fails to explain the institutionalized basis for race and class oppression. By claiming that all persons regardless of race, class, or gender should have equal opportunities, liberals accept the existing system as valid, often without analyzing the structured inequality on which it is based (Anderson 2006).

Eisenstein (1981), also argued that the goal of liberal feminist is equality, but in saying that women should be equal to men, liberal feminist does not specify which men women want to be equal to, thus it glosses over the class and race structure of societal relations. He further argued that liberal feminism leaves much unanswered because it does not explain the emergence of gender inequality nor can it account, other than by analogy, for effects of race and class stratification in women's lives. Its analysis for change tends to

be limited to issues of equal opportunity and individual choice. As a political philosophy, it insists on individual liberty and challenges any social, political and economic practice that discriminates against persons on the basis of group or individual characteristics.

Another critique attacks liberal feminism because it emphasizes the rational above the emotional while humans need both. It also questioned liberal feminism's focus on the individual and not on the community. Liberal feminists believe that their philosophy positively answers each of these critiques and though liberal feminism at one time was racist, classist, and heterosexist, it has overcome these issues. With its focus on gender justice and its ability to adapt, liberal feminism is here to stay (Eisenstein 1981).

The liberal feminist theory informed the study mainly because its assumptions and arguments are in line with the findings of the research. The findings revealed that women were in the minority in the senior management positions due to discrimination, sexism, inequality and others that the liberal feminists posit. Their main argument is individual rights and equal opportunity and these appear to be part of recommendations given by respondents.

Conceptual Framework

The framework was adapted from Massiah's visibility framework in Prah (2002). It was deduced from the literature review and has a back and forth arrow indicating that one level affects the other and vice versa. The first level depicts the gender inequality variable which affects the second level, the barriers to the advancement of women and in effect resulting in the third level

which is the low representation of women in management positions. The third level also affects the first and the second levels alike. The other factors are factors which may also lead to the low representation of women in management positions in both Universities.

The first level explains gender equality being the result of the multiple roles of women, the various discriminations women face, and sexism exhibited by some men which the theoretical framework also speaks against. Males being given more attention because of the belief that they are hardworking than the women and sexual harassment from males were not left out as part of the gender inequality variables. These variables affect both levels two and three because they form part of the barriers to the advancement of women to management positions and in effect the low representation of women in management positions. Conversely level two mentions the glass ceiling variables. They include the level of female education, low level of training for females, some self imposed restraints from the females themselves and physical differences between both males and females which also prevents females from getting to the top. The third level has embedded in it the two levels which indeed lead to the low representation of women in management positions in both UCC and CUC. These include gender inequality and the glass ceiling or barriers.

```
            ┌─────────────────────────┐
            │ Low representation of   │
            │ women in                │
            │ Management positions    │
Level 3     │                         │
            │  • Gender inequality    │
            │  • Glass ceiling        │
            └─────────────────────────┘

            ┌─────────────────────────┐
            │ Glass ceiling           │
            │ (Barriers)              │        ┌─────────────────────────┐
            │                         │        │ Other factors:          │
            │  • Level of             │        │                         │
Level 2     │    female               │        │  • Work                 │
            │    education            │        │    environment          │
            │  • Self-imposed         │        │  • Institutional        │
            │    restraints           │        │    culture/             │
            │  • Physical             │        │    organizational       │
            │    differences          │        │    culture              │
            └─────────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────────┘

            ┌─────────────────────────┐
            │ Gender Inequality:      │
            │                         │
            │  • Multiple roles       │
            │  • Discrimination       │
Level 1     │  • Sexism               │
            │  • Males getting        │
            │    more attention       │
            │  • Sexual               │
            │    harassment           │
            └─────────────────────────┘

                    ───────────►  Back and forward flow
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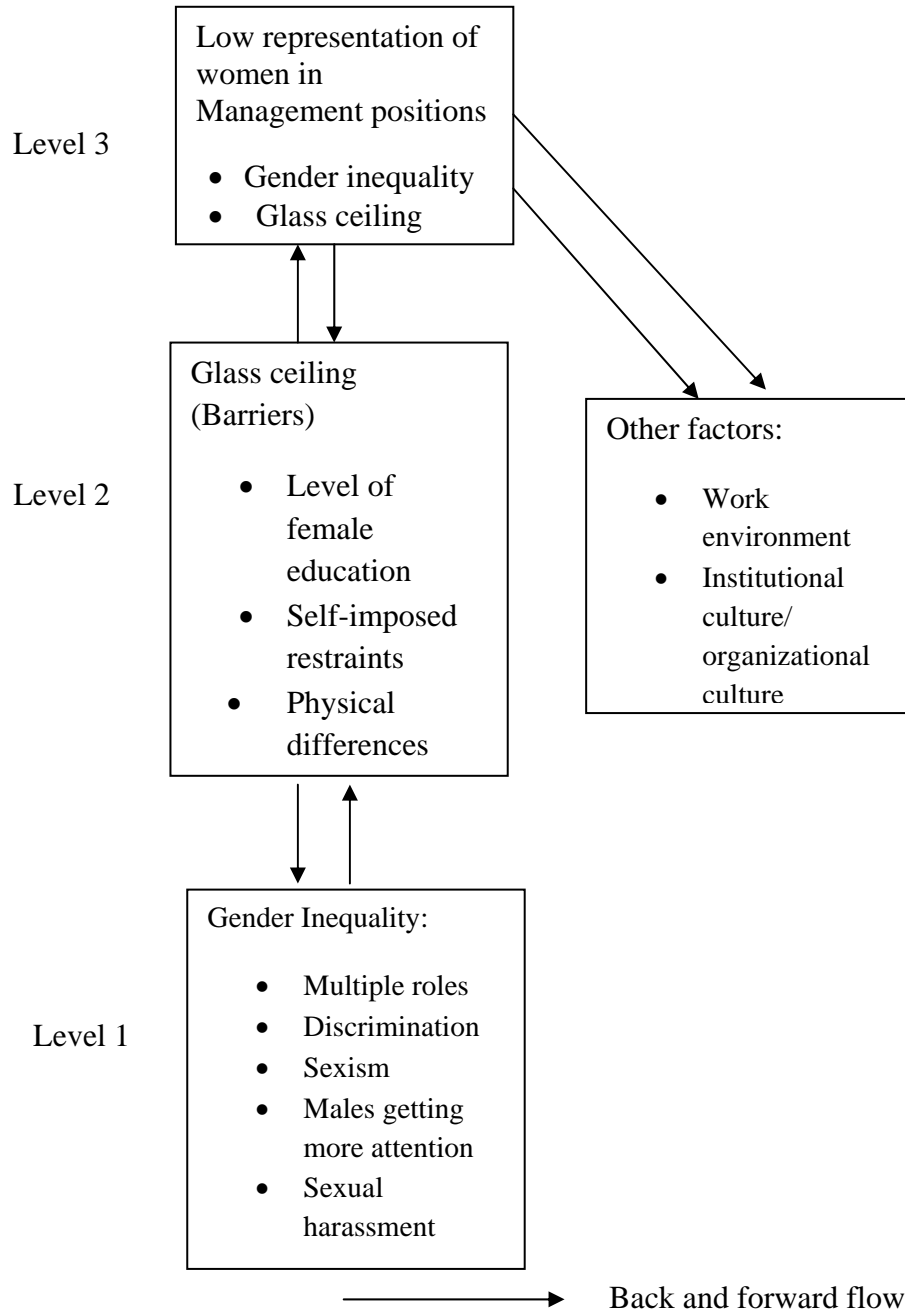
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Adapted from Joycelin Massiah's Visibility framework in Prah (2002).

The literature describes a historical basis for the lack of advancement by women in higher education. In all aspects of knowledge production and knowledge transmission women have been ignored or devalued. Despite equality in access to undergraduate study and recently in certain fields of graduate study, women remain few in number in senior faculty and management positions (Solomon, 1985).

Persistent gender inequity is reported in the research and is described as manifesting itself in a variety of different ways within the universities setting. Structure, leadership, and women themselves have been posed as the causes of the very slow movement of women through the glass ceiling. Lack of accommodation for women's family responsibilities, low pipeline numbers, and organizational policies are identified as some of the structural barriers limiting career advancement. Some scholars have suggested that women have been slow to advance in part because of the gendered view of effective leadership. Sex discrimination is reported as continuing in hidden and subtle forms, including questioning women's professional abilities and commitment and devaluing research on women-related topics. Mentoring and networking have been proposed by respondents as strategies that women must use to help them advance in their careers to counteract the established formal and informal networks utilized by men. While scholars have suggested the possible barriers to women's advancement and some strategies to overcome them, little has been written about how women in the Ghanaian academy today perceive those suggested barriers and strategies.

In conclusion, this framework, which gives insight into the work of scholars in this area, guided the writer in her research. The study sought to

find out if the issues discussed above exist in the Ghanaian situation. Thus, findings from the study confirmed the views of the experts in the field.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design, study area, population, and the sampling procedures used in the study. The sources of data, data collection instruments, the fieldwork and methods of data processing and analysis are discussed.

Research Design

This study is exploratory and qualitative. Exploratory qualitative research was chosen because it is designed to familiarize a researcher about a particular topic (Babbie, 2005). The representation of women in management positions is better explored using this approach. This is because the study explores the reasons why there are few women in management positions and finds approximate answers to the questions posed in the research. This will help satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for a better understanding of the study and also help test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study. Besides, the research problem, in this study, does not lend itself to an experimental design, that is, human characteristics and behaviours are inherently not subject to experimental manipulation (Pilot & Hungler, 1995; 175).

Study Areas

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) is 5km west of Cape Coast municipality, is located on a hill overlooking the Atlantic Ocean, and operates on two campuses; northern campus (new site) and southern campus (old site). It was established in 1962 out of a dire need for highly qualified and skilled personnel in education to provide leadership and enlightenment in the educational sector. The University started with a small intake of about 160 students distributed over three faculties, namely: Arts, Education and Science. The University now has a total student population of 38,505 and 320 teaching staff. The students take degree and diploma programmes in six faculties, which also offer postgraduate programmes, such as masters and doctorate degrees.

Central University College

Central University College (CUC) is an educational initiative of the International Central Gospel church (ICGC) located in Accra. It started as a short-term pastoral training institute in October 1988 and was incorporated in June 1991 under the name Central Bible Institute. Its name changed again in 1993 when it became Central Christian College. To reflect its new status as a liberal arts institution, it was renamed Central University College in 1997. The National Accreditation Board has since accredited it as a tertiary institution. It is co-educational with equal access for male and female students. It has two schools – the school of Theology and Missions (STM) and the School of Business Management and Administration (SBMA) (CUC, 2005). The school of Theology and Missions offers four different undergraduate programmes, as

well as two postgraduate masters' programmes. The school of Business Management and Administration offers six undergraduate degrees, as well as a Master of Business Administration (M.B.A.) and Masters in Commerce programmes. The majority of students are following management-related degree programmes.

The college has three sessions designed to address the needs of diverse categories of students: morning (8am to 2pm), afternoon (4:30pm to 8:30pm), and weekend (Friday 5pm to 8pm and Saturday 8am to 8pm). Student enrolment has risen dramatically at CUC in recent years. Furthermore, figures for 2005/2006 indicate that 54.8 per cent of the students who enrolled that year were female. The higher proportion of female students is a pattern that has been maintained since 1999.

Study Population

The study population comprises all people in management positions in both universities. They include the Vice Chancellor, the Pro Vice Chancellor, Registrar, Deputy Registrars, Assistant and Senior Assistant Registrars, all Deans of Faculties, School, Heads of Institutes, Departments, Sections, and Hall Masters and Wardens of UCC and CUC. No sample size was taken because the census was used due to the limited number of respondents. Thus forty-eight respondents were interviewed

Data Sources

Data for the study was selected from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data was collected from respondents in the field. Secondary

data was collected from related books articles, internet sources, journals, policy documents, World Bank and other international institutions' publications.

Research Instrument

The main survey instrument that was used was a semi-structured interview schedule. The development of the instrument was informed by existing literature. The instrument consisted of two sections, A and B. Section A dealt with the socio-demography of respondents, while section B elicited information relevant to the study objectives and focus. The interview protocol for the study followed a written interview guide. The instrument gathered qualitative data that yielded more fully descriptive and exploratory information of the low representation of women in management positions.

The semi-structured interview was chosen because it elicits detailed information concerning the focus of the study. It is also more appropriate for this category of respondents because the reasons, factors and solutions to the low representation will be uncovered more by interviews. More so, to obtain detailed information instead of sparse ones, the personal interview is more appropriate.

Data Collection

The data was collected by the researcher during June 2009. During each interview, the interviewer manually marked, recorded and wrote down responses to the questions as the respondent answers each question face-to-face. The average interview duration per respondent was 40 to 50 minutes.

Data Management

Quality and reliability of survey data depend mostly on the experience of the interviewer. To make sure that data collected is of high quality, the researcher personally administered all of the instruments as much as possible. Each respondent was visited on an agreed day, where the interview schedule was completed and returned. Follow-ups were done to clarify vague responses and to be certain about responses that needed evidences.

Data Capturing and Analysis

The data collected was edited, coded and analyzed for common themes. All the data that was generated by this study was analyzed using the N6 Package for analyzing qualitative data. This package was used because the study is purely qualitative. The 48 interviews were coded using *QSR* N6 (Version 6) qualitative software. Text searches on relevant codes were read and matrices were prepared based on the substantive point for males and females. With each interview treated as a unit of analysis, summary texts were developed and recorded in relevant topical matrices. The entry was done in duplicate. The duplicate data files were validated against each other to further verify the data. Erroneous data values were checked against the field records to ensure that no data entry errors were made. The analysis made use of contingency tables and proportional analyses, to look at the various relationships that exist among variables of interest.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses research results on the representation of women in management position in two universities in Ghana, University of Cape Coast (UCC), and Central University College (CUC). It must be noted that the study is exploratory in nature using qualitative data; as such it has a limited dataset. Results presented in the analyses should therefore be regarded as investigative and indicative of possible trends and patterns. As with any qualitative data, the views presented and discussed in this study reflect those of the respondents in management positions who participated in the study. The chapter begins with the presentation of background characteristics of the respondents after which results pertinent to the study will also be presented. A discussion of the findings will follow, and then the chapter will conclude by indicating what is entailed in the next chapter.

Presentation of survey findings

Background characteristics of respondents interviewed

This section presents the number of respondents interviewed according to their background characteristics. Special references are made to data concerning the respondent's personal and academic background, employment details. The following is a tabular presentation of the mentioned variables.

Table 3: Background characteristics of respondents

Variables		UCC (n=31)		CUC (n=17)		COMBINED (n=48)
		M	F	M	F	
Sex	Male	17	0	14	0	31
	Female	0	14	0	3	17
Age	30-39	1	2	0	3	6
	40-49	1	6	3	0	10
	50-59	13	5	7	0	25
	60-69	2	1	3	0	6
	70+	0	0	1	0	1
Level of	2nd Degree	9	9	9	3	30
Education	PHD	8	5	5	0	18
Marital	Single	0	2	0	0	2
Status	Married	17	12	14	3	46
	VC/President	0	0	1	0	1
Position held	Pro VC/Vice P	1	0	1	0	2
	Registrar	8	6	2	0	16
	Dean	0	0	2	0	2
	Faculty Officer	2	0	1	3	5

	HOD/lecturer	8	5	6	1	20
	Director	1	0	1	0	2
Years of	6month- 1 year	0	0	2	0	2
work	1-5	1	1	4	1	7
in university	6-10	5	6	6	2	19
	11-15	2	2	1	0	5
	16-20	4	1	0	0	5
	20+	8	1	1	0	10

Source: fieldwork, 2009.

Forty-eight respondents in management positions participated in the study, with 31 participants from UCC, and 17 participants from CUC. The males were 31, while the remaining were females. Their ages ranged from 30-60 to just over 70, with the majority between ages 50-59. Academic qualifications ranged from second degree to doctorate with the majority, 30, holding second degrees and the remaining 18 holding doctorate degrees. This appears to indicate that the two universities appoint people with higher degrees to management positions. Relatively, more of the participants in UCC hold doctorates than those of CUC. All CUC participants were married, and two from UCC were single. On positions held in both universities, Heads of Department and lecturers accounted for nearly half of the respondents. Participants' years of work in their respective universities ranged from 6 months to above 20 years. Ten participants have worked for more than 20 years in their university.

Appointment of Staff into Managerial Positions

The criteria for appointing and promoting staff into managerial positions in both UCC and CUC were examined (see appendix A).The document showed no signs of discrimination against any gender neither did it show any sign of affirmative action meanwhile some of the people in management positions in both universities complained of discrimination against them in terms of promotion. One can therefore say that there is nothing like discrimination against any gender written on paper but in practice it could be in existence. As a result the interview sought from participants their opinions on how they came to occupy their managerial positions. Participants from both universities reported that, they came to occupy their position by merit. Two patterns of response came up when respondents were asked what was used in appointing members into managerial positions. These were academic qualification work experience and interviews. The majority (80%) of the respondents in both universities reported that, academic qualification accounted for their appointment into managerial positions. The remaining few (20%) respondents reported that they were in their positions as a result of their work experience.

Representation of Women in Managerial Positions

Respondents from both universities were asked whether they think women are well represented in management positions in their university. Their responses are summarized as follows.

On the whole, the majority of the respondents were of the view that women are not well represented in management positions. However, the majority of UCC respondents reported that women are well represented while the respondents from CUC reported that women are not well represented. This might be as a result of the fact that UCC, as a university, relatively has been in existence for a longer period than CUC and as such, more women have climbed the ladder of management in UCC than in CUC. A follow-up question probed on why women are well represented or not represented. Seventy-two percent said women were well represented while 28% answered in the negative. Those who think women are well represented gave varied reasons. Notable among them are reported below.

> R: Well, women are equally as good as the men in terms of qualification, merit and ego (A male academic respondent, CUC).

> Because we have a number of them in the system .we have them at both the academic and administrative levels. Talk of Deanship, we have them as HOD's, Assistant and Deputy, Registrars, and even a, Vice Chancellor (A female academic respondent, UCC).

> Because there is no barrier to anybody who wants to join the management, it is those who qualify and are interested in a position that apply and get it. For the past years we have more

women joining the administrative cadre (A female administrative respondent, UCC).

Those who think women are not well represented in management positions were   asked about factors that might have accounted for that situation. They indicated that women lack the requisite qualifications, are saddled with family responsibilities, are discriminated against, and fail to apply for promotion. Some of their expressions are as follows:

R: Most of them are not qualified for managerial positions; they do not aim at higher education but marriage; there are no scholarships to motivate them (A male academic respondent, CUC).

The Institution is not gender sensitive, there is lack of confidence on the part of women who could climb up to the top and finally men try to suppress women so they don't become ambitious (A female administrator, CUC).

Low levels of education, no opportunities for them to climb up and men wanting to dominate always, women don't have the qualifications; even if they have its difficult climbing up, they are not encouraged (A female administrator, UCC).

Deciding to work in an organisation is a decision of choice and there were some who decided to leave. The university does

not discriminate at all against them, so they should apply if they qualify (A male administrator, UCC).

The responses indicate that even for those who are qualified to hold management positions, there is the feeling that they are discriminated against and are not encouraged, as such movement into management positions becomes difficult for most of them. These are all indications of the glass ceiling.

The respondents were asked about their opinion as to whether women should be encouraged to take up management positions. All the respondents with the exception of only one male CUC respondent agreed that women should be encouraged into management. According to him women should not be encouraged to take up management positions. He furthered his stance by saying that "they [women] need to sit up and aim at what they want otherwise men should also be encouraged". The vast majority who believed women should be encouraged into management positions gave varied reasons to support their stance. Popular among the reasons they gave are reported below:

R: Because I believe there must be gender balance. Management requires talent, skills, and humility and these traits are found in men just as in women. If men can be entrusted with management positions, then women must have same opportunities open to them by society. (A male administrator, CUC).

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Because I believe they have the same if not even better potential than men. Most of them have motherly compassion to passionately look at issues that crop up among staff and students (A male academic respondent, CUC).

Because women are forceful and committed to work, if they really want to be. Because of their strict nature, they make sure things are done properly (A female administrator, CUC).

Because they have some motherly love, and care towards everything, equal opportunity should be given to everybody and there shouldn't be discrimination by men (A male academic respondent, UCC).

Because women see things men don't see and our instincts tell us what is right or wrong, men have no extra eye. What men can do women can as well do. Also we have what it takes when it comes to management (A female administrator, CUC).

The respondents were asked to talk about what could be done to increase the proportion of women in management. This was to find out whether people in management positions in higher institutions have ideas about how more women could join management. There were no remarkable differences in the response given by respondents from both universities. However, two shades of responses were reported. While a few (27%) of the

respondents believe that women should also jostle out the men and take up management positions, the majority (73%) of the respondents tasked institutions to help uplift and encourage more women into management positions. Some responses of both males and females are highlighted below:

R: I think women should desist from being their own enemies and they should go ahead and aim at going higher (A male academic respondent, CUC).

Women should apply for positions when advertised; they should upgrade themselves to qualify for positions (A male academic respondent, CUC).

They must come out boldly; qualified women must not shy away from responsibility. They should have more education to attain higher positions; they should vie for higher positions and have courage to campaign (A female academic respondent, UCC).

The majority who also think that it is the responsibility of our social institutions to help uplift women into management gave the following responses:

R: There are two things I think should be done; we should encourage more women to go to school, stay in the school and aspire to the highest in education and the university must have

policies that will ensure to sponsor female staff with minimum
qualification to do their first and second degrees while they are
still working for the university as a way of encouraging women
to aspire towards management positions (A male administrator,
UCC).

We should be gender sensitive in our recruitment policies and
decisions of the university as well. Because it happened here
where a woman went on maternity leave and was replaced by a
man. Women in the institutions should be encouraged to
devote themselves so they can occupy management positions
and give contributions. Decisions of women in the system
should be taken so that they will always be willing to give more
(A female administrator, CUC).

I think women should be encouraged to have confidence in
themselves. But for the problem of family life they are not able
to go up but if she is determined, there is nothing that will
prevent her. The women are stronger and more intelligent than
men. "The consulting old lady syndrome" in decision making
and even the FBI etc. consult most old ladies in their
investigation (A male academic respondent, UCC).

The above responses indicate that the respondents believe that the
institutions have not been supportive of women's quest to be in management

positions. Even women who qualify are not given equal opportunities as their male counterparts just like the liberal feminist argue and fight equality. Right from the beginning, our social institutions, such as the family, and the school, do not encourage women to stay in schools, as a result, only few women are able to attain higher educational qualification. As if that is not enough, the few qualified women come into institutions whose management positions are hugely dominated by men, as such, recruitment policies and incentives to encourage women are less sensitive to uplift women. These situations as reported are partly responsible for the low representation of women in management positions.

Issues Specifically Related to Women

This section reports issues related to women which in one way or the other affect their movement into management positions. These issues are therefore explored among only the women respondents from both universities to see if some differences or similarities exist in their quest to climb into management positions. The seventeen women respondents from UCC and CUC were engaged in this endeavour.

Job Satisfaction among Women Respondents

The women in management were asked whether they are satisfied with their job. Their responses are summarized below.

Six, out of the seventeen women interviewed from both universities were not satisfied with their current positions. Nine out of the fourteen UCC women respondents were satisfied with their positions. Meanwhile, one out of

the three CUC women in management was not satisfied with her position. The 11 women who admitted that they were satisfied with their positions believed their positions had helped improve their life, and made their voices heard. As the case of a UCC respondent indicates, the position she occupies now has made her achieve her dreams and given her opportunity for career growth.

> *Because I have achieved what I wanted to, and this is less stressful than being in the junior work. Because I have done more critical thinking than before and I've come up faster but not very satisfied and still ambitious for a higher position (An administrative respondent, UCC).*

The remaining six women who were not satisfied with their position were also asked to give reasons why they feel that way. Popular among the responses they gave was that, they feel discriminated against by men, and they do not get to be promoted. The case of a female respondent at CUC indicates some of the views expressed in this category.

> *Because I qualify for a higher position but I have been refused because I have to wait till the promotion period while others (men) have it even when the period is not due. (An administrative respondent, CUC)*

Some of them also reported that they go home with inadequate salary, as in the following example:

R: Because my position and salary received is not encouraging. I receive very little salary for my position, as a result, I am not satisfied (An administrative respondent, CUC).

The responses indicate that, even those women who admitted they were satisfied with their positions are still ambitious and want to achieve more. For those women who are not satisfied with their positions, gender discrimination when it comes to promotions and poor salary are the obstacles they cited.

Challenges of Women in Management Positions

The researcher sought responses from women on the major challenges they face as women in management positions. This was necessary to help understand why there are few women in management. The responses indicate that discrimination faced from the hands of men and domestic/family workloads in addition to failure of staff members to comply with their directives are the greatest challenges women in management positions face. Some of the responses are reported in the following examples:

People think you are too busy, they expect a lot from you, and men think your contribution should be relegated to the background compared to theirs (An academic respondent from CUC).

Staying late to work because of evening school, forfeiting weekends because of weekend school, uncompromising

lecturers, and faculty members when it comes to bringing questions to be run for exams at the end of the semester (An administrative respondent from CUC).

A few recalcitrant men who irritate me, some men trying to elbow you out when they see you as a challenge. Harsh talk from some men and sexual harassment. Also, family issues (taking care of kids). Inability to go for further training due to financial and family challenge (An academic respondent from UCC).

No challenges in relation to womanhood. Because I tell the men in the face what they want to hear if they try (An academic respondent from UCC).

Family responsibilities, the performance of domestic chores and discrimination against women were the major challenges women in management face.

Attitudes towards Women in Management

Attitudes of people in management towards others could be a barrier or a springboard to their achievement. Respondents therefore were asked about the attitudes of both men and women towards them. To the women, there are two types of attitudes that men exhibit. While the majority of the women believe that men are encouraging in their behaviour towards them, few of the women believe that men are arrogant towards them and look down upon them.

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Some of the responses of those who reported men have an encouraging attitude towards them are as follows:

> *R: Generally they have been nice because I have been able to tolerate them and their troubles; I think it is part of them (An academic respondent from UCC).*

> *Very normal because they respect and encourage me (An administrative respondent from CUC).*

> *I'm a very responsible and respectful woman in that whatever work I give to the men or say they do, they are nice towards me (An academic respondent from UCC).*

Those who believe the men look down on them reported the following:

> *R: Very bad and dehumanizing but some are fine (An administrative respondent from CUC).*
>
> *R: They think they are men so they are mean and arrogant towards me (An administrative respondent from UCC).*
>
> *R: On many occasions a few of them think I have too much power than I'm supposed to they imply it, but I don't listen to them (An administrative respondent from UCC).*

The women who also answered questions about the attitudes of their female colleagues towards them as managers had interesting reports recorded. Contrary to what many people might think that women will be supportive of each other, almost all the women interviewed reported that their women colleagues were jealous of their positions. Even those who claim their female

colleagues are supportive and encouraging, cannot help but add jealousy as an attitude they suffer from other women. Some few responses are illustrated below:

> *Most of the women are not okay with me; they make my work very difficult, and are jealous of me wishing they were in my position (An administrative respondent from CUC).*

> *Because of the saying that women are their own enemies, I have to contend with the women just like the men, they say you have the PhD so you are 'too known' and pompous (An administrative respondent from UCC).*

> *Jealousy by those who don't know what they are about. Others are normal (An academic respondent from UCC).*

> *Women are very good to me; they are nice, encouraging, and supportive, but a few jealous ones here and there. When they have a problem with you they don't come to tell you directly but tell others (An academic respondent from UCC).*

Promotion and Related Issues in Management

The respondents were asked to talk about issues related to their promotion in their various universities. Their responses have been summarized as follows.

The majority of the women (65%) admitted that they have ever been promoted. Meanwhile six of them, 5 from UCC and one CUC respondent, reported that they have not been promoted. Those who have been promoted believed that they were promoted based on qualifications they have acquired over time. On the other hand those who have not been promoted gave varied reasons. While some believed that they just got employed and are awaiting promotion, others blame themselves for not acquiring the requisite qualifications for promotion, others also blame it on service conditions and cumbersome promotion requirements. Some of their responses are as follows:

> *Because I was employed not long ago, just recently, but I am working hard towards my promotion (An administrative respondent from CUC).*

> *I blame myself for not being promoted over all these years. I have not been working harder and faster on my papers in spite of the entire work load, but i am still working towards it (An academic respondent from UCC).*

> *looking at the service conditions and requirements, it becomes difficult to get promoted (An administrative respondent from UCC).*

Those who reported to have been promoted were asked to talk about some of the challenges they faced (if any) before being promoted. The major challenge they all reported was delay in promotion.

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Mine has to do with Principal Administration Assistant; my promotion was due in January but was not granted because i was told academic year starts from October so I had to wait till October (An administrative respondent from CUC).

Instead of the normal period of promotion, mine was delayed for reasons I do not really know (An administrative respondent from CUC).

The women who reported that they have been promoted further added that, even in their delayed promotions, they were discriminated against as far as promotions among female and male managers are concerned. They reported that, whereas their promotions were delayed unduly, some of their male counterparts had their promotions even before time. This is illustrated by the following reports:

My male counterparts' time was not due but he was promoted, meanwhile my promotion was delayed unduly without any explanation (An administrative respondent from CUC).

They were highly favoured because their promotion comes even faster than expected while mine has been delayed to date. (An academic respondent from UCC).

These responses indicate that some women feel they are discriminated against when it comes to promotions in the two tertiary institutions. It was found that their male counterparts were promoted timely and even before time

in some situations, whereas the women whose promotions are due have to wait much longer.

Problems Women Face in Management Positions

One of the objectives of this study is to explore problems women in management face. This was done to help better understand the low representation of women in management positions. The women respondents were therefore asked whether they are saddled with problems as career women. The responses portrayed that all the women participants from both universities were burdened with one problem or the other. Two main problems were mentioned; stressful career workload and domestic/family responsibilities.

> *Problems all career women face, that is the work load, trying to struggle with domestic issues in addition to that of the workplace (An academic respondent from UCC).*

> *Combining my challenging job with family issues is not easy; it is so stressful that I have, no time for the family and other activities (An administrative respondent from CUC).*

To further explore the problems women face in management, the married participants were asked if their marriages pose problems for them as women in management. Whereas half of the women respondents believe marriage poses a great challenge to them, the other half does not see marriage as a challenge in their management positions. Those who believe their marriages pose a challenge to their positions further explained that by virtue of the fact that they

are married, they have less time for both their work and families and this indirectly affect their career achievement. Some of their responses are as follows:

Not having much time with my children and caring for them, and also not having time for my work which is affecting my promotion (An academic respondent from UCC).

My husband had to learn to get used to my new status before we could continue successfully otherwise I was about losing him (An administrative respondent from CUC).

Participants who do not see their marriages as a challenge to their career, explained that they have understanding husbands who encourage and give them the needed support for their career achievement. The case of one of the respondents indicate some of the views expressed by those in this category.

Because my husband is very supportive and understands the job, he gives a helping hand when the need be (An academic respondent from CUC).

The responses indicate that women in management positions face a lot of problems. This is a contributing factor to their low representation.

Effects of Problems on the Positions of Women

The women participants were asked how the problems they have mentioned affected their aspirations and rise to their current position in their universities. This was necessary to help find out if problems reported really

affected the women in attaining their positions. Surprisingly, almost all the women admitted that the problem they reported had little or no effect at all on their rise to management positions. To these women, though there were problems, they were able to overcome. The following are some of the responses they gave:

> *These problems have not affected me at all because I try to work things out to avoid the effects of these problems (An academic respondent from CUC).*

> *Not at all; I just try to accommodate and manage whatever situation I find myself in, so I did not allow the problems to affect what I do (An administrative respondent from UCC).*

Some few [5 in UCC, 2 in CUC] women admitted that the problems they mentioned affected their rise to management. To them, such problems caused delays in getting promoted and in some cases, the abandonment of promotion offers. The cases of two respondents indicate some of the views expressed by those in this category.

> *These problems contributed to the delay in my rise to faculty officer. This was because I had to go on maternity leave (An administrative respondent from CUC).*
>
> *These problems have affected me to the extent of not getting promoted because I choose my family over my job, because they needed me (An administrative respondent from UCC).*

The women participants made some recommendations to help increase women's representation in management positions. The study sought out from

the women's own perspective, how the number of women could be increased in management positions. They gave varied responses. Popular among these responses is the need for higher education, mentorship and scholarships for women. Few of the recommendations are reported below:

> *Women should be mentored and encouraged by those already in management; they should be given priority when the need arises (An administrative respondent from CUC).*

> *Women should plan their lives and work to get to higher heights, don't believe in tokenism, that is because you are a woman and there are men they give it to you though you don't qualify, but work hard and compete a man (An academic respondent UCC).*

> *I believe we should start from the basics; we should call the young ones to leadership roles, and organize leadership programs for them. The role of the role models is all important, mentoring the young ones to get to the top. Scholarships should also be available to women to enable them pursue programmes in higher education. The institution itself must also be interested in promoting its females (An administrative respondent from UCC).*

In view of the analysis above, one cannot argue much but to agree that indeed there is a low representation of women in management positions in both University of Cape Coast and Central University College. People are appointed to management positions based on qualifications and experience.

Factors responsible for the low representation of women in management include lack of requisite qualifications, gender inequalities entrenched in our institutions, and family/domestic work. An unfavourable attitude of both men and women towards women in management was also reported as a great challenge to women in management. The women therefore recommended that, opportunities be given to more women to attain higher education, upgrade themselves, and be given mentors to help improve the number of women in management.

Discussion

According to Prah, 2002 and Pereira, 2007 (in Tsikata 2008), the dominant discourse about the low levels of women's participation in tertiary education is that this is largely a function of gender inequalities within society at large. This theorisation has been critiqued by feminist scholars, who view educational institutions as "socialising agents which transmit different patterns of achievement, aspiration and self evaluation to males and females" or which function as key sites for "the production and reproduction of values and worldviews, for the production of people, of identities, subjectivities and consciousness" (Mama, 2003: 10; Barnes, 2005 in Tsikata 2008).

Adding to Tsikata's argument, gender inequalities as a result of the multiple roles of women, discrimination, sexism, males getting more attention, lack of mentorship and networking were also reasons underpinning the low representation of women in management positions, this the theoretical framework has also discussed.

The findings from this study confirm Carlis's (1998), statement that women who acknowledge that they are being discriminated against are being treated unfairly by their institutions. A respondent from CUC and another from UCC reported of being discriminated against during the periods of promotion. Notwithstanding the fact that she qualified to be promoted, the CUC respondent was asked to wait until the promotion period.

However, she recollects that her male colleague was not asked to wait when he qualified; he was promoted even before the promotion period was due. The respondent's belief is that she was treated unfairly compared to her male colleague. The UCC respondent had not been promoted at the time of the interview. She reported that her publications in addition to all other requirements had been provided and forwarded to the right quarters for review over three years. She also recollected cases of male colleagues who did not have to go through the nightmare she was encountering. She said the males were given more attention than the females when it comes to matters like this and that in the academy they believe women are not equal to men.

Prah (2002) is consistent with this statement. According to her, in the academy it is believed that women are not equal to men and that this inequality is reflected not only in numbers but also in people's attitudes. Men believe women are satisfied with whatever they have until they are being pushed to go for more if they can. This also appears to be part of what the liberal feminist argue for, according to them, the inequality of women stems both from the denial of equal rights and from women's learned reluctance to exercise their rights (Anderson 2006).

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The research findings further proved that the glass ceiling which is also associated with the level of female education, training problems of females to get to the top, self imposed restraints and physical differences as seen in the framework were indeed part of reasons why few females are found at the top management positions. Almost a half of the female respondents argued that it is until recent times that people at the top have realized how good it is to mentor the people, give them challenging roles to play while they are young and encourage them to apply for positions they qualify for when advertised. This adds to the views of Durnovo (1988), Moore (1992) and Scanlon (1997) whose research supports the view that mentoring is a very valuable tool for women in administrative positions in the universities in assisting them to advance. Thus the findings confirmed Scanlon's (1997) research finding that mentoring while a powerful tool is only one means of breaking through the glass ceiling.

One of the female respondents said "I would have advanced faster than now if I had a mentor at the time I was appointed as SRA for my department; I was assisting all the professors and doctors in my department but none of them picked me as a mentee even though they saw the potentials in me and always commended me". These professors were not only males but females inclusive, in effect the "Queen Bee" syndrome [i.e. the failure of women to support other women at work through mentoring has been called the "Queen Bee" syndrome] might be considered for this reason, she said. The findings also confirms Sah's (1994) argument that women need to be self confident and conscious, break certain socio-cultural bonds and take some women leaders as role models.

Even though a few of the respondents agreed with Rimmer and Davies (1985), who described women to be less aggressive, not natural leaders, lack confidence in competitive situations, not clearly work-oriented and cannot handle responsibility, majority of the finding disagreed with this ideology. The respondents argued that women are not given the chance to exhibit these traits because of prejudiced minds of employers.

The female respondents suggested that all women in management positions should endeavour to mentor the up and coming young ones, encourage them to take up leadership roles and use their networks to the maximum in order to bring a balance in the representation. Also, women should sit up and take all opportunities that come their way, be it scholarships, promotions, higher education and the like. They should see themselves as strong enough to rub shoulders with the men by applying for management positions if they qualify and performing their best no matter the situation or where they find themselves.

A commonly held assumption is that women (especially married) often put their careers on hold to allow their partners or husbands to develop theirs. The woman plays a supportive role, often subordinating her own career to that of her spouse or sometimes even sacrifices it for the sake of her husband. However, the experiences shared by the women in the present study do not list 'prioritizing the husband's career as an obstacle'. Rather, it is the dual role of career and family (with some putting the family first) which constitutes an obstacle to career development.

At least two women cited lack of women's networks and mentoring systems as an obstacle for them. As various studies have emphasized,

networks are important platforms for women in management to share information, to learn about job opportunities and such like women who are already in positions of power and those aspiring to such positions need to network (King 1999).

The findings further indicated the number of promotion opportunities each participant had, with the majority reporting at least one opportunity for promotion. What is interesting with this result is that one of the women who stated that she had no promotion gave reason as, she not wanting any promotion even though she did not meet the requirement at the time. However, she suggested that a "strong publication record" would be one way of overcoming obstacles to advancement.

In contrast, two other women who reported zero opportunity for promotion would have liked to advance but could not. Their reasons were lack of support and having too many responsibilities. An overwhelming number of women emphasized the need for perseverance, determination and persistence in overcoming obstacles.

Table 4 shows the comparison between the two universities.

Table 4**: Similarities and differences between women in UCC and CUC**

Similarities among women in UCC and CUC	Differences among women in UCC and CUC
The two universities confirm that women were not well represented because of gender inequality with respect to institutional and intellectual culture and others.	There were few women in CUC as compared to UCC because UCC as a public University is far older than CUC a private institution
The women in the two Universities were similar in terms of age groups and educational levels. Majority fell within the age range 50-59 whiles 30 of them held masters degree and a few holding doctorate degrees.	There were more women in management positions in UCC (as registrars, heads of departments) as compared to women in management positions in CUC. This is because notwithstanding the fact that CUC is quite new, the women complained of an androcentric environment.
There were similar criteria for appointment of women to management positions e.g. qualification and experience.	The women in UCC were satisfied with their positions compared to the women in CUC who were not satisfied. They were not satisfied because they do not see their salaries reflecting their status even though they are hoping it will get better with time.
Women from the two universities confirmed to facing dual problems. e.g.	Perception of women in UCC was that they were not being promoted as early as

stressful work load and family responsibilities	they expected due to gender discrimination as compared to those from CUC who have been promoted but whose salaries do not reflect their promotions.
The women from UCC and CUC confirmed their ability to overcome problems that hinder their rise to management positions	Women from CUC confirm that they were not well represented in management because the university is quite new and men are domineering compared to women from the UCC who even though are not well represented in management, their number is quite encouraging. They are able to elbow out the men because they have been with them for quite some time since UCC is older.
They also confirmed that they have ever been promoted in their jobs and believed that management is impressed with their hard working nature.	Comparatively, there are more women with doctorate degrees in management positions in UCC than in CUC.
The women from the two universities confirm that men were encouraging in their behaviour towards them.	

The table compares the two Universities with respect to their similarities and differences. From the table it can be observed that indeed women are underrepresented in both universities as a result of gender inequality vis a vis institutional and intellectual culture. It also gave an insight

concerning the few women in management positions in CUC as compared to UCC and how similar the women were in terms of age groups and educational levels. The table further highlighted the similar criteria for the appointment of staff into managerial positions and the dual problems women from both universities face.

Women from CUC complained of the patriarchy or androcentrism that exist in their institution while those in UCC perceived there was some discrimination against them in terms of promotion. Comparatively there are more women with doctorate degrees in UCC than in CUC. This is because perhaps UCC as an institution is older than CUC. Finally the women from both Universities confirmed that some men have been encouraging in their behaviour towards them, notwithstanding the fact that some of the men get all the attention, others harass the women in management positions and the like as mentioned in the conceptual framework

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The aim of this study has been to investigate, compare and document the reasons for the low representation of women in management positions in University of Cape Coast and Central University College with a view to understanding the challenges and responsibilities entailed by management positions for women in the current climate of transformation and restructuring in the universities. Such an understanding would provide an insight into the female perspective of management and leadership and thereby promote a deeper appreciation of contribution of women to higher education, leadership and management. In this chapter, a synthesis of significant findings, conclusions and recommendations for policies and research are presented.

Overview of the Investigation

In this study the representation and experience of women in management positions in UCC and CUC have been investigated and compared. The absence of women in senior positions of management at the universities is well documented and so are the barriers that prevent women from advancing into management positions. Few studies have attempted to document the experiences of women who have, against all odds, shattered the glass ceiling in academics. The findings revealed that women were in the

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minority in the senior management positions. This promoted an investigation of how the few women had managed to achieve these positions and how they were experiencing the situation.

Summary of Main Findings

Although statistics show a positive trend toward the representation of women in the academy, the situation is different when it comes to women's representation in management positions. Obstacles still exist. However, there are strategies that women themselves and institutions can adopt to overcome and dismantle these obstacles. It is apparent that much still needs to be done.

Significant findings which emerged from the study seem to suggest that the women who participated in the study experienced little or no challenges and constraints before they advanced to management positions, at least not to the same extent as after they were already in management. For instance the majority of them did not find it difficult to move to their various positions as they were self-motivated and had adequate support from their colleagues and family. Their involvement in managerial work together with publications and qualifications enabled them to move into these positions with relative ease. Moreover, they were motivated to accept the job chiefly by a desire to make a contribution to the development of their departments and institution.

Discrimination which is in agreement with the theoretical framework, lack of mentorship and lack of formal preparation in the form of professional development programs and scholarship appear to have been the major constraints for women in this study. Very few of them experienced

mentorship. What is noteworthy is the women's strong belief in learning –by – doing or on the job training. Consequently mentoring and training and scholarship should be advocated in universities. It would also be advisable for mentees to be proactive and flexible in their choice of a mentor.

The literature abounds with references to reinforce women's low representation in managerial positions. None the less the findings of this study suggest that women frequently want to move into management positions. Consequently, one of the main obstacles to their advancement seems to be the dual role of career and family. The findings indicate that starting all academic careers late in life is as much an impediment to career advancement as lack of experience or lack of good research profiles. Institutional advertising policies, which make it difficult for women to compete fairly, can also be as much of a hindrance; this was said by one of the respondents.

Various strategies for overcoming obstacles to career advancement such as networks, mentoring and the like are suggested in the literature. The main strategies suggested by the participants in this are determination and perseverance. This is confirmed in (Gupton and Slick 1996). This suggests that women are tenacious and have the capacity to continue with a given course of action until it is completed. This positive attribute particularly for someone in a position of authority implies that positive leadership and management action undertaken will not be abandoned until results have been achieved.

The investigation into the females in management positions in UCC and CUC revealed that the institutional and other barriers to women's advancement to management positions mentioned in the conceptual

framework still exists and that contrary to what is generally assumed, women do not lack aspirations to management roles. It also revealed that some of the challenges they experienced may be sources of stress and tension. It finally revealed that women academic leaders tend to exhibit the desired interactive leadership style (Daft 2005) found in women leaders of corporate organizations.

Conclusion

The women in the study displayed confidence as they managed the adversarial situations as women in management positions. Coping strategies, such as ignoring the difficult men, being hardworking and strong willed, networks, and the like served as supports that strengthened these women against much of the difficulty they encountered in their professional roles. Though they served as supports, these mechanisms could not protect these women entirely from the presence of, sexism, and other forms of discrimination which is in concurrence with the theoretical framework, men getting all the attention and others also discussed in the conceptual framework.

Change has come slowly. The number of women in managerial positions has increased over time. There are still insufficient women beyond the level of management positions in universities. However, more women seem eager to advance themselves despite the odds against them. More effort is required then, to ensure that more women are mentored into taking up leadership roles.

Recommendation

In view of the findings and subsequent conclusions, the following recommendations were made.

- Universities should formulate policies geared at sponsoring women into leadership positions and implement employment equity policies so as not to advantage one group over another.

- Scholarship schemes by Universities should be geared at supporting women who aspire to move up the academic ladder and are in for career advancement.

- Universities should also earmark a percentage of scholarships for women who aspire to move up the academic ladder.

- Mentorship and mentoring programmes should be introduced where they do not exist, where they exist, they should be reviewed and a flexible system of allocating mentors should be adopted. For instance, mentoring a woman does not necessarily have to be by another woman. The choice should be left to the mentee to take the initiative to recommend a mentor with whom she is compatible.

- Women aspiring to management positions should be encouraged to participate in mentoring and formal preparation programmes designed by the Universities.

Suggestions for Further Research

The study could be replicated in order to strengthen the foundation for interpreting results. A replication of the study with samples drawn from all the Universities in Ghana would provide additional insights into the factors affecting the low representation of women in management positions.

It is recommended that further research concerning females in management, focusing on investigating events in the external environment which may impact on the internal university environment to shape the work of the female in management position be carried out. Findings from such investigations could be included in leadership and management training workshops / programmes.

Future research could also examine the relationship between female leadership style and staff performance.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Criteria for appointment and Promotion

(Statutes of the University of Cape Coast, 2008)

Criteria for appointment of staff into management positions in both Universities

All first time appointments shall be by interview.

An applicant shall be assessed on the basis of evidence of performance in respect of the following:

  i.   Scholarship

  ii.   Contribution to knowledge; through research and publication

  iii.   Teaching

  iv.   Academic leadership

  v.   Inventiveness and resourcefulness.

An application shall be supported by publications, including books, refereed articles in journals or manuscripts submitted to journals, plus evidence of acceptance for publication in the journals, papers from published proceedings, systematized teaching materials, and creative works, evidenced by patents, music scores, etc.

Criteria for appointment into the Registrars Department

All fresh appointments shall be by interview

For appointments to the administrative grades, the following criteria shall apply.

Junior assistant Registrar: candidates must possess a higher degree or equivalent professional qualification

Assistant Registrar: Candidates seeking appointments as assistant registrar must possess a higher degree or equivalent professional qualification. In addition, candidates must have acquired at least two years' relevant experience in administration.

Senior Assistant registrar: for appointment as Senior Assistant Registrar, candidates must possess a higher degree or equivalent professional qualification. In addition, they must have served as Assistant Registrar or equivalent grade in an analogous institution for a minimum of four years.

Deputy registrar; candidates must possess a higher degree or equivalent professional qualification. In addition, they must have served as Senior Assistant Registrar or equivalent grade in analogous institution for a minimum of five years.

Registrar: appointment to the position shall proceed as provided by the statute

PROMOTIONS

1. **General Guidelines for Promotion**

   Promotion shall be based on satisfactory performance in the following assessable areas:

   a). Ability in work

b) Promotion of profession

c) Human relations

d) Service to the community

2. Norms for Assessment

Assessment shall be based on the following:

a) Exceptional

b) Above average

c) Average

d) Below Average

3. Eligibility for Promotion

For promotion to higher grades, candidates must satisfy the criteria stipulated below for the various grades.

4. Procedure for Promotion

Invitation for application for promotion

a) Any member of staff who wishes to be considered for promotion shall complete appropriate application forms and submit these to the Registrar through his Head of Section/Unit/Department where applicable.

b) One receipt of the application, a Head of Section shall forward same to the Registrar together with his written assessment of the candidate.

c) The Registrar shall submit all applications for promotion together with his assessment to the Administration Appointments and Promotions Committee.

d) The Administration Appointments and Promotions Committee shall forward to the University Appointments and Promotions Board.

    i)   The completed application forms of every candidate, including the candidate's own assessment.

    ii)   The written assessment by the candidate's Head of Section/Unit/Department and the Registrar/Committee Chairman where applicable.

    iii)   The Administration Appointments and Promotions Committee's comprehensive assessment of the candidate's suitability for promotion.

5. **Guidelines for Evaluation of Performance and Attainment**

    The following guidelines/indicators shall be applied in assessing and competence.

    Ability in Work

a) Proven ability in work schedule evidenced by:

    i)   Grasp of administrative procedure, current administrative trends including relevant government administrative policies and guidelines.

    ii)   Ability to do independent work

iii)   Initiative, resourcefulness and drive

iv)   Sense of responsibility

v)   Capacity for sustained work

vi)   Quality of servicing Committees (preparation of materials for meetings, writing of minutes and reports promptly and accurately, taking follow-up actions effectively.

b)   Leadership qualities and drive

c)   Supervision of subordinate staff

d)   Quality of overall output.

Promotion of Profession

Written reports, papers, memoranda on administrative matters and issues, and any relevant publications.

Human Relations

Good image and comportment in dealing with staff and the public.

Service

Other than normal schedule of work;

Services which candidate claims to have rendered other than his/her own schedule of duties will be assessed by the Head of Section/Unit/Department, the Registrar, the Administration Appointments and Promotions Committee and the University Appointments and Promotions Board and should include contributions to the University community and at the local, national and international levels.

APPENDIX B

Request for Participation

Dear Prospective Participants,

My name is Naa Adjeley Suta Alakija and I am an MPhil student in Sociology at University of Cape Coast. I am currently conducting research on the representation of women in management positions; A comparative study of UCC and CUC as part of my completion of the MPhil programme. This is a qualitative study using primarily interviews to explore the factors that lead to the low representation and what can be done to increase the number of women in management positions.

If you agree to participate I am asking for a commitment of an interview scheduled at your convenience. Your participation is greatly needed, valued and would be deeply appreciated.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Naa Adjeley Alakija.

APPENDIX C

Participant Biographical and Institutional Data

PERSONAL DATA

1.   Sex

      a. Male   [   ]

      b. Female   [   ]

2. Age: ....

3. Marital status

      a. Married   [   ]   d. Widowed   [   ]

      b. Single   [   ]   e. Separated   [   ]

      c. Divorced [   ]

4. Number of children: ....

5. Academic qualification

   a. Diploma   [   ]   b. First Degree   [   ]   c. Second Degree   [   ]

   d. Doctorate Degree   [   ]   e. Professor   [   ]

6.Institution...

7. How long have you worked with the University?...

8. With what position did you start working with the university?.......................

9. What is your present position?..

Interview Questions

PART: 1

10. In your opinion was your appointment based on merit or affirmative action

11. What is used in appointing people to management positions in your institution?

12. Are women well represented in management positions in your institution? Yes/No

13. If yes why?

14. If No, what are the factors that contribute to their low representation?

15. Do you think management is satisfied with your performance in your current position? Yes/No

16. If yes, can you give reasons

17. If No, why not

18. Do you think women should be encouraged to take up management positions? Yes/No

19. If Yes, why

20. If No, why not

21. What do you think can be done to increase the proportion of women in management positions?

PART 2:

(FOR WOMEN ONLY)

1. Are you satisfied with your position   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

2. If yes, explain why

3. If no, why not?

4. What are some of the challenges you face as a woman in this institution?

5. What are the attitudes of men towards you as a woman in your work?

6. What are the attitudes of other women towards you in your work?

7. Have you been promoted in this university? Yes [ ]   No [ ]

8. If yes, explain

9. If no, why not

10. If yes, did you face any difficulties or delays in getting promotion?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. If yes, what difficulties did you face?

12. If you answered yes to (7) was there any discrimination against you
compared with your male counterparts?

13. What are they?

14. As a woman do you face problems as a career person? Yes [   ]   No [   ]

15. If yes, what problems do you face?

16. If no, why is it that you do not face any problems?

17. If married, do you face any problem working as a wife? Yes [   ]   No [   ]

If Yes, state problems

18. If no, why not?

19. Are you a working mother?   Yes   [   ]   No   [   ]

20. If yes, what problems do you encounter as a working mother?

21. How have the problems stated in (19) affected your aspiration and rise to your present position in your department?

22. What do you think should be done to increase the representation of women in management in your institution?