UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

STEREOTYPICAL PERCEPTION OF THE LEADERSHIP OF FEMALE HEADS OF

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN THE KASSENA-NANKANA MUNICIPALITY   OF

UPPER EAST REGION OF GHANA.

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**A Project Report in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of
Education and Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate
Studies, University of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for award of the Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree**

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, ERNESTINA ATAMONA PWADURA, declare that this project report, with the exception of quotations and references contained in 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 project report as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: PROF. FRANCIS OWUSU-MENSAH

SIGNATURE: ……………………………………………

DATE:……………………………………………………

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

To my headmistress Md. Francisca Yizura, my dear husband Mr. Peter Agao and my children Agoa Noel Webadua, Agao Anita Kapeh and Agao Audrey Wesoamo.

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ABSTRACT

This study was a descriptive survey which sought to find out stereotypical perception of the leadership of female heads of senior high school in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality of the Upper East Region of Ghana. The sampled population for the study included three headmasters and 89 teachers from three second cycle institutions in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality. Questionnaire and interview were basically the instruments used to gather data from the respondents. The results from the study demonstrated that stakeholders still have negative views about the competency of women who are into educational leadership. The study also revealed that most people still feel that females cannot make efficient and effective leaders as compared to their male counterparts. It is also clear from the study that, there are serious issues on under representation of women as school heads due to leadership styles as a result of historical, social, economic and organizational factors across national, cultural and occupational context. It is recommended that civil society organisations, faith- based organisations, colleges and universities re-examine their affirmative action and diversity action policies and plans to evaluate the effectiveness of these policies and plans to bring about a more diverse women faculty with structured mentoring activities and professional development programmes that will help to reduce, if not eliminate barriers that gender stereotypical perception on female leadership.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

All over the world, social roles and expectations especially within our African context demand that men and women perform roles in conformity with their gender (Makura, 2011). This practice has resulted in men and women being acculturated within the context .Most researchers agree that one of the most important reasons that women are not equally represented in organizational leadership positions is that women are socialized into specific gender roles (Eagly, 1987; Payne, Fuqua, & Canegami, 1998).

Kruse and Wintermantel (1986), in their review of gender stereotyping in leadership positions, have stated repeatedly which is that stereotypes of how men differ from women match the general perception of how leaders differ from followers.

Though women constitute a larger portion of the workforce in today's world, we seldom have women leaders in top administrative positions. Throughout history, women have been dominated consciously or unconsciously by their male counterparts in all sectors of the workforce. Globally, the lack of women in top managerial positions including educational leadership has been the subject of much debate. Today, not only in the less developed countries but even in the developed world, there are some stereotypical perceptions about women managers that could pose as obstacles to their advancement as professionals and leaders. Even if women do occupy managerial positions, there is evidence that they have the title of managers without the same responsibilities as their male counterparts (Reskin & Ross, 1992). Currently, out of the 275 members of parliament in Ghana, only 30 are women constituting just about 10.1%

and out of the 33 ministers of state, only six are women representing only 18.18%. (htt://www.ghana.gov.gh>governance>ministers)

Traditionally, men have been seen as better suited than women to hold executive positions, thus only a small percentage of women hold leadership positions in business, public and school administration. The qualities associated with being a successful manager have been associated with masculinity; such as ambition, objectivity and authority. Women however have been seen as different from men, generally lacking the necessary personal characteristics; they are seen to be dependent, conforming and submissive (Burns, 1978). Both males and females seemed happier to work under a male head. Male and female resistance to female leadership is attributed to cultural expectations which in their stereotyped form, cast men as leaders and women as followers (Dunne, 2007).

These gender beliefs are generally accepted to be normal and healthy even by mental health professionals and have been established over many generations (Kruse et al, 1986). As a result of this gender stereotyping of leadership positions, Terborg (1977) suggested that women needed to adopt masculine qualities if they wanted to be successful in management. However, in addition to being more negatively evaluated, women in leadership roles who adopt a masculine style, may be perceived by many especially the less educated to be unfair, generally more extreme in their behavior and hard to work with compared to their male counterparts (Rajerison, 1996).

Government's policy on girl-child education in Ghana as documented in the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) of 1995 and the Beijing Conference, Sept (1995) fourth world conference on women, have been important moves that sought

to achieve women empowerment and solve gender imbalance that exist in our social set up, and give equal opportunity to women.

Despite the prejudices on women leadership, throughout the course of history and especially in recent times, women the world over have served in leadership positions in various fields including education, leaving a mark of credible performance. These include Queen Elizabeth II who has been acknowledged as one of the most prestigious and longest serving monarchs in the world, GolderMier of Israel and Margaret Thatcher of Great Britain, (Mensah, 2008). Also Her Excellency Ellen Johnson Sirleaf of Liberia, Nana Konadu Agyemang Rawlings who brought a lot of Ghanaian women out of their shells and giving them exposure to national and international issues. Madam Adeline Bamford-Addo former Speaker of parliament, Mrs. Georgina Theodora Wood, Chief Justice, Dr. Philomina Nyarko, Government statistician, Mrs. Charlotte Osei, Electoral Commissioner, and a number of women holding ministerial positions from local to national level.

Women's advancement in educational leadership has been encouraging in recent years. Since the 1987 Educational reforms in Ghana, many women have risen to the top of the ladder with Professor Naana Jane Opuko-Agyemang currently at the top of the hierarchy as Minister of Education. Across the country, a lot of educational institutions are headed by women; per the 51st Annual Conference report (26th -30th August 2013), out of the 553 members of the Conference of Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools (CHASS), 102 are women. According to the statistical office of the Nankana Municipal Education Directorate, out of the total number of 97 public basic school in the 2015/2016

academic year, 32 are headed by women, and out of the seven (7) Public second cycle institutions in the study area, four (4) are headed by women representing 57.14%.

Though the above scenario presents a positive picture on women's participation in education leadership, they are actually under-represented in management, especially at senior management levels in organization. For instance only 18% of fortune 500 companies had women as CEOs in 2005 (Helfat, Harris & Wolfson, 2006). In fact, according to Laff (2006), women are still struggling to obtain Chief Executive Leadership roles.

Despite the low representation of women in management across the world, the few who get to the top face a lot of problems both physiological and attitudinal, notably among which are; unsupportive organizational procedures, discrimination in appointment or promotion procedures, incompatibility between working patterns and women's lives and prejudices of co-workers (male and female.) Women therefore become frustrated when they see where they could advance to, yet are unable to because of unexplained situations (Greed, 1991). Confirming this, is the use of the phrase "glass ceiling" to sum up the frustration of working women at every level, who could see where they want to advance to, but are blocked by invisible barriers (Fladers, 1994).

1.2   Statement of the problem

The under representation of qualified women in leadership positions has created a gender gap that exists not only in education but in many areas of the workplace. Society has determined that only males make good leaders; therefore it continues to deny easy access for women seeking leadership roles because they do not fit the norm. Women who

seek leadership positions face barriers and many times give up because they become overwhelmed in dealing with obvious barriers.

While there is conscious effort over the last decade nationally and globally to promote and retain women in top management levels, there is still increasingly tight competition in the labour market that is still making it equally increasingly difficult for this objective to be achieved(U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011).

The stereotypical perceptions against women hinder women's advancement, especially to be appointed to leadership positions in Senior High School in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality.

Notwithstanding the fact that there are some women who hold leadership positions in Educational institutions, some people look at them in a negative way; perceiving them as more emotional, talkative and less courageous than their male counterparts (Bass, 2008). Others also perceive them to be unfair, hard to work with and narrow minded, compared to their male counterparts (Rajarison, 1996). The researcher therefore seeks to find out to what extent this is true about female heads of Senior High Schools in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The objective of the study is to explore the stereotypical perception of female heads of Senior High Schools in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality on issues such as level of educational attainment, discrimination and traditional practices that affect women's advancement, and women's behavior such as being emotionally unstable, less courageous and lack of career orientation (Bass 2008).

1.4   Specific Objectives

Specifically the study seeks to

1.   Find out the criteria for appointment of heads of educational institutions.

2.   Investigate into the general perception held about women in educational leadership.

3.   Identify the leadership styles female heads employ in their administration.

    4 Identify the barriers that confront women in educational leadership and measures to overcome them.

1.5   Research Questions.

The following research questions have been designed to serve as basis for constructing questionnaire and interview guide:

1.   What are the criteria for the appointment of heads of educational institutions?

2.   What leadership styles do female heads of second cycle schools exhibit?

3.   What are the views of teachers and heads of schools women in educational leadership?

4.   What are the barriers and constraints that affect women in educational leadership?

1.6   Significance of the Study

The study will help give a clear view on how society perceives women in leadership position. The information gathered will be beneficial to governmental and non-governmental organizations such as Ministry of Education, Ministry of Gender,

Children and Social Protection, National Commission on Women among others in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality, Upper-East Region and the nation as a whole.

This study would certainly contribute to the body of knowledge about the nature and practices of gender stereotyping in Ghana and how to ultimately, through better understanding and improved practices. Besides, the results of the study are intended to help policy makers in education in Ghana like other developing countries, to see the effects of gender stereotyping on the quality of education in Ghana.

It will equally serve as literature for other researchers who want to research into gender issues at the senior high schools in Ghana. Additionally, the information gathered from the study will generally contribute to the growing body of knowledge on women and educational leadership in a developing country like Ghana.

1.7   Delimitation of the study

The study sought to find out the stereotypical perception of women in educational leadership in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality. It covered all the heads of all the seven public second cycle schools and also a number of teachers from each of the selected schools, both male and female.

1.8.   Organization of the Study

The study has been organized into five chapters. Chapter One covers the introduction to the study and highlights the background to the study, statement of problem, purpose of the study, Research questions, significance of the study, objectives of the study, Delimitations and organization of the study.

Chapter Two presents review of related literature, which forms the theoretical base for the research. Chapter Three presents research methodology and deals with research design, population, sample and sampling techniques employed, research instrument, procedure for data collection and analysis of data. Chapter Four provide the analysis and findings of the study. Chapter Five gives a summary and discussion of findings, draws conclusion and makes recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews related work on stereotypical perception of female heads of Senior High Schools in Ghana and around the world. The interest of this study is to find out the level of educational attainment, discrimination and traditional practices that affect women's advancement, and women's behaviour such as being emotionally unstable, less courageous and lack of career orientation among Senior High School Heads. The literature is reviewed under the following heading:

1. Criteria for appointment of heads of educational institutions.
2. General perception held about women in education leadership.
3. Leadership styles female heads employ in their administration.
4. Barriers that confront women in educational leadership and measures to overcome them.

2.1. Criteria for Appointment of Heads of Educational Institutions

Administration of public and government assisted schools is undertaken by government through personnel appointed by the Ghana Education Service. The school head is expected to facilitate the attainment of instructional excellence and set the agenda which determine the persons to be involved in making important decisions concerning the school, and the optimum level of stakeholder involvement. According to Supovitz, Sirinides, and May (2010), school heads play three inter-related roles that are essential to improving the performance of schools: (a) focusing the mission and goals of the school,

(b) supporting trust and collaboration in the building, and (c) actively supporting instruction.

2.1.1. General qualification of a school head

The school head is expected to facilitate the attainment of instructional excellence and set the agenda which determine the persons to be involved in making important decisions concerning the school, and the optimum level of stakeholder involvement. This paradigm puts the school head at the front and center of school reform; leading change in the school and involving the community. The school head is responsible for identifying stakeholder expectations for promoting the development of competencies necessary for staff to meet the expectations. The school head is expected to be the agent of change the fulcrum of the change process (Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2013).

Fullan (2003) suggests that it is the school head that introduces the change agenda and then adapts it continually in response to those who will have to live with it. Moreover, this administrator is expected to give equal attention to enabling others, especially teachers, to be leaders in the school.

Although those who are appointed school heads are usually selected from the ranks of teachers who are thought to be especially effective, after their appointments, they engage very little in the technical aspects of teaching that earned them their reputations (Oduro & Bosu, 2010). Owens and Valesky (2007) argue the skills needed to do the work, and the outcomes by which one's success is judged are so different, that one literally leaves teaching when appointed as school head and enters a new and different occupation.

Cowie and Crawford (2007) posit that there should be no argument among policy makers over the need to develop the capacities of those who aspire to become school heads. The argument should rather center on the type of preparation programmes that are needed. Upon appointment as school head, leaders acquire power and prestige, and are therefore, inevitably pulled and hauled from many different directions by those who want to enlist that power and prestige in support of their causes. Preparation for such conditions is in part cognitive- learning basic principles of organization and the behaviour of people who work in them (Hanson, 2003).

According to Lashway, Mazzarella, and Grundy (2006), every job requires mastery of certain ideas and processes, and in education, they are addressed in professional preparation programmes. The professional preparation programmes are designed to equip aspiring school heads with the relevant knowledge, skills, and dispositions for the position. Prescribed courses to prepare school heads focus on concepts and procedures school heads must know and use to increase student achievement and to meet the demands of new accountability systems.

Many countries (e.g., Tanzania, India, Malaysia, USA) require formal academic preparation in educational administration (or principalship) as prerequisite for appointment as school head. For example, Tanzania requires aspiring school heads to attend the Agency for the Development of Educational Management (ADEM), which is designated government agency to provide preparation in educational leadership, management, and administration.

The ADEM offers prescribed courses in organisation theories, management and administration; management and supervision of curriculum implementation; human

resources management; educational action research; financial management and economics of education; management of material resources; school management and leadership; educational policy and legislation; guidance and counseling; and development studies.

In the US, the aspiring school head should possess the principal's license, which is acquired after going through prescribed courses in educational administration (e.g., organizational theory and practice, principalship, curriculum leadership and development, school law, school finance, human resource management) offered by a university. Lashway (2006) sees a period of formal preparation as a crucial socialization tool which enables aspiring school leaders to consciously confront the issues they will face as school heads. He identifies the period of formal preparation as providing the opportunity for focused reflection on school leadership dilemma, because once on the job, school heads leaders will find reflective opportunities to be much rarer.

McGough (2003) opines that three broad notions of the school head as technician, as expert, and as craftsperson define the curricula and knowledge base of formal academic preparation. First, the technician notion focuses on courses (e.g., organizational development, leadership theories, financial administration, research methods).Second the expert notion focuses on pedagogy (e.g., use of case studies) that sharpens the problem-solving and decision-making skills of aspiring school heads. Finally, the craftsperson notion offers aspiring school heads the opportunity to engage in reflective practice toward a reality based understanding of the role of a school head.

Petzko (2008) observes that the core of the knowledge base of formal academic preparation for school heads is driven by the urgency to enhance the knowledge, skills,

and disposition in human relations and personnel domains, ability to communicate (e.g., shared vision), resolve conflicts, motivate employees, manage teams, select, evaluate, and further develop faculty and staff.

2.1.2. Qualification for school headship in Ghana

School heads in Ghana are not required to complete a professional standardized preparatory programme in educational administration. The Ghana Education Service (GES) the body empowered by the constitution of Ghana to conduct pre-tertiary education has no requirement for a prospective school head to complete a specified academic preparatory programme in post-graduate studies in educational administration or educational leadership. The Ghana Education Service Council (ESC, 2009) requires school heads in Ghana to meet the following criteria to be eligible as a senior high school head:

1. Be a professional graduate teacher with satisfactory work history and conduct within the GES.

2. Have served at the rank of deputy director for at least 2 years.

3. Have served as an assistant headmaster/mistress, unit head at the headquarters, or an equivalent position for at least 3 cumulative years.

4. Not be over the age of 55 years at the time he or she applies for the position.

The career path to the headship in the senior high school begins with certification as a professional graduate teacher. The GES recognizes two-alternate paths to certification. One path consists of an aspiring school head obtaining a bachelor's degree in education. The alternate path consists of the aspiring school head obtaining a bachelor's degree in a

field other than education, and 12 semester hours of prescribed courses in education (i.e., history of education, management of educational institutions, guidance and counseling, measurement and evaluation, psychology of education, philosophy of education, methodology). Both paths require the successful completion of a semester of supervised teaching experience (Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2013).

The certified graduate professional teacher goes through various ranks—Principal Superintendent, Assistant Director II, Assistant Director I, Deputy Director—in the GES over the years (ESC, 2009). Progression through the ranks occurs after completing at least three cumulative years at each rank and successfully passing an interview conducted by a panel of eminent educationists. Being a professional teacher with a minimum of 15 years of teaching experience thus becomes a pre-requisite for becoming a senior high school head.

Also, the GES requires school heads in Ghana to meet the following criteria to be eligible as a school head in the primary or junior high school:

1. Be a professional teacher with satisfactory work history and conduct within the GES.

2. Have served at the rank of principal superintendent for at least 2 years (Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2013).

2.1.4. The practice

Research has shown (Amakyi & Ampah-Mensah, 2013) that majority of the school heads have not gone through a prescribed formal academic preparation in educational administration prior to their appointment and subsequent assumption of

office as substantive school heads. School heads are appointed primarily on the basis of their teaching record. The required academic knowledge of school heads remains basically undefined. Because the current requirements for becoming a school head in Ghana are broad and do not include prescribed study in school administration, the extent to which school heads in this country have studied subjects such as educational leadership, school management, school-community relations, law, and finance are essentially unknown. According to Amakyi and Ampah-Mensah, (2013) the GES policy of not having specified studies in educational administration as prerequisite for appointment as school head suggests school administration is viewed more as a non-science in Ghana. There is little interest in learning theory and applying it in running schools. School heads rely more on intuition to make important decisions.

The criteria for appointing school heads in Ghana shows that the GES has an operating assumption that, good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation. Kowalski (2008) points out that teaching experience does not ensure that a person has the technical, analytical, and human relations skills required for school administrators. Theoretical knowledge in educational administration and on-the-job experience are both required for practitioners. However, the criteria for appointing school heads in Ghana emphasize teaching experience and rank over academic professional leadership development.

According to MacBeath, Swaffield, Oduro, and Bosu (2010), the Leadership for Learning (LFL) Ghana programme, a programme aimed at developing the leadership capacities of basic school heads, advocates for school head development as a condition for appointment. MacBeath et al. lament that this dream is yet to be realized. The GES

perpetuates policy for the appointment of school heads that appears to be incongruent with demands for school heads to lead school improvement.

Sam, Amartei (2013) Ghana can boast of at least two well-established universities (i.e., the university of Cape Coast and University of Education, Winneba) that have institutes that offer programmes in educational administration. For example, the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) at the University of Cape Coast and Faculty of Educational Leadership of University of Education, Winneba run programmes in school leadership, management, and planning and conducts workshops and seminars on effective school administration practices. The courses offered at the IEPA include administrative theory and practice in education, management of educational institutions, human resource management and development, financial administration in education, research methods and educational statistics, and law and politics in education. The absence of the requirement for aspiring school heads to take prescribed courses in educational administration cannot be ascribed to the non-availability of opportunities to enroll in school administrator preparatory programmes.

2.2. General Perception held about Women in Education Leadership

The entry of women into senior levels within organizations over the last decade or so has brought this stereotype into question (Wackman, 1996, Owen and Todor 1993). Some of the perceptions which project stereotypical images of women leadership have been offered as follows:

1. Women tend to place family demands above work considerations.

2. Women work for supplemental income; as a result they lack the necessary drive to succeed in business.

3. Women tend to mix their personal and professional beliefs and feelings, and for this reason, they are accepted as emotionally not professional.

4. Women are unsuitable for top managerial positions because they are too emotional and lack some qualities necessary for managerial positions such as aggressiveness, risk-taking and decisiveness etc.

5. Women managers have self-confidence problems.

6. Women managers are not motivated through power needs but affiliation motives.

7. Women are perceived as too soft or too tough but never just right (Gune et al., 2006, p. 194)

As a result of these negative beliefs, women make slow progress up the organizational hierarchy. In addition to these stereotypes, there are some other obstacles that prevent women from reaching managerial positions, such as low participation in male networks that limits their access to decision-making processes about promotion, discrimination against women in hiring and promotion policies, and the negative attitudes of employers and subordinates towards women managers.

Aside from these negatives, the issue of under representation of women has been considered. Researchers from different parts of the world (Cubillo & Brown 2003, Fitzgerald 2003; Madsen, 2008) have given attention to the topic of women in educational leadership positions at various levels of the education ladder. Most of these studies have concluded that women are under-represented in educational leadership, and

that they face various challenges in their aspirations to attain and maintain these positions.

Moreover, with the exception of a few countries, the teaching profession is dominated by women; but despite the large numbers of women in the profession, they are greatly under-represented in positions of management (Cubillo&Brown 2003). Gender gaps in the appointment of school heads in Ghana are glaring (Addo-Adeku, 1992). The management of basic and senior high schools, including the appointment of head teachers, indicates the trend of male dominance. This disadvantaged workplace status of women is due to a set of historical, social, economic and organizational factors(Powell & Graves 2003, Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011), although the reasons for these persistent and pervasive inequalities vary somehow across national, cultural and occupational contexts. These stereotypical perceptions against women have made it difficult for most women to be appointed as heads of Senior High School. Though some women already hold leadership positions in educational institutions, the number is not proportionate compared to the number of men in leadership positions.

Despite evidence that men are typically perceived as more appropriate and effective than women in leadership positions; a recent debate has emerged in the popular press and academic literature over the potential existence of a female leadership advantage. Although the proportion of women in the workplace has increased remarkably within the past few decades, women remain vastly under-represented at the highest organizational levels (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011).

Chliwniak (1997) defined leaders as individuals who provide vision and meaning for an institution and embodies the ideals toward which the organization strives.

Traditional scholars like Birnbaum and Mintzberg (1992) viewed leaders as alike and genderless. If Chliwniak's definition is an accurate and true description of leaders, then why are women having a difficult time gaining employment as administrators in the educational arena? Do men make better administrators than women simply because they are male? Research does not support that assumption. In fact, schools administered by women on the average were superior in performance to those managed by men(Growe, 2012).

The quality of pupil learning and the professional performance of teachers appear to be higher, on the average, in schools with female administrators (Porat, 1991). Ryder (1994) described female principals as very effective and Hensel(1991) described them as capable and as productive as men in the academic arena. Some continue to hold to the belief that women are less capable, less competitive, or less productive than men.

Good school administration is more attuned to feminine than masculine modes of leadership behaviour. Female attributes of nurturing, being sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are increasingly associated with effective administration. While these characteristics are innate and valuable, women possessing the qualities of a good leader still face higher attrition and slower career mobility particularly in higher education (Porat, 1991). Data on equality of opportunity in educational administration reveals that gender, more than age, experience, background, or competence determines the role an individual will be assigned in education (Whitaker & Lane, 1990). African American women who hold leadership positions in the educational system face dual burdens of sexism and racism and confront special challenges in promotion and tenure. Race more than gender is the major obstacle

to career advancement (Allen, Jacobson, &Lomotey, 1995; Singh, Robinson, & Williams-Green, 1995).

In one school district, a Caucasian male administrator discouraged women and members of underrepresented groups from pursuing careers in administration because of the belief that women and/or minorities lacked the requisite leadership characteristics (Allen et al., 1995).

They did not fit the existing norm of being Caucasian and male. Females in positions that are male-dominated indicated there was a need to be better qualified than the males with whom they competed. African women believe they had to be twice as good as and better than others with the same aspirations. Those women who had a desire to become administrators have found their institutions and districts do not select or recruit them for training programs in the administration field, making it harder to break into the system (Allen et al., 1995; Lindsay, 1999).

There has been a rise in the hiring of women and minorities as superintendents and in administrative positions. Proportionately more women tend to occupy superintendence in the smallest and least cosmopolitan districts, with the fewest central office administrators, declining student enrollments, more reported stress on the job, less satisfaction, and the greatest vulnerability lethal to school board conflict. African women are being hired in troubled urban institutions with inadequate financial resources or institutions with a large concentration of minority students who are economically disadvantaged and have low achievement test scores (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996; Wesson, 1998).

2.3. Leadership Styles Female heads Employ in their Administration

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. As seen by the employees, it includes the total pattern of explicit and implicit actions performed by their leader (Newstrom, Davis, 1993). Mankoe (2007), sees leadership styles the general ways in which a leader behaves towards subordinates in order to attain organization objectives. Kossan (1991) as cited in Mankoe observes that many leaders face the problem of balancing the two values of participating and decisiveness. The types of leadership styles are:

2.3.1. Autocratic Leadership Style

According to Afful-Broni (2004), a leader with this style centralizes power and authority in the management. The leader gets others to do what he or she directs with little or no scope on their part of those directed for influencing the decision. The leader takes decisions with little or no group participation. This makes decision making very quick. To get results, an authoritarian leader may use fear, threats, either actual or implied, the authority and prestige inherent in his or her organizational position or the vigour of his own forceful personality. This style is good for inefficient subordinates because their weaknesses are not revealed.

Kesson (1991), cited in Mankoe (2007) refers to autocratic managers as tellers. The autocrat deliberately appeals to the lower-level needs of subordinates on the assumption that this is the level on which they operate.

2.3.2. Democratic Leadership Style

The leader seeks to lead mainly by persuasion and example rather than force, fear, status or power. He considers the opinions and feelings of his followers, makes them feel important and attempts to put group and individual goals above his own personal objectives. Studies have shown that the democratic style of leadership gives subordinates greater job satisfaction and enables them to co-operate better. There is however doubt as to whether decisions taken under this sort of leadership are better.

According to Afful-Broni (2004), there is a lot of collaboration and consultation, and all along, the leader does not impose his ideas on the subjects. He ensures that there are sufficient incentives for workers openness prevails, and there is respect for the opinions of people at all levels in the organization.

2.3.3. Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

Laissez-faire is a French expression meaning "leave it alone". A laissez-faire leader does just that. The leader gives the subordinates virtually total freedom to select their objectives and monitor their own work. With free-rein approach, the leader presents a task to group members who ordinarily work out their own techniques for accomplishing those goals with framework of organizational objectives and policies (Mankoe, 2007).

Kossan (1991) observes that the leader acts principally as a liaison between outside sources and the group and ascertains what necessary resources are available to them. This type of leadership allows people to do what they wish. The leader gives complete freedom to his followers and supervision is very little. He or she works under

no physical or emotional stress. He hardly identifies errors in order to correct them. Followers of this leader are likely to take over the position of the leader illegally. Subordinates are less efficient and do less and poorer work.

2.4.1. Women and Men Leadership Styles

The presence and status of women in paid employment has improved dramatically over the last half century. However, the progression of professional women into positions of leadership has been slow. Since men and women have different leadership styles, the variances do not mean that one has dominance over the other. The difference may be due in part to men seeing leadership as leading and women seeing leadership as facilitating (Schaef, 1985).

Although male and female administrators perform many of the same tasks in carrying out their work, different aspects of the job are emphasized (Chliwniak, 1997). Women embrace relationships, sharing, and process, but men focus on completing tasks, achieving goals, hoarding of information, and winning (Chliwniak, 1997). Women educational administrators focus on instructional leadership in supervisory practices and are concerned with students' individual differences, knowledge of curriculum teaching methods, and the objectives of teaching (Conner, 1992). In the area of instructional leadership, women spend more years as principals and teachers, and have more degrees than men; they emphasize the importance of curriculum and instruction in their work (Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996). Women leaders focus on instructional leadership, men more often emphasize organizational matters (Conner, 1992).

Men in leadership positions tend to lead from the front, attempting to have all the answers for their subordinates. Women lean toward facilitative leadership, enabling others to make their contributions through delegation, encouragement, and nudging from behind (Porat, 1991). Because women's main focus is on relationships, they interact more frequently than men with teachers, students, parents, non-parent community members, professional colleagues, and super-ordinates (Conner, 1992). Men, on the other hand, stress task accomplishment (Conner,1992) and they tend to lead through a series of concrete exchanges that involved rewarding employees for a job well done and punishing them for an inadequate job performance (Getskow, 1996). Many women support contributive, consensual decision making and emphasize the process, but men tend to lean toward majority rule and tend to emphasize the product, the goal (Porat, 1991). Men utilize the traditional top-down administrative style (Eakle, 1995) women are more interested in transforming people's self-interest into organizational goals by encouraging feelings of self-worth, active participation, and sharing of power and information (Getskow, 1996). Women spend more time in unscheduled meetings, visible on school campus, and observing teachers considerably more than male principals (Ryder, 1994). Women heads are more likely to interact with their staff and spend more time in the classroom or with teachers discussing the academic and curricular areas of instruction. Women heads are more likely to influence teachers to use more desirable teaching methods.

2.4.2. Women leadership behaviours

Aburdene and Naisbitt (1992) described behaviour that characterizes women's leadership. The behaviour clustered in six central patterns has been identified as behaviours that empower, restructure, teach, provide role models, encourage openness, and stimulate questioning. Gillet-Karam (1994), on the other hand, used four behaviours: (a) a vision behaviour–in this category, women leaders would take appropriate risks to bring about change; (b) a people behaviour–women leaders provide care and respect for individual differences; (c) influence behaviour–women are acting collaboratively; values behaviour in which women leaders spend time building trust and openness (Getskow, 1996).

No matter how the leadership behaviours of women are delineated, the fact is that women do possess the capabilities and skills to be excellent educational administrators. Gross and Trask (1976) listed capabilities of women in leadership as:

1. Women principals have a greater knowledge of and concern for instructional supervision.

2. Superiors and teachers preferred women over men.

3. Students' academic performance and teachers' professional performance rated higher under women principals.

4. Women were more effective administrators.

5. Supervisors and teachers preferred the decision-making and problem-solving behaviours of women.

6. Women principals were more concerned with helping deviant pupils.

7. Women principals placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation

2.5. Barriers that confront Women in Educational Leadership and Measures to overcome them.

The disadvantages women are subjected to appear not to have anything to do with the requirements for positions of leadership, except only to perpetuate a false perception that women lack the personality and the experience needed when faced with tough situations. Challenging situations demand unwavering decisions and actions taken by any person possessing qualities such as determination, fairness, confidence, honesty, assertiveness, discipline, steadfastness, decisiveness and aggressiveness. In putting the problems faced by women into perspective, Wisker (1996:90) pertinently argues that "women are under-represented in higher and middle management positions in higher education, even in the current post-feminist climate when many people claim there is no need to assert that equality must continue to be striven for." The rest of this article focuses on the following barriers which represent faulty perceptions of the true positions regarding women:

1. Poor self-image: which is a factor attributed more to women than to men;

2. Lack of assertiveness: as a habit associated with women than men;

3. Less career orientation: as a sign of less interest in women as leaders;

4. Less confidence: as an argument that women, unlike men, generally lack the will to achieve;

5. Poor performance: a myth used as an excuse for employing less women in demanding occupations;

6. Discrimination: as a sign of low interest in the recruitment of women into leadership positions; and

7. Demotion: as a form of punishment thought to suit women better as they are perceived to be lazy and arrogant.

Another touching issue affecting women in leadership is glass ceiling, glass wall, or a glass floor, there appears to be a barrier blocking senior women leaders in higher education from ascending to the heads (Clark, 2006). This glass ceiling appears to be a form of discrimination affecting women in higher education and is an important area of study identifying women's lack of access to power and leadership status in higher educational administration. The term "the glass ceiling" refers to invisible or artificial barriers that prevent women from advancing past a certain level (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission- FGCC, 1997; Morrison & von Glinow, 1990). The glass ceiling is a problem that many women in higher education leadership encounter, invisible barriers, created by "attitudinal and organizational prejudices", which block women from senior executive positions (Wirth, 2001).

According to Dominici, Fried, and Zeger (2009), women's under representation in academic leadership positions raises the questions about root causes for the persistence of gender inequity at the highest ranks of academic leadership. However, fewer studies have formally probed the experiences of women occupying the positions of school heads, presidents, vice presidents, chancellors, and provost to allow their voices to be heard in reference to this phenomenon called the glass ceiling.

Women in leadership confront barriers or obstacles that men do not realize exist. Some myths suggest women cannot discipline older students, particularly males; females are too emotional; too weak physically; and males resent working with females (Whitaker & Lane, 1990). After the myths are dispelled, the "glass ceiling barrier" that limits women from achieving high ranking position must be overcome (Cullen & Luna, 1993).

Society's attitude toward appropriate male and female roles is another obstacle that identifies women as not task-oriented enough, too dependent on feedback and evaluations of others, and lacking independence. Women receive little or no encouragement to seek leadership positions, while men were encouraged to enter administration to a greater degree than women, despite the positive perceptions of principals toward female capabilities. This lack of encouragement exists even though women who earn doctorates are more likely than men to desire an academic career, but are not being hired at equal rates. The cumulative disadvantage results in women leaving the profession in greater numbers than men. The lack of formal and informal social networks, or not being a member of the "clubs" as men, results in the lack of recognition that often leads to advancement. Administration involves hard work, long hours, and lots of in-house politics which is stress provoking, when child care and home responsibilities are added, a woman can work 70 or more hours per week that may conflict with family responsibilities. Since some administrative positions are located in another city or state, one barrier is the reluctance of women to relocate. The lack of support from the school board, the attitude of a few women administrators that, "we don't hire the competition," the isolation associated with minority status, sex-typed expectations, and gender bias, the enormous amount of stress that is part of the job, and the lonely at the top feelings are

barriers women face. There also exists a lack of role models and mentors due to the fact that there is not a large amount of women in administrative positions (Cullen & Luna, 1993; Eakle, 1995; Hensel, 1991; Ryder, 1994; Tallerico & Burstyn, 1996; Whitaker & Lane, 1990; Williams, 1990).

2.5.1 Individual perspective

The individual perspective' overarching them is that men and women are different. This perspective is also referred to as gender-centered. Gilligan (1982) espoused that whether women's unique qualities are derived from sex-role socialization, from actual life experiences, or are biologically determined; women are different and view the world differently from men. For example, Gilligan (1982) noted that men are more likely to make moral choices on the basis of impersonal rules of fairness and rights. In contrast, women are more likely to make decisions out of concern for specific individuals and within the context of the situation. Women, therefore, value connectedness and relationships. In addition, Rothschild (1987) concurred with Gilligan that women have been conditioned to listen and to be responsive to the concerns of others. Thus, women tend to have strong group skills that enable them to turn to group problem solving, consensus building, and democratic ways of managing operations.

An invisible ceiling for women ascension to upper leadership positions in higher education administration may be stereotypes associated with these perceived differences in men and women. Women are identified with the home and the care of small children, and men are identified with the greater working environment. The work and world of men have generally been valued over that of women, so that work identified with women

is perceived as inferior, and stereotypes about women tend to give them lesser status to the public world (Coleman, 2004).

However, Grant (1988), noted that the qualities associated with women can be valuable to organizations. For example, women find means of conciliation with others rather than getting involved with confrontation. Feminist theories value women's perspectives and experiences, eliminating false dichotomies or artificial separation (Hooyman & Cunningham, 1986; Hyde, 1989; Weil, 1988). The individual perspective also includes the leadership styles associated with men and women.

According to Manz and Sims (1991), a traditional leadership style associated with men relies on hierarchical structure of organization in which directives and communications flow through formal channels and decision-making authority is concentrated at the top. However, a relationship-oriented style is considered more appropriate in today's organization, resulting in "increased employee performance and innovation flowing from enhanced commitment, motivation, and employee capability" (p. 33). Interestingly, the preferred leadership style is associated with how women lead (Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1990). Organizations are advised to take advantage of women's natural abilities and the qualities they bring. Rosener (1990) exclaimed, "As the workforce becomes more complex and the economic environment increasingly requires rapid change, interactive leadership may emerge as the management style of choice for many organizations" (p. 125). In summary, while it is an accepted fact that there may be a cross-cultural set of traits distinctive of women, Holmstrom (1990) suggests that there is not truly a distinctive women's nature" (p. 76). She argues that women and men have as many similarities as differences and women do not just belong to a biological or

socially constructed group. Holmstrom argues that women also belong to distinct social classes, races, and cultures, and may identify with these groups more strongly than with sex or gender. While there are distinct traits associated with women's nature, it does not mean that every woman has such a nature.

2.5.2. Cultural Perspective

The cultural perspective suggests that organizational context, which includes culture, ideology, and policies is relevant in explaining women's limited success in attaining high-level positions (Timmers, Willemsen, & Tijdens, 2010). Previous research (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Willemsen, 2002) has demonstrated that while management in organizations is represented as gender-neutral, it often involves practices that are consistent with characteristics traditionally valued in men. Metcalfe and Slaughter (2008) found that women gain in areas associated with peer-reviewed knowledge, but they do not gain as well in rich academic areas associated with commercial research.

Crowley and Himmelweit (1992) found that women managers often confront patriarchal ideologies that link womanhood with unpaid work, marriage and the family, and justify women in lower management positions with limited authority and opportunity. In addition, women managers are often marginalized by a work situation characterized by mostly male peers. These women often feel like "outsiders on the inside" (Moore, 1988).

Another cultural perspective that may influence women's advancement in academia is societal factors. The 1994 World Yearbook of Education, titled, *The Gender Gap in Higher Education*, highlights societal factors that may influence the advancement

of women in academia: the egalitarianism of the national culture and the relative successes of women in gaining access to prestigious positions in higher education. Thus, egalitarianism and empowerment may enhance the potential of women's career advancement. While these societal factors may increase the opportunity for women, the processes in the academy are what determine whether women succeed or fail in storming the academic tower.

2.5.3. Structural Perspective

The structural perspective concerns the nature of organizational structures and the organization of work, rather than individuals or gender roles (Timmers, Willemsen, & Tijdens, 2010). However, over three decades ago, Kanter (1977) argued that, to a large degree, organizations make their workers into who they are. What appear to be sex differences in the work behaviour emerge as responses to structural conditions; to one's place in the organization. In other words, Kanter (1977) locates a large measure of the responsibility for the behaviours people engage in at work and their fate inside organizations in the structure of work systems themselves. Researchers have taken different positions related to the impact of organizations on the career advancement of women. Iannello (1992) suggested that the authoritarian nature of the bureaucracy destroys any prospective organizational benefits for women. Furthermore, she argued that the span of control and singular authority are detrimental to women because they limit access to the decision-making process.

Similarly, Acker (1990) suggested that bureaucracies serve to consciously hide the fact that solely masculine traits are needed to be successful in their organizations.

Both of these women are suggesting a flatter organizational structure and less bureaucracy. However, liberal feminists do not view hierarchy and bureaucracy as intrinsically anti-feminist while radical, socialist, and lesbian feminists do (Martin, 1990). One's position on the impact of organizational structure on the career advancement of women rests largely in whether or not one holds the belief that the individual makes the organization or the organization shapes the individual. Is the bureaucrat gendered or the bureaucratic structure?

2.5.4. Organizational Barriers

Some argue that the glass ceiling is more of a societal blocker than an individual barrier. Still others argue that corporate culture or organizational barriers are to blame (T&D, 2006). Organizational barriers refer to the organizational-level factors that affect the differential hiring and promotion of men and women. While these barriers vary significantly from organization to organization, they can create a huge roadblock preventing women from advancement to top management (Baker, 2003). Some of these organizational barriers are;

Selection process: One of the most common and well known barriers to career advancement is that of the selection process used by most companies. As indicated previously, the pool of women that are qualified for promotion to executive positions is quite small and therefore women simply cannot be promoted. According to Burke and Nelson (2000), 82% of firms stated that lack of general management skills and line experience was a major contributing factor in their decisions not to promote women.

However, another study finds some firms have a large pool of qualified women and simply do not consider them for the position (Burke, et al., 2000). Another rationale is that existing top management positions are held by men who tend to promote other men who are similar to themselves (Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002).

Workplace relationships: Another organizational barrier is the relationships many women have with their mentors, bosses, and female co-workers. Most employees tend to bond through similar interests. Since there tend to be few executive women; many women are unable to find a female mentor. Laff (2006) finds that women are inhibited in the workplace because of their limited access to capable mentors. Many people prefer to have mentors of the same gender because they tend to understand the challenges most commonly faced. Men do not face the same barriers, have the same family issues, and many times simply do not want to mentor a woman. The needs of women from their mentors also tend to differ from the needs of men. Many women claim to need more encouragement, an example to follow, and simply more tasks to complete. Male mentors tend to be resistant to mentor a woman because they perceive women as more emotional, not as skilled at problem-solving, and because of the risk of workplace sexual harassment issues (Hanson, 2008).

Globalization: Globalization presents many new barriers for women. Senior level managers and top executives now have even more responsibility and higher expectations than before. Due to the time pressures and relocations of many businesses, top executives have had to move to new towns, cities, and countries.

This presents a large barrier for many women with families and a working spouse or significant other (Wellington, Kropg, & Gerkovich, 2003). Perhaps more surprisingly, the largest problem, however, has not been family issues; it has been adoption of new cultures and social norms. While the natural ability of women to adapt is higher than that of men, a large number of women have been unable to accept the culture shock and fail in their new environments.

Similarly, women may also experience resistance in other cultures to female leadership. Many countries will simply not deal with a women executive because of their beliefs and perceptions that women are incapable of doing business effectively (Strout, 2001).

Internal motivation: Many senior executive and top management claim that women simply do not have a desire to excel in their current job positions. However, a recent study indicated that 55% of women not in management positions desire to be in the top most levels of their organizations. Annis (2008) finds many women lose their drive to excel due to the many obstacles met along the path of becoming a manager. These obstacles include discrimination, stereotyping, prejudice, family demands, and lack of opportunities (Emory, 2008).

Life-style conflicts: For many women, in addition to the roles they hold in their companies, they remain the primary caretakers for their families (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2009). As the time constraints and demands of a job become more important upon promotion forces many women to choose between family and career. According to Jack and Welch (2007), very few women CEOs and women executives have children due

to the affect it would have on their career. Conversely, many women have voluntarily left their jobs due to family decisions (Baxter, 2000; Wallace, 2008). While a decreasing number of women are taking pregnancy or childcare leaves, 32% of women still leave their jobs once they have children. Also, once a woman has children she is much more reluctant to travel and work long hours due to their responsibilities at home further hindering her promotion likelihood (Woodard, 2007; Hewlett, 2002; Lyons & McArthur, 2005).

Stereotyping and leadership styles: Past perceptions of leadership skills, competence, and assertiveness may hinder the ability of women to succeed in management. Many companies associate masculine characteristics with success and achievement. These include assertiveness, aggressiveness, and task-oriented leadership abilities (Jogulu & Wood 2006; Envick, 2008). Other stereotypes of women include the expectation of being modest, quiet, selfless, and nurturing (Eagly & Carl, 2003). These simple characteristics may be seen as non- executive material. Entities desire a leader who will execute, take criticism, and do what is best for the company at all cost (Nelson & Levesque 2007).

Leadership styles are closely associated with common perceptions and stereotypes of women leaders (Goff, 2005; Henderson, 2004). In early 1990 studies found that men emerged as task-oriented leaders more frequently than women who emerged as social leaders more frequently than men (Marrujo & Kliender, 1992). Due to the demands of leadership positions, it became a socially accepted tendency for men to assume leadership because their task-oriented style was more widely accepted (Ryan & Haslan, 2007). As

time moved on, the social leadership style of women was more accepted and valued in some circumstances (Jogulu & Wood, 2006).

One of the most comprehensive inquiries into personalities and leadership issues is the "Big Five" personality traits. The five factors include openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Cross-cultural researched has concluded there is a universal pattern of sex differences on responses to the Big Five Inventory. Women consistently report higher neuroticism and agreeableness, and men often report higher extraversion and conscientiousness. Sex-based differences in personality traits are larger in prosperous, healthy, and egalitarian cultures in which women have more opportunities that are equal to those of men (VonGlinow, et al., 2006; Wikipedia, 2008).

2.6. Ways of overcoming barriers towards women heads

The World Summit for Social Development, held in Copenhagen in 1995, took gender equity as the core strategy for social and economic development and environmental protection. The 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing, reiterated the importance of these new options, drawing up an agenda to strengthen the status of women and adopting a declaration and platform for action aimed at overcoming the barriers to gender equity and guaranteeing women's active participation in all spheres of life. Governments, the international community and civil society, including NGOs and the private sector, were called upon to take strategic action in the following critical areas of concern.

Mentoring

One answer to the barriers and obstacles women administrators deal with on a daily basis is mentoring. In order for women to succeed in acquiring administrative positions in education, mentoring must occur. Murray (1991) posited that mentoring can develop either in a structured environment or can be a result of spontaneous relationships. Mentoring is an invaluable resource for the recruitment and preparation of women for school heads. Research confirmed that women with outstanding credentials can find it difficult to rise for upper leadership positions without having been vouched for by powerful individuals in leadership positions (Moore, 1988).

Lane (2002), noted that mentorship can help aspiring female school heads to replace those school heads who are approaching retirement. It is crucial that women help others to understand obstacles and show appreciation for each other by realizing women's resources, strengths, and skills. Consequently, a need exists for women to encourage others and move forward by building on existing success (Haynes & Haynes, 2004). Preparation for higher administration positions usually does not happen accidentally. Scanlon's (1997) study on women mentoring revealed that women administrators in higher education who had several mentors found their experience valuable in facilitating their movement up the career ladder. Mentoring increased their visibility among those who were in leadership roles and also met a variety of their needs.

Women not only benefited from having several mentors but also from having different types of mentoring relationships (Hansman, 1998; Swobada & Miller, 1986). Furthermore, Hansman (1998) reported that diverse mentoring relationships can address women's psychosocial, career, and personal development needs. Psychosocial mentors

can enhance mentees' self-confidence and provide emotional support. Career-related mentors can provide career advice and mentees exposure and visibility; whereas, peer mentors can offer collegiality, friendship, and emotional support (Hansman, 1998; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Quinlan, 1999). In summary, mentoring and being mentored are career development activities that help women to advance up the academic administrative ladder (Brown, Ummerson, & Sturnick, 2001).

The advantages of mentoring are felt not only by the mentees and their organization, but by the mentors themselves. They experience the fulfillment of passing along hard-earned wisdom, influencing the next generation of upper management, and receiving appreciation from a younger worker (Cullen & Luna, 1993; Hagevik, 1998; Whitaker & Lane, 1990).

It is not uncommon for women to have male mentors, but the best mentors for women are other women, because women interacting and sharing experiences and knowledge are significant. Though male mentors readily encouraged women to become school heads, they did not eagerly support them when seeking a position at the secondary level. The mentoring experience must help women develop self-esteem, aggressive managerial personalities, and non-traditional attitudes about women and employment. The nurturing of attitudes and characteristics would allow for success in the organization, whereas the male counterpart exhibited personalities that made it easier to advance. The use of mentors to assist present and future leaders is a powerful tool that may be used to bring about more effective school practice (Cullen & Luna, 1993; Daresh & Playko, 1990; Whitaker & Lane, 1990).

Mentoring is important because;

a. Mentoring can significantly enhance income and promoting possibilities for individuals experiencing these relationships.

b. Mentoring can meet the needs of both women and institutions, and it can also assist in attracting and retaining women and minority professionals in the academic work environment.

c. Mentoring of younger workers reduces turnover, helps mentees deal with organizational issues, and accelerates their assimilation into the culture.

d. The mentees (those women being mentored) benefit because someone cares enough to support them, advise them and help interpret inside information.

Besides these, in order to remedy this problem Tsoka (1999) recommends that, society should regard the work of female managers just as valuable asthat of male managers. Ouston (1993) also advises that, getting women into top jobs demands strategic planning, for it does not just happen through goodwill or good intentions. In other words, more than one approach is needed to reduce or arrest the existing in equalities in leadership positions in the education profession. Furthermore, it has become not only imperative, but really pressing to deliberately create more suitable role-models in leadership positions for the women to emulate than is the case at present. In this respect, Tsoka (1999) recommends that, training centers should be established with a bias towards empowering more women in managerial position. Interestingly, in Sudan a special University has been established to cater only for women. Zimbabwe too, has decided to establish a University as from 2002 that will be dedicated only to the upliftment of women. In other words, the

issue of women empowerment is taken seriously in certain countries. This should be seen as a good example to emulate.

In the final analysis, what also needs to be done is to redefine and renegotiate the role and function of women with regard to how they can positively contribute to society's prosperity through positions of leadership in the education profession. Also, there should be an intervention in the form of mentoring, workshops, seminars and in-service training that are geared specifically at empowering women and especially those that have the potential to make it to the top as leaders in the field of education. Directly put, equal education opportunities, including equal education standards, should be available to all (Education Renewal Strategy, 1992). Hence, this research advocates for a positive attitude towards women who aspire to become leaders. In other words, women who want to become leaders should be encouraged, motivated and supported, rather than held back only because of negative perceptions. In short, this research pleads for a change of mind set in this regard.
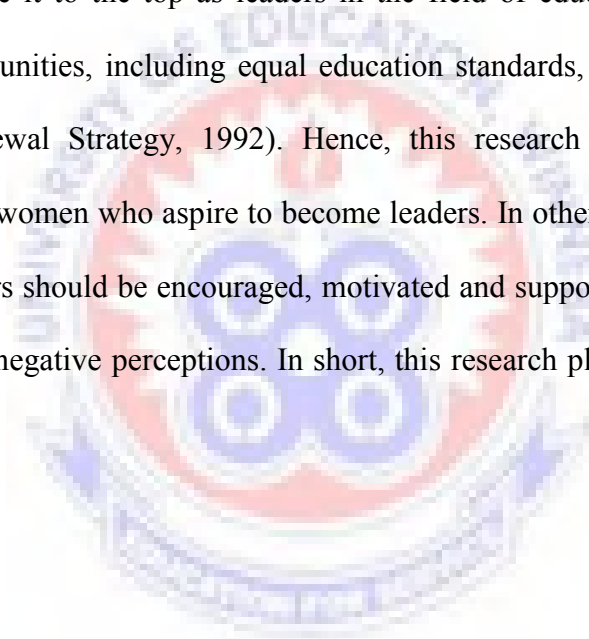
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of the study. The methodology was influenced by the purpose of this study and was based on an assessment of the optimal strategy for responding to the research questions.

3.1.Research Design

Burns and Grove (2003) define a research design as a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings. Parahoo (1997) describes a research design as a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analyzed. Polit, Beck and Hungler (2001) also define a research design as the researcher's overall plan for answering the research questions or testing the research hypothesis. Research designs are very important in research work as they are usually employed by the researcher to obtain answers to the research questions. Research design is the overall plan employed by the researcher to obtain answers to the research questions and for testing the hypothesis formulated (Agyedu, Donkor & Obeng, 2011).

This study was a descriptive survey which sought to find out stereotypical perception of the leadership of female heads of senior high school in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality of the Upper East Region of Ghana. This design was chosen

because it was deemed to be one of the most appropriate designs which could help the researcher answer the research questions.

Burns and Grove (2003:201) explain that, descriptive research is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens. It may be used to justify current practice and make judgment and also to develop theories. This task deals with intangible variables or constructs that are not directly observable but must be inferred from indirect measures.

3.2. Population

The population for the study included three heads out of the seven, and some selected teachers of second cycle institutions in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality. Though descriptive survey, the researcher adopted census survey in getting the population of the study since all the heads of the seven public second cycle institutions were used for the study.

3.3.Sample and Sampling Procedure

Polit et al. (2001) define a sample as a proportion of a population. The sample was chosen from heads and some selected teachers of some second cycle institutions in the Kassena- Nankana Municipality. A carefully selected sample can provide data representative of the population from which it is drawn.

Holloway and Wheeler (2002) assert that sample size does not influence the importance or quality of the study and note that there are no guidelines in determining sample size in research. Sampling goes on until saturation has been achieved, namely no new information is generated (Holloway, 1997).

Selection of the respondents was a great factor in the study. In order to achieve even and fair generalization of findings, purposive sampling process was employed to form the study population. Purposive sampling is most appropriate when the sampling units within the segment of the population have the most information of the characteristics (specific experience, knowledge, skills, exposure to and event etc.) of interest. Parahoo (1997) describes purposive sampling as a method of sampling where the researcher deliberately chooses who to include in the study based on their ability to provide necessary data. The rationale for choosing this approach was that the researcher was seeking knowledge about stereotypical perception of the leadership of female heads of senior high school in the Kassena- Nankana Municipality of the Upper East Region of Ghana. In this study the total number of different categories of sample that was listed is 93.The list include 90 teachers and three heads. The researcher worked in conjunction with the heads of the various schools in choosing participants, based on their managerial roles and number of years in the school as well as their qualifications. Sampling of the participants was done as follows:

1. The researcher sought the assistance of the heads to identify potential participants.

2. Possible participants were selected after the researcher pre-select participants according to their managerial roles, number of years taught in the school and qualification.

3. The research project was explained to the prospective participants who were on the short- list and they asked personally if they wanted to take part in the research.

4. In the event of a problem with identifying participants who meet the criteria for selection for the study, each eligible participant was asked to refer colleagues with similar experience.

3.4. Research Instrument

According to Parahoo (1997), a research instrument is a tool used to collect data. An instrument is a tool designed to measure knowledge attitude and skills. In this study the research instrument was the primary data collection instrument because the data from participants are words in the context of the research problem (Holloway & Wheeler2002).

Questionnaire and interview was basically the instruments used to gather data from the respondents. Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) state that in a questionnaire, the subjects respond to the questions by writing or making marks. It has the advantage of being given to large number of respondents at the same time. The choice of this instrument was deemed appropriate for this study because the time at the disposal was limited while the sample sizes of the respondents were all literates.

This study employed Likert's (1967) *model of human organizational dimension* known as system 4. Likert believed in the importance of the interaction-influence process and the team approach to leadership. Likert's research formed the foundation for subsequent studies in areas of participative leadership or interactive leadership (Rosener, 1990; Eagly & Carli, 2003). The study employed open-ended and closed-ended questionnaire items. The closed ended-items were in the form of Likert type with a range of between 4 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The questionnaires were

administered to the participants (teachers) with the permission of the heads. The respondents were given two weeks to complete the questionnaires.

Interview was also administered to the heads of the sampled schools. The purpose of the research interview was to explore the views, experiences, beliefs and/or motivations of individuals on specific matters. Qualitative methods, such as interviews, are believed to provide a 'deeper' understanding of social phenomena than would be obtained from purely quantitative methods, such as questionnaires (Silverman, 2000). Interviews are, therefore, most appropriate where little is already known about the study phenomenon or where detailed insights are required from individual participants. They are also particularly appropriate for exploring sensitive topics, where participants may not want to talk about such issues in a group environment.

Semi-structured interview was adopted for the study. Semi-structured interviews consist of several key questions that help to define the areas to be explored, but also allows the interviewer or interviewee to diverge in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail (Britten 1999). The flexibility of this approach, particularly compared to structured interviews, also allows for the discovery or elaboration of information that is important to participants but may not have previously been thought of as pertinent by the research team.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Questionnaire and interview were the main instruments selected for the study. These data collection instruments were used to ultimately capture information relevant to the objectives of the study. The questionnaires were administered the participants

(teachers) with the permission and assistance of the school head. This approach was adopted as the researcher planned to personally visit the work places of the respondents to administer the questionnaire. This approach may not offer the researcher the opportunity to explain key issues and technical terminologies of great concern to the respondents. However, it may be easier for the researcher to make a follow up for successful retrieval of most of the questionnaire. One week grace period was given for the completion of the questionnaire and subsequently for their retrieval. Respondents who were not able to complete their questionnaire were given three extra days for completion.

The researcher had a schedule with the heads of the schools to administer the interview. Due to the tight schedule of some of the heads, the intention of interview was conveyed   via telephone as they so chose.

3.6. Data Analysis

The data collected was edited, coded, analyze and presented in tables, graphs, charts and consequently discussed quantitatively. This enabled the researcher answer the research questions which guided the study. Data collected was edited, coded and analyzed using frequency distribution and percentage tables. The questionnaire items were analyzed and described item-by-item.

With regards to the interview, the researcher recorded every bit of the interview in addition to notes that were taken. The recordings were played and checked for consistency and put into themes according to the research questions which were answered. Narrative and textual analysis such as interpretive and content analysis were

used in analyzing the data got. The results of the data analysis were then be presented and

discussed in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of the research is to assess stereotypical perception of the leadership of female heads of senior high school in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality of Upper East Region of Ghana. The total number of different categories of sample that were listed was 93. The list included 90 teachers and three headmasters. However, out of the 90 sampled teachers one questionnaire was not returned. Thus the analysis was based on only 89 respondents. Questionnaire and interviews were the main instruments used for the study. The analysis of the data was categorized into two main parts. The first part deals with the biographic data of the respondents and the second part was based on the research questions of the study.

4.1. Characteristics of Respondents

This section basically considered the respondents to the research instruments. The personal information used include: Sex, Qualification, Years of teaching experience and Managerial role for the teachers and the Heads. This is presented in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 shows the bio data of the respondents. It shows that out of 92 respondents; 79% of them were males while 21% were females. This indicates that, there were fewer females teaching in these schools. With regards to their ages, 62% of the respondents were 39 years and below while 38% were 40years and above. This shows that, majority

of the teachers in these schools were young thus, can gather a lot of experience as they progress unto management level.

With regards to their level of qualification, the table shows that out of the 92 respondents sampled none of the respondents had PhD/EdD whereas; 60 of the respondents representing 65% have first degree and 32 respondents representing 35% have second degree. This indicates that most of the respondents to the research instruments have good academic qualifications to handle their respective roles.

Also, out of the 92 respondents' only 10 of them representing 11% have less than two years' teaching experience 18 respondents representing 20% have two to three years, 30 respondents representing 33% have four to six years and 34 respondents representing 37% have seven years and above teaching experience.

Table 4.1: Bio data of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Valid percentage
Sex		
Males	73	79
Females	19	21
		100
Age		
29 years and below	12	13
30 - 39 years	45	49
40 - 49 years	25	27
50 years and above	10	10
Total		100
Qualification		
1st Degree	60	65
2nd Degree	32	35
Total		100
Years of Teaching Experience		
Less than 2 years	10	11
2 – 3 years	18	20
4 – 6 years	30	33
7 years and above	34	36
Total		100

Source: Field study 2016

4.2. Discussion of Research Questions

Research Question 1: What are the criteria for the appointment of heads of educational institutions?

Research question 1 sought to elicit responses on criteria for the appointment of heads of educational institutions. The mean rating for each of the items on criteria for the appointment of heads of educational institutions and the mean value for every item was computed and compared with the theoretical mean rating of 2.50 (assuming normal

distribution of responses). If the mean value exceeded the theoretical mean rating of 2.50, it was an indication of a disagreement by respondents on that particular item. On the other hand, if the mean value was less than the theoretical mean of 2.50, then it was an indication of an agreement by respondents on that particular item (See Table 4.2).The results that appear in there indicated that majority of the items had mean values of less than the theoretical mean of 2.50. This meant respondents agreed with most of the items.

For example, respondents agreed with the item 'Heads should be a professional graduate teacher with satisfactory work history and conduct within the GES' which has a mean value of 1.6222 (SD = .57560). This was an indication of an agreement with the statement by the respondents. Only one item had theoretical mean values above the mean rating of 2.50. This item 'Heads should have served at the rank of deputy director for at least 2 years.' has a mean of 2.8444 (SD = .82450). This item showed an indication of disagreement by respondents. The results are displayed in Table 4.2.

In an interview on the criteria for the appointment of heads of educational institutions, some of the respondents (heads) have these to say;

> *My appointment as a head was not on a silver plata. I went through the qualification criteria before I was encourage to apply. Some of the qualifications that were considered include;*
> *Being a professional graduate teacher with good work records*
> *Being an assistant headmaster / mistress or a unit head for not less than 2 years.*
> *Not be over the age of 55 years at the time he or she applies for the position.*

This was what another had to say on the same question;

Before you are considered for appointment as a school head, you need to have gone through a prescribed course some of these areas; organizational theories, management and administration; management and supervision of curriculum implementation; human resources management; educational action research; financial management and economics of education; management of material resources; school management and leadership; educational policy and legislation; guidance and counseling; and development studies. However, even if you have all these without the basic qualification of being a graduate professional teacher, you won't be qualified.

To another the criterion for the appointment of school heads is categories into three. This is what that respondent has to say:

Qualification of the school head is based on three factors;
- ✓ *Professional qualification*
- ✓ *Academic qualification and*
- ✓ *Work experience*

To be able to work effectively, you need to know the tit bits of the work that you are supposed to do. Just like medical doctors, you can't practice if you are not a professional. You need adequate knowledge on school administration, management and supervision; and assessment. How do you supervised if you don't have the requisite knowledge on what the teachers are teaching the students, how do you correct them if the go wrong. You need enough academic knowledge to supervise well. Without experience, how do you give examples? So to me, you need professional qualification, academic qualification and experience as criteria to qualify for appointment as a school head.

The responses go to attest Chaplain (2003) that, the school head along with the senior management team are charged with strategic planning, including determining the direction of the school (leadership) as well as organising the day-day running of the

school (management). Thus, the job of a school head requires mastery of certain ideas and processes, and in education, they are addressed in professional preparation programmes.

Unlike Chaplain, this researcher also agrees with Lashway (2006) in the qualification of a school head which should include a period of formal preparation to serve as a socialization tool enables aspiring school leaders to consciously confront the issues they will face as school heads. This will equip them with adequate knowledge, skills, and disposition in human relations and personnel domains, ability to communicate (e.g., shared vision), resolve conflicts, motivate employees, manage teams, select, evaluate, and further develop faculty and staff.

To Kowalski (2008) teaching experience alone does not ensure that a person has the technical, analytical, and human relations skills required for school administrators. This is in line with assertion by Amakyi and Ampah-Mensah, (2013) that the qualification of school head should be based on two-alternate paths. One path consists of an aspiring school head obtaining a bachelor's degree in education (professional). The alternate path consists of the aspiring school head obtaining a bachelor's degree in a field other than education, and 12 semester hours of prescribed courses in education (academic).

Table 4.2: Criteria for appointment of heads of educational institutions (n=89)

Questionnaire Items	Frequency of responses		Mean $(\bar{X})$	Standard Deviation (SD)
	Strongly agree /Agree 1 2 (%)	Disagree/ Strongly disagree 3 4 (%)		
1. Heads should be a professional graduate teacher with satisfactory work history and conduct within the GES.	95.6	4.4	1.6222	.57560
2. Heads should have served at the rank of deputy director for at least 2 years.	28.9	71.1	2.8444	.82450
3. Heads should have served as an assistant headmaster/mistress, unit head at the headquarters, or an equivalent position for at least 3 cumulative years.	86.7	13.3	1.9111	.66818
4. Heads should not be over the age of 58 years at the time he or she applies for the position.	95.6	4.4	1.8444	.47461
5. Prescribed courses to prepare school heads focus on concepts and procedures school heads must know and use to increase student achievement and to meet the demands of new accountability systems.	93.3	6.7	1.8444	
6. Appointed school heads are usually selected from the ranks of teachers who are thought to be especially effective.	91.1	8.9	1.8667	.54772

Source: Field study 2016

Research Question 2 and 3: What are the leadership styles of female heads and views of teachers about them?

Research question 2 and 3 sought to elicit responses from respondents, leadership styles of female heads and views of teachers about them. Table 4.3 presents the results by respondents. The mean of each of the items was computed and compared with the

theoretical mean of 2.50 (assuming normal distribution of responses). If the mean value was less than the theoretical mean of 2.50, it was an indication of an agreement by respondents on that item. However, if the mean value exceeded that of the theoretical value of 2.50, it was an indication of an agreement by respondents. The least agreement by respondents was the item 'Women managers have self-confidence problems.' It had a mean of 2.8444 (SD = 0.82450). This was an indication of respondents' agreement with this item. Respondents agreed to the questionnaire item 'one of the items 'Women tend to place family demands above work considerations'. This had a mean of 1.6222(SD = 0.57560). These mean values clearly indicated that respondents agreed that women tend to place family demands above other consideration. See Table 4.3 for the results.

On the issue of leadership styles of female heads and views of teachers about them, some of the respondents (heads) have these to say;

> *Women would have been best managers when it comes to leadership roles but, that is not the case because;*
> *They sometime place family demands above work considerations.*
> *Some women despite their position they occupied, they still want to do other businesses that will bring them money. Because of that, they tend to neglect their core mandate at their work place.*
> *Some women are too soft thus, can't exert their authority when it is time to give punishment.*
> *All these factors makes it not appropriate to consider them for appointment into positions of authority like the school head.*

Another had this to say;

> *There are a lot of factors that prevent women from reaching managerial positions. I will put this way;*

Women are too emotional and lack some qualities necessary for managerial positions such as aggressiveness, risk-taking and decisiveness etc.

Some women have self-confidence problems and can't stand the pressure of work as school head.

Women heads tend to spend more of the time in embracing relationships, sharing, and process. This tends to affect high work output.

Unlike the above mix perception about women heads, this respondent has this to say;

I think women are the best to be considered as school heads. This is because;

They have a greater knowledge of and concern for instructional supervision.

Women were more effective administrators.

They always use the decision-making and problem-solving approach which is more effective and efficient.

They have concerned with helping their staff and deviant students/pupils.

They placed more importance on technical skills and organization responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation

It can be concluded from these comments that, there are serious issues on under representation of women as school heads due to leadership styles (Cubillo & Brown 2003).Some of these is due to a set of historical, social, economic and organizational factors across national, cultural and occupational contexts. These stereotypical perceptions against women have made it difficult for most women to be appointed as heads of Senior High School.

Table 4.3: Leadership styles of female heads and general perception held about women in education leadership (n=89)

Questionnaire Items	Frequency of responses		Mean ($\bar{X}$)	Standard Deviation (SD)
	Strongly agree /Agree 1 2 (%)	Disagree/ Strongly disagree 3 4 (%)		
1. Women tend to place family demands above work considerations.	95.6	4.4	1.6222	.57560
2. Women work for supplemental income; as a result they lack the necessary drive to succeed in school administration	66.7	33.3	2.3556	.85694
3. Women tend to mix their personal and professional beliefs and feelings, and for this reason, they are accepted as emotionally not professional.	86.7	13.3	1.9111	.66818
4. Women are unsuitable for top managerial positions because they are too emotional and lack some qualities necessary for managerial positions such as aggressiveness, risk-taking and decisiveness etc.	95.6	4.4	1.8444	.47461
5. Women managers have self-confidence problems.	28.9	71.1	2.8444	.82450
6. Women principals have a greater knowledge of and concern for instructional supervision than men	91.1	8.9	1.8667	.54772

Source: Field study 2016

Research Question 4: What are the barriers and constraints that confront women in educational leadership?

Research question 4 sought to elicit responses from respondents on the barriers and constraints that affect women in educational leadership. The mean value for each of the responses was computed and compared with the theoretical mean of 2.50 (assuming normal distribution of responses). The purpose was to determine if respondents agreed or disagreed with each item on the barriers and constraints that affect women in educational leadership. Any item that had a mean exceeding that of the theoretical mean of response of 2.50 (assuming normal distribution of responses) is an indication of a disagreement by respondents whiles a mean value less than the theoretical mean of 2.50 was an indication of an agreement by respondents.

Table 4.4 interestingly shows that all the respondents agreed with the barriers and constraints that affect women in educational leadership. Except the item 'Women are too dependent on feedback and evaluations of others' for example, which had a mean value of 2.3556(SD = .85694), which is even less than the theoretical mean value of 2.50, the rest of the items showed a very high degree of agreement by the respondents on these items. On the issue of the barriers and constraints that affect women in educational leadership, some of the respondents (heads) have these to say;

> *I think some of the factors that are barriers and constraints to women in educational leadership: the participation of women in professional networks is low thus, it limits their access to decision-making processes about promotion; women are discriminated against as result of cultural orientation in hiring and promoting policies; and women leaders also face*

negative attitudes such as attitudinal and organizational prejudices from employers and subordinates.

Another had this to say;

I believe some of the challenges women face as school heads are perceptions that tend to have negative effect on the job. For example, it is said that, women cannot discipline older students, particularly males; females are too emotional; too weak physically; and males resent working with females. Another serious challenge is the lack of role models and mentors due to the fact that there is not a large amount of women in administrative positions

Male chauvinism and cultural orientation is another serious barrier that affects women school heads. Culturally, women are identified with the home and the care of small children, and men are identified with the greater working environment. The work of men has generally been valued over that of women, so that work identified with women is perceived as inferior.

To another;

Culturally women are not supposed to work for pay. They are to assist the man also take care of females needs, marriage and raise family. Sometimes the demands of a job become more important upon; promotion thus, forces many women to choose family than a career. Since women are always relegated to the background, they lack people that will mentor them for leadership positions. Male mentors tend to be resistant to mentor a woman because they perceive women as more emotional, not as skilled at problem-solving, and because of the risk of workplace sexual harassment issues.

The "good old boy network" was also found to serve as a barrier to women's career aspirations. The good old boy club is my dominated male

> *is a limited circle where decisions on persons and positions are made.*
> *Many of the men go to lunch together and share information that the*
> *females are not exposed to until after the fact.*

The above responses revealed that, women in leadership confront barriers or obstacles that men do not realize exist. These barriers range from male chauvinisms, cultural differences, lack of mentors for women school administration, stereotyping among others. This goes to confirm the assertion by Dominici, Fried, and Zeger (2009) that women under representation in academic leadership positions as results of persistence of gender inequity at the highest ranks of academic leadership; little or no encouragement to seek leadership positions and lack of mentoring.
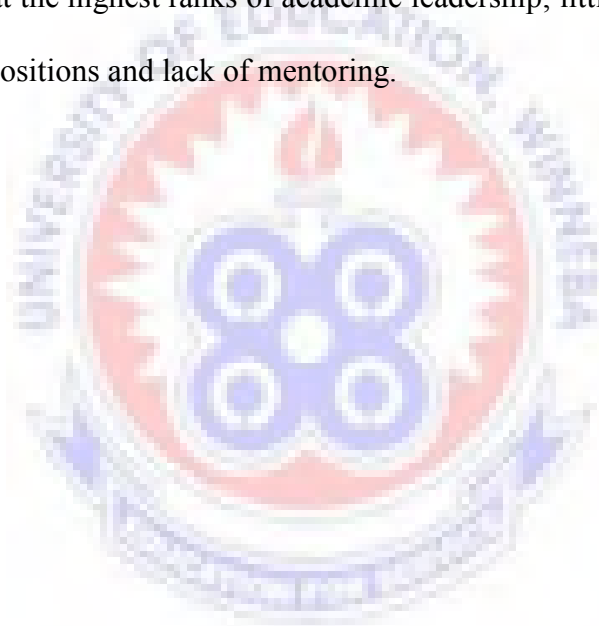
Table 4.4: Barriers that confront women in educational leadership and measures to overcome them (n=89)

Questionnaire Items	Frequency of responses		Mean $(\bar{X})$	Standard Deviation (SD)
	Strongly agree /agree 1 2 (%)	Disagree/ strongly Disagree 3 4 (%)		
1. They lack of support from the school board and other stakeholders.	95.6	4.4	1.6222	.57560
2. Stereotypes associated with these perceived differences in men and women.	93.3	6.7	1.8444	.60135
3. Culturally, women are not supposed to lead men.	86.7	13.3	1.9111	.66818
4. Women are unable to find a female mentor that will groom them for leadership positions.	95.6	4.4	1.8444	.47461
5. Women face life-style conflicts such as being primary caretakers for their families.	66.7	33.3	2.3556	.85694
6. Women are too dependent on feedback and evaluations of others	91.1	8.9	1.8667	.54772
7. Women cannot discipline older subordinates, particularly males.	95.6	4.4	1.8444	.47461

Source: Field study 2016

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The research was done with the aim of to assess the stereotypical perception of female heads of Senior High Schools in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality in the Upper East Region. The researcher used questionnaires and interview as research instruments through which the collection of data was done and analyzed. This chapter presents the summary of all the findings, general conclusions and recommendations.

5.1. Summary of Findings

With regards to the criteria for appointment of heads of education institutions, most of the respondents strongly indicated that, the school head, especially in the senior high school in Ghana is a top management position and is based on three strong factors; academic qualification, professional qualification and work experience with satisfactory history and conduct within the Ghana Education Service.

With respect to leadership styles exhibited by female heads of second cycle schools, the study revealed that majority of respondents are of the belief that though women could have made good leaders, they are too emotional and lack self-confidence thus cannot stand the pressure of work as school heads.

The study further revealed that majority of the respondents indicated there are serious issues on under representation of women as school heads that could be due to stereotypical perceptions which are due to a set of historical, social, economic and

organizational factors across national, cultural and occupational contexts. These stereotypical perceptions against women have made it difficult for most of them to be appointed as heads of senior high school.

With regards to barriers and constraints that affect women in educational leadership, the study revealed that women in leadership are confronted by barriers or obstacles that men do not realize exist, ranging from male chauvinism, cultural differences, lack of mentors for women in administration, and stereotyping among others. These impact negatively to their performance on the position.

5.2. Conclusion

The study sought to assess stereotypical perception of female heads of Senior High Schools in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality in the Upper East Region.

The research has demonstrated that stakeholders still have negative views about the competency of women who are into educational leadership. From the study, it could also be concluded that most people still feel that females cannot make efficient and effective leaders as compared to their male counterparts.

It is also clear that, there are serious issues on under representation of women as school heads due to leadership styles as a result of historical, social, economic and organizational factors across national, cultural and occupational context.

5.3. Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for further research:

The findings of this study were based on a small sample size which was also dominated by male voices in selected senior high schools in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality. It is hoped that this study will provide a basis for further assessment of stereotypical perception of female heads of Senior High based on cultural and structural conditions and practices that posed barriers encountered by female heads in senior high schools.

Therefore, it is recommended that civil society organizations, faith- based organizations, colleges and universities re-examine their affirmative action and diversity action policies and plans to evaluate the effectiveness of these policies and plans to bring about a more diverse women faculty with structured mentoring activities and professional development programmes that will help to reduce if not eliminate barriers that gender stereotypical perception on female leadership.

Moreover, the criteria for selecting the head of an educational institution should be based on professional qualification, academic qualification and experience. The gender and age of the person should not be a matter of consideration. Traditional beliefs and practices that adversely affect women participation in leadership in schools should be discarded. Thus, equal opportunities should be given to men and women in educational leadership positions so that either a man or woman should be appointed to head any educational enterprise.

In addition, GES should organize in-service training for women in order to build or boost their confidence level so that they can take appointments as heads of Senior

High Schools. Women in educational leadership could be offered additional support by giving them an incentive, such as a house help, to help them in their house chores. This will lessen the burden imposed by traditional values on women who have to combine them even as they head schools.

In-depth women mentoring schemes or programs should be instituted as a critical strategy to promote aspiring women up the career ladder. Therefore, it is recommended that women in top leadership positions take the time to mentor other women who aspire for top leadership positions. Since mentoring relationships are advantageous to the women mentor and mentee, higher education needs to re-examine their action plans and strategies to mentor women.

5.4. Areas for Further Research

Due to cultural differences, the researcher suggests that, in further research, researchers should widen the scope to cover other regions with different cultural settings in order to be able to generalize the findings.

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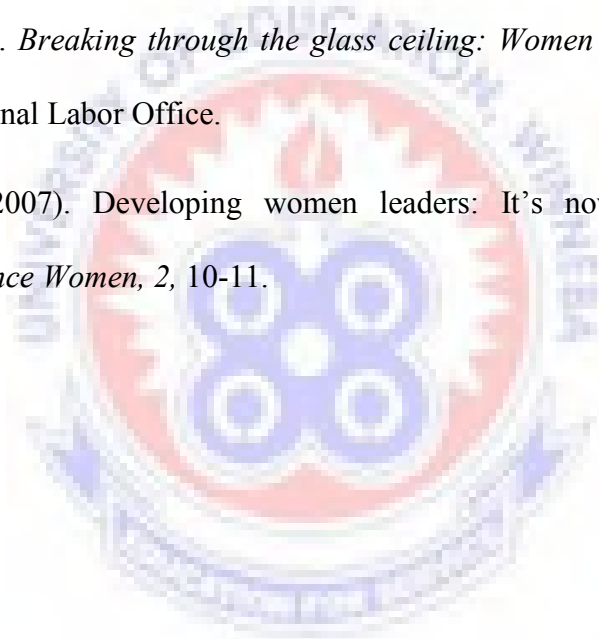
APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Introduction

This questionnaire seeks to solicit responses from you on stereotypical perception of the leadership of female heads of senior high school in the Kassena-Nankana Municipality of Upper East Region of Ghana. I therefore crave your indulgence to cooperate with this exercise as your responses will be held confidentially.

Please tick the appropriate response in the space provided   e.g. [✔]

Background Information of Respondents

1. Sex: 1) Male [ ]   2) Female [ ]
2. Managerial role / duty: 1) Assistant Head [ ]   2) Senior Housemaster/mistress [ ]
   3) Housemaster/Mistress [ ]   4) Form master/mistress [ ] 5) none of the above [ ]
3. Qualification: 1) 1st Degree [ ]   2) 2nd Degree [ ]   3) PhD/EdD [ ]
4. Years of teaching experience
   1) 20 years and below [   ]   2) 21 – 25 years [   ]
   3) 26 - 30 years [   ]   4) 31 years and above [   ]

SECTION A.
Criteria for appointment of heads of educational institutions.

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES			
	Strongly Agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (SA
5. Heads should be a professional graduate teacher with satisfactory work history and conduct within the GES.				
6. Heads should have served at the rank of deputy director for at least 2 years.				
7. Heads should have served as an assistant headmaster/mistress, unit head at the headquarters, or an equivalent position for at least 3 cumulative years.				
8. Heads should not be over the age of 55 years at the time he or she applies for the position				
9. Prescribed courses to prepare school heads focus on concepts and procedures school heads must know techniques to use to increase student achievement and to meet the demands of new accountability systems.				

10. Appointed school heads are usually selected from the ranks of teachers who are thought to be especially effective.				
11. The school head is responsible for identifying stakeholder expectations for promoting the development of competencies necessary for staff to meet the expectations.				

SECTION B.
General perception held about women in education leadership.

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES			
	Strongly Agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (SA)
12. Women tend to place family demands above work considerations.				
13. Women work for supplemental income; as a result they lack the necessary drive to succeed in school administration				
14. Women tend to mix their personal and professional beliefs and feelings, and for this reason, they are accepted as emotionally not professional.				
15. Women are unsuitable for top managerial positions because they are too emotional and lack some qualities necessary for managerial positions such as aggressiveness, risk-taking and decisiveness etc.				
16. Women are perceived as too soft or too tough but never just right.				
17. Women managers have self-confidence problems.				
18. Women managers are not motivated through power needs but affiliation motives.				
19. Superiors and teachers prefer women over men.				
20. Women heads have a greater knowledge of and concern for instructional supervision than men.				
21. Women heads place more importance on technical skills and organizational				

responsibility of teachers as a criterion for evaluation than men.				

SECTION C.

Barriers that confront women in educational leadership and measures to overcome them.

STATEMENTS	RESPONSES			
	Strongly Agree (SA)	**Agree (A)**	**Disagree (D)**	**Strongly Disagree (SA**
22. The lack of support from the school board and other stakeholders.				
23. Stereotypes associated with the perceived differences in men and women.				
24. Culturally, women are not supposed to lead men.				
25. Women are unable to find female mentors that will groom them for leadership positions.				
26. Women face life-style conflicts such as primary caretakers for their families.				
27. Women are too dependent on feedback and evaluations of others'				
28. Women cannot discipline older subordinates, particularly males				

Suggest measures to overcome Barriers that confront women in educational leadership

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THANKS FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION

APPENDIX B
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL HEADS

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate. I am very interested to hear your valuable opinion on stereotypical perception of the leadership of female heads of senior high school in the Kassena–Nankana Municipality of the Upper East Region of Ghana. This is an academic research therefore the information provided by you would be treated as confidential.

Background Information of Respondents
1. Sex: 1) Male [   ]   2) Female [   ]
2. Qualification: 1) 1st Degree [ ]   2) 2nd Degree [ ]   3) PhD/EdD [ ]
3. Years of teaching experience
    1) 20 years and below [   ]   2) 21 – 25 years [   ]
    3) 26 - 30 years [   ]   4) 31 years and above [   ]

4. How where you appointed as the head of this institution?

5. Are there any specific criteria for appointment of heads of educational institutions in Ghana Education Service?

6. What are some of the requirements if there is any?

7. In your opinion, who do you think will make better heads, males / females?

8. What is your general perception held about women in educational leadership?

9. Do you think women face stereotype challenges as they discharge their duties as female heads?

10. What other barriers confront women in educational leadership?

11. What do you suggest as the best remedies to assist female heads to succeed in the discharge of their duties?

Probes for Discussion:
1. Pre-appointment courses for schools heads
2. Should age be considered in appointing school heads?
3. Women are unsuitable for top managerial positions because they are too emotional and lack some qualities necessary for managerial positions such as aggressiveness, risk-taking and decisiveness etc.
4. Culturally women are not supposed to lead men.

Any other comment or suggestions?...

THANKS FOR YOUR TIME