# UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN ACADEMIC HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS IN THE SECOND CYCLE INSTITUTIONS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

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**DECEMBER, 2013.**

# DECLARATION

**STUDENT'S DECLARATION.**

I ,ELIZABETH ETROO, hereby declare that, this dissertation _Leadership Experiences of Women Academic Heads of Departments in the Second Cycle Institutions in the Kumasi Metropolis, with the exception of references and quotations contained in the published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:……

DATE:……..

**SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: Dr. **ELLIS OSABUTEY**

SIGNATURE: 

DATE: 20/09/13

# DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my children Eugene and Eleanor Essilfie.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank my children Eugene and Eleanor for their support and great patience at all times. This work would not have been possible without the help, support and patience of my supervisor, Dr Ellis Osabutey not to mention his advice and guidance. The good advice, support and friendship of my Head of Department Mr. Ahmed Musah, has been invaluable on both an academic and a personal level, for which I am extremely grateful. I would like to acknowledge the, academic and technical support of the selected schools in the Kumasi Metropolis and its staff, particularly in the provision of information needed for this research. I do remember the support and encouragement of my Headmaster Mr. Raphael Amankwa when I first told him that l was pursuing this Programme. I would also like to thank my colleagues and friends in the University of Education, Winneba, Kumasi Campus. For any errors or inadequacies that may remain in this work, the responsibility is entirely my own.

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## ABSTRACT

The issue of leadership has being a major concern to any surviving institution. Thus the progress and success of every institution is highly depends on the kind of quality leadership styles put in place. This study sought to investigate women HODs leadership experienced in the second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis. The study employed the use of descriptive method of research. A sample size of 60 was used for the study and this was carried out using purposive sampling technique based on a population of 132 women HODs. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used for the data analysis. The study found that women attain their positions through their family‘s support, involvement in managerial duties, employment, equity, qualifications and through recommendations. The female HOD lead by example and values

integrity and persistence. Women HODs in the second cycle institutions use the kind of leadership styles that may seem fit for them in handling situations based on a given circumstance. It is recommended that women aspiring to as well as those already in leadership and management positions plan early for career advancement and involve themselves in managerial work to gain experience. Training programmes should be organised for women HODs to enhance and build their capacity towards their assigned tasks. .

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background of the Study

The traditional roles for women have been expanded beyond daughter, girlfriend, wife, and mother. Now appropriate roles for women also include paid employment outside the home" (Haslett, Florence, & Carter, 1993). As more women obtain and succeed in professional and managerial positions, they will disconfirm old stereotypes and traditional roles. The visible presence of many female authority role models in our society can change perceived personality traits, increase women's career ambitions, self-confidence, independence of judgment, and leadership initiatives (Haslett et al.). Current economic trends indicate that women's labor force participation will continue to increase, as will demands for their work both in the paid labor force and in the family resulting in increased stress and social speedup for women workers" (Andersen, 1993). Given the diversity in women's lives, families, and jobs, a smorgasbord of

strategies and support systems will be necessary for women to deal with their multiple roles productively.

The accepted message on gender disparity in the workplace has for the past 10 to 15 years been one of acknowledgment and reassurance: Yes, women represent just 3% of Fortune 500 CEOs and less than 15% of corporate executives at top companies worldwide, but give it time. It will change. After all, women also make up 40% of the global workforce, with double-digit growth in certain countries. They are earning advanced professional degrees in record numbers and in some areas surpassing men. Companies have implemented programs to fix structural biases against women and support their full participation in leadership. Women are finally poised to make it to the top, the argument goes. Not yet, but soon (Carter & Silva, 2010).

A preliminary review of the literature revealed that very few studies are devoted to the leadership of women in educational establishments and even fewer to the leadership of women in higher education. Part of the problem may be because the career paths of women in management are fraught with obstacles. Hence fewer women than is desirable make it into senior positions in the academe. Powney (1997) sums this up with her statement that ~~"~~many women… have a struggle to research managerial position in higher education and in the career stages leading up to a post in a university or college of higher education‘‘. Some of the obstacles listed in several studies include racism, sexism and class. Women in general suffer discriminatory practices when promotions to senior positions are considered, (Powney (1997), Tinsley (1984), Greyvenstein (2000) Peterson and Gravett (2000), Mathipa and Tsoka (2001), Jackson (2002), Heward (1996), Brown (1997), Klenke (1996), but women suffer additional prejudice of race and ethnicity. The influence of classification and sexism on the career advancement and managerial experiences of women would be discussed in more detail. Leadership and management in this study are distinguished from each other. Although one aspect of manager is leading, a manager may not

necessarily be a leader. However, in some cases it is possible for a manager to be a leader. The debate about leadership versus management and whether the two are distinct or synonymous belongs to elsewhere. This study concerns itself with the dual role of an academic head of department (HOD) as an academic professional leader and a line manager.

Career-oriented women with families take much of the responsibility for parenting, maintaining the marital relationship, and managing the home. "Women who work outside of the home continue to retain at least 75% of the household responsibilities" (Villadsen & Tack, 1981). While there is an interrelationship between family and work, there are also conflicts and competing demands, many of which fall on women who bear the brunt of the different demands and needs of the workplace and the home (Andersen, 1993). Women with families are continuously busy trying to respond to multiple roles and responsibilities, which can cause a time and energy imbalance. "Since women are increasing their relative commitment to work outside the home, thereby changing their balance of commitments, the issue of the effects of multiple roles is salient" (Voydanoff, 1987). Women who are managing careers, homes, children, husbands, find the expenditure of time and effort to be overwhelming. According to Villadsen and Tack (1981), if women are to reach their potential in the managerial setting, they must recognize that home and career conflicts exist and develop strategies for coping with them. In 1993 Kofodimos found women also experienced extra pressure from superiors who expected their personal lives to take precedence over work. "If these women try to maintain both career and personal life as priorities, they must constantly juggle and trade conflicting priority activities" (Kofodimos, 1993).

Klenke (1996) notes that research on women in management or leadership, particularly by women researchers, has only received attention in the last three decades. Most leadership research prior to the 1980‘s was carried out by men and dealt almost exclusively with male

leaders, variously defined as supervisors, managers, administrators, or commanders. Similarly, virtually all theories of leadership, past and present, have been developed by men, and only recently have feminist scholars begun to respond to the androcentrism which permeates study into the field. Because women have been largely absent in the study of leadership, much of our knowledge of leadership has been derived from the description and analysis of male leadership reported by male researchers.

Whisker (1996) differentiate leaders from managers arguing that leaders are ~~–in~~volved in a mission; motivation; creativity and change, while managers concentrate more on organization; time; space and people relationships; negotiating structures and systems" If, for the sake of the study, this view is to be adopted, then academic HODs face role ambiguity where their very jobs are subject to inadequate and unclear role definition. Newly appointed heads of academic department are often vague about the amount of authority they possess or the exact duties and responsibilities attached to their post (Bennett, 1997).

The current period of transformation in Ghanaian schools brings with it competing demands and expectations for HODs. Eriksson (1999) describes how changes in education systems have caused an increase in the delegation of authority to departments resulting in greater demands on the department chairs as the head of that department; as leader and manager. These new expectations may cause role conflict and ambiguity. ~~–I~~n the study of the role of the University HODs, conducted in four universities in UK, (Smith, 2002), the issue of dual roles of academic leader and academic manager was recognized as the most frequent cause of tension. Also having to represent the institution to the department and the department to the institution and the different expectations of the two constituencies was another cause of tension (Smith, 2002). Sutherland (1985) found in her study that the issue of family responsibilities was cited by the women in the higher institutions as a major source of conflict between their career and family

life. Women often have to divide their attention and time to child bearing, child rearing and a career. Female heads of academic departments then, like other women in management positions in any other institution face ―triple" role conflict.

Greene et al. (1996) observe that the role of academic HOD is changing as a result of the transforming higher institutions whereas traditionally HODs were selected to office on the basis of their academic standing and had recognized authority as academic leaders, in recent times their position has become more demanding in terms of ability to manage more efficiently. Are the new generations of academic HODs more inclined to be corporate managers rather than more traditional academic leaders in their loyalties now being more to their school headmasters rather than their academic colleagues?

It would appear that the constant pressure and demands placed upon HODs to run their departments like business units submitting reports and making budgets projections have made the position of the HODs more managerial. However, it would seem that female leadership attributes may be more suited to the current climate of transformation in higher institutions because, as Bennett (1997) put it ―Woman manager adopting feminine management styles are better suited to contemporary business conditions than males since modern management techniques are invariably based on team work, flexibility, trust and the free exchange of information. In addition, Middlehurst (1997) echoes sentiment when she notes that changes in technology coupled with increasing economic competition are promoting various collaborative ventures which are amendable to female leadership styles and probably better suited to today's corporate-like environment in the second cycle institutions than the traditional male leadership style.

**1.2 Statement of Problem**

Although review of the relevant literature concerned with women in management in the second cycle institutions and related educational settings was undertaken as a preliminary step in the research. Primary and secondary sources were consulted to identify critical issues in post research and establish current thinking on the subject of women in management in higher institutions, particularly academic HODs. Such a review will provide insight into different perspectives on the subject and present a framework for further exploration as well as basis for the identification of variables to be included in the study.

There are few women managers in higher education establishments and little is known about their experience of being managers. Many research studies have tended to focus on male management and ignored the experiences of these women who have made it into the traditionally male territory of academic leadership and management. These women are likely to experience their dual roles of academic leaders and line managers differently to male managers and leaders. They are also likely to have their traditional role of home maker which their male counterparts are not usually expected to play. The challenges these women face before they enter management positions may be unique to women and are therefore worth investigating.

**1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The specific objectives set out in this study are:

1. To identify the challenges women academic HODs encounter in second cycle institutions

2. To identify the leadership and management experiences of academic women HODs in the second cycle institutions

3. To identify strategies to deal with the challenges facing women academic HODs encounter in second cycle institutions

## 1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the challenges experienced by women academic HODs in Second Cycle Institution?
2. What are the experiences of leadership and management of women in second cycle institutions?
3. What are the strategies to deal with the challenges facing women academic HODs encounter in second cycle institutions?

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

The current state of higher education transformation with its movement from collegial culture to a corporate culture (Harman, 2002; Greene et al., 1996; Smith, 2002), it is all the more necessary to take a closer look at the changing role of middle management and how women managers experience it. Establishing how these women perceived their roles as women managers has the potential to contribute further knowledge toward higher education management regarding how women academics experience their positions of leadership and management, as well as the expansion of the research database concerning middle management issues in educational settings. The study would add to the existing knowledge on women in academic leadership. The study might serve to strengthen efforts to implement equal opportunities policies in these institutions where only lip-service is being paid and might encourage more women to put themselves forward for appointment to management positions once they are armed with

information to help them deal with the demand of being a woman manager. Moreover, education policy makers might consider mounting programmes to adequately prepare Women for management and leadership roles and responsibilities.

### 1.6 Organization of the Study

The study is structured into (5) main chapters as follows: Chapter One: This chapter brings out the general introduction of the study. It includes the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance and the organization of the study. Chapter Two: This section focuses on the literature review by which is devoted to the review of related and existing literature and then relates it to the current study. Chapter Three: This chapter focuses on the methodology to be used in the study. Chapter Four: Comprises data presentation and analysis. Chapter Five: Discussions, summary of findings and recommendations of the study.

# CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of related literature is discussed in this chapter which presents an overview of Leadership and management in general and academic leadership in particular. The chapter focuses on academic women leaders and the _new managerialism' with an overview of Women in leadership and management in schools including: The distinction between leadership and management, Women and management, Female leadership style, Critique of female leadership style discourse, Leadership and management in the academic which takes account of transformational and transactional leadership, Leadership at departmental level comprising the role and responsibilities of the academic head of department and exercise of power, Exercise of leadership and power from the perspective of women academic leaders and finally a summary and conclusion.

## 2.1 The Concept of Leadership

When leaders interact with followers they employ combination of traits, skills and behaviors that is called leadership style (Lussier, 2004 as cited in Iqbal, Inayat, Ijaz & Zahid, 2012). The style which leader adopt commonly based on combination of their beliefs, ideas, norms, and values. Different theories and assumptions leads to a number of different leadership styles that includes authoritarian, democratic and laissez faire. Transformational and transactional leadership were also widely studied in order to identify the best possible way for leaders to interact with their followers. There are many studies in context of different countries and industries focusing on leadership behaviors and styles. For example, leadership style and its relationship with dominant brain hemisphere that exerts two dimensions of leadership style i.e. task relation and human relation; a study was conducted on managers of medical university of shiraz in order to find out the relationship between right and left brain with hemisphere with leadership style. (Jahromi, Gholtash & Saeedian, 2011 as cited in Iqbal, Inayat, Ijaz & Zahid, 2012). Another study investigates the characteristics of high performance firms in turkey in order to highlight the factors which played major role in their success, during the time of crises. Leadership was studied in order to examine/identify high performing organizations; the aim of another study was to find out mediating role of learning orientation between the leadership style and firm performance in manufacturing industry. Three types of leadership behaviour–task oriented leadership behavior, relations oriented leadership behavior and change oriented leadership behavior-were examined (Özsahin, Zehir & Acar, 2011 as cited in Iqbal, Inayat, Ijaz & Zahid, 2012). Given that the aim of this study is to identify different approaches and dimensions of leadership styles. From previous literature we have identified many dimensions such as: task oriented, relation oriented, autocratic, democratic, transformational and transactional leadership styles (as cited in Iqbal, Inayat, Ijaz & Zahid, 2012).

Leadership implies a relationship of power, the power to guide others. David McClelland (1975 as cited in Chin, 2011) studied the psychology of power and achievement, and saw leadership skills, not so much as a set of traits, but as a pattern of motives. Emphasis on power has fallen into disfavor with a shift from power to empowerment where the leader places power in one‘s followers. Emerging models of leadership have shifted from distinguishing authoritarian vs. democratic leadership styles (more common post World War II) to shared power and the servant leader as characteristic styles of the modern leader. The research has not yet examined how the use of power by leaders is mediated by race, ethnicity, gender, and disability status. For example, feminist leaders tend to prioritize social justice motives over power motives as the reason for seeking leadership positions. Nor has the research examined how more collaborative and collective cultures might influence the exercise of leadership. For example, businesses internationally have begun to shift from merely adopting Western theories and practices of management to cherishing unique social and cultural factors inherent in non-Western cultures while revising Western theories of management (Kao, Sinha, & Wilpert, 1999 as cited in Chin, 2011).

**2.2 An Overview -Women in Leadership and Management**

Women have increasingly moved toward greater gender equality at home and in the workplace. Yet, women are still underrepresented in leadership roles and still considered an anomaly compared to men when in high positions of leadership especially within institutions of higher education. In examining differences between how men and women lead, it is often less what they do than in the different experience they face when they lead. Stereotypic gender role expectations can constrain their leadership behaviors. Perceived incongruity between women and leadership roles pose obstacles to leadership and result in double binds, more negative

performance appraisals, and different standards compared to those applied to men. It is increasingly clear that a gender neutral view of leadership is insufficient, and that we need to consider the influence of cultural worldviews and socialization on shaping leadership style. There is much to suggest that feminist leadership styles are intentionally different—more collaborative and transformational compared to men. This becomes more complex when we include dimensions of racial and ethnic diversity. We need to transform our views of leadership to promote more robust theories and diverse models of effective leadership. While current leadership theories favor transformational and collaborative leadership styles, organizational cultures often mirror social constructions of gender and ethnicity norms in society. Within the context of higher education institutions, there is often a tension between hierarchical and collaborative forms of leadership reflected in contradictory sets of practices. While women leaders may have an advantage in such contexts, they also face obstacles in needing to change organizational cultures that mirror social biases against women as leaders (Chin, 2011).

Traditionally, leaders were thought to exhibit certain traits that predisposed them to act effectively in leadership positions. Women, it was believed, lacked these traits and prerequisites: aggression, competitiveness, dominance, Machiavellianism, ambition, decisiveness, high levels of energy, tallness, a commanding voice, persistence, and assertiveness. Female executives adhered to many of these ―rules of conduct" because they were breaking new ground. Now, women are in a state of transition as they try to overcome their minority status and marginality. They find themselves caught in an ambivalent situation wherein they are stereotyped as ―women leaders," while the prevailing social norms project social representations of leadership that are predominantly male. Although the general Although the general characteristics of a ―woman leader" are being touted today as the ideal characteristics for leading an organization, there is still a disparity between the phrases ―woman *as* leader" and ―woman leader." This is exemplified by

the reality that the top ranks of management are still male-dominated, and a –glass ceiling" that is keeping women as a group from reaching these ranks still seems to prevail (Nixdorff, 2004).

In theory of leadership, leader is always the main concern, and it accordingly has many aspects to understand, as mentions in the concept of leadership. Considering the topic of the paper, we hereby pay attention to the relationship between leader and power that embeds in leadership. It is actually a common way of thinking leader as holder of power, and power is a tool that leader uses to achieve their goals. A few scholars, however, disagree with it. Burns (1978) suggests understanding power from the standpoint of relationship, which implies that power, occurs in relationship and should be used by both leader and subordinates to achieve their collective goals. Similarly, Hughes Ginnett and Curphy (2002 as cited in Ding & Qi, 2008) also consider leadership as a function of leaders, followers and the situation. Although leaders are able to influence their followers' ideas and behaviors, followers may influence leaders as well. Meanwhile, situation can also affect leaders and followers' attitude and act. In a word, power is not simply one way trip from leaders to followers (as cited in Ding & Qi, 2008).

**2.3 School Leadership Styles**

Researchers have discerned a number of school leadership patterns or styles, the most commonly known having been identified by renowned social scientist Kurt Lewin and his colleagues in 1939. These are authoritarian or autocratic, democratic or participative, and laissez-faire or passive: the authoritarian leader makes all decisions, independent of members' input; the democratic leader welcomes team input and facilitates group discussion and decision-making; and the laissez-faire leader allows the group complete freedom for decision-making without participating himself/herself (as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012).

In 1967, Likert suggested another set of styles: exploitive authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, and participative. In exploitive authoritative style, the leader has low concern for people and uses such methods as threats and punishments to achieve conformance. When an authoritative leader becomes concerned for people, a benevolent authoritative leader emerges. The leader now uses rewards to encourage appropriate performance and listens more to concerns, although what he/she hears is often limited to what subordinates think that the leader wants to hear. In consultative style, the leader is making genuine efforts to listen carefully to ideas; nevertheless, major decisions are still largely centrally made. At the participative level, the leader engages people in decision-making; people across the organization are psychologically closer and work well together at all levels (as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012).

Another set of school leadership styles was coined by Burns (1978): transactional leadership and transformational leadership. These two styles have dominated scholarly debate as the major conceptual models of school leadership since the early 1980s (Hallinger, 2003; Marks & Printy, 2003). Along with passive/avoidant leadership, transactional and transformational leadership form a new paradigm for understanding both the lower and higher order efforts of leadership styles. This paradigm builds on earlier sets of autocratic versus democratic or directive versus participative leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leadership can be defined as increasing the interest of the staff to achieve higher performance through developing the commitments and beliefs in the organization (Bass, 1985). It entails moving people to a common vision by building trust and empowerment (Carlson, 1996). Transformational leaders are motivating, influential, and proactive. They optimize people‘s development and innovation and convince them to strive for higher levels of achievement (Avolio & Bass, 2004). According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders form a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders. As articulated by Bass

(1985), four factors characterize the behavior of transformational leaders: individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence. Individual consideration denotes giving personal attention to members who seem neglected. Intellectual stimulation focuses on enabling members to think of old problems in new ways. Inspirational motivation is typified by communicating high performance expectations. Finally, idealized influence emphasizes modeling behavior through exemplary personal achievement, character, and conduct (as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012).

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, is based on the reciprocal exchange of duty and reward that are controlled by the principal. Transactional leadership is defined by Avolio and Bass (2004) as setting up and defining agreements or contracts to achieve specific work objectives, discovering individuals‘ capabilities, and specifying the compensation and rewards that can be expected upon successful completion of the tasks. Transactional leaders focus on the basic needs of their staff (Bass, 1985), but they are not interested in providing high level motivation, job satisfaction, or commitment. Bass and Avolio (1994) describe three forms of transactional leadership: passive management-by-exception, active management-by-exception, and constructive transactional. Passive management-by-exception involves setting standards but waiting for major problems to occur before exerting leadership behavior. Leaders who demonstrate active management-by-exception pay attention to issues that arise, set standards, and carefully monitor behavior. They believe that they should not take risks or demonstrate initiative. A constructive transactional leader sets goals, clarifies desired outcomes, exchanges rewards and recognition for accomplishments, suggests and consults, provides feedback, and gives employees praise when it is deserved (as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012).

According to Bass (1985 as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012), transformational leaders are more likely to be proactive than reactive in their thinking, and more creative, novel,

and innovative in their ideas. Transactional leaders may be equally intelligent but their focus is on how to keep the system for which they are responsible running—reacting to problems generated by observed deviances, and looking to modify conditions as needed. Bass (1998 as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012) believes that every leader displays practices of both styles to some extent. Although transformational and transactional leadership are at opposite ends of the leadership continuum, he maintains that the two can be complementary (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000 as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012). The ideal leader would practice the transformational components more frequently and the transactional components less frequently. Bass and Avolio (1994 as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012) embrace this ―two-factor theory" of leadership and believe that the two build on one another. The transactional components deal with the basic needs of the organization, whereas the transformational practices encourage commitment and foster change. It should be noted that by 1990 researchers were advocating transformational leadership and other forms of leadership that were more consistent with evolving trends in educational reform, such as empowerment, shared leadership, and organizational learning. While this shift from more managerial, or transactional, leadership to dispersed, or transformational, leadership was evident in literature, it remains questionable as to whether these changes are evident in the practices of administrators. Considering the realities of schools today, many school principals are doing their best to make it through any given day just managing the diverse needs of the school community; the time necessary for a transformational leader to build trust, commitment, interdependence, and empowerment of teachers and staff is not always available. In some contexts, not every leader has the ability to convince their subordinates to make an effort to perform at a high level. Transactional leaders, in contrast, do not dedicate much time to developing their subordinates; instead, they wait until they either fail or succeed and then react (as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012).

## 2.4 Barriers to Women in Educational Leadership

The largest body of research related to women has examined barriers to women in entering the leadership hierarchy or in moving up that hierarchy. These studies focus on a number of challenges for women and largely expand or repeat the research conducted through 1985. The question that was asked over two decades ago in the *Handbook for Achieving Sex Equity through Education* continues to be appropriate. Why the ―higher you go, the fewer you see" syndrome for women in school administration? The research on barriers reviewed in this section responds to the categories identified in the 1985 *Handbook*. The majority of the studies on barriers are self-report surveys or interviews in which women identify the barriers they experienced either obtaining an administrative position or keeping it. Although much has been written on the career paths of males, there is no distinct literature on barriers to White heterosexual males; where barriers are examined as part of male career advancement, race and sexual identity have been the focus. In 1985, the barriers to women were described as either internally imposed or externally imposed. Since that time, the interaction of the two has been examined. The most recent research synthesized for this chapter indicates that more barriers previously identified as internal have been overcome than have barriers previously identified as external (as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007).

### *Poor Self-Image or Lack of Confidence*

The barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence was introduced by Schmuck in 1976, almost 10 years prior to the 1985 production of the first *Handbook for Achieving Sex Equity through Education* (Klein, 1985 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). Twenty years after the original Schmuck citation, several studies have been added to the literature that relates to self-image of women administrators. The results of these studies are not

disaggregated by race/ethnicity. Women who aspire to become administrators are more likely to report lowered aspiration or lack of confidence than women who have become administrators. In studies of females aspiring to become administrators, Brown and Irby (1995 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) found a marked lack of self-confidence. On the other hand, 20 female elementary teachers who had been tapped for the principalship but who didn‘t want to become administrators exhibited no signs of low self-esteem or lack of confidence according to Hewitt (1989). Although, Walker (1995) and Gupton (1998 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) both noted that female administrators rarely see themselves as experts, often expressing a lack of confidence about seeing themselves at the top, women superintendents studied by Lutz (1990) reported no internal barrier of poor self-image or lack of confidence. Grogan (1996 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) found the superintendent aspirants in her study to be very confident of their abilities and qualifications to lead school districts. Similarly, Grogan and Brunner (2005a, b as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) report that 40% of women in senior central office positions feel competent to take on district leadership positions. Low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence may be different than leadership identify, which is the feeling of belonging to a group of leaders or to a specific level of leadership and of feeling significant within that circle (Brown & Irby, 1996). Lack of a leadership identity can lead to a feeling of isolation and the feeling of being an outsider (Christman, 2003 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). In their findings related to superintendents and aspiring superintendents, Walker (1995) and Scherr (1995 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) indicated that women lack a sense of themselves as leaders and perceive that they have further to go in developing this leadership identity than do men. Perhaps it is this lack of leadership identity, rather than low self-esteem that also perpetuates the perception of women that they must

get more information, more education, and more experience in the classroom prior to seeking an administrative position (as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007).

***Lack of Aspiration or Motivation***

Shakeshaft (1985 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) argued that women's lack of success in obtaining administrative positions was not due to lowered aspiration or lack of motivation on the part of women. Findings since 1985 document a healthy level of aspiration among women. For instance, a 1991 study of 488 central office administrators in New York found that 13.2% of the female respondents aspired to the superintendency. As stated in the previous section, a little over a decade later, Grogan and Brunner (2005a–c as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) found that 40% of women in central office positions plan on pursuing the superintendency.

***Family and Home Responsibilities***

Family and home responsibilities, place-bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments. According to Shakeshaft (1985 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007), a direct impediment for females in attaining administrative positions is the reality based factor of family responsibility; she continued to voice this concern some 7 years later from data obtained in 1993 (Kamler & Shakeshaft, 1999 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). A 1989 study of Kansas teachers documented family responsibilities as one reason why women teachers were not choosing to enter administration (Hewitt, 1989 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). Native American women in Montana also identified

family responsibilities as a barrier to entering administration (Brown, 2004). Other researchers in the PK–12 field that have found similar tensions between the personal and the professional include Hill and Ragland (1995) and Tonnsen and Pigford (1998 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). In 2003, Lacey explored 1,344 female teachers‘ decisions in making or not making application to elementary or secondary principalships. Among her findings was that females were likely to be influenced in their decisions by family care responsibilities; however, these women did have conscious aspirations for leadership careers. Grogan (1996), Gupton (1998), Watkins, Herrin and McDonald (1993) and Wynn (2003 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) also noted that family responsibilities were considered by women in their decisions to apply for and maintain administrative positions.

***Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination***

The components of administrative work, as well as the perceived and real male-defined environments in which many women administrators must work, shape women‘s perceptions of the desirability of administration. The women teachers studied by Hewitt (1989 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) were discouraged from applying for administrative positions because of their understanding of the definition of the job of the principal. They did not perceive this definition as flexible or open for social construction. Principals studied by Clemens (1989) and McGovern-Robinett (2002 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) noted that supportive work environments were essential in choosing to become principals. Fourteen years later, Wynn‘s (2003 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) study of teachers with leadership skills determined that these women chose to stay in the classroom, rather than move into administration, partly because of their negative perception of the job of the principal. These women identified student discipline as one of the negative dimensions of the principalship.

***Lack of Support, Encouragement, and Counseling***

Shakeshaft (1985 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007) noted research studies from the late 1970s (Baughman, 1977; Schmuck, 1976) that pointed out that women traditionally had little support, encouragement, or counseling from family, peers, superordinates, or educational institutions to pursue careers in administration. At this time, even a little support from a few people such as a spouse or an administrator within the school district encouraged women to enter administration or stick with it. Support has continued to be an important factor for women moving into administration. Most researchers found that family endorsements and support and mentoring made the difference in encouraging women into principalships, the superintendency, community college presidencies, and other high-level executive positions in education. Lack of encouragement and support one of the reasons female elementary teachers in Kansas reported not entering administration. Several studies of women of color noted their lack of encouragement and support, as did a study of native women in Montana (Brown, 2004 as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). As late as 2000, Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich found that silence on gender issues in educational administration preparation programs, state education agencies, professional organizations, and among school board members and associations was still characteristic, and that women equated silence with lack of support( as cited in Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007).

## 2.5 Female Leadership Style

The debate about whether or not women have a unique leadership style is an interesting area in leadership research. It is even more interesting for feminist researchers who are inclined to believe that women do indeed have different leadership styles than men. Perhaps it might be useful at this point to define leadership style. Style has to do with how a person relates to people,

task and challenges. A person‘s style is usually a very personal and distinctive feature of his or her personality and character. A style may be democratic or autocratic, centralized or decentralized, empathetic or detached, extrovert or introvert, assertive or passive, engaged or remote. Different styles may be equally well in different situations, and there is often a proper fit between the needs of an organization and needed leadership style (Cronin, 1993). Hollander and Offerman (1993) characterized style as more than just typical behavior, but as being ~~-a~~ffected by such situational constraints as role demands, which are related to the leader‘s level in the organization and the expectations of followers. Style also is a function of the followers with whom the leader interacts.

Transformational leadership style may be congenial to women, not only because at least some of its components are relatively communal, but also because these particular communal behaviors may help female leaders deal with the special problems of lesser authority and legitimacy that they face to a greater extent than their male counterparts. Consistent with our discussion of role incongruity in the *Incongruity Between Leader Roles and the Female Gender Role* section, a considerable body of research has shown that women can be disliked and regarded as untrustworthy in leadership roles, especially when they exert authority over men, display very high levels of competence, or use a dominant style of communication. These negative reactions can be lessened when female leaders are careful to also display warmth and lack of self-interest by, for example, expressing agreement, smiling, supporting others, and explicitly stating an interest in helping others reach their goals. From this perspective, certain aspects of transformational leadership may be crucial to effective female leadership—specifically, the transformational behaviors of focusing on mentoring followers and attending to their needs (individualized consideration) and emphasizing the mission of the larger organization rather than one‘s own goals (idealized influence, inspirational motivation). Contingent reward

behaviors, involving noticing and praising subordinates‘ good performance, may also foster positive, supportive work relationships. In summary, transformational leadership as well as the contingent reward aspects of transactional leadership may provide a particularly congenial context or women‘s enactment of competent leadership. Although this approach to leadership is effective in men as well, it may be more critical for women than men to display their competence in this positive manner that is explicitly supportive of subordinates and the organization as a whole rather than with other styles that may also be effective, at least under some circumstances (as cited in Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & Engen, 2003).

Whilst it cannot be denied that women have certain leadership qualities different from men, such as the prevalent one of _caring and nurturing‘, studies conducted so far have not yet provided evidence about the dichotomy between male and female leadership styles. What some studies have been able to reveal is that, women seem to have styles of leadership better suited to certain contexts than others. For instance, Blackmore (1999) thinks that the popular discourse about women‘s style of leadership ~~is~~ seemingly convergent with _new‘ and softer management discourses that focus upon good people management as the new source of productivity in post-mortem organizations”.

This section focuses on women leadership styles in the context of changing culture of higher education. The position taken is that the changing culture is likely to have certain implications for leaders and managers, such as the need to adjust for specialist to generalist so as ~~to~~ extend the range of their managerial skills and competencies, to manage complex change at a time when their performance is under scrutiny and the resources they have to manage are constantly questioned and traditional career paths are crumbling” (Dopson & McNay, 1996).

Women leaders and managers are likely to experience adjustment problems as well as challenges of surviving and excelling in a more demanding setting, they will need to adopt new

leadership styles better suited in the changing culture. Women's leadership styles are considered to be suited to the contemporary demands for _softer, more feminine' qualities. For instance, some studies have found out that women leaders tend to have transformational leadership styles which will probably make them more suitable leaders in the new corporate, academic environment which emphasizes team work and where fresh values and visions are promoted and pursued, rather than committee-work where, as Dopson and McNay (1996) argue, "positional power and the purse- strings are used to promote conformity to corporate objectives".

In Jones'(1997) study of African-American women executives, the leadership style most respondents described as their approach to leadership was transformational characterized by "participative management, empowerment, team building, vision creation and hands on supervision" (Jones, 1997).there seems to be a shift in the new management era towards more feminine styles of leadership which emphasizes connectedness and collaboration. This augurs well for inclusion of more women in leadership positions. Women managers are believed to be a new source of leadership talent because of their organizational skills, their ability to share, communicate, and listen to and emphasis with the needs of others (Blackmore, 2002) Their more openly softer characteristics are thought to be critical to new managerialism in the post-modern organizations. Women's nurturing nature places them in a better position than men to exercise these more spontaneously occurring _soft skills' alongside the tougher skills already expected of managers in a male defined managerial world. The _soft skills' involved "motivating staff, creating co-operation, re-defining organizational values and beliefs, and re-aligning management focus" (Blackmore, 2002). What this characterization of women means then, is that opportunities exist for more inclusive leadership in the changed culture of the university organization. We may begin to see more and more women leaders in the academe as universities take on a more

corporate and less collegial structure as events in the external environment begin to shape and redirect the internal workings of the universities.

## 2.6 Academic Leadership at Departmental Level

### 2.6.1 Roles and Responsibilities of the Academic Head of Department

Academic HODs have numerous roles and responsibilities to perform during their term of office as academic leaders and managers. In their performance of the academic leadership role, HODs are expected to promote and encourage excellence in teaching and research (Moses & Roe, 1990) and to provide long term direction and vision for the department (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993). As academic managers, they are expected to perform the maintenance functions of preparing budgets, maintaining departmental records, supervising non-academic staff and maintaining finances, facilities and equipments (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993).

Today the new demands placed upon academic managers require that they combine intellectual competence with the managerial ability of corporate executives (Martin & Samels, 1997). For many inexperienced HODs, this may be one of the biggest challenge of their careers. Greene (1996) explained that traditionally, HODs in the U.K are professors of impressive academic standing and was appointed to office on the basis of research standard. Their work consisted of light managerial functions which allowed other academics in the department –the intellectual freedom and autonomy to pursue their own academic research ends" but this is no longer the case. Although they are still appointed for their intellectual distinction and some of

their administrative ability and expectation that they will guide and develop research and teaching in their disciplines (Moodie & Eustace, 1974 in Middlehurts, 1993), their pre-eminent positions and role as HODs have been challenged in recent years. This is attributable to governmental, institutional, and financial pressures which have made the position of HOD more demanding. Greater and more effective managerial ability is required. As a result, HODs are now elected or appointed according to criteria other than research expertise, they are now expected to manage their departmental resources competently as well as provide capable academic leadership (Greene, 1996). All of this has impacted on the role and function of the academic HODs, leading to ambiguity about their role and ―where they fit into the institutional structure" (Greene, 1996).

### 2.6.2 The Role of the Head of Department

HODs have numerous other roles in addition to the new corporate responsibilities and liabilities resulting from demands placed upon their role. According to Bennett's (1997) definition, a role is ―a total and self- contained pattern of behavior typical of a person who occupies a social position. It is a set of activities [associated with an office] which are defined as potential behaviors [that] constitute the role to be performed… by any person who occupies that office" (Kahn et al., 1964). As academic leaders and managers in their departments, the position of HODs as ―first line administrators" makes them the key link between the administration of the institution and department, academic staff, support staff and students (Bennett 1983; Hecht et al 1999). As the primary representative of the institution of a particular discipline the HOD ―has to give the discipline its specific institutional shape, texture, or color" . In other words the onus is on the HOD to lead the way in molding the discipline to fit the required institutional specifications. To this end HODs are to provide intellectual leadership in the re-structuring of the

curriculum including the designing of new programmes in the department especially in the current climate of declining student numbers and dwindling fiscal and human resources. Hecht et al. (1999) observed that HOD's roles and responsibilities have changed from concern –for the individual welfare of faculty to creating successful working synergy among department faculty" as well as being advocate for department desires to linking the work of the department to the broader institution and external audiences" . Therefore as front-line managers' department heads have varied roles to play.

Hecht et al. (1992) and Eriksson (1999) state that HODs are expected to:

- Implement and carry out policy and the mission of the institution for the central administration.
- Represent the central administration to department members at the same time they articulate the needs of the department members to the administration.
- Forward information between the administration and department members, interpret and present information and arguments that accurately reflect the intent of each constituency to the other.
- Facilitate and encourage the work of individual and group.
- Be a servant of the group who embraces the group's values and goals.
- Be a leader who inspires and leads personnel by creating a positive climate in the department.
- Attract resources by effectively representing the group of professionals.

- Manage conflict especially during times of change when conflicting goals are often expressed.
- That department heads are:
- The primary resource of information about specific programmes and daily operations.
- Primary agents of central administration and chief advocates for department.
- The primary spokesperson and advocates for the academic department
- The only administrators with the requisite discipline training and vantage point needed to assess project areas of quality and identify areas of needed change.

Seagren et al. (1994) neatly summarized the role of HOD when they say ~~–t~~he chair has a vital role to play in establishing the direction, facilitating the operations and determining the future of the unit". Even though the primary role of a HOD may be that of administrator, HODs are also expected to represent administrative and staff views and actions. This leads to ambiguity which in turn causes challenge, opportunity and role strain, tension and anxiety (Kahn et al 1964, Simpson 1984 cited in Seagren et al., 1994). Consequently the task of HOD is characterized by uncertainty and tension. Role ambiguity and conflict are said to be significant aspects of being a head of a university department (Eriksson, 1999).

### 2.6.3 Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity according to Kahn et al. (1964) ~~–i~~s often the unintended consequences of factors that are largely beyond the control of any organizational member… ambiguity has been described as growing out of problems in generating adequate and dependable information about issues which concern people in organizations. Role ambiguity occurs when roles are not

adequately defined. Newly appointed HODs are susceptible to role ambiguity as they are sometimes not entirely clear about how much authority they possess. Role ambiguity may also be caused by uncertainty regarding the precise duties and responsibilities attached to a post and about how one‘s work is to be evaluated (Bennett, 1997).

### 2.6.4 Role Conflict

A HOD may also experience role conflict. This occurs when the expectations of the subordinates and those of her/his supervisor clash. Supervisor and subordinates differ in their expectations of what supervisors should do and contradictory demands may stem from discrepancies between one‘s immediate work group and one‘s reference group. Professors may be caught between the demands of their cosmopolitan, professional reference groups and the role demands of their local campus for quality research, quality teaching and students relations (Bass 1981). Role conflict occurs when a person does not behave according to expectations attached to the position (Bennett, 1997). For HODs, the conflict in their functions stems from expectations to ―act as agents of institutional management, required to deliver according to institutional objectives and to act as first among equals in a unit where all are engaged in a collective enterprise”. Role ambiguity, for academic HODs, stems from the position which, as Midlehurst (1993) says, ―carries a dual identity as academic colleague and as manager/leader”. Variance also stems from colleagues who expect advocacy and other forms of treatment, whereas senior administration expects allegiance to broader institutional goals and help in increasing productivity (Bennett, 1998). Accordingly, a head of department may experience being neither an administrator nor a peer (Vander Waerdt, 1990). She /he may experience further role indecision in her role of mediating between the administration and staff and dealing with their

joint expectation of administration and staff as well as clarifying policies and correcting the mistaken thinking of one or the other. Real personal conflict is felt by HODs between supporting peer colleagues and evaluating their performance (Bennett, 1990). HODs are expected to carry out the _rector's will' with the formal responsibilities it may imply, and at the same time they are considered by the departmental employees to be _one of us' (Eriksson, 1999).

That role conflict and ambiguity are sources of stress and tension for HODs, was confirmed by a study concerning the function of the university head of department carried out by Smith (2002) at two British universities .Smith found that HODs' suffer from classic _middle manager' tension when they have to represent the university to the department and the department to the university, and the different expectations of the two constituencies. It might be useful to take a brief look at university management in order to clarify the position of the HOD within that structure. University management is essentially hierarchical in nature with the chancellor at the top followed by the vice-chancellor, the deputy vice chancellor/s, deans of faculties and the heads of departments. Within a faculty are various departments representing different disciplines and each department has a head who is responsible for running the department and ensuring that management's expectations and demands are met within the department. Normally these demands and expectations are communicated to the HOD via the dean of the faculty, who receives instructions from top management. What makes the head of department's position stressful is the need to be able to balance the demands and expectations of management with the demands and expectations of members of the department without compromising the position of either party. The HOD has to be seen as competent and effective by both management and department members.

To conclude then Tucker's (1984) perspective leaves no doubt as to the ambivalent and complex nature of the role of the HOD. The chair is at once a manager and a faculty colleague, an advisor and an advisee, a soldier and a captain, a drudge and a boss… the chair must deal with the expectations and desires of the students in the department, the personal and professional hopes and fears of the department faculty members, the goals and priorities of the college dean, the often perplexing and sometimes shadowy priorities of central administration (Tucker, 1984). In addition to experiencing role ambiguity and conflict, HOD's often feel powerless to act because of their belief that they have insufficient power and authority. The discussion that follows looks at the exercise of power by the academic head of department.

## 2.7 Sources of power for academic leaders and managers

There are various sources of power available to individuals in positions of leadership. In general there are five bases of power that may be available to leaders. Bass (1981) provides the following list:

- **Legitimate power:** norms and expectations held by group members regarding behaviors appropriate in a given role or position.
- **Expert power:** perception that one possesses expertise in or relevant information about a task.
- **Reward power:** ability of one individual to facilitate the attainment of desired outcomes by others.
- **Co-ercive power:** ability to impose penalties for non-compliance.
- **Referent power***:* esteem of one individual by others.

Three of these bases of power are considered to be relevant and most likely sources of power for leaders, managers and administrators in the academic context: power from formal

authority; position or legitimate power and personal or expert power (Middlehurst, 1993; Lucas, 1994, 1984, 1981). Hecht et al. (1999) HODs are expected to have this influence at their disposal so as to motivate staff. Lucas (1994) argues that department heads can use this power to ―influence the faculty to create a match between achieving departmental goals and attaining individual goals" According to Lucas (1994) and Hecht et al. (1999), the significance of the types of power is contained in the subsequent discussion:

(a) **Power of authority:** Authority granted officially from a higher level in the bureaucracy is called ‗formal authority'. It gives an individual the right to command resources or to enforce policies or regulations. The ultimate power from this source exists when a person to whom the authority is granted is able to make final decisions and firm commitments for his or her department without requiring additional signatures of approval. Members of a department permit their behaviors to be influenced or affected by the department head if they believe that he/she has formal authority.

(b) **Position power:** Often referred to as legitimate power, is the authority individuals have simply because of their positions or functions. HODs have strong position power when their judgment is given serious consideration in such personnel decision-making as the allocation of release time for research and of travel money, the funding of requests for equipment or computer software, the determination of who will teach what courses and at what time. HODs also have considerable power in allocating resources, determining curriculum, scheduling and deciding the direction that a department will take (Lucas, 1994). HODs have authority and responsibility to recommend salary raises, promotion, tenure and teaching assignments. They can also provide certain types of assistance to staff members that staff need but cannot provide for themselves

such as helping them develop professional acquaintances, recommending them for membership in selected professional associations, and nominating them for executive positions.

(c) **Personal power**: Derives from peers‘ respect for and commitment to the head of departments. It is informally granted to the head of department by the department members and depends on how they perceive him/her as an individual and as professional. A HOD with a great amount of professional power is usually perceived by the department as possessing some of the following characteristics: fairness and even handedness in dealing with people, good interpersonal skills national or international reputation in the discipline, expertise in some area of knowledge, influence with the dean, respect in the academic community, ability to obtain resources for the department; highly regarded by upper-level administrations: knowledgeable about how the college operates; privy to the aspirations plans and hidden agenda of the institution‘s decision makers and ability to manage the department efficiently (Hecht et al., 1999)

Personal power is earned and not delegated and the essence of personal power is credibility. A HOD who has earned credibility with internal and external constituencies stands a much better chance of being effective as a change agent, as his ideas and decisions will be accepted with less criticism and resistance than those of a HOD with low credibility. Credibility gives a head of department personal power to manage her or his responsibilities effectively (Hecht et al., 1999).

*(d)* **Expert power**: is based on knowledge and control of resources. HODs usually know better than staff how to get things accomplished in a college or university particularly how to do things that are not described in staff handbooks and other formal documents. Through meeting with the dean, HODs also hear about plans for the college, changes that will take place, and other major and minor events before staff do. This knowledge, plus knowledge about and control over

resources, such as knowing in advance about a source of additional funding for staff research, gives HODs expert power (Lucas, 1994). As this discussion on types of power shows, HODs within an academic context have more power and authority at their disposal than they suppose. Through the power granted to them officially, the power derived from the position they occupy, power stemming from their personality as well as that gained from their expertise and knowledge, HODs can wield considerable influence within and without their departments. As primary change agents, HODs are in a position to influence the direction that institutional change can take. Since the department is the _powerhouse _of institutional academic activity it is the essential unit for driving academic transformation. The HOD is in a powerful position therefore to bring about departmental and institutional change. In Bennett's (1998) observation, HODs ~~-a~~re the academic leaders closest in the institution to the delivery of instructional services and can easily make a concrete difference and a substantial impact on the intellectual tone of an institution"

## 2.8 Responsibilities of the Head of Department

HODs have numerous responsibilities to perform, ranging from leading the department to managing the budget and resources. The range of responsibilities enumerated by researchers from different countries is, for the most part, similar. The ones listed here are based on the work of (Hecht et al., 1999; Bennett, 1998; Lucas, 1994; Middlehurst, 1993; Gmelch & Miskin, 1993; Bennett & Figuli, 1990; Tucker, 1984). The responsibilities are: Leading the department while developing head of department survival skills, Motivating staff to enhance productivity and to teach effectively, handling staff evaluation and feedback, motivating staff to increase scholarship and service, creating a supportive communication climate and managing conflict, advancing diversity of ideas and people, initiating programme review and development, clarifying or

recasting unit missions and supporting new and old staff , assuring that curriculum has integrity, fitting the institutional missions as well as changing staff skills and abilities, student matters, institutional resources and support communication with external audiences, managing finances and facilities, data management, managing teaching, managing personnel, promoting departmental development and creativity and representing the department to the institution.

The HOD carries out all these responsibilities in her/his role as: Staff developer, manager, leader and scholar (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993), Personnel manager, source and distributor of resources; Administrator; Advocate and politician within the institution, lobbyist and negotiator outside the institution (Moses & Roe, 1990 cited in middlehurst, 1993), is master teacher, colleague, friend; Problem-solver, Committee member; Counselor, and change agent (Robinson, 1996). Each of these numerous roles and responsibilities is performed by the HOD at some stage during her or his term of office. Although the performance of these roles and responsibilities may differ in extent and scope across disciplines, each of them ~~–m~~ust in some way advance excellence in teaching and learning" (Robinson, 1996). Of interest in this study is how academic women HODs experience these roles and responsibilities.

### 2.9 Challenges of Headship

Three major transitions experienced by new HODs were identified by Bennett (1998). The first is a shift from specialist to generalist. The HOD has to change from focusing on her/his own discipline to representing a broader range of inquiries within the department. In other words she/he has to be advocate for different sub-disciplines. The second transition is a shift from being an individual to looking at whole departmental operation. The span of responsibility is expanded, and the HODs expertise in her or his own subject is no more sufficient in and of itself. She/ he needs to cultivate other resources for leadership. The third transition involves supplementing

staff loyalties to colleagues, the discipline and the department with loyalty to the broader campus enterprise. The challenge for the HOD then is to know about other inquiries, departments and schools, to be aware of the multiple contributions and activities of the institution and to situate the department within this larger context. The concluding section uses a case study of women academic leaders in Malaysia as an illustration.

## 2.10 Women Academic Leaders and Their Leadership Experience

To recap, women leaders are believed to be more transformational in their leadership style than men. They also exercise power differently to men. This section takes this discussion further by highlighting experiences of women academic leaders based on a case study by Omar (1996). Omar points out that an academic leader in this contemporary age has to have academic and managerial skill as she has to open up avenues in research projects and introduce new courses and new degrees. These courses and new degrees have to be market driven. In order to offer students what they wish for, academic leaders must have the ability to produce new course packages or to plan new degrees and diplomas which have a market value appreciated by the student (Omar, 1996)

Omar‘s study yielded several practical aspects of being an academic leader as perceived by the women who participated in the study. The work was seen as the desirable academic qualification enabling one to feel secure academically and have self-confidence to motivate those below to study further, do research, and publish and so on. Management skill is necessary to lead a department as the person in charge has to manage staff, students and funds. When managing staff, (women) leaders must have an understanding of the cultural and religious sensitivities of

the different cultural/ethnic groups. They need to be aware of prejudice among colleagues which may stem from a patriarchal culture, especially in the case of men, whereby they may undermine the woman‘s authority because they believe that a she should not be there in the first place. Female colleagues may show petty jealousy and resent being led by a person of their own gender. Women in academic leadership positions, however, generally have a positive attitude towards leadership. Leadership means making a sacrifice of one‘s time energy for the benefit of others and the institution which they are usually willing to do. As a rule they have the interpersonal and communication skills which are seen as important in success of negotiations and in collegial relationships. They are considered to be typically empathetic which encourages mutual support. There are advantages to women in academic leadership positions. The woman learns to put the organization before her and motivates staff to do likewise; she learns to think and observe and thereby becomes more creative. Women leaders are also able to create test and implement ideas efficiently. They are able to develop a broader knowledge of the world to familiarize themselves with government policies and changing trends in the public and private sectors as well as within the institution itself. Women leaders‘ usually develop wider social and professional networks that are more reliable. In addition, leadership positions make them more resilient persons. Women leaders have a different attitude towards power than men do. Whereas men are seen to concern themselves with the power vested in them in leadership positions, women do not concern themselves with it in the same extent. They know they have the power –they do not flaunt it. If they exercise it then they do it subtly” (Omar, 1996). Women in positions of leadership are able to optimize different skills and assets developed while carrying out their academic duties. In the main they are able to understand and handle conflict better. The style of leadership they exercise is mostly consultative and participatory. Women academic leaders tend to look at staff in terms of their duties and areas of specialization rather than in

terms of their gender. They are more likely to extend their natural tender and caring attitude to staff and students; they therefore encourage staff members to go for higher degrees whilst frequently senior women mentor junior ones, give advice and listen to problems

**2.11 Empirical Review**

Generally, one of the typical barriers for women moving up to senior management position that was highlighted by Oakley (2000) was gender-based stereotypes. In the Malaysian context, Jayasingam (2001) found that compared to most successful female corporate entrepreneurs, least successful female entrepreneurs possessed more of harsh power such as the power to order and punish. However their male counterparts‘ success was not significantly different in terms of their assertiveness. Several Western based research could provide some insight to this phenomenon of gender role stereotypes. Fundamentally, there is the tendency to respond more favorably to men who are self-promoting and to women who are modest. In conducting a stereotype research, Embry, Padgett, and Caldwell (2008) found that while keeping the gender of the manager unknown in the vignette, individuals were more likely to assume a male identity for managers who displayed masculine style, and similarly, assume a female identity for managers who displayed feminine styles. Groves (2005) found female leaders naturally scored higher on social and emotional skills and therefore obtained higher rating for charismatic leadership. But then again, women who are modest will appear less competent (Rudman, 1998). In a nutshell, the choice of leadership style is expected to match the gender role stereotypes, and this expectation is even more evident in the case of women managers (as cited in Jayasingam & Cheng, 2009).

A number of studies have recently been conducted on entrepreneurship of women. In one study the researchers found that gender had an impact on entrepreneurial activity (Mueller &

Conway Dat-On, 2008) and the characteristics of entrepreneurial women per se became the focus of research. In our empirical research we explored the characteristics of, and differences among, the leadership style of a sample of 225 entrepreneurial women from Zhejiang Province and Shanghai in eastern China. We found that the majority of these women adopted an achievement-oriented style of leadership, that is, a style consisting of high initiating structure and high consideration. We found differences in the consideration leadership style of the women according to the type of enterprise in which they were working; in addition there were differences in both initiating structure and consideration leadership styles of the women entrepreneurs according to the length of time that the enterprise in which the women were working had been established (as cited in Li, Bao & Jiang, 2013).

Barnett (2005), in his study examined the impact of transformational leadership style of the school principal on school learning environments and selected teacher outcomes, examines the effects of different types of secondary principals‘ leadership behaviors on aspects of a school‘s learning environment, and selected teacher outcomes. Study one involved a quantitative analysis of teachers‘ perceptions of principals‘ leadership style, school learning environment and selected teacher outcomes. Study two involved a qualitative analysis of data collected from 12 respondents in three schools, examining those leadership practices that enhanced or eroded teachers‘ perceptions of school learning environment and teacher satisfaction. Specifically, the qualitative phase of the study was used to investigate those specific principal leadership behaviors that enhance both teacher outcomes and perceptions of school learning environment. In his study a synergy was achieved by undertaking two studies drawing upon a multi-method approach. While some transformational leadership behaviors of vision building were demonstrated to be effective in influencing school learning environment and teacher outcome variables, it was a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles that

demonstrated the most impact in relation to school learning environment and teacher outcomes. Parkinson (2008) investigated the relationship between the perceived leadership style of the principal and late career teacher job satisfaction. There was a significant relationship between the perception of idealized influence and extrinsic satisfaction. A significant relationship was also found between contingent reward and intrinsic satisfaction (as cited in Saeed, Azizollah, Zahra, Abdolghayoum, Zaman & Peyman, 2011).

Hallinger and Heck (1998) reviewed over 40 empirical studies conducted between 1980 and 1995 and concluded that principals exercised a measurable and statistically significant, though small, indirect impact on school effectiveness and student achievement. Similarly, Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) found that school leadership does have a positive and noteworthy effect on student achievement and Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2004) reported that effective school leadership substantially increases student achievement. Using a path analysis, Kruger, Witziers, and Sleegers (2007) found that school leaders indirectly influence student outcomes and school culture. In the context of Cyprus, Kythreotis and Pashiardis (2006) found direct effects of the principal‘s leadership style on student achievement and Kythreotis, Pashiardis, and Kyriakides (2010) reached the conclusion that ―the principal human leadership frame affects student achievement" (p. 232). The strong interpersonal relations in the Cyprus education system were a main reason for the significance of the human leadership frame. Moreover, the small size of primary schools in Cyprus and the nature of primary schools compared to secondary schools permit the development of strong interpersonal relations (as cited in Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2012).

An investigation was conducted to see the effect of gender of head teachers on the academic success of the school students in. A total of 60 head teachers (male = 37, female = 23) and 3776 students (boys = 2142, girls = 1634) were randomly selected from the schools in a

divisional town in to serve as sample. Academic success records of the students in their Primary School Completion Examination and Secondary School Certificate Examination were collected from the results published by the _Rajshahi Education Board'. The results indicate that the gender of the school head teachers has significant effect on the academic success of the students. The result also revealed that the students in primary schools under the leadership of female head teachers performed significantly better than those led under male head teachers, whereas the students in secondary schools obtained significantly better grades in the examinations under the leadership of male head teachers than the students led by female head teachers (Alias, 2013).

# CHAPTER THREE

## METHODOLOGY

This chapter is focused on the research methodology used to embark on the research work. The methodology so adopted made it possible to acquire information necessary to assist the researcher in the presentation of the findings of the study as well as draw conclusion and give recommendations to the government and educational policy makers. The chapter looks at the research design, research approach, data collection processes, population and sample size, sampling technique, data collection instruments and .data analysis.

### 3.1 Research Design

The study was carried out within the framework of a cross- sectional survey research approach employing both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods to conduct an exploratory and descriptive study of the lived experiences of 40 female HODs in second cycle institutions in Kumasi Metropolis. The women were selected by using purposive sampling technique and data were collected by means of structured questionnaires which were

administered personally. Significant findings which emerged from the quantitative and qualitative investigations were synthesized, and interpreted in relation to the research questions and aims posed at the beginning of the study. These resulted in conclusions and recommendations concerning women, policy and research in second cycle institutions

### 3.2 Sources of Data

This study used both primary and secondary sources for collecting data for its analysis.

#### 3.2.1 Primary Data

The primary data were obtained through the administration of structured questionnaire and personal interviews. An advantage for using primary data sources is that, they are more reliable since they come from original source and are collected especially for the purpose of the study.

Questionnaires were administered to female academic HODs at their workplaces. An appointment was booked with women managers in other organizations to obtain other needed information.

#### 3.2.2 Secondary Data

The main sources of secondary data included reports on leadership experiences on some women HODs in the Ashanti Region.

### 3.3 Population and Sample Size

The total population constitutes the entire female academic HODs in the second cycle institutions in the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly. The target population for the study was 132. The sample size arrived at was sixty (60) of the Ghana Education Service, selected specifically from female academic HODs drawn from second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis. This means that less than half of the population was used for the sample size. Forty (40) questionnaires were however, returned by the respondents for the analysis.

### 3.4 Sampling Technique

The study employed the use of purposive sampling technique in dealing with the sample size. Thus the study targeted specifically women HODs in the second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis. Thus any woman HOD outside the KMA was not included in the sample size. This approach was preferable to other alternatives like simple random sampling and convenience sampling techniques because the study was aiming at women HODs only.

### 3.5 Data collection Instrument

The main instruments for the research were questionnaires and interviews.

#### 3.5.1 Questionnaires

The questionnaire consisted of twenty-seven (27) structured questions both open and close-ended types, framed in such a way, as to elicit unambiguous and facilitative answers from the female academic HODs in second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis. The questionnaire was compiled after a thorough review of the literature enabled the researcher to identify all the variables to be included in the study.

#### 3.5.2 Interviews

An interview schedule was also designed for the HODs. This was done to enable other HODs who did not have the time to answer the questionnaires give out their views and

comments on the subject. The interviews made the gathering of the qualitative data very easy. It helped the researcher to get additional information which the questionnaires did not capture.

### 3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

The primary data were edited, entered, analyzed and presented in the form of descriptive statistics in frequency distribution as well as qualitative analysis. The study employed the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Office Excel tools for the processing of the data. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the analysis of the data.

### 3.7 Reliability and Validity of Results

The researcher in order to strengthen the reliability of the study undertook the following activities: in the first place ensured that the objectives set were in conformity with the research questions. Literature was reviewed to cover both the objectives and the research questions.

Secondly, it was also important to interview the right respondent thus the ones with sufficient knowledge in the area the researcher was embarking on the research chosen. In addition to the above, before, interviews were conducted, several meetings took place to establish good human relation with the respondents which as a result, the respondents felt more comfortable in responding to the questions.

# CHAPTER FOUR

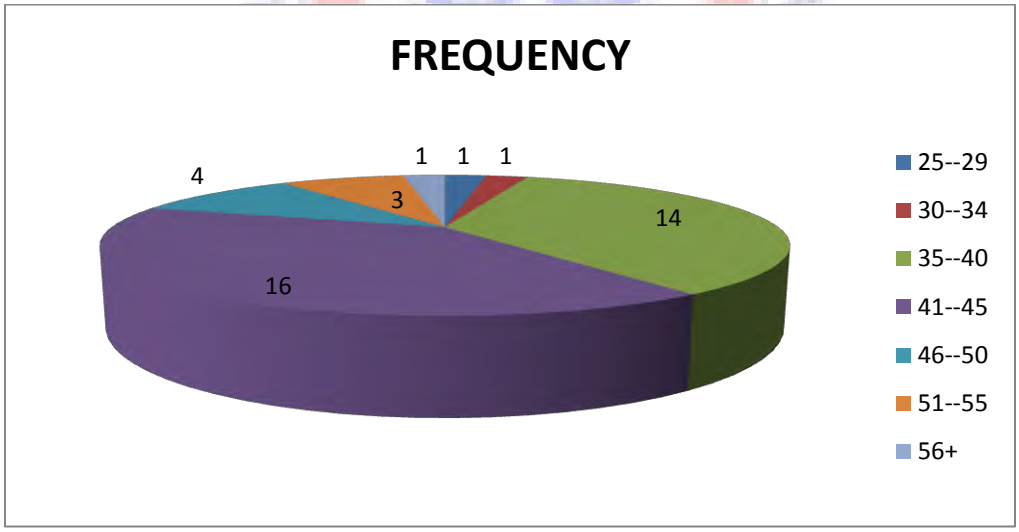
## DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter outlines the results of data analysis obtained from data collected from respondents. The main purpose of this study is to investigate, compare and document the experiences of women academic HODs in secondary education management in Ghana with a view to understanding the challenges and responsibilities entailed by the middle management position of HOD for women in the current climate of transformation and restructuring in second cycle schools. This study aims to achieve the research objectives as well as answers the research questions highlighted in chapter one. Descriptive analysis was conducted to describe the profile of respondents which includes; gender, age, education level and length of service. A total of 60 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents. However, 40 number sets or 67 % of the questionnaire were returned for analysis for the study.

## 4.2 Data Analysis

After collecting the filled questionnaires, they were analyzed for presentation of research findings under data analysis

**Figure: 4.1: Age of Respondents**

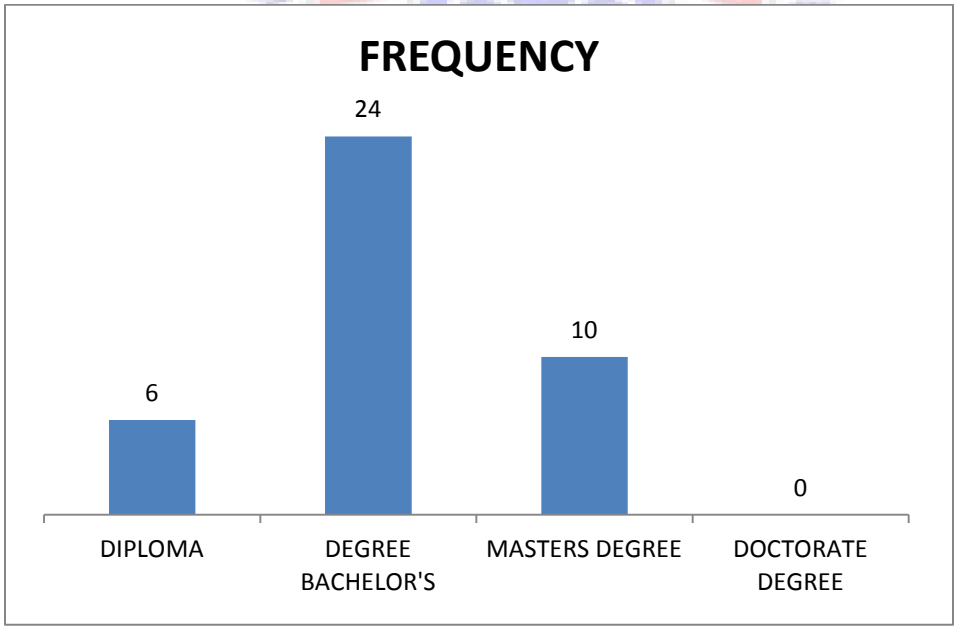



**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

Figure 4.1 indicate that forty percent (40%) of the respondents are within the age range of 41 and 45 years. Thirty five percent (35%) of the respondents had their ages ranging between 35 and 40; ten percent (10) are within the ages of 46 and 50 while those with the ages of 51 and 55

are seven and half percent (7.5%). Three ranges of the age groups of the respondents; 25-29, 30-34, and 56 above have two and half percent (2.5) each. This indicates that most of the respondents were very youthful in nature and had many years ahead to work with their institutions. This shows that age does not determine the ability to occupy higher positions such as being a HOD in second cycle institutions but based on merit.

**Figure 4.2: Level of Education**

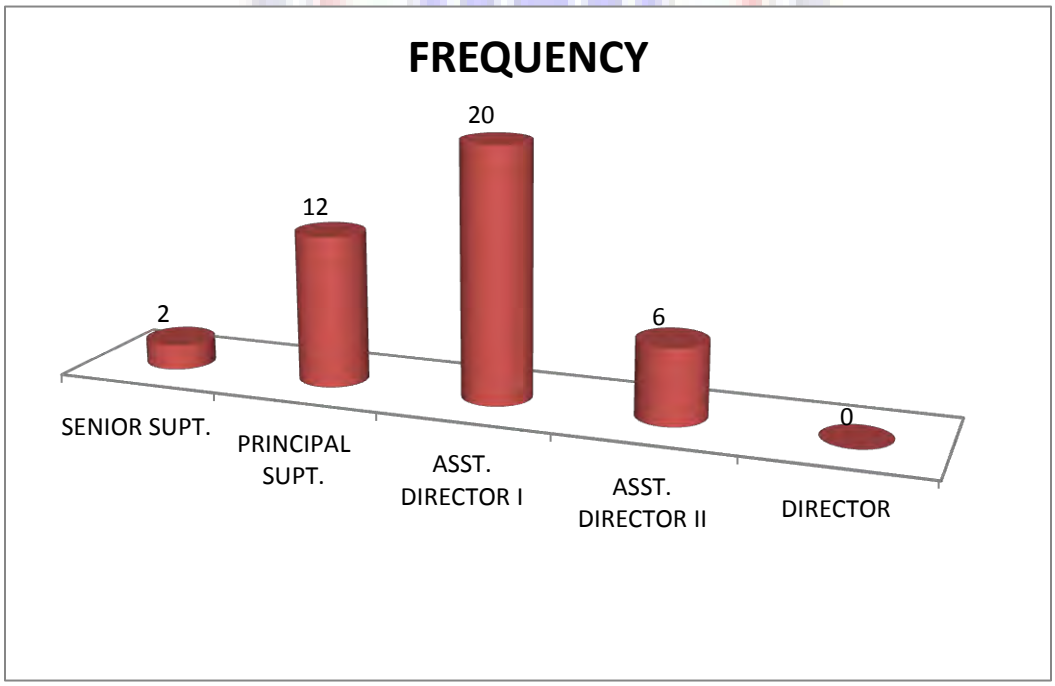



**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Figure 4.2, academic qualifications ranged from diploma to masters degree, with majority of them (60% ) holding bachelors degree, 25% hold masters degree and only 15% hold diplomas and none had doctorate degree. The varied qualifications of respondents suggest that

experience is highly relevant if they are to perform effectively on their current roles as HODs. Thus in the GES, experience on the job is a requisite to serve at a higher position such as HOD. This is because a new teacher would not be made an HOD if she possesses a higher qualification than other colleagues unless she has had enough experience on the job.

**Figure 4.3: Academic Rank of Respondents**

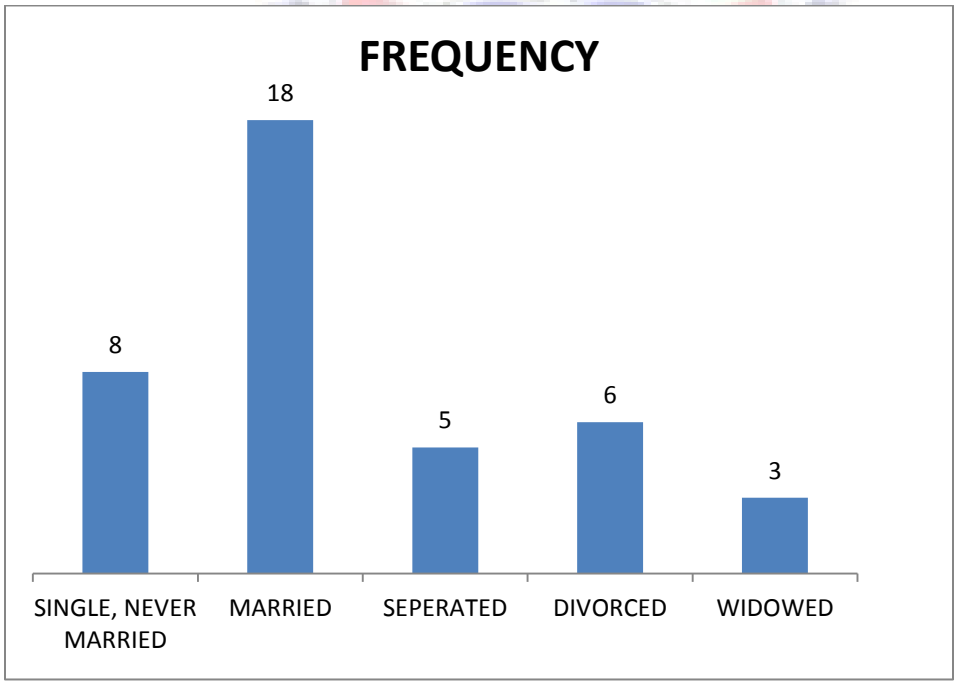



**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

Survey results indicated that the highest number of 20 (50%) respondents were Assistant Director I, and this was followed by 12 respondents (30%) being Principal Superintendent. Six

of the respondents (15%) were Assistant Director II, while only two respondents (5%) were Senior Superintendents and no Director. This indicates that experience is required in the leadership terrain taking into consideration the women academic HODs. Thus majority of respondents were Assistant Director I that comes with a lot of experience on the job before getting such rank in the GES.

**Figure 4.4: Marital Status**

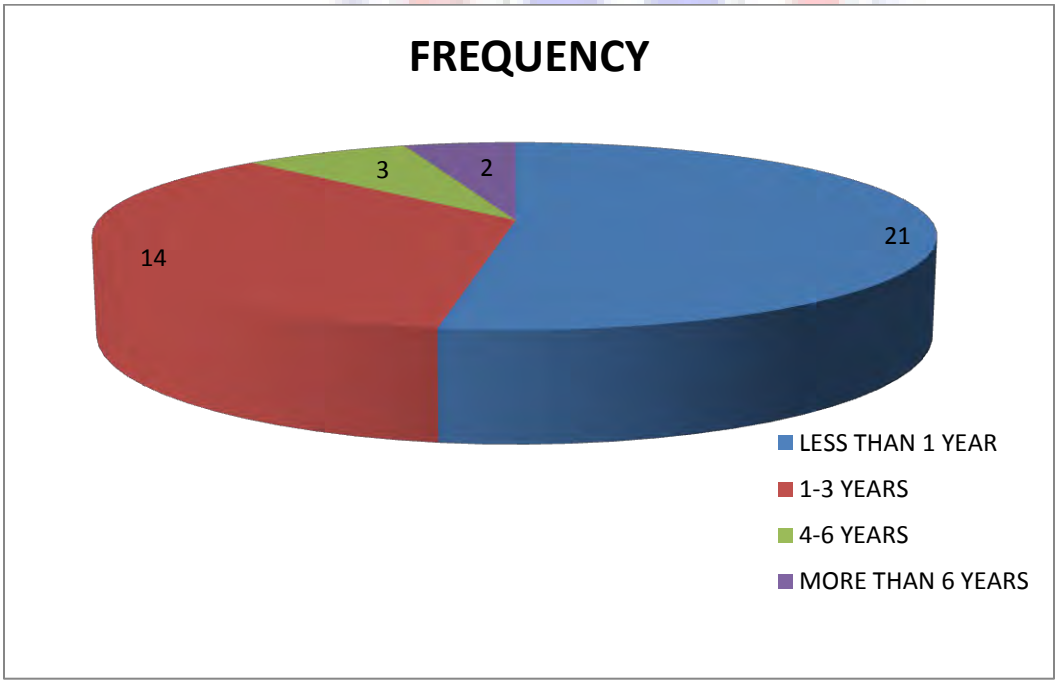



**Source: Field Survey, June, 2013**

Figure 4.4 indicates that 45% of the women are married, 20% had never married before, 15% divorced, 12.5% have their marriages been separated while 7.5% women widowed. These

indicate that the ability of women to occupy positions such as HODs in the second cycle institution is not hindered by their marital status.

**Figure 4. 5**: **Number of Years as Head of Department**

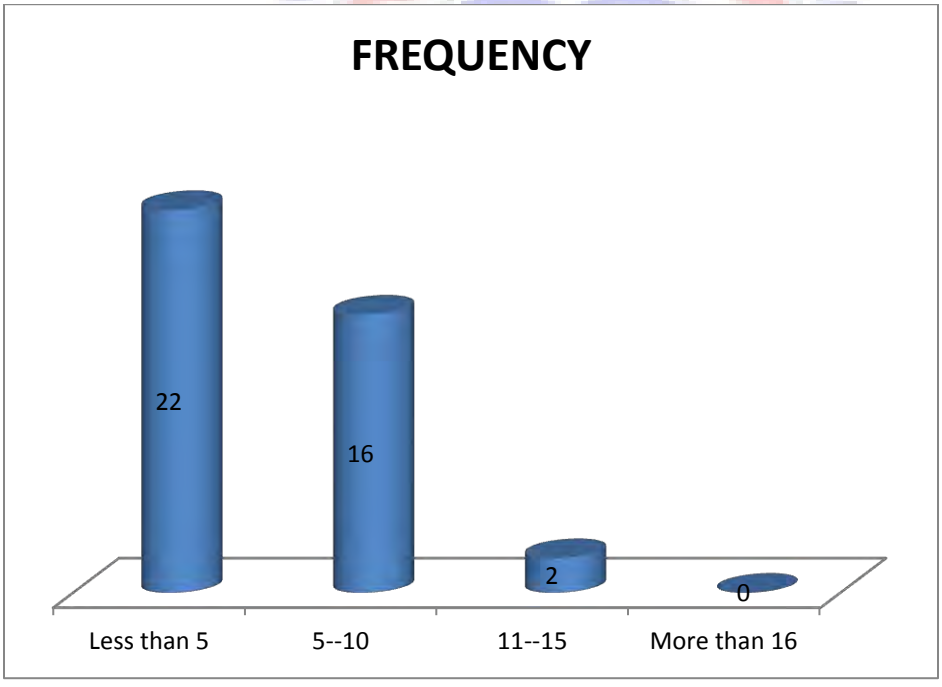



**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Figure 4.5, 52.5% (21) of the respondents have held the position as HOD for less than one year, 35% women (14) have served for 1- 3 years, 7.5% (3) have held the position for

4-6 years and only 5% of the women (2) have held the position for more than 6 years. This gives an indication that the respondents have had some considerable experience on the job.

**Figure 4.6: Number of Female Teaching Staff.**

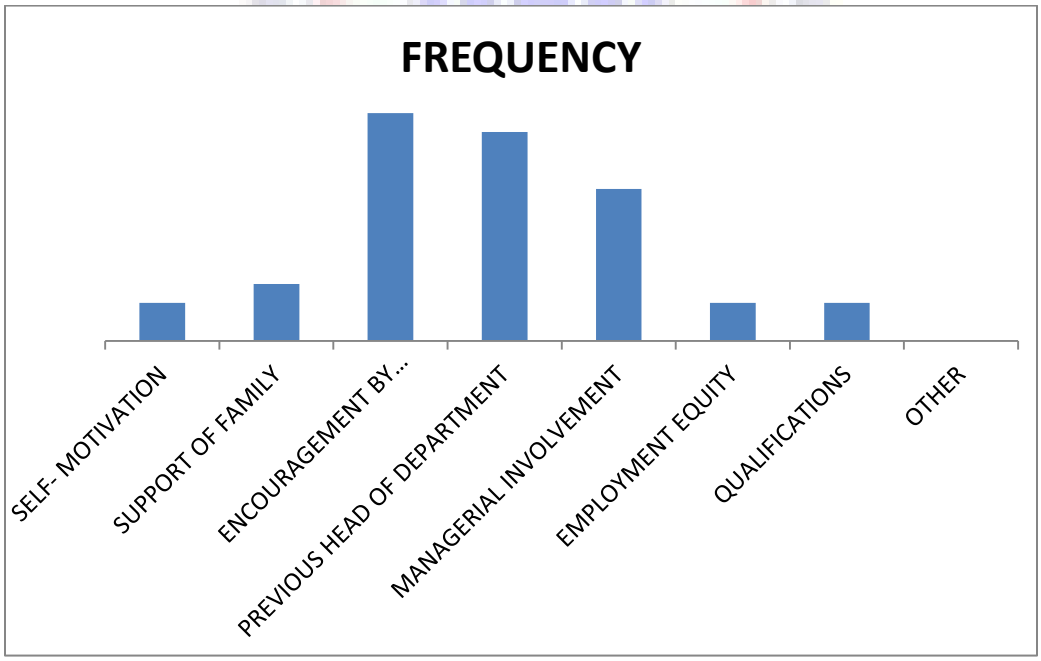



**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

Figure 4.6 indicates that 55% of the schools had less than 5 female tutors, 40% have female tutors numbering 5-10, while the remaining 5% have female tutors ranging from 11-16.

This indicates that the number of female tutors in the selected institutions for the study had majority of their tutors as males as compared to the females.

**Figure 4.7: Support Received to get into Present Position**

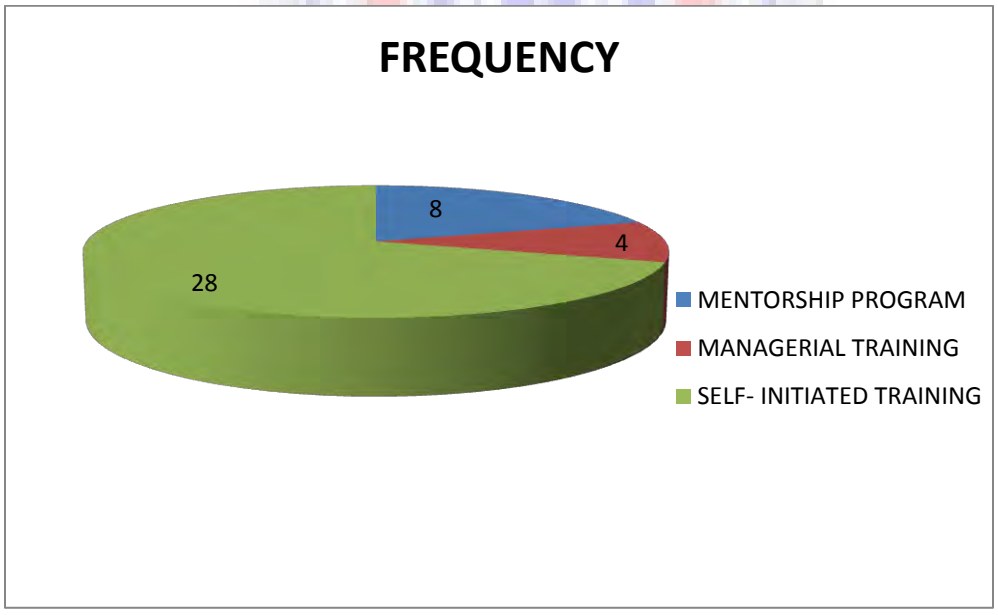



**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Figure 4.7, 30% of the women were encouraged by their colleagues to apply for the position of HOD. Thus the encouragement arose from the capabilities and skills that their

colleagues felt they possessed. 27.5% attributed their rise to the position to previous HODs support. Thus the former HODs recommended them to the authorities due to the contributions and hard work in general to their institutions. 20% of the women were supported by their involvement in managerial duties. These category of the respondents reiterated that their being in office were purely due to their efficiency and effectiveness towards performance of their duties and extra assignments given to them by their superiors while 7.5% received support from family members. Thus they were assisted by their family ties with some of the members in the institutions at the highest level. 5% each of the women maintained that they were encouraged to get the position of HOD through self-motivation, employment equity, and qualification. This gives an indication that most women HODs in the second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis are able to get their positions through the aforementioned factors presented in Figure 4.7.

**Figure 4.8: Nature of the Training or Preparation for the Position of HOD**




**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

Figure 4.8 indicate that all of the respondents had received formal preparation, one way or the other prior to the assumption of their positions as HODs. Seventy percent had self-initiated managerial training, 20% received mentorship programme offered by the school, while the remaining 10% had managerial training organised by the school. This gives an indication that most of the women HODs had training programmes organised for them in their quest be occupy the position.

**Table 4.1: Skills Desired in Today's Academic Management**

| Item | Very important | | | Important | | | Neutral | | | Not very important | | | Not important | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative |
| Verbal communication | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 15 | 37.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Written communication | 15 | 37.5 | 15 | 18 | 45 | 33 | 2 | 5 | 35 | 2 | 5 | 37 | 3 | 7.5 | 40 |
| Listening | 28 | 70 | 28 | 8 | 20 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Collaboration | 26 | 65 | 26 | 11 | 27.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Problem solving | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 16 | 40 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Conflict resolution | 25 | 62.5 | 25 | 12 | 30 | 37 | 1 | 2.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Organizational ability | 20 | 50 | 20 | 16 | 40 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Team building | 24 | 60 | 24 | 13 | 32.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Decisiveness | 27 | 67.5 | 27 | 8 | 20 | 35 | 3 | 7.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Working with support staff | 26 | 65 | 26 | 11 | 27.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Managing resources | 20 | 50 | 20 | 16 | 40 | 36 | 4 | 10 | 40 | - | - | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Teaching | 15 | 37.5 | 15 | 13 | 32.5 | 28 | 6 | 15 | 34 | 4 | 10 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 |
| Understanding the headship role | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 12 | 30 | 35 | 1 | 2.5 | 36 | 3 | 12.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |

**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Table 4.1, respondents were asked to identified and also rate the various skills presented to them in order of importance in the dispensation of their duties as an academic leadership in this modern age. The women were of the view that verbal communication is very important in today's educational management and was rated 57.5% very important, 37.5 as important, neutral and not important responses were 2.5 each. On the written communication however, only 37.5% indicated that it is very important to them, 45% settled important, 5% each went in for neutral and not very important, and 7.5%said the skill is not important at all. & 0% of the women rated listening as very important leadership skill, 20% important, 5% of the women were neutral on the skill and 2.5% each maintained the skill is either not very important or not important.

On collaboration as a skill very important was rated 65%, important 27.5%, 6% neutral, not very important 2.5% and not important rated zero. 57.5% rated problem solving skills as very important, important 40%, and 2.5% as neutral. On conflict resolution as a skill, 62.5% of the women rated it as very important, 30% as important, 2.5% each settled on neutral, not very important or not important.50% very important for organizational ability skill, 40% important, 5% neutral and 2.5% each for not very important and not important. On team building skill, 60%

women maintained it is very important, 32.% important, 5% neutral, 2.5% not very important while the same 2.5% not important at all.

Organizational decisiveness was very important skill to them and 67.5% rated it as such, 35% rated it as important, while neutral, not very important, and not important were rated 7.5%, 2.5% and 2.5% respectively. On working with support staff as a skill the following rating were made; 65% very important, 27.5% important, 5% neutral, and 2.5% not important. For managing resources skill, 50% rated it as very important, 40% as important, and 10% neutral. Teaching was not all that important skill to many of the respondents. 37.5% however rated it as very important, 32.5 as important, 15% neutral 10% not very important and 5% not important. Finally understanding headship roles was deemed as important skill in educational management. 57.5% rated it as very important, 30% as important, 2.5% were neutral, and 12.5% however indicated that it was not very important while 2.5% said it was not important at all. The overall implication of these is that, it is expected of every women HOD to possess some, if not all the aforementioned factors to be efficient and effective in delivering as a good leader. Thus this would help in performing creditably as expected. By so doing the performance of both teachers under the HOD as well as the students would be improved and this would lead to an increased in the productivity of the school as whole.

**Table 4.2: Challenges in your current job or role as HOD**

| Item | Strongly agree | | | Agree | | | Undecided | | | Disagree | | | Strongly disagree | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Promoting gender equity | 7 | 17.5 | 7 | 20 | 50 | 27 | 8 | 20 | 35 | 4 | 10 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Balancing family and career | 22 | 55 | 22 | 14 | 35 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Assessing program quality | 9 | 22.5 | 9 | 8 | 20 | 17 | 15 | 37.5 | 32 | 5 | 12.5 | 37 | 3 | 7.5 | 40 |
| Strengthening the curriculum | 14 | 35 | 14 | 17 | 42.5 | 31 | 6 | 15 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Managing the needs of the department | 20 | 50 | 20 | 12 | 30 | 32 | 5 | 12.5 | 37 | 1 | 2.5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 |
| Assessing teaching effectiveness | 29 | 72.5 | 29 | 8 | 20 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Managing departmental data | 16 | 40 | 16 | 19 | 47.5 | 35 | 4 | 10 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Dealing with unsatisfactory staff performance | 24 | 60 | 24 | 7 | 17.5 | 31 | 5 | 12.5 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 |
| Building effective team | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 14 | 35 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Office administration | 10 | 25 | 10 | 18 | 45 | 28 | 10 | 25 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Personnel management | 21 | 52.5 | 21 | 8 | 20 | 29 | 2 | 5 | 31 | 4 | 10 | 35 | 5 | 12.5 | 40 |
| Building and fostering creativity and initiative | 24 | 60 | 24 | 15 | 37.5 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |

**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From table 4.2, participants in this study were to indicate the extent to which they agreed that a given number of items posed challenges to them in their work situation. Promoting gender equity was not rated high, only 17.5% rated it as strongly agree, 50%, however, agreed to it as a bigger challenge to them, 20% undecided, 10% disagrees and 2.5% strongly disagree. On the balancing of family career as a challenge, 55% strongly agreed, 35% agreed, 5% undecided, and % disagreed. 22.5% strongly agreed to assess programme quality as a job challenge, while 20% agreed to it. 17.5 women were, however, undecided, 12.5% disagreed and 7.5% strongly disagreed. Strengthening the curriculum also pose another challenge as 35%women strongly agreed to it, 42.5% agreed, 15% undecided, 5% disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagree. On managing the needs of the department as a challenge, 50% strongly agreed to that, 30% agreed, 12.5% women were undecided, 2.5% disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed. The bigger challenge

confronting the women in their job as academic HODs is the problem of assessing teaching effectiveness. 72.5% women strongly agreed to it, 20% agreed, 5% undecided and 2.5% disagree.

For managing departmental data, 40% strongly agreed as a challenge, 47.5% strongly agreed, 10% undecided, and 2.5% disagreed. On dealing with unsatisfactory staff performance as a challenge, 60% strongly agreed, 17.5% agreed, 12.5% respondents were undecided, while 5% each of the women either disagree or strongly disagree. 57.5% of the women HODs strongly agreed to building effective team, while 35% agreed to that, 5% were however undecided and 2.5% strongly disagree. Majority of the respondents did not cite office administration a serious job challenge, 25% of the women however, strongly agreed to it as a challenge, 45% agreed, 25% were undecided, 2.5 each of the women disagree or strongly disagree to it as a challenge at all.

52.5% of the women academic HODs strongly agreed to personnel management as one of the major job challenges confronting them, 20% agreed to this proposal, 5% were undecided while 10% and 12.5% of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed respectively. Building and fostering creativity and initiative was one of the items which majority of the indicated as a bigger challenge in their job as academic HODs, 60% of the women strongly agreed to that, 37.5% agreed while 2.5% disagree. The overall implication is that women HODs at the various second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis are challenged with the aforementioned factors presented in Table 4.2. This does not mean that the challenges have overcome them and they are not performing up to standard. What is important note is that every human institution has certain challenges and the area of HOD is no exception. The most important thing for the HODs is to

handle the situation with diligence and proper measures should be put in place to tackle the unfortunate situations that confronts them.

**Table 4.3; Strategies for Addressing Job Challenges**

| Item | Very important | | | Important | | | Neutral | | | Not very important | | | Not important | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative |
| Verbal communication | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 15 | 37.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.4 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Written communication | 15 | 37.5 | 15 | 18 | 45 | 33 | 2 | 5 | 35 | 2 | 5 | 37 | 3 | 7.5 | 40 |
| Listening | 28 | 70 | 28 | 8 | 20 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Collaboration | 26 | 65 | 26 | 11 | 27.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Problem solving | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 16 | 40 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Conflict resolution | 25 | 62.5 | 25 | 12 | 30 | 37 | 1 | 2.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Organizational ability | 20 | 50 | 20 | 16 | 40 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Team building | 24 | 60 | 24 | 13 | 32.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Decisiveness | 27 | 67.5 | 27 | 8 | 20 | 35 | 3 | 7.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Working with support staff | 26 | 65 | 26 | 11 | 27.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Managing resources | 20 | 50 | 20 | 16 | 40 | 36 | 4 | 10 | 40 | - | - | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Teaching | 15 | 37.5 | 15 | 15 | 37.5 | 30 | 6 | 15 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 |
| Understanding the headship role | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 12 | 30 | 35 | 1 | 2.5 | 36 | 3 | 7.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |

**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Table 4.3, respondents were asked to identified and also rate the various skills presented to them in order of importance in the dispensation of their duties as an academic leadership in this modern age. The women were of the view that verbal communication is very important in today‘s educational management and was rated 57.5% very important, 37.5 as

important, neutral and not important responses were 2.5 each. On the written communication however, only 37.5% indicated that it is very important to them, 45% settled important, 5% each went in for neutral and not very important, and 7.5% said the skill is not important at all. 0% of the women rated listening as very important leadership skill, 20% important, 5% of the women were neutral on the skill and 2.5% each maintained the skill is either not very important or not important.

On collaboration as a skill very important was rated 65%, important 27.5%, 6% neutral, not very important 2.5% and not important rated zero. 57.5% rated problem solving skills as very important, important 40%, and 2.5% as neutral. On conflict resolution as a skill, 62.5% of the women rated it as very important, 30% as important, 2.5% each settled on neutral, not very important or not important.50% very important for organizational ability skill, 40% important, 5% neutral and 2.5% each for not very important and not important. On team building skill, 60% women maintained it is very important, 32.5 % important, 5% neutral, 2.5% not very important while the same 2.5% not important at all.

Organizational decisiveness was very important skill to them and 67.5% rated it as such, 35% rated it as important, while neutral, not very important, and not important were rated 7.5%, 2.5% and 2.5% respectively. On working with support staff as a skill the following rating were made; 65% very important, 27.5% important, 5% neutral, and 2.5% not important. For managing resources skill, 50% rated it as very important, 40% as important, and 10% neutral. Teaching was not all that important skill to many of the respondents. 37.5% however rated it as very important, 32.5 as important, 15% neutral 10% not very important and 5% not important. Finally understanding headship roles was deemed as important skill in educational management. 57.5% rated it as very important, 30% as important, 2.5% were neutral, and 12.5% however indicated that it was not very important while 2.5% said it was not important at all. This gives an

indication that for women HODs to effectively handle the challenges they face, they should be able to adequately solve problems, work with teams, should be collaborative, decisive and should understand the headship role.

**Table 4.4: Important Leadership and Management Tools (Women HOD)**

| Item | Very important | | | Important | | | Neutral | | | Not very important | | | Not important | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative |
| Performance indicators | 18 | 45 | 18 | 14 | 35 | 32 | 4 | 10 | 36 | 3 | 7.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Intellectual development | 20 | 50 | 20 | 14 | 35 | 34 | 2 | 5 | 36 | 1 | 2.5 | 37 | 1 | 25 | 40 |
| Professionalism | 24 | 60 | 24 | 14 | 35 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Collaboration | 20 | 50 | 20 | 15 | 37.5 | 35 | 4 | 10 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Performance, standards and improvement | 23 | 57.5 | 23 | 12 | 30 | 35 | 4 | 10 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Social justice, equity and cooperation | 16 | 40 | 16 | 16 | 40 | 32 | 3 | 7.5 | 35 | 4 | 10 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Integrity, personal example and persistence | 22 | 55 | 22 | 17 | 42.5 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Sharing power with members of department | 22 | 55 | 22 | 16 | 40 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Delegating responsibilities with others | 29 | 72.5 | 29 | 8 | 20 | 37 | 1 | 2.5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Encouraging teaching staff to use a wide variety of teaching approaches | 24 | 60 | 24 | 14 | 35 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 | - | - | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Recognition of prior learning | 12 | 30 | 12 | 21 | 52.5 | 33 | 5 | 12.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |

**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Table 4.4, respondents were asked to rate the extent to which the items presented to them were important or otherwise in the leadership and management of their departments. 45% of the women were of the view that performance indicators is very important in today‘s educational management, 35% rated it as important, 10% neutral and 7.5% not very important

and 2.5% responses were not important. On intellectual development, 50% indicated that it is very important to them, 35% settled important, 5% were neutral, 2.5% each of the participants either rated it not very important or not important at all. 60% of the women rated professionalism as very important leadership and management issue, 35% rated it as important, 2.5% of the women were neutral on the issue and again, 2.5% maintained that it is not very important to them.

On collaboration as leadership and management issue, 50% of the women rated it as very important, 35.5% as important, 10% of them however stayed neutral and 2.5% rated it as not important. 57.5% rated performance, standards and improvement as very important, 30% as important, 10% as neutral and 2.5% as not very important. On social justice, equity and cooperation, 40% of the women rated it as very important, 40% as important, 7.5% settled on neutral, 10% not very important and 2.5% rated it as not important. 55% of the women rated the issue of integrity, personal example and persistence as very important, 42.5% rated it as important, and 2.5% as not very important. On sharing power with members of department, 55% of the women indicated that it is very important, 40 % rated it as important, 2.5% women were neutral and 2.5% of the women indicated that it is not very important to them.

Delegating responsibilities with others received high rating from the women as 72.5% of them rated it as very important, 20% rated it as important, while neutral received 2.5%, and 5% rated it as not very important. On encouraging teaching staff to use a wide variety of teaching approaches, the following rating were made; 60% very important, 35% important, and 5% neutral. For recognition of prior learning, 30% rated it as very important, 52.5% as important, and 12.5% remained neutral, while 2.5% each of the women settled on either not very important or not important at all. This gives an indication that women HODs in the Kumasi metropolis are to perform better when they are collaborative, act in professional ways, delegate authority to

other staffs when there is the need to do so, maintain personal integrity and lead exemplary leadership style for other workers to follow. This helps to promote good working relations within their department and teachers are able to give out their best.

**Table 4.5: Leadership Styles and Traits**

| Item | Strongly agree | | | Agree | | | Undecided | | | Disagree | | | Strongly disagree | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative |
| Directive / Authoritative | 5 | 12.5 | 5 | 5 | 12.5 | 10 | 4 | 10 | 14 | 6 | 15 | 20 | 20 | 50 | 40 |
| Coercive | 1 | 2.5 | 1 | 3 | 7.5 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 15 | 37.5 | 21 | 19 | 47.5 | 40 |
| Participative / Consultative | 26 | 65 | 26 | 9 | 22.5 | 35 | 4 | 10 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Collaborative | 25 | 62.5 | 25 | 9 | 22.5 | 34 | 3 | 7.5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Democratic | 30 | 75 | 30 | 6 | 15 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Autocratic | 1 | 2.5 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 10 | 7 | 11 | 27.5 | 18 | 22 | 55 | 40 |
| Task-oriented | 25 | 62.5 | 25 | 10 | 25 | 35 | 2 | 5 | 37 | 2 | 5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Centralized | 8 | 20 | 8 | 4 | 10 | 12 | 2 | 5 | 14 | 20 | 50 | 34 | 6 | 15 | 40 |
| Decentralized | 18 | 45 | 18 | 16 | 40 | 34 | 4 | 10 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Emphatic | 22 | 55 | 22 | 13 | 32.5 | 35 | 3 | 7.5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Assertive | 27 | 67.5 | 27 | 9 | 22.5 | 36 | 3 | 7.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Passive | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1 | 2.5 | 1 | 17 | 42.5 | 18 | 22 | 55 | 40 |

**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Table 4.5, the women were asked to rate the extent to they agree to leadership traits listed to describe their style of leadership. Most of the women were of the view that giving directives and being authoritative do not have a place on their leadership style as far as today's educational management dynamics is concerned. 12.5% each of the women however, either

strongly agreed or agreed to it, 10% of them remained undecided but 15% disagree and 50% strongly disagreed. On coercive as a style, 2.5% indicated that they strongly agree to that, 7.5% agreed, 5% were undecided, 37.5% of the women settled on disagree while 47.5% strongly disagree to that leadership style. Participative and consultative leadership was embraced by majority of the respondents as 65% of the women strongly agreed and 22.5% agreed to it, 10% of the women were however undecided and 2.5% disagree.

On collaborative style of leadership, 62.5% women strongly agreed to that, 22.5% agreed, 7.5% were undecided, and 5% women disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagree. Another leadership style positive response was democratic leadership style. 75% of the women strongly agreed to that, 15% agreed, 5% were however undecided and 2.5% each of them were either disagree or strongly disagree. Autocratic form of leadership however received major negative responses. 2.5% of the women strongly agreed, 5% agreed, 10% undecided, 27.5% of the women disagree and 55% strongly disagree. On task oriented leadership style, 62.5% of the women strongly agreed to that, 25% agreed, 5% undecided, while 5% and 2.5% disagree or strongly disagree respectively. On the centralized system of administrative style, 20% women strongly agreed as one of the basic leadership style, 10 % agreed, 5% of the women were however, undecided, but 50% disagree and 15% strongly disagree. Majority of the respondents however agreed to decentralized system of administration. 45% of them strongly agree to that leadership style, 40% agree, 10% were undecided, 2.5% each of the women either disagree or strongly disagree to that style of leadership. 55% women strongly agreed to emphatic system of leadership, 32.5% agreed, 7.5% undecided, and 2.5% for either disagree or strongly disagree. On assertive leadership style, 67.5% strongly agreed to that, 22.5% agreed, 7.5% were however not decided, and 2.5% disagreeing to that style of leadership. They however disapproved of passive leadership style as 2.5% of the women were undecided on that but 42.5% disagree while 55%

strongly disagree to that style. This implies that every women HOD has her own style of leadership. Thus they do not adapt to only one kind of leadership style but uses variety of the styles mentioned in Table 4.5 based on the circumstances that they find themselves in.

**Table 4.6: Academic Leadership Demands from Respondents**

| Item | Strongly agree | | | Agree | | | Undecided | | | Disagree | | | Strongly disagree | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | Percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative | Frequency | percentage | Cumulative |
| Providing intellectual direction | 27 | 67.5 | 27 | 1 2 | 30 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Guiding and developing disciplinary and teaching directions | 25 | 62.5 | 25 | 11 | 27.5 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Representing collective purposes and interests | 24 | 60 | 24 | 12 | 30 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |
| Acting as channel for communication between central administration and department staff | 26 | 65 | 26 | 12 | 30 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Being leader who inspires and leads personnel and creates positive climate in the department | 30 | 75 | 30 | 8 | 20 | 38 | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Attracting resources to the department | 27 | 67.5 | 27 | 5 | 12.5 | 32 | 4 | 10 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 |
| Managing conflicts in times of change when different strong conflicting goals are expressed | 24 | 60 | 24 | 12 | 30 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 40 | - | - | 40 |
| Providing intellectual direction | 21 | 52.5 | 21 | 13 | 32.5 | 34 | 5 | 12.5 | 39 | - | - | 39 | 1 | 2.5 | 40 |

**Source: Field Survey, 2013**

From Table 4.6, the women were asked to rate the various leadership demands presented to them in order of importance in the dispensation of their leadership duties. The women were of the view that providing intellectual direction is very important in today‘s educational management and 67.5% strongly agreed to it, 30% agreed, and 2.5% were undecided. On

guiding and developing disciplinary and teaching direction, 62.5% indicated that they strongly agree to that, 27.5%% agreed, 5% were undecided, 2.5% each of the women settled on disagree and strongly disagree. 60% of the women strongly agreed to represent collective purposes and interests as leadership demand, 30% agreed, 5% of the women were undecided and 2.5% each maintained that the leadership demand was either disagree or strongly disagree.

On acting as channel for communication between central administration and department staff as one of leadership demands, 65% women strongly agreed to that, while 30% agreed, 2.5% were undecided, and 2.5% women disagreed. Another leadership demand from the academic HODs is the leader who inspires and leads personnel and creates positive climate in the department,75% of the women strongly agreed to that, 20% agreed, 2.5% were however undecided and 2.5%disagree to that demand. On attracting resources to the department, 67.5% of the women strongly agreed, 12.5% agreed, 10% undecided, 5% each of the women either disagree or strongly disagree. Managing conflicts in times of change when different strong conflicting goals are expressed was identified as one of the key leadership demands and 60% of the women strongly agreed to that, 30% agreed, 5% undecided, while 5% disagree to that demand. On providing intellectual direction, 52.5% women strongly agreed as one of the basic demands while 32.5 % agreed, 125% of the women were however, undecided, 2.5% strongly disagree. This gives an indication that, for the HODs to be successful in their positions as leaders, it is expected that they fulfill the desired mentioned factors by the respondents to their department and their school as a whole. This indeed requires hard work and commitment to be able to achieve such results.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this study has been to investigate, compare and document the experiences of women academic HODs in secondary education management in Ashanti Region with a view to understanding the challenges and responsibilities entailed by the middle management position of HOD for women in the current climate of transformation and restructuring in second cycle schools. Such an understanding would provide an insight into the female perspective of management and leadership and thereby promote a deeper appreciation of the contribution of women to education leadership and management in Ghana. In this chapter, a synthesis of significant findings, conclusions and implications for policy and research are presented.

### 5.1 Overview of the Investigation

In this study the leadership experiences of women HODs in Kumasi Metropolis second cycle institutions have been investigated and compared. The absence of many women in senior positions of leadership and management at second cycle institutions is well documented and so are the barriers that prevent women from advancing into senior leadership and management positions (see 1.1). In addition, it appears that little or no investigation has been carried out into what happens to women once they attain positions of leadership and management in organizations. In short, few studies have attempted to document the experiences of women who have, against all odds, _shattered the glass ceiling' academe. This study was motivated by a longitudinal study into gender representation patterns at several institutions in Ghana. The findings revealed that women were in the minority in middle and senior management positions in second cycle institutions. This prompted an investigation of how the few women had managed to achieve these positions and how they were experiencing the situation.

**5.2 Summary of Findings**

Significant findings which emerged from the quantitative and qualitative investigations are synthesized, and interpreted especially in relation to the research questions and aims posed at the beginning of the study. The majority of them seemingly did not find it difficult to become HODs as they were self- motivated and had adequate support from colleagues and family. Their involvement in managerial work together with qualifications enabled them to move into the HOD position with relative ease. Moreover they were motivated to accept the job chiefly by a desire to make a contribution to the development of their departments particularly with regards to effective teaching and learning. Of the aspects of academic leadership which were perceived as demands, _facilitating and encouraging the work of the individual and of the group' was seen as

the major demand experienced of the HOD, whereas _being a servant of the group who embraces the group‘s values and goals‘ was the least demanding.

It was found that skills desired in today‘s management in relation to being an HOD requires skills in verbal and written communication, good listener, ability to solve problems, work with teams, decisive and should be able to understand headship role in the school. It was found that the women HODs were challenged with balancing family issues with career, strengthening the curriculum, dealing with unsatisfactory staff performance and building effective team.

HOD‘s are expected to promote and encourage excellence in teaching and learning as well as provide long term direction and vision for the department. They also have conflicting demands and expectations, not the least of which is providing an enabling environment for both individual staff members and the entire group to succeed. In other words, she has to ensure that individual as well as team work are encouraged. Therefore, in view of the fact that the HOD must provide intellectual leadership in the restructuring of the curriculum and in designing extra curriculum, it is inevitable that she would need strong networks and strategies to overcome the challenges. It was found that women HODs do not rely on the use of one leadership style in the administration of their duties and responsibilities but variety based on the circumstance that they face.

### 5.3 Conclusions

Women HODs in the Kumasi metropolis are able to reach to their positions as a result of the recommendations from their colleagues and former HODs, some were able to get to their positions due their capabilities and self confidence as well as their performance. They were faced with the challenges of building effective team and balancing family issues and that of their career. This does not mean that women HODs cannot perform better with teams. Based on the

findings, it can be concluded that women HODs use the best style of leadership that deem fit for them based on a given circumstance and do not rely on only one style of leadership.

### 5.4 Recommendations

It is expected that women HODs in the second cycle institutions in the Kumasi metropolis ensure that they are able to build effective and efficient team within their departments so that employee relations can be improved with their departments and among other teachers from other departments. It is also appropriate for women HODs to act in a more professional way in handling their duties by avoiding gender biases. Training programmes should be organized for women in the schools so that they can be empowered to undertake HOD positions and beyond.

### 5.5 Suggestion for Further Studies

It is recommended that further research studies concerning female HOD‘s, focusing on investigating events in the external environment which may impact on the internal secondary education environment to shape the work of the head of department, be carried out. Findings from such investigations could be included in leadership and management training workshops/ programmes. Future research should also examine the relationship between female leadership style and staff performance.

### 5.6 Limitations of the Study

The aim of the present study was to increase understanding of the management experiences of a particular group of people, that is, academic women HOD‘s. These are generally a small

selection of people because of their under- representation in the second cycle school management system. Consequently, as the aim of the study was to focus on second cycle institutions where women HOD‘s are present, a purposeful sampling technique was employed. Therefore, schools with no female HOD‘s were excluded from the study. Subsequently the study has a restricted dataset which may limit generalization of its findings. Since the study is exploratory and largely descriptive in nature, no attempt was made to put forward hypotheses to rejected or confirmed. Rather, an attempt was made to establish patterns and trends and relationships between certain variables in the quantitative part of the study, and to understand and describe the management and leadership experiences of women HOD‘s in the qualitative part. The intent of focus groups is not to infer but to understand, not to generalize but to determine the range, and not to make statements about the population but to provide insights about how people in the groups perceive a situation. Although the sample was representative in terms of coverage, it is predominantly second cycle institutions with female HOD in the Kumasi metropolis.

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# APPENDIX

## RESEARCH QUESTIONAIRE

I am an MBA student at the University of Education Winneba-Kumasi Campus. I am conducting a study titled: _Experiences of women academic heads of departments in second cycle institutions in Ghana –A case of Kumasi metropolis. As part of my studies to fulfill my research objectives, I require reliable responses to the questions below. Your co-operation will be very much appreciated because it will enrich the quality of the research. Thank you.

Please note that your responses are for academic purposes only and strict anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained throughout the research process.

**Section A: Demographic Information**

1. Age group

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 25-29 | 1 | |
| 30-34 | 2 | |
| 35-40 | 3 | |
| 41-45 | 4 | |
| 46-50 | 5 | |
| 51-55 | 6 | |
| 56 + | 7 | |

2. Level of education

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Diploma | 1 | |
| Degree Bachelor‘s | 2 | |
| Masters degree | 3 | |
| Doctorate degree | 4 | |

3. Academic rank

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Senior supt. | 1 | |
| Principal supt. | 2 | |
| Asst. director I | 3 | |
| Asst. director II | 4 | |
| Director | 5 | |

4. Marital status

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Single never married | 1 | |
| Married | 2 | |
| Separated | 3 | |
| Divorced | 4 | |
| Widowed | 5 | |

5. Number of years as head of department

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Less than one year | 1 | |
| 1 – 3 years | 2 | |
| 4 – 6 years | 3 | |
| More than 6 years | 4 | |

6. Number of years with current institution

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 – 5 year | 1 | |
| 6 – 10 years | 2 | |
| 11– 15 years | 3 | |
| More than 16 years | 4 | |

7. Please, indicate positions of responsibility held prior to your current one

……

8. Is your position of HOD a fixed term?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 1 | |
| No | 2 | |

9. If you answered yes to the above what is the length of the term?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Less than 3 year | 1 | |
| 3 years | 2 | |
| More than 3 years | 3 | |

10. What is the procedure for becoming HOD in your institution?

……
……

**Section B: Department Profile**

11. Name of Department/ institutional unit of which you are head…….....

12. Number of students in the department/ institutional unit.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 100 or less | 1 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 101 - 200 | 2 | |
| 201 - 400 | 3 | |
| More than 400 | 4 | |

13. Number of female teaching staff.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Less than 5 | 1 | |
| 6 – 10 | 2 | |
| 11– 15 | 3 | |
| More than 16 years | 4 | |

14. Number of teaching staff in the department.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Less than 5 | 1 | |
| 6 – 15 | 2 | |
| 16– 25 | 3 | |
| More than 25 | 4 | |

**Section C: Career Preparation and Advancement Opportunities**

15. What do you think helped you to get into your present position? Check all that apply.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Self-motivation | 1 | |
| Support of family | 2 | |
| Encouragement by colleagues | 3 | |
| Previous head of department | 4 | |
| Managerial involvement | 5 | |
| Employment equity | 6 | |
| Qualifications | 7 | |
| Other (specify) | 8 | |

16. Did you have any formal training or preparation for the position of HOD?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 1 | |
| No | 2 | |

17. If yes what was the nature of the training or preparation? (Please check all that apply)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Mentorship program offered by the institution | 1 | |
| Managerial training offered by the institution | 2 | |
| Self initiated managerial training | 3 | |

18. What factors militate/ or have militated against your advancement in your career?.....

……

19. How do you overcome such difficulties?

……

**Section D: Skills**

20. Below are listed several skills which are desired in today's academic management era. How important are these skills to your present position as HOD?

Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Very important, 2. Important, 3. Neutral, 4. Not very important, 5. Not important

| | Very important | Important | Neutral | Not very important | Not important |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Verbal communication | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Written communication | | | | | |
| Listening | | | | | |
| Collaboration | | | | | |
| Problem solving | | | | | |
| Conflict resolution | | | | | |
| Organizational ability | | | | | |
| Team building | | | | | |
| Decisiveness | | | | | |
| Working with support staff | | | | | |
| Managing resources | | | | | |
| Teaching | | | | | |
| Understanding the headship role | | | | | |

**Section E: Job Challenges**

21. To what extent do you agree with the following challenges to you in your current job or role as HOD? Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided, 4. Disagree, 5. Strongly disagree

| | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Promoting gender equity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Balancing family and career | | | | | |
| Assessing program quality | | | | | |
| Strengthening the curriculum | | | | | |
| Managing the needs of the department | | | | | |
| Assessing teaching effectiveness | | | | | |
| Managing departmental data | | | | | |
| Dealing with unsatisfactory staff performance | | | | | |
| Building effective team | | | | | |
| Office administration | | | | | |
| Personnel management | | | | | |
| Building and fostering creativity and initiative | | | | | |

**Section F: Strategies**

22. Below are listed several strategies useful in addressing job challenges. How important are these skills to your present position as HOD? Please use the scales below to indicate the extent to which you agree that the strategies would be useful to you in your current role.

1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided, 4. Disagree, 5. Strongly disagree

| | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Staff professional development workshops | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Balancing personal and professional activities | | | | | |
| Being fair and transparent | | | | | |
| Building strong support network with other HODs | | | | | |
| Participating in leadership and management workshops and seminars | | | | | |
| Participating in social events and programs focused on common areas of interest | | | | | |

## Section G: Leadership and Management

23. To what extent do you think the following are important in the leadership and management of your department? Please use the scales below to indicate your response? Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Very important, 2. Important, 3. Neutral, 4. Not very important, 5. Not important

| | Very important | Important | Neutral | Not very important | Not important |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Performance indicators | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Intellectual development | | | | | |
| Professionalism | | | | | |
| Collaboration | | | | | |
| Performance, standards and improvement | | | | | |
| Social justice, equity and cooperation | | | | | |
| Integrity, personal example and persistence | | | | | |
| Sharing power with members of department | | | | | |
| Delegating responsibilities with others | | | | | |
| Encouraging teaching staff to use a wide variety of teaching approaches | | | | | |
| Recognition of prior learning | | | | | |

## Section H: Tasks and Functions

24. Below is a list of tasks and functions identified in the literature as being performed by HODs. How important are the tasks and functions to your present position as HOD? Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Very important, 2. Important, 3. Neutral, 4. Not very important, 5. Not important

| | Very important | Important | Neutral | Not very important | Not important |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Recruit and select staff | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Recommend promotion of staff | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Evaluate and appraise staff performance | | | | | |
| Manage department resources | | | | | |
| Foster good teaching in the department | | | | | |
| Promote staff development | | | | | |
| Conduct departmental meetings | | | | | |
| Maintain essential records including students records | | | | | |
| Represent the department at school management | | | | | |
| Assign teaching and other responsibilities | | | | | |
| Develop and implement plans for the department | | | | | |

**Section I: Role Perception**

25. How important to you is each role in your present position as HOD? Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Very important, 2. Important, 3. Neutral, 4. Not very important, 5. Not important

| | Very important | Important | Neutral | Not very important | Not important |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Planner | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Motivator | | | | | |
| Manager | | | | | |
| Researcher | | | | | |
| Advisor | | | | | |
| Negotiator | | | | | |
| Decision maker | | | | | |
| Advocator | | | | | |
| Leader | | | | | |
| Evaluator | | | | | |
| Innovator | | | | | |
| Coordinator | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Resource allocator | | | | | |
| Mentor | | | | | |

**Section J: Leadership Style**

26. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership traits listed below describe your style of leadership? Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided, 4. Disagree, 5. Strongly disagree

| | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Directive / Authoritative | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Coercive | | | | | |
| Participative / Consultative | | | | | |
| Collaborative | | | | | |
| Democratic | | | | | |
| Autocratic | | | | | |
| Task-oriented | | | | | |
| Centralized | | | | | |
| Decentralized | | | | | |
| Emphatic | | | | | |
| Assertive | | | | | |
| Passive | | | | | |

**Section K: Academic Leadership**

27. Academic leadership in the department involves many demands. Indicate the extent to which you agree that the following are demands that you are experiencing as HOD? Please use the scales below to indicate your response.

1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Undecided, 4. Disagree, 5. Strongly disagree

| | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Providing intellectual direction | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Guiding and developing disciplinary | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| and teaching directions | | | | | |
| Representing collective purposes and interests | | | | | |
| Acting as channel for communication between central administration and department staff | | | | | |
| Being leader who inspires and leads personnel and creates positive climate in the department | | | | | |
| Attracting resources to the department | | | | | |
| Managing conflicts in times of change when different strong conflicting goals are expressed | | | | | |