UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

CHALLENGES OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE BOLGATANGA MUNICIPALITY

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2013
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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BY

ESTHER LARIBA ATIAH

Dissertation submitted to the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational Administration.

MARCH 2013
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

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

Candidate’s Signature: ……………………………. Date: ……………………

Name: Esther Lariba Atiah

Supervisor’s Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor’s Signature: ………………………Date:…………………

Name: Dr. Albert L. Dare
ABSTRACT

The study investigated the challenges of women in educational institutions in the Bolgatanga Municipality. They purpose of the research was to assess the main factors that affect women’s participation in management positions. The descriptive survey method was adopted with a sample size of 150. The sample was randomly selected. The questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect data. The main methods used in analyzing the data were frequency and simple percentage distributions.

The main findings of the study are that gender discriminating male dominates working environment and traditional beliefs/practices such as early marriage, women not being regarded as bread winners, women are not expected to hold leadership position were the major barriers and challenges that affect women’s participation in management positions. Other findings are that women prefer working under male leaders because of their perception that women leaders want to be called ‘mama’ are dictators and not easily approachable.

The study recommends that non-governmental organization and civil society groups interested in the welfare of women lobby the Ministry of education and Ghana Education Service to institute measures to give meaning to the policy of affirmative action to eliminate gender discrimination and male dominated working environments in educational institutions.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My deepest appreciation and gratitude goes first of all to my supervisor, Dr. Albert L. Dare, of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA), University of Cape Coast who have make time out of their very busy schedules to guide the presentation of this work. I also appreciate the support of all the other Lecturers of IEPA during my studentship especially, Prof. Yaw A. Ankomah.

Furthermore, I extend my since gratitude to all my staff of Bolgatanga Technical Institute for their encouragement and support. I also extend gratitude to all my respondents without whom this study would not have been possible.
DEDICATION

To all women in leadership positions and my family
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Contributions of women to the social, economic and political development of every nation cannot be over-emphasized. Women throughout the world have contributed in diverse ways to the development of their families and nations as a whole. There is hardly any sphere of life that women have not played a significant role. On the economic front, women contribute immensely to agricultural productivity as farmers in rural communities. Women contribute to cultivate farm lands, weeding, harvesting and storage of various food products. Women are also involved in poultry farming and in animal husbandry. The marketing of agricultural produce is also largely done by women. This activity makes it possible for people living in cities and towns and engaged in other occupations and in government ministries, departments and agencies to have easy access to food. This contributes directly or indirectly to increase productivity because food is not only essential to survival but also provides energy needed by the country’s labour force to work and contribute to national development. The retail trade is largely dominated by women, making it possible for various factories and industries producing a variety of goods ranging from food and beverages to plastics, textiles and furniture, just to mention a few, to market their products and also for consumers to have access to these products. Women have played diverse
roles in manufacturing and processing industries as workers and secretaries or at times as managers. Women are also into banking and the financial markets.

Socially, women have contributed immensely in the provision of household services in the area of child care, cooking, cleaning and washing. Empirical studies even provide conclusive evidence to the fact that women who are educated contribute more to the improvement of the nutrition and health of their children than their men counterparts. Improved child nutrition and health, in turn, play an important role in school achievement and attainment (Mock and Leslie, 1986). Besides, women contribute a great deal to the development of language in children. It is mothers who are the first teachers of children in the language and cultural norms, values and beliefs of society. Without the development of language and an appreciation of society’s cultural norms, values and beliefs, the development of any society would be severely hampered.

Women have also played important roles in the politics of their societies or nations. They support political parties and play diverse roles as women organizers, treasurers, secretaries and even as flag bearers of their parties. Women have played critical roles as ministers of state or provided the necessary support to their husbands involved in politics. In the southern parts of Ghana women have played crucial roles in the enstoolment of chiefs as queen mothers. Elderly women play the role of advisers to the chiefs in most parts of northern Ghana. In the wake of Ghana’s struggle for political independence women were not left out of the struggle. The irony however is that after the independence struggle women were relegated to the background in main stream politics and the situation has not
changed much even in the twenty-first century. All the contributions women make are not given any serious recognition. For instance, in spite of women’s contributions in the agricultural sector, women do not own land. Land as a productive asset in Ghana has been generally owned by men. Women hold it in trust for their husbands and widows for their younger sons though there are more women farmers than men (Action Aid, 2004). There is even a traditional notion that women are intellectually inferior to men. According to Mensah (2001) the age old concept of women’s inferior mental abilities and limited social position acted as barriers to the establishment of education for women. Most societies, especially in developing countries, place a premium on the male child and families are prepared to educate their male children as well as give them the necessary training to acquire employable skills since they (male children) are regarded as intellectually superior and future bread winners of their families. This thinking held by society has seriously undermined the education and training of women especially in the three northern regions- Northern, Upper East and Upper West, where illiteracy rates among female is the highest in the country (GSS, 1998). The inheritance system in the three northern regions is patrilineal and as such women have no rights to inheritance. This further exacerbates the inferior position of women. A couple that does not produce a male child is considered cursed. Men who have no male children will not hesitate to marry a second or third wife with the hope of producing a male child to inherit him in his old age or after his death. Women can not even sell their own farm produce or acquire property without the consent of their husbands or male family members. It is even
an affront to society for a woman to sell her own farm animals like goats, sheep or cows directly in the market in some parts of the Upper East region, especially in the Bolgatanga Municipality. A woman who wants to sell a cow, for instance, has to seek her husband’s approval and where it is granted it is either the husband or a male family member who does the sale on her behalf in the market. The proceeds from the sale may even have to be kept with the husband. How the proceeds will be used is at times dictated by the husband.

Some old women are usually considered witches by family members and sudden deaths in the family are attributed to them. Such women are usually defenseless and in most cases subjected to all sorts of degrading treatment. Some are often beaten or banished from society or sent to live the rest of their lives in witchcraft shrines/camps as pertains in Gambaga in the Northern region of Ghana. Thus, instead of women celebrating old age as a blessing as their male counterparts do, they tend to live in fear as they approach old age. In the light of these conditions, it is no exaggeration to conclude that most women who happen to attain higher educational qualifications, especially in the three Northern regions, do so either by chance or through perseverance because most families would not consciously plan for the education of their female children.

The negative perception held by society against women is manifested in many spheres of life. Generally, women’s contributions to nation building have received minimal recognition as compared to their male counterparts throughout the world. According to Allah-Mensah (2005) there are a lot of potentials in women as they play various roles in the spheres of national development. Despite
efforts by governments and other civil society organizations (CSOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs), multilateral institutions and individuals at the micro levels and macro levels aimed at empowering women to actualize their potentials. There is still much to be done to ensure that women contribute their quota to the political, social and economic enhancement of their nations and communities.

In the same vein, Amu (2006) observed that the debate on the role of women has gone on for quite a long time by many different groups of people – women groups, governments, development partners and civil society groups – who have all advanced many arguments to support their stand but little has been achieved for women empowerment. Amu (2006) postulated that those who are against increased participation of women in all spheres of economic, social and political activities have placed their argument on the notion that the biological roles of women have naturally limited them to the home. Therefore, they must play a subordinate role in economic and public affairs and even in the home. On the other hand, it can be said that biology or sex has been constant throughout generations and since creation and therefore cannot be used to explain the status of women in societies. These kind of ideologies about women have tended to marginalize women and have belittled women’s work. According to Leavitt (1971), as cited by Amu (2006), the most important clue to a women’s status anywhere in the world is her degree of participation in economic life and her control over property and the product she produces. Hence women must not be discriminated against based on gender or biological sex.
The situation is manifested in low numbers of women in management position throughout the world. Tilbrook (1998) stated that women in senior management position are seriously under represented. Commenting on the global under-representation of women in managerial position within the higher education sector, Tilbrook (1998), cited a UNESCO report on higher education (1993) which bluntly concluded that one of the barriers facing women is the fact that they are not men (Eveline, 1996).

In the Bolgatanga municipality, it has been observed that women in management positions are no exception to the syndrome of the higher you go fewer you see. The number of women in management positions in the educational institutions in the Bolgatanga municipality is fewer as compared with other parts of the country. The situation of the level of women participation in leadership positions in the educational sector became conspicuous at a seminar organized by the National Council for Women and Development (NCWD) in Bolgatanga in 1995. The aim of the seminar was to debrief women in the Upper East region on the outcome of the Beijing conference. Related issues included women’s employment and women’s problems that were of social, economic and political importance.

Significantly, it was realized at the seminar that though women dominated in professions such as nursing and teaching, women were not represented at the top but rather were at the bottom of the leadership ladder as compared with men. Also, most of all the participants agreed in principle that decisions were taken from top and passed on to the women at the bottom for implementation. The
question was why there were only few women in management positions? Did they not possess the requisite managerial skills or were they content with the position which they found themselves in? Another question that one might ask is whether women in the Bolgatanga municipality do not have what it takes to become managers? Out of the nine district education directors in the Upper East region only two are female in 2009/10 academic year and one in 2010/11 academic year.

Out of the 18 senior high schools in the Upper East region, only three were being managed by a female in 2009/10 academic year. The figure increased slightly to six in 2010/11 academic year. There is therefore the need to place qualified women in management positions, especially, in educational institutions to enable them participate and contribute fully and also to display their God-given talents so that they could become role models to girls in society.

It is worth noting that women’s participation will not only enhance their own image and development but also contribute towards the development and advancement of the nation as a whole and the world in general. It would be a misconception for one to assume that no efforts have been made to alleviate a lot of women into management positions. For example, conscious efforts have been made to remove the obstacles that have been and are still impeding women’s position in educational leadership by the Government of Ghana, Associations and NGOs. Ghana Government’s efforts to raise education of girls and women in management positions are demonstrated by the Basic Education Sector Implementation Programme (BASIP) policy document issued in 1996. Invariably, the Regional Education Directorate, the District Education offices, National
Council for Women and Development, the District and Municipal Assemblies and other associations in the Upper East Region organized seminars and in-service training to raise the status of women in the region including taking up leadership positions in educational management. It is against this background that this study seeks to find out the challenges that militate against the participation of women in the managerial positions of the senior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality in the Upper East Region of Ghana. The study also seeks to outline the problem faced by women in their quest to become part of the management team.

Generally, women are perceived to be better in teaching the classroom whilst their male counterparts are more preferred when it comes to management positions in the educational sector. The research therefore sought to identify the challenges faced by women participate in management of educational institutions, so that solutions could be found to pave the way for women to participate fully in the management of schools in the municipality. This will provide key stakeholders like political parties, government and its institutions and other agencies including civil society groups a basis for devising strategies to address the identified challenges.

Statement of the Problem

Much of the literature in the field of gender seems to have changed in terms of the number of women participation in management positions. Though studies suggest that in companies where women are most strongly represented at board or top management positions they perform very well, much of women’s
participation is yet to be seen in most places (Marshall, 1995). Attempts to explain women’s lack of participation in educational management, both in the develop world and in Africa, particularly Ghana, suggest that women are hindered by both internal factors and external factors (Brown, 1996). According to Brown (1996), the internal factors relate to socialization and sex stereotyping, whilst the external factors is due to the way organizations are structured and the behaviour of the workforce towards women which limits their performance because they are locked into low-power, low-visibility and dead-end jobs. In Africa, in particular, such challenges to women participation in educational management are further impeded by the cultural practices which provide for a male dominance society.

The 2000 census put the population of Ghana at 18.9 million out of which women make up about 50.52%. However, considering that women make up the majority of the people in Ghana, it is interesting to note that their impact in the decision making process is limited in all spheres of the society as women are found at the receiving end of the decision making process and therefore have little or no influence on the decisions that affected them and their families (Amu, 2006). Ismail and Ibrahim (2008) stated that women have been in the labour market in most developed and developing countries for more than 20 years, yet it is estimated that only 5 percent of women occupied senior management positions in the UK. Ismail and Ibrahim also contended that although there is no evidence to support the contention that women are less efficient managerial leaders than men, it is perceived that women who hold managerial positions might exercise power somewhat differently than men even though women in high-level position
or power are rated as being “masculine” as men and more “masculine” than women in lower level positions of power which is an indication that women at such levels are viewed as capable as their male counterparts as there are few differences between men and women in cognitive abilities and skills. These gender differences bring diverse perspectives to the workforce. Therefore, if women can achieve as much as their male counterparts then why are women not being in management positions as much as their male counterparts. These are questions whose answers we do not have yet, no study has been done to provide answers to them.

The present study, therefore sought to throw more light on these issues by providing some of the answers. After the United Nations Fourth World Conference on women in Beijing, China, in 1995, the global community stressed the importance of women assuming positions of power and influence, not only because their points of view and talents are needed, but also as a matter of their human rights (Women, 2000). Increased involvement of women in decision-making needed to be pursued from the centre rather than the margins in all facets of society.

Igunbor (2005) observed that in the past centuries, there seems to have been an increased involvement of more people thinking about and working to improve the status of women in the world. Apparently efforts of governments, non-governmental organizations, funding agencies, small groups and some isolated actions by individuals have been geared towards up with the changes, advancement and development of women. As human societies change overtime
with the development of new ways of doing things, women’s situations also change. These changes vary from society to society. There have been tremendous changes in women’s roles and leadership they occupy in Africa. With the various challenges that globalization has posed, more could be achieved in the shortest possible time if only globalization would work for the benefit of the majority of Africa women in today’s global village.

**Objectives of the Study**

The major objective of this study was to explore the challenges that hinder women’s participation in management positions. Furthermore, the study explored challenges of women in leadership positions senior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality of the Upper east Region of Ghana.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to:

i. Find out the main challenges that women confront in their attempt to participate in the management of their respective schools.

ii. Analyze the challenges with the aim of establishing the source of the challenges.

iii. Investigate the administrative processes involved in selecting people to management positions and how this process impact on women.

iv. Determine how women themselves contribute to the problem of the subordinate role in the management of educational institutions.
v. Ascertain the level of desire of the women to participate in management positions

**Research Questions**

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the challenges faced by women management positions in senior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality?

2. To what extent do the women in senior high schools in the municipality possess the requisite level of educational attainment to qualify them to head educational institutions?

3. What is the nature of the challenges that women face with regard to occupying leadership position?

4. In what respects do the women themselves contribute to the problem of their subordinate role in the management of educational institutions?

5. What is the level of enthusiasm and desire of women to occupy management positions?

**Significance of the Study**

This study is significant as it aims at contributing to the theoretical knowledge about women’s careers and the barriers they encounter, as well as provide policy makers in educational administration of Ghana the needed insight in the challenges facing women participation in the management of the senior high schools which is a vital training ground for future human resource development of the country.
The result of the study may help remove the bottlenecks impeding the women of the Bolgatanga municipality from participating fully in management positions of senior high schools by providing them information that will sufficiently motivate them and other stakeholders to work towards eliminating these bottlenecks. The study results of study may also increase the desire of women to fully participate in leadership positions since understanding the barriers that women face in the municipality could help policy makers and the women themselves to create a friendlier and more gender sensitive work environment.

**Delimitation**

The study covers only female teachers who have attained the required qualification to occupy management positions in the Bolgatanga Municipal Education Directorate especially in the senior high schools. Basically, the study sought to contact the various senior high schools in the Bolgatanga municipality and outline the number of women in management position in the various schools. The senior high schools within the Bolgatanga municipality are Bolgatanga Girls Senior High School, Zamse Technical Senior High School and Zuarungu Senior High School. The study therefore covers only these senior high schools.

**Limitations of the Study**

Women in management positions are few and information provided by them is not likely to be an adequate reflection of the experiences of women generally in the field of education in the municipality. In order to enhance women’s full participation in leadership positions in educational institutions and other organizations it would be proper to gather as much information as possible.
from women from diverse backgrounds with different experiences. This would have provided a more informed data on the totality and diversity of the challenges women face or are likely to face in aspiring for leadership positions. This to some extent is deficient in the study due to the limited number of women covered by the study. Nonetheless, the study provides useful scientific data on some of the challenges women face in leadership positions in the Bolgatanga municipality devoid of speculation and prejudice.

**Organization of the Rest of the Study**

The study is organized in five chapters closely linked to the objectives of the study and providing answers to the research questions. Chapter one presents the introduction to the study which consists of the background to the study, a statement of the problem, the general and the specific objectives of the study, the research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study and the organization of the study. Chapter Two on the other hand, presents the literature review and the conceptual framework to the study. Specifically, the chapter covers the concept of gender, concept of leadership and management, women in educational administration, male and female leadership styles, barriers to women’s career progression, family-related barriers, societal-related barriers, organizational-related barriers and gender issues in Ghana.

Chapter Three is on the methodology of the study. This captures the research design, study population, sample and sampling technique, instruments for data collection, pilot testing of the instruments, data collection and data analysis techniques. Chapter Four of the study basically deals with the
presentation and analysis of data and discussion of the findings. This covers barriers faced by women that militate against their participation in management positions, the extent to which women who possess the requisite educational attainment qualify to head educational institutions, the nature of the sources of the challenges faced by women, how women themselves contribute to the problem of their subordinate role in the management of educational institutions and level of enthusiasm and desire of women to participate in management positions. Finally, Chapter five is made up of the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

**Definition of Terms**

Challenges: Refer to as a test of one’s abilities or resources in a demanding but in stimulating undertaking.

Management position: Refers to top and middle service management subdivided respectively, according to the hierarchical, competencies and assigned accountabilities.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The chapter reviews literature related to the research problem. Essentially the chapter reviews literature on the concept of gender, the concept of leadership and management women in educational administration, male and female leadership styles, and barriers to women’s career progression. The review also covers family-related barriers, societal-related barriers, organizational barriers and gender issues in Ghana.

Concept of Gender

Gender equality and the empowerment of women are critical dimensions of the United Nations Development Programme’s efforts to help meet the overarching goals of halving world poverty by 2015 (UNDP Report, 2000). Gender refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women that are created in our families, our societies and our cultures. The concept of gender also includes the expectation held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviors of both women and men (femininity and masculinity). Gender roles and expectations are learned through the process of gender role socialization. Boys are generally taught to be masculine- active, aggressive, tough, daring and dominant- whereas girls must be feminine- soft, emotional, sweet, and submissive. These traditional gender-role patterns have been influential in socialization of children.
It is gender role socialization that leads females and male to behave differently. The application of traditional gender roles leads to many forms of differentiation between women and men. Both sexes are physically capable of learning to cook and sew, yet most societies determine that women should perform these tasks, both men and women are capable of learning to weld and fly airplanes but these functions are generally assigned for men (Schaefer, 2002).

Gender roles are evident not only in our work and behaviour but in how we react to others. Gender roles lead to stereotyping. When we stereotype a member of a group, we rigidly assign to that person all the standardized attributes that we ordinarily assign to the group, making no allowances for the person’s individuality. Furthermore, we behave toward all the members of a category according to the characteristics we associate with the category. A stereotype is a category, but it is a unique kind of category, because the features that determine the way we evaluate it are especially active and prominent (Bootzin, Bower, Zajonc & Hall, 1986). According to Bootzin et al. (1986) as soon as we stereotype someone, we place that person somewhere on the “good-bad” dimension and usually on the bad end. Stereotypes therefore have evaluative quality and are attitudes of a certain sort. Since stereotypes are categories they also have a cognitive component. Stereotypes also generate strong feelings-usually negative and therefore have an affective component. And because stereotypes often guide our action, they also have motivational and behavioural components.
Bootzin et al. (1986) further contend that throughout history, stereotypes have led to prejudices, negatively toned attitudes and opinions that people hold about an entire group, such as a racial minority or women. In most instances the beliefs on which prejudice is based are either exaggerated or wrong. When prejudice is expressed in behaviour, the result is discrimination. This refers to specific practices, often institutionalized, such as excluding women or members of racial minorities from certain kinds of activities, jobs, organizations or educational opportunities. Prejudices and discrimination against women have led to sexism, a belief by men that the male sex is superior. This belief has manifested itself in various ways. Traditionally, women have been consigned to work in the home- their own homes or the homes of others- than as part of the regular labour force. Women have also been segregated into certain occupations. Women have also been repressed by violent means. Women have been raped and subjected to sexual harassment and violence in the form of incest and wife abuse (Helm Reich, Spence, & Gibson, 1982).

Stereotyping can also lead to self-fulfilling prophecies which are expectations about behaviour that evoke a situation in which the expectations were confirmed. Self-filling prophecies are common and can be found in all societies, they may be beneficial or harmful. Self-filling prophecies can be so powerful that members of the disadvantaged group may begin to believe the stereotype themselves; some may not even seek positions for which they are thought undesirable. This behaviour is, of course, the essence of “fulfilling the prophecies”, disadvantaged individuals know that they have only a slight chance
of landing a job which everybody believes they are basically unsuited (Bootzin et al., 1986). This implies that women as a disadvantages group in our society may not seek leadership or management positions because of the thinking that society will not approve their participation in such positions.

The feminine self-image of girls and the masculine self-image of boys, in part are developed by girls and boys identifying with females and males in their families, neighbourhoods and in the media. If a young girl regularly sees female characters on television working as defense attorney and judges, she may believe that she herself can become a lawyer. And it will not hurt if women that she knows- her mother, sister, parents’ friends or neighbours – are lawyers. By contrast if this young girl sees women portrayed in the media only as models, nurses, and secretaries, her identification and self-image will be quite different. Even if she does become a professional, she may secretly regret falling short of the media stereotype- a shapely, sexy young woman in a bathing suit (Wolf, 1992).

Television is far from being alone in stereotyping women. Studies of children’s books published in the United States in the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s found that females were significantly underrepresented in central roles and illustrations. Virtually all female characters were portrayed as helpless, passive, incompetent, and in need of a strong male caretaker. By the 1980s, there was less stereotyping in children’s books, with some female characters shown to be active. Nevertheless boys were still shown engaged in active play three times as often as
girls (Kortenhaus & Demarest, 1993). The situation in African and for that matter Ghana was not much different.

Social research on gender roles reveals some persistent differences between men and women in North America, and Europe and Africa. Women experience a mandate to both marry and be a mother. Often, marriage is viewed as the entry into adulthood. And women are expected not only to become mothers but to want to be mothers. Obviously, men play a role in these events, but they do not appear to be as critical in identifying the life course for a man. Society defines men’s roles by economic success. While women may achieve recognition in the labour force, it is not as important to their identity as it is for men (Doyle, 1995 & Paludi, 1998). Traditional gender roles have most severely restricted females and require critical analysis and examination.

Since gender roles and expectations are learned, they can change over time and they vary within and between cultures. Systems of social differentiation such as political status, class, ethnicity, physical, and mental disability, age and more, modify gender roles (www.portal.unesco.org)

The concept of gender is vital because, when applied to social analysis, it reveals how women’s subordination (or men’s domination) is socially constructed. As such, the subordination can be changed or ended. It is not biologically predetermined nor is it fixed forever. Women over the years appear to have been relegated to the background or have experienced some form of discrimination. Early feminist work emphasized how women have been subjected to different forms of patriarchal control. Feminist theorists have made universal
arguments using evidence form cross-cultural analysis to make a case that women are universally oppressed. Schaefer (2002) and Hennig (1990) have proposed that gender influences men and women behaviours, attitude traits and the like to the extent that the behaviour of women in management deviates from the male norms and personality and traits pattern that are required of managerial roles in any organization. According to them women lack confidence and assertiveness and have failed to undertake appropriate training to develop executive skills and the competitive to succeed senior position in organizations. In the same vein, Morison (1992) argued that women have failed to plan their career and have rather sacrificed it for their families up keep.

Similarly, Hackim (1996) stated that women could gain greater rewards when they specialized in domestic task and caring rather than paid employment. Thus, given such stereotyping and assertions, investment in women’s education and training is more likely to be less vital them that of men. However, this concept failed to take into consideration the changing economic realities of many families even within profession. Ellison (2001) also contended that it is often an economic necessity for both adults in a relationship to be earning maximum potential in order to maintain a required life style which invariably means that women work have shifted from their domestic role to a more formal role of earning salaries. Additionally, under such circumstances neither salary is secondary nor domestic task tend to be contracted out. Ellison (2001) maintained that if the trend continues to be the pattern in society, logically the role of women
in the workplace will evolved to become more equal with men driven by an economic rather than a social imperative.

Significantly, over the post war period what is termed as horizontal segregation has emerged as segregation within the workplace has gradually been reduced as jobs become less gendered (Evetts, 1998). Evetts continued that this has brought about a dual career structure in response to the perceived promotional prospect of women within the engineering organization. Invariably, one can argue that perhaps the biggest threat to women is gender discrimination (Ellison, 2006). Ellison further observed that the phenomenon has created the psychological effect of making women less competitive in management position than their male counterparts. On the other hand, Schehneider (1993), observed that norms in the society have created patterns to which men and women are to operate and women who are seen to behave contrary to the society’s norms are described as substandard or abnormal. It is obvious that women are been discriminated against by their male counterparts and the society as a whole. In addition, most societies put impediment or barriers to women procession especially in areas of authority.

Currently, there are two schools of thought. One argues that women have been liberated from all forms of discrimination and the other holds the view that women still suffer patriarchal oppression. Richardson and Robison (1993), in support of the fact that women have been liberated, argued that after women’s liberation struggle for a long period, most things have changed for women and that women’s anatomy and equality with men are now widely supported and respected. Richardson and Robinson (1993) on the other hand stated that not long
ago, women did not speak their minds and that anytime a woman attempted doing so she invariably met with ridicule from members of the society.

In addition, that campaigns against sexual harassment and violence against women, provision for childcare, abortion right and women equality in general which are now familiar on trade unions and council’s agenda today are all signs that people are now conscious about women’s rights. However, Mongella (1995) argues that presently disparities still exist between men and women. She emphasized that despite the strides made by women in recent years, disparities between the north and south, rich and poor, rural and urban continue to affect women’s progress. Mongella (1995) points out that a greater proportion of women are illiterates worldwide especially in high political levels. In addition that women’s right are being violated at an unprecedented rate and that women in managerial positions are few worldwide. For instance, women are still very much underrepresented in the professional category at the United Nations Secretariat. Rosario Green, a special political adviser to the secretary of the United Nations, in 1995 asserted that the United Nations would be more efficient if it were not dominated by men. She blamed this on member states of the United Nations. To her, the member states have not done well as they have failed regularly to nominate women to contest for the positions in the United Nations.

Mongella (1995) found that Indian government has reserved 33% of elected local government positions for men. This would bring over one million women into the political process. She found out that Sweden has also provided another milestone.
The prime Minister of Sweden has achieved gender parity in the national cabinet with the appointment of 11 men and 11 women. Most governments have taken note of these developments and are actively involved in promoting the participation of women in not only the political process but in all other disciplines. Mongella (1995) again noted that in eliminating gender disparity, the commonwealth secretariat is currently employing men into consultancy and similar positions only where there are no women equally qualified. Gender therefore, needs to be understood clearly as a cross-cutting cultural variable that surpasses race, ethnicity, and class.

**Concept of Leadership and Management**

The socio-cultural facts and practices of many nations have defined women to be inferior to men and as such assigned to them the position of minors in both the public and private spheres of life (Mathur-Helm, 2005). Studies have confirmed that women may face more difficulties in business than their male counterparts as a result of stereotyped assumptions about their role, and these assumptions have a negative effect on women’s management opportunities in the workplace (Maclaran *et al.*, 1998).

Tilbrook (1998) observed that organizations are not neutral, as they reflect the patriarchal social structures and dominant male values which infuse public life. As a result it is much easier to investigate the position of women, discuss the efficacy of equal opportunity or even theoretically examine the reasons for women’s subordination than it is “to improve the position of women”. Unfortunately much needed legislative reforms and policies directed to increase
the participation of women and minorities have had limited impact. Ironically, women have been in the labour market in most developed and developing countries for more than 20 years, yet it is estimated that women in senior management position are far lower than their male counterparts. For example, as stated by Burke and Nelson, (2002), in the UK, the estimated figure is at 5 percent.

On the other hand, it has been perceived that the labour market is structurally gendered and women in managerial positions appear to enjoy the leadership role. Although there is no evidence to support the contention that women are less efficient managerial leaders than men, as there are few differences between men and women in cognitive abilities and skills (Ismail Ibrahim, 2008) some writer contend that women who hold managerial positions are perceived to exercise powers than men (Carli & Eagly, 2001). Ledet and Henley (2000) added that women in high-level position or power are rated as being “masculine” as men and more “masculine” than women in lower levels of position of power, indicating that women at such levels are viewed as capable as their male counterparts. These gender differences bring diverse perspective to the workforce (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). There has been a general acceptance that women are under-represented in managerial positions throughout the sphere of life even within the higher education sector. UNESCO (1993) report on higher education stated that “One of the barriers facing women is the fact that they are not men” (p. 24). The statement underscores the enormity to which women have been under represented in managerial position throughout the world.
According Torry and Tilbrook (1998) women in senior management positions are seriously under-represented. He maintained that in Australia, senior women represented only 1.3 percent of the Australia workforce in comparison with 11.2 percent of men in similar positions.

More recent estimations of 3 percent suggests that the increase in the number of senior women managers only reflects the growing number of women in the workforce rather than improved progression rates. Practically, women are often informally pressured to provide more teaching and pastoral care to students than their male colleagues on similar levels. This phenomenon is also epitomized where women principals take on a broad educational leadership role rather than a purely managerial focus (Tilbrook, 1998).

Gray (1996) observed that the style of management has nothing to do with gender. To him, being a man or woman allows distinct individually or personally, disregarding sex stereotyping and this is also true for heads of schools. Powell (1993) stated that women and men did not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favoured men while others favoured women. The study by Gray and Shein (1996) made it known that women in leadership positions were more democratic and willing to share while male executives were more autocratic and directive.

Davies, et al. (1992) observed that women conform to stereotyped gender roles which were counseling, hospitality and support services. He stated that this led to a spiral of under-evaluation where women were not given the chance to demonstrate administrative competence. This behaviour put women into pre-
determined roles that prevented them from infiltration into other part of the work environment and inhibiting their growth potentials. However, Eagly et al. observed that some women adopted the autocratic and directive style (masculine style) of leadership, which violated the norms associated with the feminine style of leadership, which was impersonal and democratic –oriented. This implies that to break the mould, some women emulate their male colleagues in order to push themselves up in the world of work.

**Women in Educational Administration**

Little is known about the lives and careers of women in educational administration within developing countries (Oplatka, 2006). In cultural context societal believes have had immeasurable effect on women attitudes, values and norms of behaviour (Dimmock & Walker, 1998). According to Handleman (2000), rapid modernization processes appear to have much influence upon employment opportunities for women and their professional development which have increase the number of women in teaching and educational administration within many developing countries. Handleman (2000) indicated that in East Asia, for example, the industrial boom from the 1980s onwards opened up additional employment opportunities for women, even though most women are needed in the lowest paying occupations.

On a retrospective dimension it can be said that modernization and industrialization have necessitated access of more women into education in many countries than a decade ago, because of high technology, society’s needs for professional employees has increased. Indeed, in more economically developed
modern countries such as Costa Rica, Hong Kong, Singapore, the Philippines, China, South Korea and even in some Islamic countries, there are high rates of females in primary, secondary and higher education (Handlelman, 2000; Jayaweera, 1997; Sidani, 2005). It has been argued that the higher the women’s levels of education, the relatively higher incidence exists at percentages of women in professional and technical occupations (Jayaweera, 1997), but this concept has been ignored by many developing countries. Logically, it is argued that the entry of more girls into schools in developing countries is assumed to increase their potential incidence in future in administrative positions in the educational systems within their countries, although some cultural and social factors might slow the process or limit its scope.

Women’s movement in countries such as India, Lebanon, Egypt, and Kenya, for instance, have challenged the male-domination structures in their countries and gender-inequalities. They strived for the introduction of gender – sensitive policies and programs so as to improve the lives of women in their countries (Sidani, 2005). Imperatively, economic, social and political processes in many developing countries reflect a potential trend towards greater numbers of women gaining administrative positions in schools. Perhaps, recruiting and retaining women teachers should become priority strategies for improving girls’ education in many developing countries (Kirk, 2004).

In bridging the gap between men and women in all spheres of life it is important that there is an in-depth understanding of the particular barriers to women’s advancement or access into educational leadership positions in
developing countries which might contribute to the development of career strategies for career promotion that are compatible with the organizational and social contexts of women. Exploring the lives and careers of women principals in developing countries that “allow” women to be involved in leadership positions in school could, in addition, tell us a lot about the experiences these women undergo on their way to leadership positions.

A variety of studies have suggested various explanations which account for the low representation of women in leadership positions in educational systems of developed countries. Among these are cultural scripts that identify feminine attributes as contributing to ineffective leadership (Curry, 2000). Latent discrimination and male dominance in educational administration turn to hinder the leadership opportunities of many women (Limerick & Lingard, 1995). Male dominance of key leadership positions is likely to lead to recruiting new principals who resemble their sponsors in attitude, philosophy, deed and appearance, hobbies, club membership, i.e. men (Hill & Ragland, 1995). On the other hand, women’s under-representation in leadership positions may be attributed also to women’s own decision not to apply for promotion in educational institutions for a variety of reasons, such as lack of necessary aspirations, lack of awareness of the promotion system and lack of confidence that they will succeed, gender-based socialization, fear of failure, and lack of competitiveness (Coffey & Delamont, 2000).
Male and Female Leadership Styles

As far as differences between men and women in leadership positions were concerned, two contradictory views appear in the literature. While some researchers found no substantial evidence for gender differences in educational leadership Mert and McNeely (1998), others argue ardently that men and women differ in the ways they manage people, although the differences are not considered to be innate, but, rather, the outcome of different socialization patterns (Hall, 1996). Female principals commonly tend to adopt a democratic, participative style, to pay much attention to vision-building for the school, to spend much time in change initiation and implementation, and to be attuned to curriculum and teaching issue (Oplatka, 2003). While the debate about gender differences in leadership styles has been hotly contested, it is less difficult to show gender dissimilarities in the experiences of principals, simply because men and women are influenced differently by their gender during childhood, with family issues and throughout their professional adult lives. For instance, women principals in many developed countries were found to attain their positions either “by chance” or following clear career planning and aspiration into principalship. Mert and McNeely (1998) revealed that women in the second pattern tended to be more assertive in their behaviour than those in the first one, were far less accepting of defeat and more confidence in them.

Barriers to Women Career Progression

According to Maskell-Pretz and Hopkins (1997), barrier is defined as a factor, event or phenomenon that prevents or controls access to individuals from
making progress. Barriers may be tangible or intangible, actual or perceived by the recipient. In the business world, many organizations are struggling to hold on to their best and brightest women, however, the presence of barriers such as prejudices and the glass ceiling phenomenon makes it difficult. The glass ceiling is a phenomenon which argues that a barrier is so subtle and transparent yet so strong that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy (Powell & Graves, 2003).

However, the problems of low representation of women in leadership positions are prominent not only in developing countries but developed countries as well. A variety of studies have, however, suggested various explanations which account for the low representation of women in leadership positions especially in educational systems of various countries. Among these are cultural scripts that identify feminine attributes as contributing to ineffective leadership (Curry, 2000), latent discrimination (Coleman, 2002), and male dominance in educational administration, which, in turn, hinders leadership opportunities of many women (Limerick & Lingard, 1995). As observed by male dominance of key leadership positions in various institution is likely to lead to the culture of recruiting new principals who resemble their sponsors in attitude, philosophy, deed and appearance, hobbies, club membership, and as such male dominance.

Women’s under-representation in leadership positions may be attributed also to women’s own decision not to apply for promotion in education for a variety of reasons, such as lack of necessary aspiration, lack of awareness of the promotion system and lack of confidence that they will succeed, gender-based
socialization, fear of failure, and lack of competitiveness (Coffey & Delamont, 2000). It is therefore important to first understand these barriers that women face and to identify career strategies used by successful women to overcome barriers associated with balancing work and family responsibilities.

Family-Related Barriers

The traditional division of labour leads people to expect domestic responsibilities to be women’s primary roles and any obligations that detract them from their ability to perform their primary roles causes role conflict. Consequently, the gender division of labour frees men from domestic and childcare responsibilities at home and making women solely responsible for domestic and child care at home (Charles & Davies, 2000).

Williams and Cooper (2004) identified that women do 65-85 per cent of childcare work and more than 70 per cent of elderly care work. In addition, as women reduce their time in the workplace, in order to do their domestic work, they see depressed wages and lack of benefits and advancement that accompany that choice. According to Miller (2004) the pressure that women face in balancing career and family is the most significant barrier in women’s attempt to advance.

Societal-Related Barriers

According to Ridgeway (2001) societal misconception about the role of mother has had a negative effect on working mothers. Thus, the belief that a good mother must give less effort and priority to work demands eventually reduces the overall work input of women. Ridgeway added that this biased belief is belief that is likely to create barriers to women’s advancement in the workplace. Such
barriers include the lack of opportunities for women to present their ideas, therefore reducing their influence over group decisions.

In contrast to the societal judgment made towards mothers, employed fathers are regarded as better parents and more professional competent (Feugen et al., 2004). This notion includes the belief that mothers must do more than fathers to be labelled as good parents and that mothers are held to higher standards of responsibilities than fathers. Based on social role theory that guides judgment of mothers and fathers, full-time employed mothers are seen as violating the norms of caretaker role, but employed fathers embody the provider role. As such, motherhood would have a detrimental effect on women’s career opportunities but an enhancing effect on men’s opportunities (Feugen et al., 2004).

**Organizational-Related Barriers**

Organizations are extremely complex systems and as explained by Cole (2004) an organization is a means to an end and not an end in itself. Organizational culture is important to understanding of barriers faced by career women. The concept of organizational culture according to Harvey and Brown (1996) is a system of shared meanings, values, beliefs, practices, group norms of the members to produced behavioural norms with regard to the working conditions of the organization. Organization culture is often cited as either the key facilitator or barrier to work-life policies, as cultural norms often over-ride formal policy intentions.

Invariably, organizational culture provides a people-centred, theoretical perspective on the management of change that is seen to offer some insight into
the “intangible” nature of organizations and their behaviour: a contrasting approach to the traditional management view of organization (formal structures, rules and procedures and rational argument) (Maull et al, 2001). A supportive culture can improve morale and motivate people to reduce stress and absences (Wise & Bond, 2003). Mills (2006) observed that the holistic approach to culture is imperative as it can generate insights into how workplace can become discriminatory.

Although organizational culture is often discussed as if it were a gender neutral phenomenon, the gendered nature of organizational culture is demonstration daily by the multitudes of differences that have been shaped in the context of male dominance. The cultural association of power and authority with masculinity makes it difficult for women to hold position of power because their gender identity contradicts that of the masculinity of power (Charles & Davies 2000).

The Status of Women Worldwide

Worldwide, it is estimated that women grow half of the world’s food, but they rarely own land. They constitute one-third of the world’s paid labour force but are generally found in the lowest-paying jobs. Single-parent households headed by women—which appear to be on the increase in many nations—are typically found in the poorest sections of the population. The feminization of poverty has become a global phenomenon. Women worldwide are underrepresented politically (Schaefer, 2002).
A detailed overview of the status of the world’s women, issued by the United Nations in 1995, noted that “too often, women and men live in different work-worlds that differ in access to education and work opportunities, and in health, personal security and leisure time.” While acknowledging that much has been done in the last 20 years to sharpen people’s awareness of gender inequities, the report identified a number of areas of continuing concern:

i. Despite advances in higher education for women, women still face major barriers when they attempt to use their educational achievements to advance in the workplace. For example, women rarely hold more than 1 to 2 percent of top executive positions.

ii. Women almost always work in occupations with low status and pay than men. In both developing and developed countries, many women work as unpaid family labourers.

iii. Despite social norms regarding support and protection, many widows around the world find that they have little concrete support from extended family networks.

iv. In many African and a few Asian nations, traditions mandate the cutting of female genitals, typically by practitioners who fail to use sterilized instruments. This can lead to immediate and serious complications from infection or to long-term health problems.

v. While males outnumber females as refugees, refugee women have unique needs, such as protection against physical and sexual abuse (United Nations 1995, p. 46).
Moreover, according to a World Development Report issued by the World Bank in 2000, there are twice as many illiterate women in developing countries as illiterate men. Some societies do not allow women to attend school. Of 1.2 billion people living on less than a dollar a day around the world, 70 percent are female (World Bank, 2000). Women entering the job market find their options restricted in important ways. Particularly damaging is occupational segregation or confinement to sex-typed “women jobs”. In the United States of America, for instance, in 1997 women accounted for 99 percent of all secretaries, 97 percent of all dental assistants, and 81 percent of all librarians. When women enter into such sex-typed occupations, they are mostly places in-charge of “service” roles that are parallel to the traditional gender-role standard under which housewives “serve” their husbands (Schaefer, 2002).

Schaefer, (2002) further points out that, women are underrepresented in occupations historically defined as “men’s jobs” which often carry greater financial rewards and prestige than women’s jobs. For example, in 1997, women accounted for approximately 46% of the paid labour force in the United States. Yet they constituted only 10% of all engineers, 17% of all dentists, 26% of all physicians and 29% of all computer systems analysts. These developments point to one major conclusion as observed by Nader (1986) that even in the relatively more egalitarian nations of the west, women’s subordination is “institutionally structured and culturally rationalized, exposing them to conditions of deference, dependency, powerlessness, and poverty” (p.83).
Gender Issues in Ghana

African women have made tremendous contribution history through their effort in achieving the best for their families and country as a whole. History has women such as Yaa Asantewaa of Ghana, Queen Hatshepsut of ancient Egypt and Queen Amina of Hausa Empire who held power and made various contributions to the upliftment of their people (Sweetman, 1987).

In Ghana, only 10% of women are found in leadership positions despite the fact that women form about 51% of the total population of the country (Ghana Government, 1987). According to Davis (1992), women in education management are fewer than expected and is very obvious throughout the world. In Ghana despite the recent advancement in educational management since the education reforms in 1987, which has given rise to more women taking up leadership positions, the number has been described by women advocates as below expectations. Women dominance in educational management in Ghana is found at the basic levels of the educational ladder. The number of women in education management decreases as one moves up the educational ladder and is worse at the tertiary levels. Nukuya (1998) observed that the traditional positions of women in the socio-cultural setting in Ghana have been the cause of the marginalization on the educational management of Ghana. He asserted that the social setting requires that women are always under the guidance of a man and even when she is married she is expected to be submissive to her husband. In addition, Clark (1996) postulated that the domestic and childcare responsibilities which are assigned to women have negatively affected women chances of
attaining leadership position in the educational sector as women turn to be over burden with both domestic responsibilities and active public work.

Invariably, pregnancy, new motherhood and single parenthood are areas of concern to many employers in the developed countries, which have posed a great dilemma to employers as to whether to give a leadership position to a female or to the male (Mock & Bruno, 1994). Employers’ main concern in this regards is the long maternity leave that the woman may have to stay off duty and the economic implications. Though there are rules to guide against such discrimination, there exist a thin line to fathom whether an employer is discriminating or not, in a report by the Ghanaian Times (May 27, 1994) indicated that women were discriminated against on a number of opportunities compared to their male counterparts. In 1993, a similar report was made by the Weekly Spectator June 26, 1993 edition, when a member of parliament tabled on the floor a concern on the extent of discriminating of women in all spheres of the social life of Ghana. In the educational sector Anamuah-Mensah (1995) observed that education is the only leverage that can push women into high public offices but most often than not several societal attitudes tend to discourage higher education attainment among females. A Government of Ghana survey (GoG, 1992) conducted on women’s education in revealed that the proportion of female of the total population aged 6 years and above constituted 56.5% of the total population as compared to 43.5% of male, however, literacy rate of girl is growing rapidly, which is literally significant in the number of women that may attain high public office in the future. Dolphlye (1991) assert that women’s level of literary in
Ghana on a whole is low so the educated tend to be concentrated in certain areas namely teaching and nursing. Invariably, women participation in leadership position tends to be a legitimized stereotype role for women to undertake.

In this regard, Gyekye et al. (1997) postulated that low educational and training qualification make women uncompetitive in the job market and elective position in their position compared to men. On the other hand, women sometimes are unable to take up position out of their regions as well as training themselves in areas of advancement that would enable them to take higher positions. Pra (1992) stressed that the attitudes that prevail to deny women from attaining high positions are created by women themselves. This, he explained, is as a result of the believe that in the community, the home and the role of the woman in the house. Table 1 shows the representation of women in leadership positions in the Ghana Education Service.

Table 1: Women in High Positions in the Ghana Education Service (1998-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Positions</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Divisional Directors</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Directors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors (Headquarter)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors (Regional offices)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>81.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Directors</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal of Teacher Training Colleges</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heads of Senior Secondary school</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, women as custodians of culture, pass on values and norms which contribute to their inequality. In other words, in socializing women pass on norms that work against their own interest as women. In the educational management of schools in Ghana a report by the National Council for Women and Development, in 1998, revealed that there exist high levels of discrimination in the various positions within the Ghana educational Service. The NCW (1998) report also stated that only 27% of women occupy senior positions in the civil service with only 9% in directorship positions. In addition, only the report maintained that women in the educational management tend to the very discipline and in such case those women are often considered to be too strict to be in managerial positions.

With an estimated percentage increase of 2.58 and 2.67 per annum for males and females respectively it can be said that the population of women now stands at about 51% and that of men is 49% (Ghana census, 1994). Therefore, if the country would achieve any significant development then women who are in the majority should be in the forefront of the development process. Consequently, the Government has made a conscious effort, to involve women in the development process. This is epitomized in laws and policies made in Ghana. Article 17(2) of the 1992 constitution of Ghana states “A person shall not be discriminated against on grounds of gender, race, colour, ethnic origin, religion, creed or social or economic status” Again Article 36(6) also states that “the state shall afford equality of economic opportunities for all citizens; and in particular the state shall take all necessary steps so as to ensure full integration of women into the mainstream of the economic development of Ghana” (p.38).
These constitutional provisions create equal access for both males and females to education and employment. Again the Ghana Vision 2020, (a coordinated programme of Economic and Social Development policies used in preparing the 1996-2000 Development Plan), recognizes the fact that for a nation to move forward its policies must be ‘people oriented’ stated categorically that the crucial role of women in development will be acknowledged by, further increasing women’s access to education. And it is only through this that its medium-term programme objectives; poverty alleviation, enhancement of human resources, increasing employment and leisure opportunities and strengthening social infrastructure services can be achieved. Successive governments in Ghana have endorsed various international commitments towards the emancipation of women in order to enhance their socio-economic and political status in society. For instance, Ghana is signatory to the ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1986 (Action Aid Ghana, 2004). The desire of the government and others to eliminate disparities between women and men has also led to the setting up of the National council on Women and Development (NCWD), 31st December Women’s Movement (31st DWM), Ghana Association of Women Entrepreneurs (GAWE) and many more. All these organizations have the aim of promoting the advancement of the Ghanaian woman in all works of life. However, such commitments and effects have not been translated into greater opportunities for economics and social participation of the Ghanaian woman. Women’s representation at national and local government levels stand at 9% and 3% respectively according to the core welfare indicator questionnaire
It is evident that women’s participation in these critical areas of policy and public decision making is very low although women form the majority (51.46%) of the population (Action Aid Ghana, 2004). In the same vein, despite the efforts made to raise the status of women and to involve them in the administration of the country, (thus in the development process) it appears the number of women in management positions in education has not experienced any significant change.

The literature so far indicates that tasks performed by men can equally be performed by women yet through gender-role socialization with its attendant gender stereotyping women tend to be excluded from performing certain roles or taking up higher position in society. Gender stereotyping which engenders self-filling prophecies where women themselves may tend to believe that they are unsuitable for higher positions even when have the requisite qualifications coupled with family, societal and organizational related barriers affect female career progression. These pose serious challenges to women’s participation in management in all fields including education. This ties in with the objectives of the study, namely, to find out the main challenges that confront women in their attempt to participate in the management of their respective schools and the sources of these challenges.

The other objectives were to investigate the administrative process involve in the selection of people to management position and how this process impacts on women and to ascertain the level of desire of the women and to participate in management positions relate to issues of prejudice, discrimination and self-filling prophecies raised in the literature. The study was designed to highlight the extent to which gender stereotyping and its
attendant consequences as well as family, societal and organizational barriers impact on the challenges facing women in management positions in senior high schools in the Bolgatanga municipality and by extension other districts and municipalities in the country.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the procedures that were followed in the research. This includes the research design, the study population, sample and sampling technique, research instruments, pre-testing of instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis plan which were all used in the research to obtain data so as to achieve the objectives of the study.

Research Design

The design employed for the study was the descriptive survey. This research design was used because it focused on perceptions and helped the researcher to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data on human nature or characteristics (Frankel & Wallen, 2000). Thus, the descriptive research is concerned with the conditions or relationships that exist between phenomena such as determining the nature of prevailing conditions, practices and attitudes, opinions that are going on, trends that are developed. This design was used for the study because it helps in discovering the real state of affairs or events as they are on the ground in the case of the study.

Also, descriptive survey involves a collection of data in order to test hypothesis or to answer questions concerning the current status of the problems being handled. The design was employed because it provides useful information from a large sample of individuals (Frankel & Wallen, 2000). The design was considered appropriate because facts on the ground could be discovered and conditions that exist at a particular point in time could be seen.
and commented upon. the advantage for this design is that it helps to find views as they are in their natural setting.

**Population**

The population for the study comprised all women in management positions in the second cycle institutions in the Bolgatanga municipality. The Bolgatanga municipality has three secondary schools and one technical institution. The second cycle institutions include Bolgatanga Girls’ Senior High School, Zamse Senior High School, Zuarungu Senior High and the only technical school in the municipality, the Bolgatanga Technical Institute. The target population was made up of all the female teachers in all the second cycle institutions. Though the numbers of female teachers in the school were equal to that of the male teachers only one female was a head of one of the schools. In addition, the research also sought to study the criterion that qualifies someone to be a director or head of an institution in the Ghana Education Service.

**Sample and Sampling Technique**

A sample size of 150 female teachers was selected randomly though the lottery method to represent the study population. In order to ensure reliability and to avoid bias in the selection of the sample the list of all the female teachers in the four second cycle schools were collected from the various schools. The member corresponding to each name was written on a piece of paper. They were folded and put into a box. The contents were shuffled. I then closed my eyes and selected one piece of paper, noted the number written on it and discarded it. I then shuffled the contents again before selecting the next piece of paper. Thus, using this method, I continued
the process until 150 numbers were selected. Women whose names corresponded with the numbers, 80 selected constituted the sample for the study.

**Instruments for Data Collection**

The main data collection instruction adopted in the research was the questionnaire. The instrument was used because the respondents were literate who could read and write. Besides, it serves as a convenient instrument under such a study that requires that the respondents answered the question by expressing their opinion with little supervision and at their own convenience. To offer respondents the free will to express their idea and at the same time being towards the objectives of the study both opened and closed ended questions were used in the design of the questionnaire (Appendix A). The questionnaire for the female teachers had three sections. Section A dealt with a set of questions that sought to elicit personal information about the respondents which included rank, age range, and number of years worked, academic qualification and professional data. This set of information provided the researcher a data base upon which conclusions could be drawn based on the objectives of the study.

On the other hand, Section B of the questionnaire elicited information on the perception of the respondent on leadership position as well as their own ambitions about attaining leadership position in GES. The last section of the questionnaire sought to collect data on the respondents’ perception about their own female leader and their male leaders on a comparative scale. The data was believed to unravel the reasons why female leaders are few.
Pilot-Testing of the Instrument

Pilot-testing of the questionnaire was carried out on 20 female teachers in the Bawku District. The pilot-testing helped the researcher to make changes to some of the items in the questionnaire and also to ensure there were unambiguous items that could course misunderstanding of the questions. The results of the pilot-test generated Chronbach’s alpha co-efficient of .70 which was considered a acceptable level of reliability on the recommendation of Kline (1999).

Data Collection Procedure

Access to the respondents was negotiated by presenting a letter from the Director of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA), asking permission to research in the schools, to the headmasters of the schools involved. When permission was granted, I explained the purpose of the study to the respondents and then requested them to fill out the questionnaire.

Some of the respondents in three of the schools were able to complete the questionnaire and return it to me on the same day. In the other schools, I hand to go back to the school on two occasions before I eventually retrieved 135 out of the 150 (90%) questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The data collected were statistically analysed using the statistical product service solutions software (SPSS). Representations in the form of tables were used to ensure easy and quick interpretation. Data from the completed questionnaire were checked for consistency. The open-ended items were grouped based on the responses given by the respondents. These items
were coded and entered into a computer and the SPSS software was used to generate the relevant descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages, these statistics were then summarized in tabular form. Data from the GES office was also analysed and conclusions were drawn based on the researcher objectives and question of study.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the results that emerged from data. It presents the presentation of the bio-data of respondents in the first part and the discussion of the main finding research question by research in the second part. The results were presented with tables and simple percentages for discussion.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The study obtained data on the age distribution of respondents. This covers the ages, marital status, academic qualification and knowledge of criteria for leadership. The results were as shown in Tables 2, 3, 4, 5.

Table 2: Age Group of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Distribution of Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-29</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-41</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42-47</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-52</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52 and above</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2011
The data in Table 2 shows that the ages of the respondent range from 18 to 52 years and above. Respondents in age group 30 – 35 years constitutes 50(33.3%) of the respondents. The next dominant age group was 36-41 years recorded 39(26.0%) of the respondents. Only 3(2.0%) were of the age group of 18-23 year. This implies that most of the respondents fall within the age bracket of 30-35 years. With regard to the marital status of the respondents, the data shows that 113 constituting about 75.3% of the respondents were married. The remaining 37 constituting 24.7% of the respondents were single.

The academic qualifications of the respondents is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Academic Qualification of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>87.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate Diploma</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2011

The data in Table 3 shows that majority, that 131 forming about 87.3% of the 150 respondents possess a Bachelors’ degree. Out of the remaining 19 of the respondent, 8 about 5.5%) possess diploma certificates and another 8 (about 5.3%) hold a post-graduate diploma certificates and 3 (about 2%) possess a master’s degree. This also shows that the respondents were all well educated enough to provide meaningful responses to issues raised in the study.

Knowledge of the criteria used in selecting leaders in educational institutions was also examined. The results are shown in Table 4.
Table 4: Respondents’ Knowledge of Criteria for Selecting Heads of Educational Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State of Knowledge</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selection criteria are known</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection criteria are not known</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that out of the 150 respondents, 93 (62%) of them indicated that they had knowledge of the criteria used in selecting heads of educational institutions. They all stated Academic and Professional Qualifications, rank, and experience as the requirement considered those for the appointment of heads of educational institutions. The remaining 57 (38%) of the respondents stated that they had no knowledge of the criteria used in selecting heads of educational institutions.

Currently, the practice is that teachers interested in heading senior High Schools and have the requisite Academic and Professional Qualifications, Rank, and Experience are made to apply and attend a selection interview. Those who pass the selection interview are short-listed and when vacancies occur due to retirement or transfers, the Director-General select some of the short listed candidates to fill such vacancies. The requirements for headship in senior high school are:

1. At least first degree
2. Be of the rank of Deputy Director
3. Must have been an Assistant Headmaster, Guidance and counseling
4. Co-ordiantor or Head of Department.
Apart from these the character, behaviour and work ethics of candidates are usually considered in the appointment of heads of Senior High Schools. In the case of basic schools (Primary and Junior High Schools), it is the District Directors of Education who appoint the heads. The appointments are based on the Academic and professional Qualifications, Rank, Experience, character, work ethics and moral behavior of candidates.

**Research Question 1:** What are the challenges faced by women management positions in senior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality?

It is generally agreed that women faced a variety of barriers that militate against their participation in Management positions. The study therefore sought to find out the challenges women in the Bolgatanga Municipality encountered in Management Positions. The options included academic qualification, lack of experience in leadership, professional qualification, gender discrimination, age and lack of interest. The responses provided are as presented in Table 5.

**Table 5: Barriers Militating Against Women Participation in Management Positions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverse Factor</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male dominated working environment</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female dominated working environment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of female enthusiasm and determination</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of female determination</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2011
The data in Table 5 portrays that the major barrier to female participation in decision is male dominated environment. This was indicated by 72% of the 150 respondents. This is followed by lack of female enthusiasm and determination and lack of female. These were indicated by 25% and 15% of the respondents respectively. Only 1.3% of the 150 respondents stated female dominated working environment as a barrier to female participation in management positions. These findings corroborate the observations made by some researchers. Limerick and Lingard (1995) observed that made dominance of key leadership positions in various institutions is likely to lead to the cultured of recruiting new principals (Headmasters/Mistresses) who resemble their sponsors in attitude, philosophy, deem and appearance, lorries, club membership, and as such male dominance.

Charles and Davies (2000) have also observed that although organizational culture is often discussed as if it were a gender neutral phenomenon, the gendered nature of organizational culture is demonstrated daily by the multitude of differences that have been shaped in the context of male dominance. They further contended that the cultural association of power and authority with masculinity makes it difficult for women to hold positions of power because their gender identity contradicts that of the masculinity of power.

The data also reveals lack of enthusiasm and determination to aspire for management positions. The result indicates that 25(16.7%) of women lack the enthusiasm and determination to aspire to management position. This corroborates the finding of Coffey and Delamont (2001). They observed that women’s under-representation in leadership positions may be attributed also to
women’s own decision not to apply for promotion in education for a variety of reasons, such as lack of necessary aspirations, lack of awareness of the promotion system and lack of confidence that they will succeed among other things. All societies, in both the developed and developing, have traditional beliefs and practices that tend to constitute barriers that affect female progression to higher positions. Five statements capturing some traditional beliefs/practices that have the potential of affecting female progression to higher positions in the Bolgatanga Municipality were presented to the respondents.

**Traditional Belief/Practices Affecting Women’s Progression**

The respondents were required to indicate whether they Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A) Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD) to the five statements. The responses are presented in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Belief/Practice</th>
<th>SA N(%)</th>
<th>A N(%)</th>
<th>D N(%)</th>
<th>SD N(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early marriage</td>
<td>114(76.0)</td>
<td>30(20.0%)</td>
<td>6(4.0%)</td>
<td>0(0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women not being bread winners</td>
<td>39(26.0%)</td>
<td>53(35.3%)</td>
<td>20(13.3%)</td>
<td>38(25.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are not expected to hold a leadership position</td>
<td>53(35.3%)</td>
<td>59(39.3%)</td>
<td>39(26.0%)</td>
<td>0(0.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are expected to care for the families</td>
<td>52(35.0%)</td>
<td>52(35.0%)</td>
<td>26(17.0%)</td>
<td>20(13.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men are supposed to protect women</td>
<td>13(8.7%)</td>
<td>45(30.0%)</td>
<td>53(35.3%)</td>
<td>26(17.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2011

The data in Table 6 shows that 76% of the respondents strongly agreed to the statement that “early Marriage is a traditional practice that affects
women’s progression to high positions. The statement was also agreed to by 20% of the respondents. This indicates that at least 96% of all the 150 respondents agree that early marriage is a traditional practice that affects women’s progression to higher positions. Only 4% of the respondents disagreed to the statement majority of the respondents also agreed to the fact that women are not bread winners is a traditional practice that affects women’s progression to higher positions. The data in Table shows that 26% and 35.3% strongly agreed and agreed respectively. This means that at least 61.3% of the respondents agree to the statement that Women not being bread winners’ affect women’s progression to higher positions.

The traditional belief that “Women are not expected to hold a leadership position was strongly agreed to by 35.3% and agreed to by 39.3%. This also means that at least 74.6% of the respondent agrees that the expectation that women are not to hold a leadership position affects women’s progression to higher position. The traditional belief women are supposed to care for their families. 35% strongly agreed and another 35% agreed to it as a factor affecting female progression. It can therefore be deduced from this that at least 70% of the respondents agree that the belief that women are supposed to care for their families affects their progression to higher positions.

Majority of the respondents however disagreed to some extent with the statement that men are supposed to protect women as being a traditional belief/practice that affects the progression of women to higher positions. The statement was strongly disagreed to by about 35.3% and disagreed to by 17% by the respondents indicating that at least 52.3% of the respondents at least agree that the belief that men are supposed to protect women does not actually
affect their progression. It can however still be argued that the belief affects the progression of women to some extent as the statement was a least agreed to by the remaining 47.7% of the respondents. This is based on the fact that 47.7% is quite a significant figure. On the question of whether traditional beliefs/practices contribute to low women participation in management 69% of the respondents agreed that such practices contribute to low women participation in manage. The findings reveal that gender discrimination is one of major factor that militate against women’s participation in management positions. Another dominant barrier that militates against women’s participation is male-dominated working environmental. This was indicated by about 72% of the respondents. Other significant barriers are the lack of interest and the lack of female enthusiasm and determination. There are also traditional belief/practices that affect women’s progression to higher positions and hence militate against their participation in management positions. These include early marriage, women not being bread winners, women are not expected to hold leadership position, women are expected to care for their families and to a lesser extent men are supposed to protect women.

**Research Question 2**: To what extent do the women in senior high schools in the municipality possess the requisite level of educational attainment to qualify them to head educational institutions?

Research Question 2 sought to find out the educational attainment of women in senior high schools in the Municipality. The research question investigated the extent to which women in the Bolgatanga Municipality possess the requisite level of educational qualifications to qualify them to head educational institutions in the Municipality. Table 3 shows that majority of the
respondents who were women possess a bachelor’s degree. The results shows that 131 representing about 87.3% of them possess the bachelor’s degree. The data in Table 3 further shows that 8 (5.3%) and 3 (2%) possess post-graduate diploma and master’s degree respectively. This means that, in effect, 94.6% of the respondents possessed the requisite level of educational attainment to qualify them to head educational institutions (Senior High Schools) and this answers research question 2. The barrier academic qualification for the position of leadership in Senior High Schools in Ghana is a maximum of first degree/bachelor’s degree.

**Research Question 3:** What is the nature of the challenges that women face with regard to occupying leadership position?

This aspect of the analysis sought to determine the nature of the nature of the sources of the challenges faced by women with regard to occupying leadership positions. The data so far analysed indicate that the source of challenges faced by women in their bid to occupy leadership positions are largely societal with cultural underpinning. Gender discrimination identified by majority of the respondents in the study as found in Table 4 stems from the negative attitudes and behaviours society has about the roles, responsibilities and the abilities of women based on unfounded cultural beliefs/practices. This assertion is given credence to by schemeneider (1993) when he observed that norms in the society’s norms are described as substandard or abnormal. Aiken (as cited in Mensah, 2001) also observed that there is the belief that girls (Women) are intellectually inferior to boys. Mensah stated that the age old concept of women’s inferior mental abilities and limited social positions acted as barriers to the establishment of education for women. By extension,
society’s perception that women have low mental abilities is not a challenge but a barrier faced by women seeking leadership positions. The perception that women have low mental abilities has in no small measure contributed to a male working environment which one of the major barriers women face in their bid to occupy leadership positions as indicated by 72% of the respondents as depicted in Table 6.

Traditional beliefs/practices such as early marriage women hold a leadership position, women are expected to take care of their families and to extension men are supposed to protect women which are indicated as barriers that affect women’s progression to leadership positions by majority of the respondents as found in Table 6 all form part of the challenges women face with regard to occupying leadership positions. Societal and traditional belief/practices are usually deep rooted and form part of the socialization process. They are therefore usually difficult to change (Amokase, 2006). This provides answers to research question 3. What is the nature of the sources of the challenges faced by women with regard to occupying leadership positions. The sources are general societal and cultural beliefs/practices and beliefs held by society or based on culture are usually difficult to change.

**Research Question 4:** In what respects do the women themselves contribute to the problem of their subordinate role in the management of educational institutions?

This segment of the analysis concentrated the ways in which women themselves contribute to the problem of their subordinate role in the management of educational institutions. The respondents were asked to
indicate whether or not females contribute to low female participation in management responses provided are presented in Table 7.

**Table 7: Females Contribute to Low Female Participation in Management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2011

The data in Table 6 portrays that majority that is, 96 representing 64% of the respondents agree that females contribute to low female participation in management. Only 36% of them indicated that females do not contribute low female participation in management. In the quest to find out how females contribute to low female participation the respondents were asked to rank the performance of female heads they have worked with in the Ghana Education Service. The ranking provided by the respondents is as presented in Table 8.

**Table 8: Ranking of Performance of Female Heads in Ghana Education Service**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2011

The data in Table 8 show that of the respondents that about 63.3% ranked the females heads they have worked with in the Ghana Education
Service as high. About 20% ranked the female heads as very high and 43.3% ranked them as high. The remaining 36.7% ranked the performance the female heads they have worked with in Ghana Education Service as either low (30%) or very low (25%).

The study probed further the respondents’ preference of leadership based on gender of the leader. The results that emerged from the study were shown in Table 9.

**Table 9: Leadership Preference of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Preference</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Leaders</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>77.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Leaders</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey Data, 2011

The data in Table 9 show that majority of the respondents 116(77.3%) indicates that they preferred working under male leaders while only 34(22.7%) stated that they preferred working under female leaders. This result itself was an indication that females contribute to low participation of women in management positions in senior high schools in the Municipality. Though majority of the respondents ranked the performance of female leaders they have worked with as high, they still prefer to work under male leaders. A summary of the reasons they gave for not wanting to work under female leaders include:

1. That female leaders liked to be addressed as ‘Mama’
2. Poor human relations with subordinates
3. they are difficult in terms of helping others to also achieve higher positions
4. they are dictators, lack confidence, do not respect
5. do not like their fellow women to climb to the top and not easily approachable.

The findings show that though women concede that female leaders perform well as indicated by 63.3% of the respondents the respondents as depicted in Table 9, majority of them will not want to work with female leaders as indicated by 77.3% of the respondents for a variety of reasons as enumerated above.

**Research Question 5**: What is the level of enthusiasm and desire of women to occupy management positions?

This question sought to find out whether the respondents had any ambition to hold a higher position in the future in GES. The results were presented in Table 10.

**Table 10: Ambitions to Hold Higher Positions in Future in GES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>92.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey Date 2011.

The data in Table 10 shows that 92% of the respondent have the ambition of holding higher positions in future in the GES which is an indication of their level of enthusiasm and desire to participate in management positions. The level of enthusiasm and desire of all the 92% of the respondents
indicating that they have the ambition of holding higher positions in the future in GES is questionable. This is against the background that the demographic data of the respondent had no knowledge of the criteria used in heads of educational institutions. Normally, people who are genuinely ambitions for higher positions make the necessary preparations which include a good knowledge of the criteria used in selecting candidates to the positions they aspire to achieve.

Only 12 (8%) of the respondents stated that they had no ambition of holding higher positions in future in the GES the principal reason given by all the 12 is that GES does not offer any god conditions of service and they intend leaving for better jobs in other organizations. These findings provide the answer to Research Question 5.

The findings portray that majority of the respondents have the ambition of holding higher positions in the future in GES as indicated by 92% of them. This is an indication of their enthusiasm and desire to participate in management positions. However, the level of enthusiasm and desire of all the 92% of the respondents with the ambition of holding higher positions in future in GES is questionable since about 38% of the respondents had no knowledge of the criteria used.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study. The purpose of the study was to investigate women’s participation in leadership positions in educational institutions in the Bolgatanga Municipality.

Summary

Summary of Research Process

Data were collected from a random sample of 150 women in management positions in senior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality. The data were analysed using SPSS and summarised into frequency distribution tables according to the demands of the research questions.

The study sought to find out the barriers faced by women that militate against their participation in management positions. The study also aimed at finding out the extent to which women in the municipality possess the requisite level of educational attainment to qualify for management positions to educational institutions.

Another aim of the study was to determine the nature of challenges that women face with regard to occupying leadership positions. The study also tried to find out how women themselves contribute to the problem of their subordinate role in the management of educational institutions. The study
further sought to determine the level of enthusiasm and desire of women to participate in management positions.

**Summary Major Findings**

The following findings emerged from study;

1. Majority, of the respondents 87.3% posses bachelor’s degree, and were therefore, qualified for leadership and management positions in the Ghana education service. It also emerged from the findings that majority, that is, 62% of the respondents had knowledge of the criteria used in selecting heads of educational institutions. The remaining 38% indicated that they had no knowledge of the criteria used in selecting heads of educational institutions.

2. Gender discrimination is a major barrier that militates against women’s participation in management positions. About 51.3% of the respondents indicated that gender only was the barrier that affected women’s participation in management positions. Apart from this, 5.3% identified academic and gender discrimination. 2.7% identified gender discrimination and lack of interest and 6.7% also stated gender discrimination, lack of interest and family responsibilities respectively as factors that militate against women’s participation in management positions.

3. One major adverse factor that constitutes a barrier to female participation in management positions is male dominated working environment. This was indicated by 72% of the respondents who participated in the study.
4. There were four major traditional beliefs/practices that also affects women’s progression to higher management positions. These are early marriage, women not being bread winners, women are not expected to hold a leadership position and women are expected to care for their families. This was indicated by majority of the respondents.

5. The nature of the challenges faced by women in their bid to occupy leadership positions is basically societal. Challenges such as gender discrimination, male dominated working environment and some traditional beliefs/practices that affect women’s progression are the creation of society as part of culture which are usually difficult to change. Women themselves also contribute to low female participation in management. This was indicated by 64% of the respondents.

6. The performance of female heads in the Ghana Education Service was ranked high by at least 63.3% of the respondents. In spite of this, majority 77.3% of respondent preferred working under male heads. The reasons given were that female heads preferred to be called ‘mama’, poor human relations, difficult in helping others to achieve higher positions, dictators, lack of confidence, do not respect and not easily approachable.

7. Majority, that is 92% of the respondents, had the ambition of holding higher positions in future in the GES. However, their level of enthusiasm and desire of holding higher positions in future in the was questionable. This is against the background that about 38% of the respondents had no knowledge of the criteria used in the selection of heads of educational institutions.
Conclusions

Based on the findings that emerged from the study it can be concluded that women in the Bolgatanga Municipality posses the requisite academic qualification to occupy management positions in the Ghana Education Service. It can also be concluded that some aspects of cultural practices serves as a hindrance to women participation in leadership and management positions. Cultural practices such as male dominated work environment, early marriage, women not being regarded as bread winners of the family and women are not expected to hold a leadership position must tone down through civics education programmes in the Municipality. Women must also endeavour to support their colleagues who aspire for leadership and management positions in the Municipality. The study further concludes that women leaders in GNAT-LAS and in NAGRAT and the NCWD should create relevant platforms to education parents to eliminate traditional beliefs/practices that affect women’s participation in management positions as well as educate women themselves on ways to enhance that chances of occupying management positions in GES. Finally, appointments to management positions in the Municipality should be based purely on academic qualification and professional competence devoid of any form of gender discrimination.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made in the light above findings;

1. Non-governmental organizations and civil society groups such as the Federation of Women Lawyers who are interested in promoting the welfare of women should take a special interest in lobbying authorities of Ministry of Education and the GES to institute measures that would
give meaning to the policy of affirmative action. This should aim at eliminating gender discrimination and male dominated working environments in educational institutions.

2. Non-Governmental Organizations and Civil Society groups that seek to promote the welfare of women in the Bolgatanga Municipality such as the Centre for Sustainable Initiatives (CENSUDI) and National Council for Women and Development (NCWD) should organize seminars for women in educational institutions in the Bolgatanga Municipality aimed at helping them develop assertive skills. This will ensure that women in educational institutions stand up to the challenges of gender discrimination and male dominated working environment. This will enhance their chances of occupying management positions.

3. Women in educational institutions especially Ghana National Association of teacher Ladies (GNAT-LAS) should take it upon themselves to lobby the Education Subcommittee of the Bolgatanga Municipal Assembly and Municipal Oversight Committee on Education to use the local electronic media such URA Radio, Radio A1 and Word FM to educate parents in general on the harmful effects of traditional beliefs/practices that affect the progression of women to management positions. The Municipal Education Subcommittee and Oversight Committee on Education should also educate school Management committees and parent Teacher Association in schools on the effects of traditional beliefs/practices on the progression of women
to management positions for them to play a meaningful role in changing these beliefs/practices.

4. It is also recommended that women who occupy leadership positions in GNAT-LAS. And in the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT) to organize seminars to educate women in educational institutions in the municipality on the various ways in which women themselves contribute to the subordinate role they play in educational institutions and the need for change. The main objective of the seminars will be to ensure women in educational institutions assist and support one another to seek for management positions.

5. The National Council for Women and Development (NCWD) should create a forum for the purpose of educating women who are already in management positions in GES to eschew negative behaviours such as wanting to be called ‘mama’ dictatorship, being difficult to approach and exhibit qualities of good leadership. This will enable them serve as role models and encourage more women work under them as well as motivate women to aspire for management positions.

6. It is further recommended to NCWD, women leaders in GNAT-LAS and in NAGRAT to create a platform for educating all women in educational institutions on the criteria used in selecting heads of educational institutions. This recommendation is based on the fact that a good number of the respondents had no knowledge on the criteria used in selecting heads of educational institutions yet they had ambitions of occupying management positions in GES in future.
**Areas for Further Research**

It is suggested that a large scale research be conducted in all the three northern regions of Ghana to ascertain the intensity of the challenge of women participation in management positions. Another study is also recommended in the nature of work environmental factors that inhibit women participation in management positions.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to solicit information from respondents on the challenges faced by women in management position in senior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality. You are therefore, kindly requested to provide your candid in the items on the questionnaire to facilitate the study. You are also assured that your identity will not be assigned to any information that you provide.

Thank you.

Section A

Personal Data
1. Aged Group
   18-23 years [ ] 24-29 years [ ] 30-35 years [ ]
   36-41 years [ ] 42-47 years [ ] 48-52 years [ ]
   52 and above [ ]

2. Marital Status
   Married [ ] Separated [ ] Divorced [ ]
   Single [ ] Widowed/widower [ ]

Educational background and professional experience of respondent
3. What is your highest academic qualification?
   Certificate ‘A’ (Four Years) [ ] Certificate ‘A’ (Post - Sec) [ ]
   Specialist [ ] Diploma [ ] Postgraduate Diploma [ ]
   Bachelor degree [ ] Master Degree [ ]
   Other qualification (specific) .........................................................
Section B

Respondents’ perception on appointment criteria for higher positions

4. Are you conversant with the criteria for appointing heads of institutions and other high office? Yes [  ] No [  ]

If yes to the question above, please state the various criteria

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5. Do you have any ambitions of holding a higher position in the future, in GES? Yes [  ] No [  ]

6. If no to the question 5, please give reason

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7. Which of the following, in your opinion discourages female from taking up leadership positions?

   Academic qualification [  ] Lack of experience in leadership [  ]
   Professional qualification [  ] Gender discrimination [  ]
   Age [  ] Lack of interest [  ] Other [  ]

   (please specify) .................................................................................................................................

8. Under which of the following leadership would you prefer to work with? Male head [  ] Female head [  ]
9. Please give reason(s) for your answer to question 8
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10. How would you rank the performance of female heads?

    Very high [   ]
    High [   ]
    Low [   ]
    Very low [   ]

11. Which of the following adversely affect(s) the participation of women in school management?

    Male – dominated working environment [   ]
    Female dominated environment [   ]
    Lack of female enthusiasm [   ]
    Lack of female determination [   ]

12. Would you agree that females contribute to the low women participation in educational management?

    Yes [   ]
    No [   ]

13. Would you agree that traditional beliefs and practices have contributed to the low participation of women in educational management?

    Highly agreed [   ]
    Agreed [   ]
    Disagreed [   ]
    Highly disagreed [   ]
14. In your opinion, why is women participation in management as low as it is today?

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15. Please assess the following traditional practices and determine which of these affect female progression into higher positions. Please tick where appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional belief/practice</th>
<th>Most crucial</th>
<th>Crucial</th>
<th>Least crucial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early marriage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women not being bread winners</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are not expected to hold a leadership position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women are supposed to care for their families</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men are supposed to protect women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>