

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**GENDER AND LEADERSHIP: EXPLORING THE LIVED
EXPERIENCES OF FEMALE HEAD TEACHERS IN THE AWUTU
SENYA EAST MUNICIPALITY**



GWENDOLYN PRAH

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

2022

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**GENDER AND LEADERSHIP: EXPLORING THE LIVED EXPERIENCES
OF FEMALE HEAD TEACHERS IN THE AWUTU SENYA EAST
MUNICIPALITY**



**A thesis in the Department of Educational Administration and
Management, Faculty of Educational Studies, submitted to the
School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Educational Administration and Management)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

APRIL, 2022

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

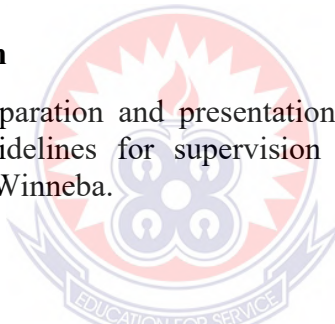
I, Gwendolyn Prah, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature:

Date:

Supervisor's Declaration

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



Prof. Samuel Asare-Amoah, (PhD) (Principal Supervisor)

Signature:

Date:

Judith Bampo, (PhD) (Co-Supervisor)

Signature:

Date:

DEDICATION

To my beloved husband Dawuda Adamu Kabutey who laid the foundation of my education.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisors Prof. Samuel Asare-Amoah and Judith Bampo, (PhD) for their guidance, suggestions, constructive criticisms and commitment to the work throughout the study. His willingness to assist has made it possible for me to complete this thesis.

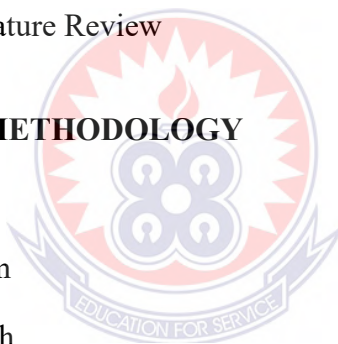
I express my sincere and special thanks to my friends and colleagues especially Godfred Agbakplor and Elizabeth Dickson for their motivation and prayers towards the completion of this work.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	Page
DECLARATION	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ABSTRACT	xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	6
1.3 Purpose of the Study	11
1.4 Objectives of the Study	11
1.5 Research Questions	11
1.6 Significance of the Study	12
1.7 Delimitation/Scope	14
1.8 Operational Definition of Key Terms	14
1.9 Organization of the Study	15
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	17
2.0 Introduction	17
2.1 Overview of the Evolution of Women Participation in Education	17
2.2 Educational Leadership, Management and Administration	20
2.3 Effective Leadership Practices	23
2.4 Women in Educational Leadership	25
2.5 Leadership Styles of Women in Education	26

2.6	Women’s Leadership in Developing Countries	37
2.7	Theoretical Framework	38
2.8	Level of Women in Higher Positions in Education	47
2.9	Perceptions of Female Leadership and their Effectiveness	52
2.10	Gender Stereotypes and Gender Perspective in Women Leadership	54
2.11	Challenges Affecting Women in Educational Leadership and Administration	56
2.12	Conflict between Work and Family Life	57
2.13	Gender and Social Expectations from the Woman	58
2.14	How Challenges Facing Women in Educational Leadership Positions can be Resolved	60
2.15	Conceptual Framework	63
2.16	Summary of Literature Review	64
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY		66
3.0	Introduction	66
3.1	Research Paradigm	67
3.2	Research Approach	68
3.3	Research Design	70
3.4	Site and Sample Characteristics	71
3.5	Population	71
3.6	Sample Size and Sampling Technique	72
3.7	Instrumentation	73
3.8	Data Collection Procedure	75
3.9	Data Analysis Procedures	76
3.11	Ethical Consideration	80



CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION	87
4.0 Introduction	87
4.1 Bio Data	87
4.2 Analysis of Research Questions	89
4.3 Research Question One	90
4.4 Research Question Two	93
4.5 Research Question Three	95
4.6 Research Question Four	100
4.7 Discussion	103
4.8 Experiences of Women Head Teachers	103
4.9 Cultural Influences	106
4.10 Experiences, Attitudes and Beliefs	107
4.11 Leadership Styles	109
4.12 Challenges in Working as Female Head teacher	112
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	115
5.0 Introduction	115
5.1 Summary	115
5.2 Summary of Findings	115
5.3 Conclusion	116
5.4 Recommendations	117
5.5 Limitation of the Study	119
5.6 Areas for Further Research	119
REFERENCES	120
APPENDIX: Interview Guide on Challenges of Female Head Teachers in Educational Leadership of Schools	137

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
4.1: Sex distribution of head teachers	88
4.2: Academic qualification of head teachers	88
4.3: Years of serving as head teachers	89



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
2.1: Conceptual framework of the study	63



ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the lived experiences of the leadership challenges of female head teachers in Awutu Senya East Municipality. To conduct this study, interpretive philosophy, qualitative approach with phenomenology design was employed. The population of this study consisted of all female head teachers of public schools in the Kasoa Township in the Awutu Senya East Municipality. The population was made up of twenty-eight (28) female head teachers of public basic schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipality. The sample for the study was ten (10). The ten (10) head teachers were selected using the purposive sampling technique as the respondents were put into three major groups called circuits. The data were collected by using interview guide. Qualitative data analysis was employed in order to reach at results. Specifically, data was analyzed using thematic analysis. The findings of the study revealed; higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leader; lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position in the education system of the town; they were strong in making decision; females are less participated as both heads and deputy head teachers: females have capability to lead primary school; men consider women as their equal counterparts; females have misconceptions that they will not be successful in leading school; females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader. Some of the challenges which could hinder women representation in educational leadership were for instance, pressure of home responsibilities, and men dominance of management position. In the finding, the participants of the study also justified the following as the possible solution for the factors that affect women representation in leadership. These are providing training for women (Mentoring), gender awareness campaign, gender fairness in school leadership position, fighting traditions that hinder the progress of women, discourage societal discrimination, change family traditional structure (societal support), sensitize society to accept women leadership, women should be self-confident women's self-motivation. The study recommended that gender balance of leadership be seen in schools around the country. There should be more emphasis put on promoting more women into administrative level positions. Even though it is set as one goal for equality in the education sector, this is not currently practiced. This approach needs the voice of women in the education sector, and education authorities to give a chance for potential women to hold leadership positions.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Educational leadership, management and administration are interchangeable terms used in everyday conversations of school organizations. However, defining their differences helps in understanding where each sits. People in leadership require skills to become effective leaders. Developing leadership skills can enable head teachers to function comfortably and effectively. Bush (2003) identifies key elements found in most definitions of leadership, and they are: Leadership is a process of influence; leadership should be based on personal and professional values; and leadership with a vision is an essential component of effective leadership. Cadwell (2006) defines educational leadership as “Leadership is a process for establishing direction, aligning people, motivating and inspiring, and achieving change”. This process influences other team members inside the organization towards aims and objectives of the school organization itself (Luenburg & Orstein, 2008).

Globally, there is a widespread desire to change the educational systems of countries to meet the new social and technological needs (Donnie & Zuliana, 2017; Hallinger, 2017; Scot, 2015). In the new educational environment, educational leaders and teachers are recognized for playing important roles in determining the quality of education that children receive (Donnie & Zuliana, 2017). Consequently, governments and other stakeholders have over the years attempted to select qualified leaders to run the affairs of the various educational institutions in their respective countries.

In the execution of their managerial duties, head teachers are faced a myriad of challenges ranging from gender discrimination, discipline issues amongst the staff and students among others. Both male and female head teachers face similar challenges in the management of schools. However, there are some challenges that are unique to female head teachers associated with femaleness.

Several studies over the world have been conducted to investigate the challenges faced by female head teachers in the management of schools across the world. Celikten (2004) conducted studies in Turkey on Principals' leadership and Gender. The studies revealed that female principals are often faced with societal demands and traditions that males do not face. These included housework, marriage, children and negative attitudes towards females who become principals. According to other studies conducted by Celikten and Yeni in 2004, female teachers faced cultural challenges in management of secondary schools. The women principals are expected to complete their family responsibilities as well as their duties of managing the schools. This posed as a major challenge to the female principals.

Other studies done in the USA by Hoff & Mitchell (2008) revealed that women in leadership are faced with the dilemma of balancing the societal expectations of women regarding their family responsibilities with that of the leadership at the workplace. Shakeshaft (1987) as quoted by Hoff and Mitchell (2008) suggested that women have excellent leadership skills but often face obstacles that men may not face. As this evolution continues, the question arises as to whether or not male and female principals lead schools in a similar or different manner, and secondly if the gender of the principal alone has an impact on the perceived leadership abilities of the principal. In 1991, Shakeshaft, Nowell and Perry stated, "we believe that gender

affects supervisory style outcome”. Tyree (1995) as quoted by Celikten (2004) suggested that there exists a perception that women lack support from the staff, parents and community that does not exist with male principals. Bolman and Deal (2001) suggested that leadership through the perspective of a woman is very different from the traditional view of leadership. These perceptions and attitudes play a critical role on how principals perceive themselves as being an effective educational leader and how, the people these principals are leading—primarily teachers perceive their leadership as well. Shakeshaft (1987) as quoted by Hoff and Mitchell (2008) found that teachers preferred working for male principals regardless of their gender.

Research studies in Turkey and USA found that in a number of occasions, gender plays a very limited role as far as leadership is concerned. However, further research Mcgee-Banks (2007) suggests that female principals may face a dilemma that finds an imbalance between leadership roles and expected gender roles.

Khumalo (2006) conducted studies in the Republic of South Africa on “Challenges faced by women as school managers in Warmbaths area.” These studies showed that the challenges faced by female managers that hinder them from achieving true parity in relation to their male colleagues could be divided into three categories; those challenges within the school, those outside the school and those within the person herself. Van der Westhuizen (1997:545) believes that intrinsic, internal or personal barriers that influence the life of women are generally regarded as the inadequacies, which are within women because of their femaleness.

Scholars such as Hallinger, (2017), Davies, (2009) and Macbeath and Dempster, (2009) indicated that there is the need to prepare, train and develop leaders for effective management of the educational institutions across the world. Davies, (2009)

further argued that effective leadership development is school-based and on-the-job. However, this is always supplemented by out-of-school activities such as increasing individuals' knowledge of a range of leadership approaches, reading, reflection, and interaction with peers and professionals in other schools and settings. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development OECD (2009), indicated that to meet the educational needs of the 21st century the principals in both primary and secondary schools must play a more dynamic role and become far more than an administrator of top-down rules and regulations.

Schools and their governing structures must also let school leaders lead in a systematic fashion and focus on the instructional and learning processes and outcomes of their schools. De Klerk (2004) further affirms that leadership in the educational sector has increasingly been redefined through which a more democratic and interpersonal style has emerged. This development has led to the replacement of the autocratic, hierarchical and task-oriented style of leadership to a democratic form in the educational sector of many countries.

Equity and equality are critical to the selection of leaders. Equity in education means that personal or social circumstances such as gender, ethnic origin or family background, are not obstacles to achieving educational potential (fairness). For some time now, most research into educational leadership (Bronars, 2015; Glass, 2000; Kowalski, McCord, Peterson, Young, & Ellerson, 2011) have cited gender theories as the basis for the dominance of men in school leadership, but this should be the case. The fact remains that women hold the same credentials as men and are equally capable of leading and producing the required results. In some cases, women even

hold more advanced degrees than their male counterparts are not considered for certain positions when the need arise (Kowalski, 2006).

The OECD, (2009) observed that the highest performing education systems across OECD countries are those that ensure quality and equity in the selection of leaders to manage the educational institutions across its member states. Also, Nolutho, (2014) and Bronars, (2015) theorized that women are critical to the administration and management of educational institutions across the world. However, literature (Glass, 2000; Kowalski, 2006; Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, 2007) revealed that women are over-represented in the classroom and under-represented in leadership.

For instance, in the US, Brenneman (2018), indicated that three-quarters of U.S. teachers are women as revealed by the National Center for Education Statistics. Also, the statistics further showed that half of principals in the country are women. Brenneman (2018) further stated that recent data from the School Superintendents Association suggest that women make up only a quarter of district leaders. Nolutho (2014) stated that the South African educational leadership favors males though the Department of Education in the country have instituted the Gender Equality in Education policy since 2013 to assist women.

School leaders particularly women in Ghana faced a number of challenges due to rising expectations for schools and schooling. The challenges keep rising as today's educational sector is characterized by technological innovation and other socio-economic issues. As Ghana and other developing countries aim to transform their educational systems to prepare all young people with the knowledge and skills needed

in this changing world, the roles of women school leaders and related expectations have changed radically.

Women as leaders are no longer expected to be good managers. This is because effective school leadership is increasingly viewed as key to large-scale education reform and to improved educational outcomes. However, studies (Nolutho, 2014; Bronars, 2015; Feistritz, et al., 2011; Kowalski, 2006; Shakeshaft et al., 2007) have suggested a number of factors making it difficult for women to fill management positions in education. These factors include gender discrimination, the pressure of family responsibilities and sociocultural considerations.

Though there are challenges, educational institutions and individual governments have made strong efforts towards ensuring that upcoming school leaders particularly women gain adequate accredited training with hands on experiences in school settings, classroom theoretical exposure, and relevant professional development to prepare them for a role of school leadership (Donnie & Zuliana, 2017; Scot, 2015; Hilliard & Jackson, 2011).

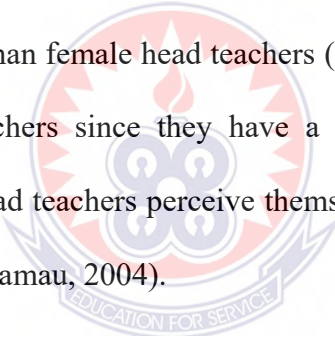
This research sought to explore the lived experiences of the leadership challenges of female head teachers in the Awutu Senya Municipality in the Central Region.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Mensah, Odei-Tettey and Osaibo (2014) concur that historically, women were seen as home managers and their value and potentials were limited to the home. The general perception was that women by their natural disposition were not fit to perform certain jobs touted to be difficult and hard and under the preserve of men. Women in years past were excluded from participating in public life such as taking leadership or

managerial positions and been part of decision making. They were denied education most especially in Africa and were only limited to taking care of children and cooking. The Beijing Conference in 1995 spearheaded the role of women in public life and empowered them to be active participants and contributors to national and global development.

There are several dilemmas that complicate roles of women in management. Women have to balance work and family responsibilities yet they have the same amount of time as their male counterparts. Women face cultural and social barriers in management. Stereotyped notions about women leadership constitute a major challenge to female head teachers (Kamau, 2004). Stakeholders perceive male head teachers more favorably than female head teachers (Kamau, 2004). Teachers prefer to work for male head teachers since they have a low perception for female head teachers. Some female head teachers perceive themselves as less leaders compared to their male counterparts (Kamau, 2004).



As a respond to global commitment to empower women, Ghana in 2002, introduced an affirmative action policy which allowed 30% of all government appointments to be women. Since then, there has been significant number of women in public life. In Ghana and elsewhere, many women have taken up leadership role in various professional settings such as education, politics, business, science to mention but few and are performing creditably and making significant contribution in their area of expertise. It has now become a truism that women are capable in this 21st century to perform jobs which were traditionally misconceived as an exclusive preserve for men (Mensah, Odei-Tettey & Osaibo, 2014).

There is growing evidence in literature (May, 2016; Greyling & Steyn, 2015; Kanco, 2013; Nolutho, 2014; Bronars, 2015) showing that the women leaders in schools remained critically important for the persistent improvement in the performance of education in many countries (Mulford, 2003) though there is a perception in society especially in developing countries, that women are mothers and home caretakers. This, to a larger extent, does not promote the advancement of women.

Also, in the Ghanaian society and other African countries, women with astronomical performance records are held back because they are not seen as having the potential to lead at a senior level (Nolutho, 2014; Kanco, 2013). A number of studies indicate that women in education management are in the minority in both developed and developing countries (Celikten, 2005; Mitroussi, (2003; Inandi, 2009; Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010).

In a study on women leaders in Namibia, Kotze (2004), deliberated extensively on how gender inequality and inequity place women at a disadvantage in the Namibian education system and the findings showed that women are often discriminated against when it comes to occupying key leadership positions.

For decades, the challenges which women face in occupying leadership positions in countries such as South Africa, Ghana, and India have been extensively documented (Nolutho, 2014; Bronars, 2015; Kanco, 2013; May, 2016; Maseko 2013). Nolutho (2014) for instance conducted a study entitled “Women in educational leadership: The case of Hope High School in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa” using the feminist critical policy analysis theory. The findings of the study showed that women had a representation in school committees and perform leadership positions. However, Nolutho, (2014) argued that the numbers are not reliable indicators of gender equality.

As challenges, the study concluded that regardless of the policy imperatives, the conventional and male-controlled tendencies within educational leadership undermine the attainment of gender equality.

Also, May (2016), conducted a study into the challenges faced by women primary school principals from the ZF Mgcawu District of the Northern Cape Province. The study also adopted a feminine perspective with use of qualitative research method. The findings suggest that female primary school heads are able, competent and possess the necessary skills to effectively manage, but challenges such as gender-based stereotype, home responsibilities, and the lack of self-confidence have affected the ability of women to effectively manage both the teachers and students.

In Ghana, Kanco Evelyn Hawa (2013) researched into the challenges of women in administrative positions in education in the Adenta district in the Greater Accra Region. The main purpose of the study was to find out the challenges of women in administrative positions and factors that encourage women to aspire for leadership positions in education. The findings revealed that the lack of financial resources, lack of material resources, role conflict (administration and teaching), and family commitments were found to be the main challenges of women in administrative positions.

Though these studies are critical to the very foundation of the current study, they are limited in scope as they only considered the feminist perspective and mainly adopted quantitative approach towards unearthing the challenges confronting women in educational leadership positions. In view of that, the researcher deems it necessary to use different approach to cover the gap. And in this case, a qualitative approach was considered. Also, female head teachers in Awutu Senya East Municipality actually

face challenges in their administrative activities despite the numerous researches done by people, thus the need to explore the issues further to its logical conclusion. Some socio-cultural and religious beliefs and societal misconceptions about the roles and behavior of female head teachers are issues that appeared to have hindered the ability of women to occupy leadership position and those who have mastered courage to occupy these positions have been victimized in the Awutu Senya East Municipality. Till date the problem appears to linger on even as studies have been conducted to deal with it. It means these studies have not quite addressed the situation exhaustively which demand that a new research perspective be conducted in the area. In the Municipality, female head teachers still face a lot of gender discrimination, disrespect at work place, difficulty balancing workload between home and school, misconceptions about women leadership among others. This has made it impossible for some women to put up their best in them affecting their management and administration results in the Awutu Senya East. Some female head teachers have also asked for transfers to other schools to be teachers due to the unnecessary pressure they experienced in the hands of their male counterparts, the society, and the attitude of teachers towards them. Statistics from the Municipal Education Office, Awutu revealed that some of female head teachers have sadly relinquished their jobs (Municipal Education Office, Awutu, 2021). The misconceptions around women have also forced some of them to remain silent killing the development drive in them. These are some of the experiences or problems of some female head teachers in the Awutu Senya East which demand urgent attention, thus the need for the current study.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current study is to explore the lived experiences of female head teachers in the Awutu Senya East Municipality of the Central Region of Ghana on gender and leadership so that the study can find solutions to the challenges these women face as leaders.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study sought to;

1. To explore the experiences of female head teachers in educational leadership among schools in Awutu Senya East Municipality of Central Region.
2. To identify the various educational leadership styles exhibited by female head teachers in basic schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipality.
3. To identify the challenges facing female head teachers in the performance of their duties in the Awutu Senya East Municipality
4. To find out how the challenges facing women in educational leadership positions can be resolved in the Awutu Senya East Municipality.

1.5 Research Questions

The questions the study sought to answer are as follows;

1. What are the experiences of female head teachers in educational leadership among schools in Awutu Senya East Municipality of Central Region?
2. Which educational leadership styles are exhibited by female head teachers in basic schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipality?
3. What are the challenges facing female head teachers in the performance of their duties in the Awutu Senya East Municipality?

4. How can challenges facing women in educational leadership positions be resolved in the Awutu Senya East Municipality?

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the outcome of this research will help to contribute to formulation of policies to address the underlying issues related to women's leadership and their style of administration. The study may help heads of institutions to gain valuable information about how teachers' expectations are with regards to women leadership, to serve as a reference document for teachers and students of the University of Education, Winneba for further research into the topic.

It is crucial for both men and women to pursue higher qualifications in leadership and management. The fact is that if women fail to pursue higher qualifications in leadership because they feel that they may not have an equal opportunity to occupy leadership positions, the general education systems will have to reconsider their training programs, administrative hiring practices, and the hidden messages that schools send to both the women educators and the young women they serve as students.

Studies have shown (Aud et al., 2012; Kim & Brunner, 2009) that female instructional leaders have significantly more time in the classroom, more experience in curriculum development and a more collaborative, democratic leadership style which is well suited for schools. However, women in instructional leadership position faced various challenges and some cases, the challenges keep growing some of which can be attributed to technological innovation. Therefore, any study in this direction becomes significant.

In the first place, the current study is significant as it will respond to the theoretical and research gaps in women and educational leadership issues in Ghana. For instance, the gender gap in occupying top management positions, the unequal representation of men and women in administrative positions and the use of feminist approach and quantitative approach to unearth challenges confronting women in leadership positions. In principle, the study will provide useful information on the various leadership positions occupied by women in the educational sector particularly in the basic schools and the different managerial competencies they demonstrate as compared to their male counterparts.

The study will further contribute to knowledge by providing information on the contributions of women in educational leadership to the overall performance of basic schools in Ghana. The findings of the study will enable educational psychologists and educational institutions to have adequate and better understanding of the contributions of women in leadership positions and how they can be assisted to improve the quality and standard of education at the basic school level.

The findings and recommendations of the study will further serve as a basis for future research works, decision making and a direction for the Ghana Education Services, the Ministry of Education as well as educational institutions who may have the desire to raise the status of women and the standard of education in Ghana.

Finally, the result of the study may help policy makers to gain knowledge about how to formulate policies to train more women for leadership roles and how to assist them to run the affairs of their schools.

1.7 Delimitation/Scope

In terms of scope, the study covered two dimensional areas, thus theoretical/thematic scope and institutional as well as geographical scope. Geographically, the study covered the Awutu Senya East Municipality and basic schools within it. It collected its data from female teacher, head teachers and those in administrative positions at the municipal office. The issues considered in the municipality include the various positions women are occupying in the various schools, community and the district level, how they got into such positions and the challenges they are facing. With the theoretical/thematic scope, the study covered literature on educational leadership and management used by the female head teachers focusing on the role and performance of women. It considered theories in educational leadership and women empowerment. Institutionally, the study covered women in leadership positions at the basic school level in the Awutu Senya East Municipality.

1.8 Operational Definition of Key Terms

Education

Education is the process of acquiring the body of knowledge and skills that people are expected to have in one's society.

Leadership

Leadership in this study may be considered as the process or act of a female influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement.

Basic School

A basic school is place of learning which strengthens elementary education by bringing together key components of a quality education. It is called basic because it

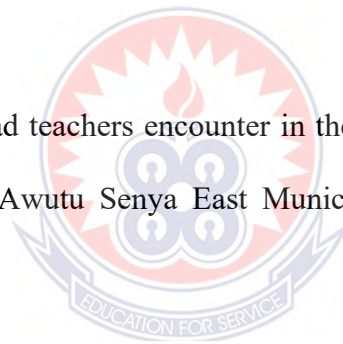
identifies practices that really work and seeks to make available to every child. In Ghana Basic School" lasts 11 years (Age 4-15), is free and compulsory. It is divided into Kindergarten (2 years), primary school (6 years) and Junior High school (3 years). The junior high school (JHS) ends on the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE).

Female head teacher

A female head teacher is a woman who is in charge of the day to day administration of a public basic school. In this study a head teacher is the most senior teacher and leader of a school, responsible for the education of all pupils, management of staff, and for school policy making.

Challenges

The problems female head teachers encounter in the administration and management of basic schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipality of the Central Region of Ghana.



1.9 Organization of the Study

The whole study is organized into five chapters as follows;

Chapter one provides the general introduction to the study. It presents the background, the problem statement, the research objectives and questions, significance and scope and structure of the whole dissertation.

Chapter Two basically review relevant literature on the subject matter under consideration. Consequently, the chapter presents the conceptual framework adopted by the study. It also reviews empirical studies conducted on educational leadership issues and women in different jurisdictions.

Chapter Three presents the research design and sources of data. The chapter also outlines the sampling procedure which will capture the population of the study, sampling technique, sample size and distribution. The instrumentation, thus type of research instrument(s) used, why they are chosen and how they were designed. The limitations of the study are also being provided in this chapter. The chapter further explain the data gathering procedure and mode and instruments for data analyses and finally presents the ethical issues considered.

Chapter Four presents the analysis and presentation of the data gathered from the field. The chapter also discusses the findings in relation to existing literature and evaluates the research questions. As the final chapter, chapter five presents the summary of major findings, the conclusions as well as the recommendations of the study.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is the literature review segment of the study. It began with overview of the evolution of women participation in education. It looked into educational leadership within what it means in comparison to management and administration, where it sits with effective leadership practices and the roles and expectations that are expected of leaders in schools. Secondly, the literature looked into the approaches of literature on women's leadership, and then narrowed the focus of literature to women in developing countries. Thirdly, it reviewed empirical studies on the concepts and issues with respect to women in educational positions at school level. It also reviewed literature on the challenges affecting women in these positions and the strategies put in place to strengthen women towards ensuring their effectiveness in such positions. The section basically reviewed existing literature with the view of providing information on concepts key to the subject of challenges facing women in educational leadership positions in Basic Schools.

2.1 Overview of the Evolution of Women Participation in Education

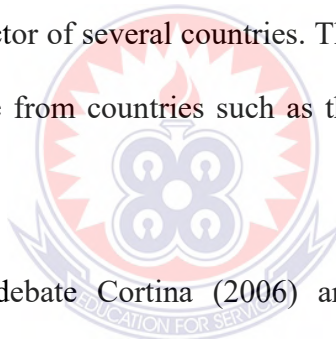
In the past, teaching as a profession was among the few sectors available to women though many women had the passion to teach and mentor the individual (Hallinger, 2017). In the early days of educational development, the capabilities and status of women was largely considered as inferior to that of their male colleagues and as such, many could not fathom why women should be given the opportunity to part take in the teaching profession (Kanco, 2013; Mery, 1 2016). The Institute of Learning at London University observed prior to the 19th, teacher training was approved and this

brought about the opening up of several teaching training colleges with some being designed purposely for female teachers in the United Kingdom. Upon this development it was realized that female teachers were paid considerably less than their male colleagues and this led to the formation of several social organizations such as National Union of Women Teachers to campaign for equal pay. Subsequently, after the World War one, it was realized that wages of teachers were reduce drastically throughout the world.

After World War I, the wages of teachers were noted to be reduced drastically throughout the world with the Institute of Education (IOE) (2009) arguing that even though the educational wages cut affected all educational instructors, female teachers were mostly affected since their wages were already low coupled with significant reduction as compared to that of male teachers. Another issues that affected women participation in education was the marriage ban in the UK. According to Redmond and Harford (2010), imminent to the introduction of the marriages bans, female teachers who were planning to marry had to resign from their profession whiles those who were already married were dismissed. The ban went further to demonstrate that a marriage woman's primary responsibility was her domestic responsibilities, and as such endorses a significant moral and social agenda. In a study Oram (1996) theorized that, the marriage ban exemplified the assumption that families should be composed of a male breadwinner with dependent wife and children. Upon recognizing the deficiency of the marriage ban, it was abolished by an Education Act in 1994 as a result a number of demonstration and campaign against it. In 1961 educational instructors both men and women saw equal and in 1975 the Sex Discrimination Act was implemented, which further prevented the discrimination against female teachers. This period was a great period for most women who had the desire of advancing their

career in the educational sector as IOE (2009b) argued that female teachers were permitted to advance their professional careers with little difficulties.

In the early 19th century, the elementary state education was instituted in in the UK, and was basically carried out by women and the teaching of young pupils was considered to be the woman's work (Skelton, 2001). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2011) report indicated that, the feminization of Education in English speaking countries was apparent towards the end of the 19th century which brought about the dominance of women at the basic level of education. UNESCO (2011) reveals that the large number of women in the primary sector of education is an established occurrence that has been evident within the educational sector of several countries. Thus, the leaning of studies relating to feminization has come from countries such as the UK, South America, Australia and Canada.



In contributing to the debate Cortina (2006) argued that the main reason for incorporating women into the teaching profession was mostly influenced with the assertion that they will offer to children essential feminine qualities that are absent in men. Additionally, Cortina (2006) argued that women maternal qualities make them exceptional agents to be put in charge of young children, hence emphasized that women have been a significant component for many countries through which most countries which have reformed and expanded their educational systems. Contrary to the view expressed by Cortina, (2006) UNESCO (2011) argued that teaching capacity, professionalism, and career development of female teachers is devalued when their competence is associated to maternal qualities as these are not regarded as appropriate for instructional knowledge. Based on the argument advanced by

UNESCO (2011), one could have argued that, for women seeking to become teachers or take leadership roles within the education profession, maternal qualities should not be considered when examining the qualities that are expected of a leader.

In the 21st century, OECD (2009) indicated that equity and equality are critical factors in the selection of school administrators and leaders in general. For the educational sector, the desire for equity will imply that personal or social circumstances such as gender, ethnic origin or family background, should not be obstacles that will hinder the achievement of educational potentials. In recent literature, (Bronars, 2015; Glass, 2000, Kowalski, McCord, Peterson, Young, & Ellerson, 2011) it has been argued that gender theories have formed the basis for the dominance of men in school leadership, though this should not be the case. In any case, it must be stated that women hold the same credentials as men and are equally capable of leading and producing the required results in any educational institution. Scholars such as Feistritz, et al., (2011), Kowalski, (2006) and Shakeshaft et al., (2007) argued that women in some instances even hold more advanced degrees than their male counterparts, but are not considered for certain positions when the need arise. In one of their numerous reports, OECD, (2009) observed that the highest performing education systems across OECD countries are those that ensure quality and equity in the selection of administrators to manage the educational institutions with women demonstrating capacity to lead higher educational institutions to great height.

2.2 Educational Leadership, Management and Administration

Educational leadership, management and administration are interchangeable terms used in everyday conversations of school organizations. However, defining their differences helps in understanding where each sits. People in leadership require skills

to become effective leaders. Developing leadership skills can enable principals to function comfortably and effectively. Some researchers suggest that there is no true definition of the concept of leadership; it is an exclusive, arbitrary and subjective term (Akao, 2008; Bush, 2003; Earley & Weindling, 2004; Yukl, 2002). Bush (2003) identifies key elements found in most definitions of leadership, and they are: Leadership is a process of influence; leadership should be based on personal and professional values; and leadership with a vision is an essential component of effective leadership. Cadwell (2006) defines educational leadership as “Leadership is a process for establishing direction, aligning people, motivating and inspiring, and achieving change” (p. 6). This process influences other team members inside the organization towards aims and objectives of the school organization itself (Luenburg & Orstein, 2008). Another author suggests that leadership centers on a person and the ability that he has to be able to lead as a leader just as much as what he does (Johnson, 2008). The reason for different definitions is because of one’s perception of leadership and its characteristics (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). The conflict between leadership and efficient management of schools is currently overshadowed by myriad definitions of leadership. Most theories of leadership view leadership as an influential process, whereas perceptions of management imply an element of control. Management, broadly defined, means the organization of people and processes to accomplish a goal (Park, 1980 as cited in Catano & Stronge, 2006).

Many scholars describe these terms as “indispensable” (Everard, Morris, & Wilson, 2004, p. 22). In the book *Theories of educational leadership and management*, Bush (2003) argues that leadership overlaps with the similar terms of management and administration. He states that the term ‘management’ is used in countries like Britain, Europe and Africa, while the term ‘administration’ is preferred in the United States,

Canada and Australia. Researchers like Yukl (2002) acknowledge the fact that leadership and management interrelate, illustrating that one can be a leader without being a manager, and one can manage without leading. In Solomon Islands most principals get confused with these two terms, thinking that they are leading when actually they are managing (Malasa, 2007). Other writers agree that when leadership and management overlap, it becomes a success for the organization as a whole (Cuban, 1988; Earley & Weindling, 2004; Fullan, 2002; Malasa, 2007; Robertson, 1995). Thus Early and Weindling (2004) stated that:

Leadership tends to be more formative, proactive and problem solving, dealing with such things as values, vision and mission, whereas the concerns of management are more to do with the execution, planning, organizing and deploying of resources of making things happen. Management is focused more on providing order and consistency to organizations (p.5).

Other authors (Robertson, 1995; Schein, 1985; Sergiovanni, 1992) perceive management differently. They see that managing is not leading, but implementing, rather than deciding on one's decisions.

Some writers describe the term administration as being like an umbrella that encompasses the terms leadership and management (Robertson, 1995; Sergiovanni, 1992; Starratt, 2004). Administration can be defined as a process of working with and through others to accomplish school goals efficiently (Sergiovanni, 1992). According to Kedian (2006, as cited in Akao, 2008)), there is a similarity between leadership and management. He mentions that the three concepts are on a continuum where management ends, administration starts and where administration ends leadership begins.

Most important to our study is the concept of educational leadership and where it stands with gender. Leadership at the present time is very challenging as new reforms of education are being implemented. According to Cannon, (2008, p. 52) “the demands on leadership are increasing; - social change, standard sedation and accountability, parental expectations, constant pressure for student achievement and the ever changing knowledge base on which learning is built” have an influence on schools and the leadership practices within. Educational leadership tends androcentric where male domination is considered the norm of the day. Defining the terms of leadership, management and administration can help in understanding educational leadership with gender. Leadership encompasses gender, education, cultures and collaborative ventures when one tries to understand the concept behind it.

2.3 Effective Leadership Practices

Effective leadership within schools is a great need in this century. Principals need to be more prepared, more informed, more accountable; and be flexible to adapt to the changes in education (Bandiho, 2009). For schools to become successful and attain high achievements they need effective leaders. These leaders are the head of the school who are principals. It is the principal’s role to set the direction of the school in creating a positive workplace for teachers and a positive learning environment for children (Davis, Hammond, LaPointe & Meyerson, 2005). In the late 1980’s two new theories of leadership evolved. These two leadership theories were transformational and charismatic leadership.

Transformational and charismatic leadership describe the nature and capacity towards effective leadership. Both emphasized the emotions and values leaders needed to influence followers to make self-sacrifice (Yukl, 1999). Transformational leadership

in particular has an “emphasis on setting direction, developing people, building relationships and significantly, culture- building, to transform the organization” (Holmes, 2005, p. 46). The growing consensus today is that for school leaders to influence high student achievement they need the support and development of effective teachers and effective organizational process (Davis et al., 2005).

In a study of perspectives of teachers on effective school leadership, teachers pointed out that school principals “personal qualities (e.g. honesty, security, compassion, respect for others) and competencies (e.g., listening skills, feedback skills, analytical and conceptual skills, problem- solving skills, and knowledge of curriculum)” were perceived as effective leadership (Blasé, 1987, p. 608). According to Blasé’s study on teachers’ perceptions, there were two factors to consider that teachers highlighted as effective leadership. These were the task and consideration factors. Task factors included accessibility of the principal in the schools, consistency, knowledge, goal directions, ability to manage time, and being a problem solver. These personal traits related to principals being authentic, friendly, compassionate and open-minded (Blasé, 1987). Teachers also took in to consideration the factors of the leader being supportive, participative, fair, recognition of teachers work and willingness to delegate authority.

According to Cranstone and Ehlich (2009) sharing of responsibility built the confidence of teachers which supported the study Blasé (1987) conducted. Leaders’ ability to show recognition towards teachers work and commending teachers was also highlighted as an effective leadership practice (Avolio & Base, 2002). Effective leadership practices that promoted a sense of caring and belief in staff towards creating relationships strengthened follower’s ability to see the directions that the

leaders try to practice and help them move towards contributing to successful schools (Blase, 1987; Glanze, 2006; McCabe, 2011).

2.4 Women in Educational Leadership

Current literature on women principals has indicated that whilst the number of women in managerial positions in the business world is increasing, this cannot be said in educational leadership (Celikten, 2005). The number of women who held administrative positions in schools in the past is unchanged in the present time. Comparison between women in the teaching field and administrators evidently sees an increase of women in the teaching field yet this is not reflected in administration positions (Celikten, 2005). Evidence can be seen in Korea where 14% hold administrative positions (Kim & Kim, 2005). Society and its stereotype of thinking pronounce that men lead better than women (Growe & Montgomery, 2000). Even though this may be the reality in some ways, women are just as important to leadership as men. Studies have shown that women lead differently to men, yet barriers exist that hinder them in excelling into higher positions.

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 these qualities of a good leader still face higher attrition and slower career mobility 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). Since gender is a hindrance to

women leaders, some believe compelled to lead in the manner that is considered the norm; that is, the way that men. Utilizing men's method of leadership is the easiest way for a woman to be hired for administrative positions or any position of leadership, especially since approach to leadership has repeatedly been established as acceptable to the public and successful in attracting promotion and recognition (Porat, 1991) According to (Allen et al., 1995; Lindsay, 1999) females in positions that are male dominated indicated there was a need to be better qualified than the males with whom they competed. African American women believe they had to be as 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 district not select or recruit them for training programs in the administration field, making it harder to break into the system.

2.5 Leadership Styles of Women in Education

Leadership style therefore is the way a leader leads. Some leaders are more interested in the work to be done than in the people they work with while others pay more attention to their relationship with subordinates than the job. Whether a leader emphasizes the task or human relations is usually considered central to leadership style.

Chandan (1987) defines leadership style as the ingredient of personality embodied in leaders that causes subordinates to follow them. Okumbe (1998) on the other hand defines leadership styles as particular behaviors applied by a leader to motivate subordinates to achieve the objectives of the organization. The school head is in a unique position as the manager or administrator who controls schools' resources for the purpose of achievements of educational goals and can accelerate the process of schools development or can demolish the progress of education (Oyedeji, 1998;

Adeyemi, 2004). As such, a leadership style occupies an important position in school management. Leaders express leadership in many roles. These, among others, are: formulating aims and objectives, establishing structures, managing and motivating personnel and providing leadership (Daresh, 2002:11).

However, Nathan (1996) asserts providing leadership is a very essential component of a leader's role. The leadership style leaders choose to perform the above mentioned roles will determine whether they will accomplish the task at hand and long-term organizational goals or not, and whether they will be able to achieve and maintain positive relationships with staff (Mazzarella & Smith, 1989).

Traditional leadership styles have been demonstrated by specific behaviours or practices of people of influence. According to Mankoe (2002) leadership styles refer to the general ways in which a leader behaves towards subordinates in order to attain organizational objectives. Designating leaders as positive or negative is one way of classifying them. Berkley (2004) sees leadership style as a craft that is administered to achieve the mission of the organization. Some leaders have direct or indirect influence on learning outcomes and what happens among teachers. More so, the impact of school leadership style is felt on students and it is generally mediated by others such as teachers and organizational factors (Hallinger & Heck 1998). Mielke (2010) argues that by practicing different leadership styles, school leaders can directly influence the motivation capacities and working conditions of teachers who in turn shape classroom practice and student learning. Bauckham (2009) asserts that styles differ according to the context within which school leaders operate. He explains that the most frequently used leadership style is not always the one associated with performance but sometimes it can be associated negatively. The highest scoring styles used by leaders

may differ between rural and urban schools with one educational system. In addition, Bauckham contends that, leaders are responsive to the context in which they operate but they do not depend on it totally, they can adapt to the context of their individual schools, irrespective of the national educational system context in which they should operate. This means that traditionally, school leadership style has been positively associated with school performance and teacher performance.

As women gain access to leadership positions, it is important to look into the leadership styles which each gender portrays, since women's leadership style is different to male leadership styles, according to some studies (Eagly & Johannsson-Schmidt, 2001). On the other hand, other literature states that there are no differences between how males and females lead: it is genders' behaviors and not leadership styles that make the difference (Chapman, 1975). Some authors' see that the difference between male and female leadership is that men view leadership as leading with authority while women see themselves as leaders that facilitate (Schaefer, 1985).

According to Chiliwniak (1997) male and female leaders have different ways of leading. Females embrace relationships, and share and process. They focus more on instructional leadership, where they portray supervisory practices concerned with students' individual differences and knowledge of curriculum teaching methods and objectives of teaching (Conner, 1992). Women exhibit more of a transformational leadership where they get their followers to transform their self-interest into the interest of the group for the goal of an organization (Rosener, 1990). Men however, are more concerned with the job of completing tasks, achieving goals and the hoarding of information. These characteristics demonstrate a more transactional style

of leadership where job performance is a transaction with the subordinate and requires an exchange of rewards (Rosener, 1990).

2.5.1 Transformational leadership style

According to Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009), the transformational leadership theory was introduced by Burns in 1978 and has since attracted a great deal research attention. Transformational leadership comprises four elements, that is, _charismatic role modelling, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation ‘(Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009, p.462). First, utilizing charisma, leaders instigate high regard, reverence and allegiance, and emphasize having one shared mission. Second, individualized consideration is whereby leaders establish their own relationships with followers, and cater for individual differences, needs, skills and desires. Third, inspirational motivation is whereby the leader clearly communicates the vision for the future, demonstrates how goals can be attained, and instils followers’ zeal to achieve goals. Finally, intellectual stimulation is whereby leaders widen and raise the welfare of followers and motivate them to be highly innovative (Hayward, Goss & Tolmay, 2004; Leach, 2005; Kirkbride, 2006; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). The effectiveness of the transformational leadership style may be complemented by the transactional leadership style. In the next subsection, the transactional leadership style is discussed.

A transformational leader assists followers in reaching their full potential by providing attention to the needs and motivates followers (Northouse, 2004). They state future goals and develop plans as to achieve them; as a result, transformational leaders motivate followers to do more than they originally thought possible (Avolio and Bass, 2004). In interaction, transformational leaders focus on the process of

helping people transforming themselves from followers to leaders (Van Linden & Fertman, 1998). Transformational leaders use charisma, inspiration, challenge and encouragement to assist associates in reaching a higher collective purpose, vision and mission of an organization (Bass, 1985). He continues to explain that if transformational leadership could be based on one's background characteristics, values, ethics or traits, then these traits were universal to mankind (Bass 1990). Transformational leadership is inherently the same as transactional leadership but for Burns (1978), the transformational leader recognizes the contracted service but seeks to go further by arousing and satisfying higher needs and attempts to engage the whole person. Burns (1978, pg.4) reiterate that “ the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engage the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents”. Yukl (1998) asserts that the transformational leader articulates the vision in a clear and appealing manner, explains how to attain the vision, acts confidently and optimistically, expresses confidences in the followers, emphasizes values with symbolic actions, leads by example, and empowers followers to achieve the vision. Bass (2000) states that, transformational leadership refers to the leader's moving the followers beyond immediate self-interests through idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration. Consistent with the possibility that transformational leadership may be somewhat aligned with the female than the male gender role are studies showing that subordinates perceive greater correspondence between leaders feminine personality attributes and their transformational style than their transactional style. (Hackman, Furniss, Hills, & Paterson, 1992, Ross & Offermann, 1997).

2.5.2 Autocratic leadership style

In the autocratic leadership style, also called dictatorship, the leaders are the focal point of power and regard their decisions and judgement as supreme (Burke et al., 2006; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). The style has its roots in the transactional theory, which accentuates the relationships that exist between leaders and their followers. In this case, followers perform because of the reward systems or punishment for non-compliance (Burke et al., 2006). The disadvantages of the autocratic leadership style appear to outweigh the advantages. For that reason, the autocratic leadership style is not popular among employees (and colleagues) in most organizations. If used in organizations, the leaders may apply it accidentally. The literature identifies the democratic leadership style as the complete opposite of the autocratic leadership style.

According to Afful-Broni (2004) many psychologists believe that this style of leadership stems from fear and the feeling of insecurity, the leader's regular force of action is therefore his defensive weapon. Other examples of his/her weapons are constant threats and punishment that are administered. According to Afful-Broni, obviously, the theory that lies underneath the mentality of the dictator is Theory X. Because of the type of beliefs he has of the members within the organization, the dictator does not share power or responsibility with others. He does not delegate much, as he thinks that employees are lazy and simply follow orders.

Pros of Autocratic Leadership Style

- a. In the case of assistants or subordinates who are not efficient, this style works best for the organization. Regular supervision helps them to achieve more, as left to themselves they would be lost or would hurt the organization.

- b. It enables close supervision and more control for the leader.
- c. In certain emergency situations the autocratic style becomes rather more practical and useful.
- d. Subordinates who are naturally submissive or not interested in sharing responsibilities may benefit from not having to do much

Cons of Autocratic Leadership Style

- a. The varied talents among the staff are hardly seen, since staffs do not get the opportunity to practice their skills.
- b. There is usually low morale on the part of subordinates.
- c. There is little initiative on the part of the workers.
- d. People work out of fear, and there is no sense of partnership.
- e. There is little input from the workers.
- f. There is very little information flow, and rumours are common, negatively affect work input.
- g. Personal and skill development on the part of the staff is very rare.
- h. The leader is often overworked, and ends up with burnout.
- i. There is constant tension and rumour mongering, as few really have information regarding the direction of purpose of the organization.

2.5.3 Democratic leadership style

The democratic leadership style, also known as participative leadership style, derives its roots from the Transformational theory (Burke et al., 2006; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). In this style, leadership focuses on change, visionary leadership and enhancing individual and organizational outcomes. Members are given the chance to build up their leadership skills, participate in leadership and contribute to decision-making

(Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). This leadership style is arguably more efficient than autocratic leadership (MacBeath, 2005). Employees feel their opinions, suggestions and ideas are taken into consideration. Although members enjoy a certain level of autonomy, it works effectively in situations where members are highly skilled, passionate and more satisfied about their job as is the situation where the laissez-faire leadership style is utilized.

According to Afful- Broni (2004), this leadership is grounded on the thesis that the organization is the responsibility of all, even though the leader has the primary role of guiding the rest of the group in arriving at their collective mission. Therefore policies are arrived at through collaborators, a team and partners. Response of co-operation, enthusiasm, acceptance of more responsibility and recognition of the worth of each worker characterize this style of leadership.

This style of leadership is grounded on the thesis that administration is the responsibility of all even though the leader has the primary role of guiding the rest of the group in arriving at their collective mission. Therefore, policies are arrived at through discussions, consensus building and collective decisions. The leader helps his staff to operate as colleagues, collaborators and partners. This style of leadership is characterized by responses of cooperation, enthusiasm acceptance of more responsibility and recognition of the worth of each worker. The leader considers himself as first among equals. The leader who adopts this style is more likely to encourage assistants and other staffs to be loyal and cooperative, Hidden potentials is more likely to be revealed and used to the advantage of the organization.

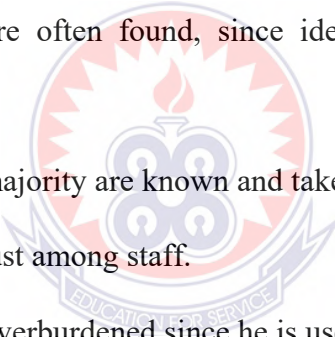
Theory Y is what underlies this leadership style, and as a result, decisions are shared. The leader delegates responsibility to his staff, although the final decision remains with him. There is a lot of collaboration and consultation and all along the leader does not impose his ideas on the subjects. 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.

The Pros of Democratic Style of Leadership

There is respect for all, and so people are generally happy with the organizational processes.

There is less tension and more collaboration among staff.

New and better ways are often found, since ideas come from a multiplicity of sources.

- 
- The needs of the majority are known and taken care of.
 - There is mutual trust among staff.
 - The leader is not overburdened since he is used to delegating.
 - Staff at the lower end gets the opportunity to move up the ladder after having proven competence through delegation.
 - Riots are where people feel respected and listened to.
 - Specialization occurs where people are given the tools they need to practice in their area of specialization.

Laissez –Faire Leadership Style

Laissez-Faire leadership is when leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions. With this style, freedoms are fully determined by group goals, techniques, and working methods. Leaders rarely intervene. Laissez-faire style is

described by Hackman and Johnson (2009) as the most effective style, especially where followers are mature and highly motivated. Laissez-faire leadership style allows complete freedom to group decision without the leader's participation. Thus, subordinates are free to do what they like.

According to Musaazi (1982), Laissez-faire is a French expression which literally means, 'let people do what they wish'. Laissez-faire leadership therefore is a kind of leadership where there are practically no rules in the organization.

Here leaders allow followers to have complete freedom to make decisions concerning the completion of their work. It allows followers a 'self-rule', while at the same time offering guidance and support when requested. The laissez-faire leader using guided freedom provides the followers with all materials necessary to accomplish their goals, but does not directly participate in decision making unless the followers request their assistance and also is a philosophy or practice characterized by a usually deliberate abstention from direction or interference especially with individual freedom of choice and action.

The Pros of Laissez –Faire Leadership Style

In situations where the subordinates are seasoned experts in their individual fields, this style of leadership is rather more appropriate and productive. An example is in a well-established university, where it would not be proper for the leader to be going rounds, checking on attendance of lectures or on their quality of leading. Such comment must be made with qualifications, for we know that at the university level where it is believed that there is 'comparatively larger and higher amount of expertise, the vice chancellor supervises work through his deans, directors and heads of departments, and may himself pop in as and when he so desires or is able.

The Con of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

As a matter of fact, this style has a number of disadvantages, as have been limited in the very attempt to describe it. In summary, here are few specifics:

- If allowed over long period, this style may lead to pandemonium, especially in situations where the subordinates may not be that experienced.
- The outputs of the organization may suffer tremendously, and the leader may even have difficulty responding to correct them, as it was he who failed to take full leadership responsibilities in the first place.
- The lack of full participation or application of the leader's supervisory skills can lead to poor state for the leader and the organization in consequences.
- There is possibility of junior staff assuming illegal leadership roles as result of the laissez –faire attitude of the leader
- The leader would lose respect among all, including those he may have tried to please through his consistent inaction.

2.5.4 Preferred leadership styles

Numerous leadership styles have been studied by well-known researchers and they have proved to be effective. For instance, Bass and Avolio (1994) developed the full range leadership models, where by preferred leadership styles were identified as transformational, transactional and laissez-faire. In the 1990s, many researchers turned their attention to other types of leadership styles by distinguishing between leaders who are transformational and those who are transactional (Bass, 1998). This studies was initially inspired by Burn's (1978) argument that existing analyses of leadership style left out some of the most important aspect of effective leadership. To

capture these neglected aspects, he proposed that researchers study a type of leadership that he labelled *transformational*.

2.6 Women's Leadership in Developing Countries

Most studies of educational administration have been conducted in the Anglo-American context, and developing countries have been marginalized (Oplatka, 2006). This can also be the trend seen in women's leadership in educational administration. Due to the disparities seen between the cultural and social context of developing and developed countries, this literature will be based on women in developing countries. When mentioning developing countries, these are often countries that were ruled by Europeans for a very long time; they have an agricultural based economy; high birth and death rates; high levels of poverty, and a large gap between the rich and poor. These exclude China, Thailand and Iran (Oplatka, 2006). In developing countries, women leaders are mostly found in religious and community work areas of society. Yet most times they are among the oppressed in societies of developing countries. In these developing countries you have differences between culture, political system and religion. To be able to understand women in developing countries Phendla (2007) states, "Black women's lives can only be understood through interlocking categories of various constructs including race, ethnicity, gender, class, language, culture, and traditional norms" (cited from Burley & Lenz, 2009), p.42). Thus literature separates them into least and more economically developed.

In recent years, economic growth, and social and political progress in some of these developing countries has seen an advancement in the conditions of women. Places such as Costa Rica, Hong Kong, Singapore, the Philippines, China, South Korea and some parts of Islamic countries have experienced an increased percentage of young

women entering into primary, secondary and tertiary institutions (Jayaweera, 1997; Sidani, 2005). However, Hong Kong, Singapore and South Korea are more advanced economy countries. Going across the globe to poorer countries such as Cambodia, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Nepal, Uganda and Zambia, the government policies have slowly changed the conditions of working women.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

The transformational leadership style theory is the theory that underpinned the study and it has been explained below with its connection with the study.

2.7.1 Transformational leadership style theory

Transformational leadership is the style of leadership which can influence teachers directly and indirectly. Transformational and transactional leadership were two styles that were proposed by Burns (1978). Transformational leadership is defined as “raising followers’ awareness to the importance of achieving group goals, transcending self-interests for the sake of the team, and developing followers’ needs to high levels in areas such as achievements” (Barnnet & McCormick, 2004, p. 407). Transformation is a leadership style that is strongly advocated for schools, since it is one style by which leaders are able to cope with the new reform changes happening in the educational realm of organizations (Barnnet & McCormick, 2004). Researchers who have advocated for this have empirical evidence to support that transformational leadership has led to organizational outcomes such as motivation, commitment and developing new learning for teachers (Leithwood, Janti, & Steinbach, 1999). Bass and Avolio (1997) argue that leaders that are transformational in leadership style have increased commitment towards achieving the organizational goals.

Transformational leadership is aimed at bringing about a radical change in a school's existing state of affairs (Watson & Rivera-McCutchen, 2016). Transformational leadership inspires and motivates the followers (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership consists of four main components namely:

1. Individual consideration involves leaders' ability to understand other's needs, helping, developing and supporting others.
2. Idealized influence includes building trust, respect, acceptance and ethical standards in schools.
3. Intellectual stimulation includes leaders' practices which inculcate creativity and innovativeness among school members and in teaching and learning process; and challenging the status quo.
4. Inspirational motivation involves setting directions, developing a vision for change, making the vision achievable, and motivating followers for change.

Leadership is emerged from the advent of social life. Some people are put together and begin their social life and influence each other. Transformational leadership is achieved when leaders and followers motivate each other for higher motivation and morality. These leaders have better relationships with their supervisors. They help the organization more than leaders who act transactional and they create more value for the organization. Transformational leaders motivate their employees to do more than what is sited in their employment contract and they focus on the employees' higher level needs. These leaders act as mentors and advisors and pay attention to personal development, learning, and supplying the needs of the employees. They provide challenge, a sense of mission, broader perspectives, respect, and trust for the employees, and they act as role models for their employees. They create an

atmosphere of trust and motivate employees to work for the organization beyond their self-interests (Khorshid & Pashazadeh, 2014, p. 7).

Transformational leadership refers to leaders who seek to create ideas and new perspectives to create a new path of growth and prosperity in front of the organization. By developing commitment, passion and loyalty among managers and staff, they mobilize organization's members to make fundamental changes in fundamentals and basis of the organization in order to be prepared and to gain necessary capabilities for moving in new directions and reaching higher ideal performance peaks (Mirkamali et al., 2013).

The transformational leader constantly looks for potential motives in followers and aims to draw followers' attention to superior needs and conversion of individual interests into collective interests. According to Bass and Avolio, transformational leadership is a conscious, moral and spiritual process that provides development patterns for organization through a reliable equal power leadership. Transformational leaders explain organization's future prospects and provide the model consistent with the prospects, improve acceptance of group goals, provide a wide range of support for individuals in the organization and encourage them to pursuit organization's goals (Mortazavi & Nikkar, 2014, p.105).

2.7.2 Characteristics of transformational leaders

1. In this kind of leadership, people can affect counterparts and superiors like their subordinates.
2. The process of transformational leadership roots in values and personal beliefs of the leader. However, in this process, goods are not exchanged between superiors and subordinates.

3. Such leaders are inspired by their deepest personal values (like justice, fairness, honesty, and honor). Burns remembered these values as ultimate values. Ultimate values are so that one cannot bargain over them or exchange them.
4. By delivering ultimate values as personal standards, transformational leaders create harmony and unity among their followers and more importantly, they arrange changes in goals and personal beliefs of followers in line with organizational goals (Eskandari, 2014, p. 126).
5. Transformational leadership is inspired from heart and mind and shows them.
6. Transformational leadership has a perspective and links that perspective with passion and purpose. Transformational leader allows his/her feeling to talk to others in a way beyond the mind from depths of its entity.
7. Transformational leadership pays attention to staff's personal attentions to use them and create trust and commitment. It is about caring staff, what they want, and how you can help them.
8. Transformational leadership refers to obtain a great power through the mind. Mind becomes curious, becomes open to new ideas and learns constantly (Steven Corey, 2007, p.10).

2.7.3 Transactional leadership

Is a product-oriented approach that focuses on the exchange that occurs between leaders and their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2004; Van Liden, 1998). Burns' (1978) argument of transformational leaders contrasted leaders with these characteristics to transactional leaders, who establish exchange relationships with their subordinates. Such leaders manage by clarifying subordinate's responsibilities, monitoring their work to meet objectives and correcting them for failing to meet such

objectives. Transactional Leaders provide benefits and rewards to followers in exchange for the fulfilment of agreements or goals by followers. Aldoory and Toth, 2004; Bass and Avolio, 1990 share the view that transformational and transactional leadership styles provide a synergistic relations that adds to a leaders effectiveness which ultimately leads to performance beyond expectations. However, Avolio and Bass (2004) portray laissez-faire leadership as a non-leading model. This style is described as the absence of leadership and is characterized by hands – off approach. Laissez-faire leaders provide little or no effort to help the follower grow personally (Northouse, 2004). Hallinger (2003) argues that, instructional and transformational styles are the preferred leadership styles for school leaders. (Andrews & Bamburg, 1990; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) share similar views that instructional leadership focuses predominantly on the role of the school leader in coordinating, controlling, supervising and developing curriculum and instruction in the school.

2.7.4 Instructional leadership

Instructional leaders lead from a combination of expertise and charisma. They are known to be “hands-on school leaders”, “hip-deep” in curriculum instruction and unafraid of working with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning (Cuban 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Instructional leaders are goal oriented, focusing on the improvement of students’ academic outcomes. They sought to create an “academic press” that fosters high expectations and standards for students, as well as for teachers (Mortimore, 1993; Purky & Smith 1984) cited in Hallinger (2003).

In the year 2000, Hallinger developed the most frequently used conceptualization of instructional leadership. This model proposes three dimensions of the leadership construct: defining the school mission, managing the instructional program, and

promoting a positive school-learning climate (Hallinger, 2000). Two functions framing and communicating the school goals comprise the dimension, defining the schools missions. These functions concern the school leader's role in working with staff to ensure that the school has clear measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of students. It is the school leader's responsibility to ensure that these are widely known and supported throughout the community.

Secondly, another dimension is managing the instructional program, which focuses on the co-ordination and control of instruction and curriculum. This dimension incorporates three leadership functions; coordinating the curricula and monitoring students' progress. It is clear that in schools with larger population, the leader cannot be the only person involved in leading the school's instructional program. Yet, the framework assumes that development of the academic core of the school is a key leadership responsible of the school leader (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The third dimension which deals with promoting school learning climate, includes several functions: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility and providing incentives for learning. Hallinger (2000) summarizes that it is the responsibility of the instructional leadership to align the school's standards and practices with its mission and to create a climate that supports teaching and learning. In a synthesis of several studies of the impact of the school leader from transformational leadership perspective, Leithwood (1994) highlights on people's effect as cornerstone of the transformational leadership model. Leith wood found that school leader effects are achieved through fostering group goals, modelling the desire behaviour for others, providing intellectual stimulation and individualized support , especially, towards personal and staff development. In these schools, leaders

were better at supporting staff, giving recognition, knowing problems of the school, were more approachable, sought new ideas, and spent considerable time developing human resources.

2.7.5 Perceived leadership styles

Understandably, this is defined by how people or followers see leadership or behaviour or style as either acceptable or non-acceptable. This is framed from the theory propounded by Fred Fiedler. According to Hersay et al. (2001; 2008), Fred Fiedler is widely respected as the father of contingency theory of leadership (p.110). Fiedler developed this theory based on three major situational variables; (i) Leader – Member Relations, (ii) Task Structure and (iii) Position Power. By expansion it means that leadership-followership relations and how people perceive that relationship as beneficial or not can determine the influence of that leadership and the ability to exercise control and effectiveness (Northouse, 2013). Northouse, agrees that relationship matters and that followers can see the value of following a leader for several gains. The way the leader followers see gain in leadership style leads to perceived leadership effect. The quest becomes personnel development as in enabling others to Act (Kouzes & Posner, 2007), entrepreneurship as in encouraging relationship to develop for the mutual benefit of organizations, structural as in maintaining structures and administrative efficiencies, and / or participative style as in encouraging others to be part of decision making.

2.7.5.1 Personal development style

This implies implementing leadership practices that promote training and development of teachers. This type of leadership provides recognition for excellence and achievement, rewarding teachers for their special contributions, encouraging the

professional development of teachers, registering outstanding performance of teachers, making informed recommendations to personnel placement, transfer and retention, complimenting teachers who contribute exceptionally to school activities. Informing teachers about possibilities for updating their knowledge and skills is key.

2.7.5.2 Entrepreneurial style

This represents leadership practices that promote the involvement of external actors that is encouraging relations between the school, the community and parents as well as promoting co-operation with other organizations and businesses. Also, it encourages discussions of school goals with relevant stakeholders, utilizing appropriate and effective techniques for community and parental involvement and promoting two way communications between the school and the community. It projects a positive image of the school to the community, building trust within the local community and communicating the school's vision to the external community.

2.7.5.3 Structuring style

This represents leadership practices that promote establishment and implementation of clear rules. This means ensuring clarity about the roles and activities of staff, clarity about work priorities, providing clarity in relation to student's behaviour roles and ensuring that school rules and consequences of misconduct are uniformly applied to all students, working on the creation of an orderly atmosphere and providing clarity regarding policies and procedures to be implemented.

2.7.5.4 Participative leadership style

According to Yukl (2010) participative leadership style involves efforts made by a leader to encourage and facilitate participation by others in taking important decisions. Yukl explains further that in participative leadership; delegation and

empowerment are subjects that bridge the power and behaviour approaches to leadership. It involves the use of various decision procedures that allow other people some influence over the leader's decisions. Other terms commonly used to refer to some aspects of participative leadership includes consultation, joint decision making, power sharing, decentralization, empowerment and democratic management. Participative leadership can be regarded as a distinct type of behaviour, although it may be used in conjunction with specific task and relations behaviours (Yukl, 2010). Participative leadership can be regarded as a distinct type of behaviour, although it may be used in conjunction with specific task and relation behaviours (Yukl, 2010). He concludes that there are four potential benefits of participative leadership; there is high quality decision making, high decision acceptance by participants, and more satisfaction with the decision process and more development of decision making skills.

2.7.5.5 Achievement-oriented style

In this style, the leader sets challenging but achievable goals for the subordinates. He/she pushes work improvement sets high expectations for subordinates and rewards them when the expectations are met. That is, the leader provides both high directive (structure) and high supportive (consideration) behavior. This style works well with achievement-oriented subordinates (Niboi, 2004).

2.7.5.6 Consultative styles

The leader has substantial but not complete confidence and trust in the employees. Although public decisions are made by the leader, he/she seeks the opinions of the employees, but he makes the final decision. The employees have positive attitudes toward the organization, the manager and their work. When the employees feel that

enough consultation has not taken place, they publicly accept orders from the manager, but sometimes covertly resist the order by insubordination, especially when the manager decides on majority rules principle (Owens, 1981). Communication flows from and to the hierarchy. The manager consults through relevant channels, with subordinates. They in turn consult with him/her on matters they would like to bring to his/her attention (Brownwell, 1985). Control is mainly at the top. Middle management usually delegates tasks to control subordinates at lower levels. This is done in terms of appraisal, evaluation and supervision. Subordinates perceive control as a way of maintaining the set standard (Ukeje, 1992).

2.8 Level of Women in Higher Positions in Education

In contemporary educational settings, educational leaders and teachers are recognized for playing important roles in determining the quality of education that children receive (Donnie & Zuliana, 2017; Adeyemo et al., 2013). In recognition, many governments, educational psychologists and other relevant stakeholders have advocated for the selection of qualified administrators to run the affairs of the various educational institutions in their respective countries all levels. It is widely recognized that women in education management are in the minority in countries that are still developing and in those whose development is already fairly advanced (Celikten, 2005), such as Greece and the United Kingdom (Mitroussi & Mitroussi, 2009), Turkey (Celikten 2005; Inandi, 2009), Uganda (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010) and New Zealand (Brooking, 2008). Nolutho, (2014) and Bronars, (2015) in different studies theorized that women are critical to the administration and management of educational institutions across the world. Consequently, Glass, (2000), Kowalski (2006) and Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, (2007) in a study observed that women are over-represented in the classroom and under-represented in

leadership in many educational across the world. In countries such as the United States, Brenneman, (2018), revealed that three-quarters of the teachers in the educational sector are women as revealed by the National Center for Education Statistics. Also, the statistics further showed that half of principals in the country are women. Brenneman, (2018) further stated that recent data from the School Superintendents Association suggest that women make up only a quarter of district leaders. Statistic Canada, (2011) stated that women continue to increase their investment in post-secondary education and as such, their ascension to senior leadership positions and relative earnings reflects their preparation towards the occupation of higher positions.

In exploring the trend of women in educational leadership, Kimberly, (2012) observed that the level of women's representation in formal leadership positions in elementary educational leadership in places like Ontario has change over time. This was evident as the percentage of women being elementary school principals and vice principals moved from 14% in the 1994 to almost 65% in 2010. Kimberly, (2012) further noted that even though the increased number of female leaders at the elementary school level can be viewed as a move toward more equitable school board practices, the picture at secondary school level looks very different. The evidence showed the female secondary school teachers, department heads and educational administrators is lower than the elementary level. At the secondary level, women representation was between 49% and 55% as at 2009-2010 academic year as compared to the 65% at the elementary level. Hoff, (2006) concluded by stating that though women generally make up more than half the teaching force in many countries, their representation in leadership positions continues to lag significantly behind that of men.

Similarly, Al-Shaddi (2010) pointed out that the woman had a clear role in the management of educational institutions, especially the methods and approaches of managing the organizational struggles among them. Sernak (2003) focused on the cultural traits of the women's leadership in schools. Lynch (2003) distinguished between men and women in leadership in that men enjoy traits that help them in leading, such as self-sufficiency, decisiveness, power, self-assurance, domination, self-confidence, motivation, ability to compete, and discipline. On the other hand, women are characterized by qualities that showed their leadership abilities, through enhancing interaction between individuals, cooperation with others, focusing on social relations more than focusing on the hierarchy; and that the social relations style is the most common method among women's leadership.

On the African continent, Nolutho, (2014) in a study revealed that South African educational leadership favors males and often resist change though the Department of Education in the country instituted the Gender Equality in Education policy since 2013. The situation of women underrepresentation in most African countries is not recent. For instance, in South Africa, the government acknowledged in the White Paper on Education and Training (Department of Education, 1995) that women were underrepresented in school leadership positions, and that for affirmative action purposes they would be classified as a disadvantaged group. The Bill of Rights (section 9(2)) in the Constitution of South Africa, 1995, makes provision for gender equality. In the White Paper on Education and Training of 1995, the Department of Education acknowledged that women are underrepresented in school management as a result of discrimination against their gender, and promised to rectify this state of affairs. The Department of Education continually implemented strategies and initiatives to effect transformation in the education system, and in 1996, a task team

was appointed to investigate ways to achieve gender equality in education. According to Chisholm and September (2005), at the end of 1997, the task team appointed by the Department of Education compiled a lengthy report detailing the creation of many new opportunities for women in South Africa on the basis of gender sensitivity. According to the Gender Equality Task Team's report (1997), discrimination had prevented women from entering management positions as institutionalized by the apartheid system (Chisholm & September, 2005; Wadesango, Rembe & Chabaya, 2011). The Gender Equality Task Team also revealed that there had previously been letters calling for attention to be paid to gender inequality in education administration, but that these discriminatory practices had continued in many instances (Wadesango et al., 2011)

Upon efforts made, Sperandio and Kagoda, (2010) still indicated that women in education management are in the minority in both developed and developing countries. In studies Hallinger, (2017), Davies, (2009) and Macbeath & Dempster, (2006) argued that there is the need to prepare, train and develop leaders for effective management of the educational institutions across the world.

Similarly, Davies, (2009) argued that effective leadership development is school-based and on-the-job, was quick to add that this is always supplemented by out-of-school activities such as increasing individuals' knowledge of a range of leadership approaches, reading, reflection, and interaction with peers and professionals in other schools and settings. Whitaker, Whitaker and Lumpa (2009) noted that managers and principals are school administrators who are responsible for the instructional, curricular and visionary leadership of their schools. Headmasters are accountable for instruction, curriculum, student learning, safety, student discipline, community

relations, buildings and grounds, and all financial/logistical needs of the school, students, and staff

For some time now, there have been a number of studies that have examined women's leadership development with some analyzing women's career paths and the strategies they have employed along those paths (Campbell et al., 2010; Gonzalez Sullivan, 2009; Kamassah, 2010; Montas Hunter, 2012; White et al., 2010). Most of these studies have contributed to a better understanding of women's leadership development by presenting the experiences of women in and aspiring to leadership positions and how these positions contributions in organizational development. Early studies (Helgesen, 1995) on women in leadership presented realistic data on high-achieving women business leaders in the areas of planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation which demonstrated the role of women leadership in organizational development.

Research on women's leadership development programs directly addresses some of the unique needs of women in leadership, although the contribution of identity development contributes more in the background than in the foreground. Women identity and development has its unique feature ranging from sociological and religious perspective of the roles and responsibilities of women. This is more eminent in the African context and for that matter, the Ghanaian society. Additionally, the research on supports and barriers for women in higher education leadership, while influenced by women's identity development, illustrates some of the salient identity characteristics women bring to leadership (such as the role of primary caregiver and caretakers) but does lacks explicit discussion of how women develop identity and how that development might influence leadership experiences.

2.9 Perceptions of Female Leadership and their Effectiveness

There is a perception in society that women are mothers and careers, and this does not promote the advancement of women. Even though governments, Gender based organizations and international organizations have put forward proposals to promote equality in the education profession across individual countries, women across the world are still underrepresented in management positions with some individuals still questioning the effectiveness of the leadership of the few fortunate women. Al-Jaradat, (2014) in a study stated that studies have been able to ascertain women's eligibility and their professional and leadership efficiency, which in most cases have override that of the men. However, the occupational and leadership status of the woman is still suffering a wide gap, as there is unequal representation in the administrative and leadership positions between men and women, which became clear in many countries, particularly in Arab countries (Al-Shihabi & Mohammad, 2001).

The effect of gender stereotyping on women's leadership effectiveness is often cited in the literature as the "double bind" dilemma and as the "think-leader-think-male" stereotype activation (Hoyt, 2005). Here generally, people are of the notion that, women are not as fit as their male counterparts in areas of leadership and boldness. The "double bind dilemma" represents the idea that women are doomed if they are able to advance into senior leadership positions, yet are also doomed if they do not, when they are confronted with gender stereotypes. The think-male-think leader stereotype activation is the notion that qualities that are commonly associated with successful leaders are often described as male attributes (taking charge, confident, assertive) (Oplatka & Hertz-Lararowitz, 2006; Sczesny, 2003; Hoyt, 2005).

If men are the “natural” leader, then women become by default “unnatural in respect to the many male think born leadership positions.” To put it differently, when women leaders act in ways that are not consistent with the feminine stereotype, they are perceived as too aggressive, rigid, uncaring, and self-promoting decidedly “unfeminine and more so not culturally warranted especially in the African perspective.” This ultimately leads to the perception that women leaders will always be seen as less effective than men as leaders. The “masculine nature” of educational leadership puts women who aspire to leadership at a disadvantage. Women’s “tendency to caring, subjective relational values could be perceived as at odds with the ‘masculine values’ such as ‘rationality’ and ‘objectivity’ of senior leadership” (Oplatka & Hertz-Lararowitz, 2006, p. 20).

Underlying this perception is the assumption that, when it comes to leadership style, men’s behaviors are seen as essential to effective leadership (Shakeshaft, 1989; Oplatka & Hertz-Lararowitz, 2006). When an “environment assumes men’s values and practices as the norm for leadership,” it is hardly surprising that many women are excluded from senior leadership positions in schools. This nevertheless deprives and demoralizes women in their quest to lead organizations especially in the various educational institutions. Other areas of research outside of education have also demonstrated the way in which leadership is gendered ‘masculine.’ In the 2005 Catalyst report entitled, “Women ‘Take Care’, Men ‘Take Charge’” researchers investigated whether opinions about leaders arise from gender stereotypes. Catalyst surveyed top corporate leaders to judge how effective both male and female leaders performed behaviors commonly associated to effective leadership (supporting, rewarding, mentoring, networking, consulting, team-building, inspiring, problem-solving, influencing upward, and delegating and effect of transparency and

accountability). The respondents' perceptions were then matched with gender stereotypes. Results of this survey indicate that male respondents considered male leaders to be more effective than women on all of the masculine leader behaviors (i.e., delegating, problem-solving, and influencing upward). Female respondents had similar results, with the exception of problem solving. Surprisingly, female respondents believed that males had greater competency at networking- a stereotypic female behavior. With the exception of networking and inspiring behaviors, this study demonstrates that both male and female managers judged male leaders as more competent and superior than female leaders on masculine behaviors (Catalyst, 2005). Results of this study are also similar to those of the 2006 Catalyst report titled, "Different Cultures, Similar Perceptions: Stereotyping of Western European Business Leaders" (Catalyst, 2006).

2.10 Gender Stereotypes and Gender Perspective in Women Leadership

Gender stereotypes are persistent cognitive structures that influence the way individual's process information regarding men and women in their societies and its impact thereof. For example, although attitudes toward women's rights and professional ambitions have undergone a revolution since the 1960s, gender stereotypes attributed to men and women remain and are consistent across many cultures, political environment and even worship (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). The impact of gender stereotypes becomes highly increased when they become internalized by the oppressed group and facilitate or perpetuate horizontal violence against women and the marginalized in the society (Freire, 2000). These cognitive structures are highly resistant to change and contain both prescriptive and descriptive elements about how men and women should behave (Hoyt, 2005).

This goes as long as affecting the type of food men will eat but that cannot be eaten by women. In some societies in Ghana, women are still not allowed to eat from prepared from dog delicacy or even chicken including eggs. This is presumed with the notion that; the unborn children can be corrupted if a woman should eat these types of delicacies. Gender stereotypes are present in many of the aforementioned barriers and demand a great amount of focus in the discussion of women and leadership. Gender stereotypes can be very powerful obstructions to female leaders as well as their organizations resulting from the value judgment people have towards women. Awareness and activation of gender stereotypes begins as early as childhood and are well developed for most children by the first grade (Paludi, 2008). Stereotypes learned early in life form the basis for implicit gender stereotypes (Rudman & Phelan, 2010).

Hidden gender stereotypes automatically associate men and women with various traits (men as a genetic and women as nurturing) and can become internalized by the individual leading to implicit self-concepts (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). Implicit self-concepts become exacerbated when women are exposed to stereotypic ads and ideologies. This effect was demonstrated by Davies, Spencer, and Steele (2005), after priming women with stereotypic television ads focusing on female stereotypes (e.g., irrational, emotional, weak, indecisive). Priming women with these stereotypes caused a decreased desire to pursue a leadership role and influenced their ability to imagine themselves as successful in traditional male roles unlike the case of men who are often inspired in their works and being brave at all times to manage (Davies et al., 2005; Rudman & Phelan, 2010).

Similar effects of implicit gender stereotypes and the influence of priming gender stereotypes have also influenced children's career aspirations and beliefs (Burger, Abbott, Tobias, Koch, Vogt & Sosa, 2007). Children's activation of their gender stereotypes are commonly manifested in the types of occupations they consider for themselves. Girls typically tend to choose occupations such as nurse, teacher, or flight attendant. In contrast, boys tend to consider occupations such as police officer, truck driver, architect, or pilot than jobs such as constructions, electrical and other technical and vocational jobs. A restriction of occupational aspirations is also evident in girls, specifically in the domains of math and science (Burger et al., 2007). Ilene Lang, president of Catalyst, also addressed the dangers of gender stereotypes in organizations as she states: When companies fail to acknowledge and address the impact of gender stereotypic bias, they lose out on top female talent. Ultimately, it's not women's leadership styles that need to change. Only when organizations take action to address the impact of gender stereotyping will they be able to capitalize on the "full deck" of talent (Catalyst, 2007, p. 24). The effects of gender stereotyping also manifest itself in the perceptions individuals maintain regarding female leadership effectiveness.

2.11 Challenges Affecting Women in Educational Leadership and

Administration

Over the years, women have been entering the professional and managerial ranks of many corporations at about the same rate as men with the main aim of balancing the game between their male counterparts, yet they remain dramatically underrepresented at senior levels. It is an undeniable fact that their widespread adoption of policies prohibiting sex discrimination and so-called "family-friendly" practices, while opening many doors to women, has failed to close the gender gap at more senior

levels, suggesting that impediments to women's advancement are more complex and elusive than deliberate forms of sex discrimination or family responsibilities. A number of studies (Msila, 2013; Hoff, 2006; Al-Jaradat, 2014) have documented numerous factors suggesting that it is difficult for women to fill management positions in education. These factors include gender discrimination, the pressure of family responsibilities and sociocultural considerations. Similarly, many of the studies reviewed clearly attested to the fact that women leaders do not always get the necessary support from the communities and as such often have to prove their capability as leaders under trying conditions in the patriarchal society. Much of these studies further show that people always have mistrust in women leadership and this is noted to be caused by a number of factors and these include tradition and culture (Lumby 2003; Lumby et al. 2010; Mestry and Schmidt 2012). Lumby (2003) also contends that communities do not trust women to be appointed as school managers because school management is an important job which demands the seriousness they think only men could provide.

2.12 Conflict between Work and Family Life

A common explanation for women's underrepresentation in leadership positions centers on work and family conflict. For example, the timing of a woman's choice to have children can often delay the completion of their undergraduate or graduate education, which ultimately leads to higher career advancement. This choice subsequently prevents women from ascending into higher-level positions that require a higher level of education (Kellerman & Rhode, 2014). The common conflicts and implications of family life, primarily on women's careers, include: time-based conflict (the time required to manage both roles), strain-based conflict (the spillover of the two roles), and behavior-based conflict (incompatibility of the two roles) (Galinsky &

Swanberg, 2000). Supporting, this factor, Mason and Goulden (2002) in study also examined family formation and its effects on the careers of both women and men. Results of this study revealed a gap between women and men who have children and the effects on tenure track positions in education. More specifically, a 24% gap was found between men and women's rates of having achieved tenure 12 to 14 years after receiving a PhD. Also worth noting, is the finding that men across all fields of education that had babies achieve tenure at a slightly higher rate than men and women who do not have children. Lastly, when comparing women with children and women without children, those without children demonstrated a higher rate of promotion. Rather than focusing on the two polar ends of the spectrum when referring to women that opt-out and those that opt-in, Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2011) include the perspectives of women who opt in between.

2.13 Gender and Social Expectations from the Woman

Gender and social expectations were factors that were perceived to be inflicted upon women, keeping them in less prominent jobs, less paid jobs and positions in education and/or keeping women in the classroom with the view of not allowing them to override the interest of men if they are given higher positions. Meyerson and Fletcher (1999) found that there are unidentified "unintentional" (p. 129) forms of discrimination that continue in current business practices as well as leadership in the educational value chain. These unintentional biased practices were also found to exist in education (Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Glass, 2000). Gender roles are a multi-faceted problem for women: the roles that women assume upon themselves and the roles that society places upon women and men. Juxtaposing this view with what can actually do draws the social in justice to women.

Gender roles affect the personal expectations that women put upon themselves with respect to taking care of the family, which may result in postponing their careers such to meet family demand of getting settled, give birth to children and avoiding meeting the age of menopause. The promotion of certain social practices for educational leadership creates an additional barrier for women. In some cases, capable women teacher-leaders are kept in their place by not giving them the opportunities or the experiences to move up in leadership and such a situation has resulted in women earning administrative support positions rather than executive positions with authority and autonomy. Meyerson and Fletcher (1999) observed that some of the unintended practices have been imposed upon women by school organizations. Lee et al. (1993) studied power structures in secondary schools and observed that the infrequency of women leaders created female motivational problems. As a result, even highly qualified women had less confidence and believed that pursuing positions in leadership was futile. Studies by Glass, (2000), Kim & Brunner, (2009) elementary teachers have the least chance to rise into top educational leadership.

2.13.1 Limited access to resources

Limited access to critical resources also poses a serious challenge to women attempt to occupy higher position in education. As revealed by Paludi (2008), women's have limited access to resources such career advice, resources, mentoring, and socialization of women in academic leadership positions which affected their chances of being leaders or administrators. Access to these resources available within the workplace is also characteristic of one's social capital. Davies (2004) argued that an individual's social capital has to do with one's level of networking connections within a community and the set of collective expectations within a community that influences the goal seeking behavior of its members. Scholars such as Brown (2005), Timberlake

(2005) Pichler et al. (2008), Searby and Tripses; Hoyt (2005) further indicated that the formation, utilization, and access to these stores of social capital differ among minority groups, namely women as they are mostly excluded from social networks though social capital has been one of the most significant aspects of organizational power (Timberlake, 2005). Women's lack of access to workplace social capital, as well as its associated benefits, can have detrimental effects on career advancement, such as: a lack of knowledge sharing, higher turnover rates, fewer resources, fewer contacts that lead to power and advancement, and lower levels of trust and cooperative spirit amongst coworkers (Timberlake, 2005). The importance of access to resources has also been supported by other researchers (Brown, 2005; Searby & Tripses, 2006).

2.14 How Challenges Facing Women in Educational Leadership Positions can be Resolved

Some of the strategies that female head teachers can use to resolve their challenges include:

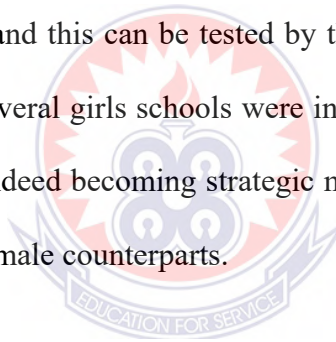
Participative Leadership Style

This is a leadership style where the leader consults with the subordinates and embodies their suggestions in decision making, (Okumbe, 1998). When the female head teacher employs this type of leadership style, it will help her to cope with the subordinates stereotypes. Eagly and Johnson, (1990), hold the view that if a female manager tries to be more autocratic; subordinates are more likely to complain because they expect women to be participative. Mcshare and Glinow (2002), hold the view that women are evaluated negatively when they adopt a directive leadership style which is stereotypically male. Women principals should thus involve their deputies

and other subordinates in the decision making process. Delegation of some duties goes a long way to break subordinates stereotypes of women leadership.

Transformational Leadership, Style.

This type of leadership style involves changing the institution (School) to become a better place. It involves creating a vision, communicating the vision and building commitment to the vision. Through this type of leadership style, women leaders can remain a float in a masculine leadership world. Research by various scholars points out that, women tend to be more transformational in leadership than their male counterparts. Using their intuitive power, women principals can transform secondary school into centres of academic excellence. School women principals are becoming transformational leaders and this can be tested by the top 100 category of schools in KCSE results of 2010, several girls schools were in the top 10 (The Daily Nation, 5th March 2011). They are indeed becoming strategic managers of their schools and they are as competent as their male counterparts.



Task Oriented Leadership Style.

According to research, males tend to be task oriented than women, while women tend to be more relationship oriented. Powell, (1993), argues that there are real differences in leadership style between male and female managers. Women tend to negotiate, mediate, facilitate and communicate tasks to their subordinates clearly. Research shows that this feminine style reduces hierarchy, satisfies subordinates and achieves results. Women school principals would in deed succeed if they clearly set the task to be accomplished within certain time frames.

Mentorship

According to Okumbe (2001), mentorship is a close-long term work relationship between a senior manager and a subordinate. It implies ‘coaching’ a junior staff to acquire job competence required in a given profession. Women principals should therefore be mentors to young graduates entering the teaching profession. Similarly they look up to other successful women leaders for mentorship.

Assertive Leadership

As the contingency theory of leadership alludes to, leadership effectiveness depends on the situation. In the face of women discrimination based on gender stereotypes, women leadership can be embroiled with stress and anxiety. Subordinates may choose to refer to a female administrator by name, while male counterparts are often addressed by title (Shakeshaft, 1989)). There seem to be evidence that a number of women leaders tend to adopt an authoritarian model of leadership (Kariuki, 2007). This observation is backed by the fact that leadership in the Kenyan political and corporate world is a male terrain and hence women principals naturally seek mentorship from authoritarian and aggressive political figures and business tycoons. FAWE, (1995) describes one school principal in Kenya as a ferocious fundraiser and an aggressive gatekeeper in protecting girl children in Masaai land from early marriages. However there is a need to apply each strategy under the dictate of situation and environment.

Affirmative action policies, while being hailed as a way forward towards women’s emancipation have brought with them some problems and in Ghana, it is yet to see the light of day.

2.15 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework of female head teachers' experiences in basic schools. The diagram follows.

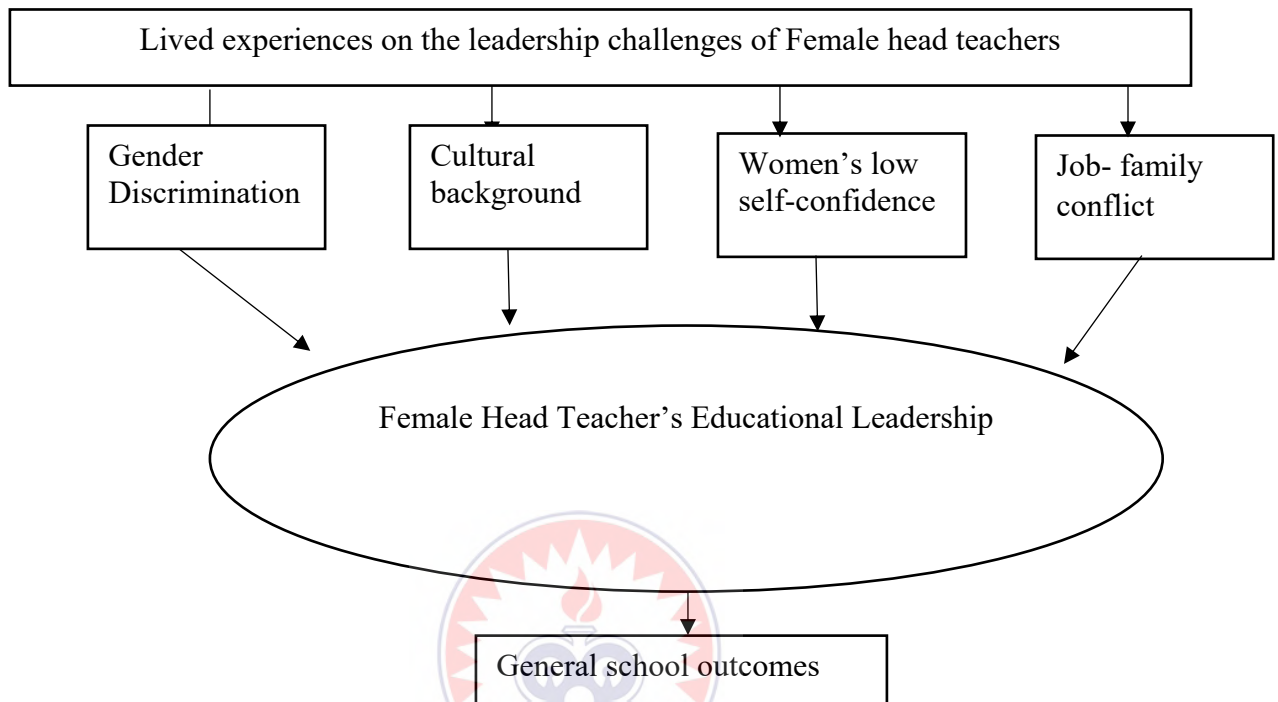


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework of the study

Source: Author, (2021)

Figure 2.1 indicate the conceptual framework of the study. Female head teachers encounter a lot of experiences and challenges regarding their school administrative duties. Unfortunately, some of these challenges turn to undermine the smooth running of their administration. These include gender discrimination, cultural background issues, women's low self-confidence and job-family conflict. These challenges affect educational leadership which ultimately influence school outcomes.

The school outcomes could be academic or psychosocial in nature. Since it is the responsibility of the female head teacher to lead and direct the affairs of the school, anything that affects this role could subsequently affect the school's performance.

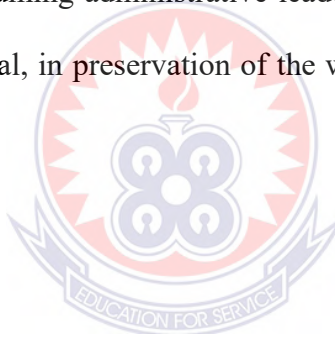
That is why the head teacher must rather be assisted to provide sound leadership for the growth of the school. It is rather unfortunate that some of these challenges that female head teachers face tends to rather hurt the fortunes of the school if not addressed quickly. In short female head teachers face different kinds of situations on daily basis ranging from cultural abuse to family conflict which has the ability to impact negatively on her administration. However, in a situation where the female teacher is able to get the necessary support then is likely her administration will produce good results which will be reflected in the lives of both the students and teachers positively. This promotes strong academic and psychosocial atmosphere for the school.

2.16 Summary of Literature Review

From the extensive studies reviewed, it has been that school leadership and administration is second only to teaching among school influences on student performance and the general success of educational institutions. As demonstrated, effective administrators or leaders can do what effective teachers cannot. In most cases, school leaders or administrators have the power to create a climate that encourages learning and achievement, not just in a single classroom but throughout a school. They can foster better instruction school-wide. Informing their work by sharp analysis of good data, they can employ the kind of management savvy that nurtures talent. And they can attract and retain effective teachers in troubled schools.

Indeed, there are virtually no documented instances of troubled schools being turned around without the intervention of a powerful leader. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development OECD (2009) in a report further observed that to meet the educational needs of the 21st century the principals either men or women in both

primary and secondary schools must be supported to play a more dynamic role and become far more than a mere administrator of top-down rules and regulations. To support and enhance the capacities of women in the Arab world, Al-Jaradat (2014) observed that the first conference of Arab Woman Summit, held in the State of Kuwait in 2010 was under the slogan “Women and the Renaissance of the Nation”, indicated that women have an effective role and wide participations in leading several community institutions to success, even though there are many pressures and obstacles standing in their ways for the continuity of the institutional work and assuming them leadership positions. Among the other concerns of the UNIFEM and UNICEF (2002) were eliminating all forms of prejudice and discrimination against women, especially in assuming administrative leaderships in community institutions, particularly the educational, in preservation of the woman’s rights and her role in the inclusive development.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at the methodology of the study. Research methodology is described as the “approaches to kinds and paradigms of research” (Kaplan, 1973 as cited in Cohen, et al., 2009). The aim of methodology “is to help us to understand, in the broadest possible terms, not the products of scientific inquiry but the process itself” (Cohen, et al., 2009, p. 47). In understanding the process, other researchers could if they wanted, replicate the methodology. Inside research methodology there are some key elements which help in the process of acquiring new knowledge. These are: the general approach; procedure; framework; research questions; sources of data; instruments; analysis and limitations. Research methodology in a nut shell is an approach to examining a research question, and the method that the researcher tends to apply as described as “fitness for purpose” towards the research issue (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 47). According to Memua (2011) “Different research approaches provide different perspectives and parameter for what constitutes relevant data gathering methodologies based on the research purpose” (pp. 34-35). Thus, deciding on the appropriate methodology is crucial. Various (Anderson, 1990; Maynard & Purvis, 1994; Sprague, 2005) have pointed out that there is a difference between the terms methodology and methods. Research methodology encompasses the approaches and theory used in addressing the research question, while research methods refer to the tools used in administering, gathering and analyzing information collected (Anderson, 1990; Maynard & Purvis, 1994; Sprague, 2005). Thus, the background and strength of

the research methodology has to be examined to apply it successfully to the research problem (Anderson, 1990).

3.1 Research Paradigm

The concept of paradigm was proposed by Thomas Khun, who pointed out that paradigms are a collection of concepts, variables and problems with corresponding methodological approaches and tools (Dash, 2005). Some call it a worldview (Creswell, 2009) as it explains how researchers see their perspectives of the world and the nature of the research, while others perceive it as being guided by a set of beliefs that researchers hold about the world and how it should be understood and studied (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). A simple definition is “a basic set of beliefs that guides action” (Guba, 1990, p.17 as cited in Creswell, 2009). A paradigm describes how a researcher understands the world; in viewing the world, their understanding of how it is and what they perceive as the purpose of understanding (Cohen, et al., 2009). The beliefs a researcher holds frame and guide them to embrace certain approaches and methodologies for their research. According to Dezin and Lincoln (2003) paradigms have their “own ethics (values), ontology (view of reality, epistemology (way of knowing), methodology (method of acquiring knowledge and form of evidence” (p. 245). Thus interpretive –constructive paradigm fits the purpose of this research.

The interpretive paradigm was adopted to guide this research. It is defined as a paradigm in understanding the world by held beliefs through human experience (Cohen, et al., 2009). This was chosen because it helped the researcher to understand the experiences that participants have gone through. Researchers using this paradigm attempt to get inside the mind of the person and have an understanding from within. The purpose of this paradigm is to be able to get a perspective of how the participant

views the situation being studied. Thus, it is the objective of the researcher to develop subjective meaning out of the complexity of views from participants (Creswell, 2009). Other authors (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) see interpretive paradigms as researchers asking questions and creating interpretation from the data collected. This paradigm takes into consideration that people's views and conceptions about the social reality differ from each other's (Memua, 2011). Thus, for this study, perceptions that the teachers hold of their women head teachers differ depending on how they make sense of their natural and social world.

3.2 Research Approach

Qualitative Approach was adopted in this study. Qualitative research is a methodology of inquiry traditionally used in social sciences. The Qualitative approach was chosen because it helped to examine the experiences of respondents as well as helped the researcher to focus on small samples in order to achieve the objective of the study. In general, qualitative research can be used when examining experiences of people in a particular context and how they define social reality, thus understanding is created about a certain social or human problem (Cohen, et al., 2009; Creswell, 2009). The aim of qualitative methodology is to seek an in-depth knowledge of understanding human behavior and the reasons behind such behaviors. Researchers investigate the why and how decision making, not just what, where and when things occur (Cohen, et al., 2009). According to Bell (2005) "Qualitative perspectives are more concerned to understand individuals' perceptions of the world and seek insights rather than statistical perceptions of the world" (p.7). In a way qualitative research itself does not belong to a single discipline. This was pointed out by Denzin and Lincoln (2003):

Qualitative research is an interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary, and sometimes counter disciplinary field. It crosscuts the humanities and the social and physical sciences. Qualitative research is many at the same time. It is multi paradigmatic in focus. Its practitioners are sensitive to the value of the multimethod approach. They are committed to the naturalistic perspective and to the interpretive understanding of human experience. At the same time, the field is inherently political and shaped by the multiple ethical and political positions (p.11).

Qualitative research focuses more on smaller samples rather than large samples. However, in-depth rich information can result from a small sample. Apart from this, there are certain characteristics that (Creswell, 2012) has identified in qualitative research. This research approach firstly tries to answer research questions of the study. Secondly, a set of procedures are used systematically as a guide to answer the questions. Thirdly, it collects evidence, thus helps to produce findings. Lastly, the produced findings help to understand a given research problem or topic from the perspectives of the local population it involves.

Qualitative research is especially effective in obtaining culturally specific information about the values, opinions, behaviors and social contexts of particular population (Luttrell, 2010). In Solomon Islands, where culture influences leadership is important. Qualitative research addresses a research problem in which you do not know the variables, and need to explore them. The literature in a certain area may be scarce but through the exploration, through exploration of participants' views you obtain information (Creswell, 2012). Qualitative research is useful for this study because it enables aspects of head teachers' experiences to be studied. This is achieved by looking at individual experiences of teachers who have worked under a female principal.

Thus, there can be sharing of in-depth knowledge as individuals share their experiences. Working with this methodology helps participants not to be restricted to share what they want in their own way and words (Lichtman, 2006). In applying this research methodology, the researcher promotes the active involvement of teachers in this study as they can freely express their perceptions and expectations to the subject of study. As a researcher of this study, constant reflexivity towards my data assisted in reducing my bias.

3.3 Research Design

The study adopted the phenomenology design. Phenomenological approach looks at understanding through the experiences that participants have gone through (Patton, 2002). The purpose was to illuminate the specific, to identify phenomena through how they are perceived by the actors in a situation. The design helped to get in touch with the people, be with them, involved in their activities, interview them to get the information needed regarding the topic. In the human sphere, this normally translates into gathering ‘deep’ information and perceptions through inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions and participant observation, and representing it from the perspective of the research participant(s). Phenomenology is concerned with the study of experience from the perspective of the individual, ‘bracketing’ taken-for-granted assumptions and usual ways of perceiving. Epistemologically, phenomenological approaches are based in a paradigm of personal knowledge and subjectivity, and emphasize the importance of personal perspective and interpretation. As such they are powerful for understanding subjective experience, gaining insights into people’s motivations and actions, and cutting through the clutter of taken-for-granted assumptions and conventional wisdom.

3.4 Site and Sample Characteristics

The research was carried out in Kasoa in the Awutu East Municipality. Currently, there are 156 public and basic Junior High Schools in the Municipality. The rationale behind the choice of this area is the fact that; Firstly, there are very few, if any researches done on the related topic in the area. Secondly, its size implies that it will be manageable within the duration of the study, thirdly, it is geographically convenient since the transportation system within the municipality is well developed making it less difficult to collect data from the research participants and lastly, due to proximity of the area to the researcher, resulting in cost effectiveness of the research, the Awutu Senya East Municipality was deemed most suitable.

3.5 Population

Banerjee and Chaudhury (2010) defined population as an entire group about which some information is required to be ascertained. Participants in the general population must share at least a single attribute of interest (Bartlett et al., 2001; Creswell, 2003). It is this attribute that makes participants eligible as population members. In research, population can also be explained as a comprehensive group of individuals, institutions, objects and so forth with have a common characteristic that are the interest of a researcher.

The population of this study consisted of all female head teachers of public schools in the Kasoa Township in the Awutu Senya East Municipality. The population was only twenty-eight (28) female head teachers of public basic schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipality according to statistics from Ghana Education Service (GES), Awutu Senya East Municipal Education Directorate, (2019). The female head

teachers were used because they can read and understand the questionnaire and respond to them better.

3.6 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

There are 28 female head teachers in the Awutu Senya East Municipality (Awutu East Municipal Education Directorate 2019). For qualitative studies, Creswell and Creswell (2017) recommends 3-5 respondents' while Whitehead and Annells (2007) also suggest that a range of eight and fifteen respondents. These recommendations are premised on the claim that in qualitative studies, samples are typically small and based on information needs (Polit & Beck, 2010). Therefore, these have informed the choice of the researcher to select Ten (10) head teachers.

They were chosen because they have been in the headship position for five years and more, for that matter could provide relevant responses to achieve the purpose of the study. The ten (10) head teachers were selected using purposive sampling (homogenous) technique as the study needed female head teachers with not less than five years of experience. The respondents were put into three major groups called circuits. Babbie and Mouton (as cited in McDonald & LiebenBerg, 2006) state that purposive sampling is an appropriate method to use when the researcher's knowledge of the population enables him/her to ensure that the sample is most representative of the population being studied. Therefore, the purposive sampling technique helped to sample the right respondents who provided the exact data needed for the study. Whitley (2000) and De Vos (2002, p. 207) further argues that purposive sampling enables a sample that contains "the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population". Purposive sampling technique has its power and logic in

the selection of information rich cases for in-depth study and also illuminates questions under study (Patton, 1990).

3.7 Instrumentation

Instrumentation refers to the tools or means by which investigators attempt to measure variables or items of interest in the data collection process. The instrument that was used for data collection was a semi-structured interview guide. A semi-structured interview guide was designed and used by the researcher. The semi-structured interview guide was made up of 10 items. In the field of social science research, the usefulness of interviews has long been recognized. That is, as qualitative researchers tend to provide detailed descriptions of individuals and events in their natural settings, interviewing has ‘usually’ been thought of as a key factor in research design (Weiss, 1994). In a similar vein, Kvale (1996) interestingly points out that, as such events are not often directly ‘observable’; talking to people would be one of the most effective methods for attaining and exploring such constructs. More specifically, as interviews are interactive, interviewers can press for complete, clear answers and can probe into any emerging topics. Hence, interviewing is expected to broaden the scope of understanding investigated phenomena, as it is a more naturalistic and less structured data collection tool.

According to Kvale (1996, p.174) an interview is “a conversation, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the [life-world] of the interviewee” with respect to interpretation of the meanings of the ‘described phenomena’. In a similar vein, Schostak (2006, p.54) adds that an interview is an extendable conversation between partners that aims at having an ‘in-depth information’ about a certain topic or subject, and through which a phenomenon could be interpreted in terms of the meanings

interviewees bring to it. Accumulating such meanings can be done in various ways, of which one-on-one interviews are the most common. Besides one-on-one interviews, focus groups interviewing is also popular (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Additionally, research has shown that four types of interviews are frequently employed in social sciences. The first is the structured interview, whose key feature is that it is mostly organized around a set of predetermined direct questions that require immediate, mostly 'yes' or 'no' type, responses. Thus, in such an interview, the interviewer and interviewees would have very little freedom (Berg, 2007). Accordingly, it can be argued, that this type of interviews is similar to the 'self-administered' quantitative questionnaire in both its form and underlying assumptions.

The second type of interviews is the open-ended (unstructured) interview. Gubrium and Holstein (2002) point out that, unlike the structured interview, this kind of interviewing is an open situation through which a greater flexibility and freedom is offered to both sides (i.e. interviewers and interviewees), in terms of planning, implementing and organizing the interview content and questions (p. 35). Therefore, the interviewer here would be more "keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate on various issues" (Dörnyei, 2007, p.136).

Thirdly, focus group interviewing which is, according to Barbour and Schostak (2005), "...an interviewing technique in which participants are selected because they are a purposive, although not necessarily representative, sampling of a specific population, this group being 'focused' on a given topic" (p. 46). Excluding personal concerns, however, this type of interviewing requires "skillful chairing and attention to the physical layout of the room and group size" (Hermanowicz, 2002, p,490). In sum, although focus groups can be suitable for investigating complex behavior, it can

sometimes be very time-consuming and effortful process. Smithson (2000: 116) claims that “the use of focus groups as a quick data-gathering method, ending up with some ‘sound-bite’ quotations to illustrate themes, ignores the complexities of focus group behavior”. Yet, Berg (2007: 45) argues that a particular strength of this type of interviewing is that participants may “...develop ideas collectively, bringing forward their own priorities and perspectives, to create theory grounded in the actual experience”.

Four, is the semi-structured interview, which is a more flexible version of the structured interview as “it allows depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee's responses” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 88). When undertaking such interviews, researchers recommend using a basic checklist (Berg, 2007) that would help to cover all relevant areas (i.e. research questions). The advantage of such a checklist, as Berg considers, is that it allows for in-depth probing while permitting the interviewer to keep the interview within the parameters traced out by the aim of the study. For the purpose of this research, the research adopted this type of interviews as it would allow covering various issues concerning the study.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

To facilitate the research, a letter of introduction was taken from the Department of Educational Administration and Management at the University of Education, Winneba that was shown to the head of selected schools such that the researcher can have easy access to brief and guide the respondents on the nature and purpose of the study. Also having the opportunity to work under some of the head teachers through transfers, there was cordial relationship which enhances effective communication.

The researcher explained the objective of the study. Face-to-face interviews were used and this allowed the researcher to listen empathetically to the views of the interviewees and establish rapport. An interview guide was designed to guide the interview process between the researcher and headteachers. In order to ensure the validity of the interview schedule they were designed to reflect on the research objectives and questions. The interview session for the head teachers was completed within three days. The sessions were audio-taped with a recording device and later transcribed for data analysis. This helped to maintain the original data for analysis. An hour was spent on each participant.

I also observed the participants from a distance and also by getting involved in some of their activities. This added more information to the data gathered.

3.9 Data Analysis Procedures

The interview data which were collected through interview was analyzed manually through the thematic approach. Creswell and Creswell (2018), explains that, thematic analysis involves the search for and identification of common trends that extend throughout an entire interview or set of interviews. Themes are usually quite abstract and therefore difficult to identify. Often the theme does not immediately jump out of the interview but may be more apparent if the researcher steps back and considers. The researcher transcribed the tape-recorded interviews, then read and reread the interviews in their entirety, reflecting on the interviews as a whole. Then, the researcher summarized the interviews, keeping in mind that more than one theme might exist in a set of interviews. Again, recorded interviews with related items or ideas were grouped under the same theme. Once identified, the themes that appeared to be significant and concepts linking substantial portions of the interviews were

written down and entered on computer (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Data analysis was done thematically with the aid of Atlas ti 7.5.18 version, qualitative research data analysis software and described them in line with the sub-themes to correspond with the research questions posed for the study. The results of the analysis evidently form the basis of the discussion of findings, conclusion and recommendations.

3.10.1 Data authentication and respondent validity

These two terms are very important concepts that are included in a research design especially on the conclusion, validity of the data and the trustworthiness that it demands. Validity is a very complex concept. It is defined as “the design of research to provide credible conclusions; whether the evidence which the research offers can bear the weight of the interpretation that is put on it” (Bell, 2005, p. 117-118). However, on the other hand, validity can mean “how well a test measured a given area, under certain circumstances and with a given group” (Burns, 1994) or “the degree to which all the evidence points to the intended interpretation of test scores for the proposed purpose” (Creswell, 2012 p 10.). For example, in qualitative research, validity can mean the “honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the research” (Cohen et al., 2009, p. 113). Also, validity can be when the participants of the research recognize its authenticity (McCormick & James, 1983 as cited in Cohen & Manion, 1994). In each methodology and technique used to acquire data, validity has to be maximized. The researcher was careful in interpreting the information provided since evaluation was done on the leadership of female head teachers by the participants. This could have caused a threat to the participants. Moreover, establishing a trust relationship between the head teachers and the researcher helped to ease the tension between each. According to Strachan (1993)

establishing yourself as an insider is a prerequisite to sharing personal experiences. This could help them to value the need for recognition on their leadership styles; thus, creating validity in the information provided from the data

The concept of trustworthiness is always questioned by positivist researchers, since it does not line up with validity and reliability, from their perspective. Yet, four criteria (credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability) are used to support qualitative researchers so that their work is up to academic standard (Shenton, 2004). The researchers Lincoln and Guba (1985) highlighted four issues that surround trustworthiness.

a. Credibility

Credibility is an evaluation of whether or not the research findings represent a “credible” conceptual interpretation of the data drawn from the participants’ original data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is the ability of the study to capture what the research really aimed at studying, meaning that the result is not simply the product of research design errors, misunderstandings, or influence of unknown factors. This was ensured through a Prolonged Engagement (Stay in the field until data saturation occurs). The researcher was again engaged in Persistent Observations (Consistently pursue interpretations in different ways in conjunction with a process of constant and tentative analysis. Look for multiple influences. Search for what counts and what doesn't count). Peer Debriefing and triangulation were also taken care of to ensure the credibility of the study.

b. Transferability

Transferability is the degree to which the findings of this inquiry can apply or transfer beyond the bounds of the project. Thick Description was done to ensure

transferability. Because transferability is a naturalistic study depends on similarities between sending and receiving contexts, the researcher collected sufficiently detailed descriptions of data in context and reports them with sufficient detail and precision to allow judgments about transferability to be made by the reader.

c. Dependability

Dependability is an assessment of the quality of the integrated processes of data collection, data analysis and theory generation. An inquiry must also provide its audience with evidence that if it were replicated with the same or similar respondents (subjects) in the same (or a similar) context, its finding would be repeated. The researcher increased dependability to enable readers of the research report to develop a thorough understanding of the methods and their effectiveness, the text included sections devoted to: The research design and its implementation, describing what was planned and executed on a strategic level; The operational detail of data gathering, addressing the minutiae of what was done in the field; and Reflective appraisal of the project, evaluating the effectiveness of the process of inquiry undertaken.

d. Confirmability

Confirmability is a measure of how well the inquiry's findings are supported by the data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These issues that Guba and Lincoln have explained are now accepted by many researchers. This is to what extent are our findings affected by personal interest and biases. It is the degree to which the findings are the product of the focus of the inquiry and not of the biases of the researcher. Confirmability audit trail was ensured. An adequate trail was left to enable the auditor to determine if the conclusions, interpretations, and recommendations can be traced to their sources and if they are supported by the inquiry.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

Literature points out that all human behaviors are subjected to ethical principles, rules and conventions, which can either be socially accepted by society or not be acceptable (Anderson, 1990). The nature of research ethics involves being clear about the agreement that you have with your participants or contacts. It includes the informed consent of your participants that you are going to interview, question or take documents from, as well as agreements about the uses of the data and how the data is to be analyzed, reported and disseminated (Bell, 2005). The research purposes, content, process and outcomes have to abide by ethical principles and practices (Cohen et al., 2009). As a result, I, as an educational researcher, had to anticipate the ethical issues that could arise in the research process of collecting data, and in writing and disseminating reports (Creswell, 2012).

Guidelines are put in place to ensure that human subjects are informed and protected from harm. Bogdan and Biklen (2007, p. 48) suggest guidelines ensure that: -

1. Informants enter research projects voluntarily, understanding the nature of the study and the dangers and obligations that are involved.
2. Informants are not exposed to risks that are greater than the gains they might derive,

Even though there are guidelines in place, there can be complications and expectations in many cases that are difficult and undesirable. In such, it is in the researcher's hands to decide and make judgement. Punch (2005, as cited in Bogden & Biklen, 2007) states that "As a researcher you have to know yourself, your values and your beliefs, and be familiar with the principles other researchers have used in making such decisions" (p.52). That is why, in your ethical application a literature review has to be made to justify why you wish to research a certain topic of interest.

3.11.1 Informed consent

Obtaining the consent of subjects is an important process in ethical research. The reason for this is that it may expose the participants to stress, pain, the invasion of privacy, or loss of control during the collection of data. Getting the consent of subjects varies from strict protocols in some cultures to not so strict in others. Yet, social research requires the consent of subjects (Cohen et al., 2009). The principle of informed consent that it is the right of the participant to give consent before participating in the research. (Luttrell, 2010). Anderson (1990) gives six elements to informed consent: (1) an explanation of the procedures used in the experiment and their purpose, (2) a description of any reasonably foreseeable risks and discomforts to the subjects, (3) a description of any benefits that may reasonably be expected, (4) a disclosure of any alternative procedures that might be advantageous to the subject, (5) an offer to answer any questions concerning the procedures, and (6) a statement that participation is voluntary and that the subject is free to withdraw from participation at any time. (p. 30).

3.11.2 Privacy

The right to privacy is: “An important right and implies that the individual concerned should decide what aspects of their personal attitudes, opinions, habits, eccentricities, doubts and fears are to be communicated or withheld” (Anderson, 1990, p. 24). The nature of privacy gives subjects the right to not take part in the research; not to answer questions, and not to be interviewed. The tools that are used to record information, for example, tape recorders or video cameras have to be agreed to by the participant. This is because these devices are threats to privacy. For my research, there were codes put in place to signify the name of each school and the teachers within the school. The information regarding the use of codes for the names of participants are also

contained inside the inform consent letter. The codes that were put in place were the strategy of privacy in not linking the data to the participant concerned (Anderson, 1990; Cohen et al., 2009).

3.11.3 Confidentiality

Confidentiality is about researchers knowing about the information and the identification of the participants and keeping this information private. Researchers must not make any connections public and there are boundaries on the information provided. The concept of confidentiality helps protect participants' privacy. Protecting the identification of participants means obtaining permission for the subsequent use of data (O'Leary, 2004); the deletion of individuals' data (Cohen et al., 2009); and, when quoting and reporting information, protecting the identity of the individual (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998). However, there is also an issue concerning confidentiality, when some people are able to work out who the respondents are (O'Leary, 2004). This can happen in small countries, such as the Solomon Islands where the population is small (Akao, 2008).

3.11.4 Anonymity

Anonymity is when the researcher or another person cannot identify the participant or the informant who provided the information. A participant's privacy is guaranteed when this happens, even though sometimes the information is personal or sensitive. Questionnaires are a good example of anonymity, in that there are no "identifying marks- names, addresses, occupational details or coding symbols", while with an interview, a promise of confidentiality is made. "Non- traceability is an important matter and this extends to aggregating data in some cases so that an individual's response is unknowable" (Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 64).

3.11.5 Reflexivity in the research

In qualitative research, reflexivity is one aspect to consider. Reflexivity is a process by which an investigator makes a self-reflection. This is by looking at one's bias, theoretical predisposition and preferences (Luttrell, 2010). In this research the researcher constantly reflected on my questions and interviews, data collection and transcription to reduce my own bias in the research. The author Luttrell (2010) states that "Understanding one's "self" and stake in one's project is crucial for knowing both the limitations and the strengths of the "instrument" (p.3). It is very important that a researcher does a critical self-reflection of their social backgrounds, relationship to the field site and theoretical and political leanings, since these all can contribute in some way to the bias of the researcher (Cohen et al., 2009; Luttrell, 2010). That is why several authors suggest that "researchers should acknowledge and disclose their own selves in the research, seeking to understand their part in, or influence on, the research" (Cohen et al., 2009, p. 171).

3.11.6 Data transcription and participants' checking

For this stage, the interviews were transcribed. This was a tiring task that took a maximum four hours for each interview. Each transcription was written out as precisely as possible of what had been said in English. Participants' were asked to check the main ideas of what had been said; to make comments, add information if necessary, clarify and validate each transcript given to them. This was done by each participant. However, one participant was not clear about the transcribed interview format and looked to disagree with the structure being used in the transcription. Thus, it had to be explained to her before she was satisfied with her transcription. All transcriptions were verified by the participants in the before. Thus, upon arrival, data analysis commenced.

3.14 Positionality

The term positionality both describes an individual's world view and the position they adopt about a research task and its social and political context (Foote & Bartell 2011, Savin-Baden & Major, 2013 and Rowe, 2014). The individual's world view or 'where the researcher is coming from' concerns ontological assumptions (an individual's beliefs about the nature of social reality and what is knowable about the world), epistemological assumptions (an individual's beliefs about the nature of knowledge) and assumptions about human nature and agency (individual's assumptions about the way we interact with our environment and relate to it) (Sikes, 2004, Bahari, 2010, Scotland, 2012, Ormston, et al. 2014, Marsh, et al., 2018 and Grix, 2019). These are colored by an individual's values and beliefs that are shaped by their political allegiance, religious faith, gender, sexuality, historical and geographical location, ethnicity, race, social class, and status, (dis) abilities and so on (Sikes, 2004, Wellington, et al. 2005; Marsh, et al. 2018).

Savin-Baden and Major (2013) identify three primary ways that a researcher may identify and develop their positionality. Firstly, locating themselves about the subject, i.e., acknowledging personal positions that have the potential to influence the research. Secondly, locating themselves about the participants, i.e., researchers individually considering how they view themselves, as well as how others view them, while at the same time acknowledging that as individuals they may not be fully aware of how they and others have constructed their identities, and recognizing that it may not be possible to do this without considered in-depth thought and critical analysis. Thirdly, locating themselves about the research context and process, i.e., acknowledging that research will necessarily be influenced by themselves and by the research context.

The researcher implemented all points above and strived to avoid obvious, conscious, or systematic bias and to be as neutral as possible in the collection, interpretation, and presentation of data while recognizing that this aspiration can never be fully attained as all research could be influenced by the researcher and there is no completely 'neutral' or 'objective' knowledge.

The insider's view of reality (Fetterman, 2008) is situated within a cultural relativist perspective, recognizing behavior and actions as being relative to the person's culture and the context in which that behavior or action is both rational and meaningful within that culture. It must be meaningful to and from the perspective of a person from within the culture whose beliefs and behaviors are being studied. So, for example, interview transcriptions included verbatim colloquial language, spelling, and grammar. Prior theories and assumptions were discarded or disregarded so that the true 'voice' of the research participants may be heard.

In its simplest articulation, the insider perspective essentially questions the ability of outsider scholars to competently understand the experiences of those inside the culture, while the outsider perspective questions the ability of the insider scholar to sufficiently detach themselves from the culture to be able to study it without bias (Kusow, 2003). With the researcher being an insider, the advantage was that it was easier to gain access to the culture being studied, as the researcher is regarded as being 'one of us' (Sanghera & Bjokert 2008). It helped the researcher's ability to ask more meaningful or insightful questions (due to possession of a priori knowledge), the researcher was more trusted so secured more honest answers, it gave the researcher the ability to produce a more truthful, authentic or 'thick' description (Geertz, 1973) and understanding of the culture, potential disorientation due to 'culture shock' was

removed or reduced, and the researcher was better able to understand the language, including colloquial language, and non-verbal cues.

The following chapter will describe the findings of the research, using the methodological process explained in this chapter.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter explores the thoughts, perceptions, beliefs and attitudes that female head teachers have concerning their jobs through interviews with ten participants. The primary aim of the current study was to investigate the lived experiences and challenges facing women occupying leadership positions at the basic school level in the Awutu Senya East Municipality with view of highlighting the support strategies to minimize these challenges. The main research questions were:

1. What are the experiences of female head teachers in educational leadership among schools in Awutu Senya East Municipality of Central Region?
2. Which educational leadership styles are exhibited by female head teachers in basic schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipality?
3. What are the challenges facing female head teachers in the performance of their duties?
4. How can the challenges facing women in educational leadership positions be minimized?

4.1 Bio Data

This section discusses the demographic characteristics of the head teachers. The parameters discussed include: gender, educational qualification and years of serving as head teacher.

Table 4.1: Sex distribution of head teachers

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	0	0
Female	10	100
Total	100	100

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

The purpose of this study is to explore the lived experiences on the leadership challenges of female head teachers in the Awutu Senya East Municipality. In view of this only female heads were involved in the study. Kusi and Mensah (2014) concur that in recent times females have increasingly been given a good representation in leadership positions. In spite of the increasing number of women in managerial or administrative positions it is still perceived that, females in the educational sector are underrepresented in leadership positions (Kusi & Mensah, 2014).

Table 4.2: Academic qualification of head teachers

Qualification	Frequency	Percentages
Cert A	0	0
Diploma	0	0
Bachelors	7	70
Masters	3	30
Total	10	100

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 4.2 reveals that 7 (representing 70%) respondents constituting a majority of the respondents who participated in the study had a first degree certificate. Followed by 3 (representing 30%) respondents who had a master's degree. The data obviously indicate that a greater percentage of respondents had a minimum of first degree indicative of the fact that they qualify as head teachers.

Table 4.3: Years of serving as head teachers

Years	Frequency	Percentage
5years and below	1	10
6-10	3	30
11-15	6	60
16years and above	0	0
Total	10	100%

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Table 4.3 shows the length of service of the sampled teachers, the tables depicts that, a majority of the respondents 6(representing 60%) had 11-15 years of experiences as head, the second majority of the respondents 3 (representing 30%) had 6-10 years' experience as head, while the minority of the respondents 1(representing 10%) had serve 5 years' and below as head. The implication of the above analysis is that more sampled respondents have spent more years in their professional fields as heads hence majority of data obtained was from more experienced respondents in the field of study.

4.2 Analysis of Research Questions

The interview questions were guided by these four research questions above. Five themes emerged from the interviews of these ten participants. These were: experiences of female head teachers; the changing cultural beliefs and attitudes of teachers and others towards women head teachers; educational leadership styles; challenges facing female head teachers, and the solutions to the challenges.

This study involved ten head teachers from schools. Each of these participants have pseudonym names, we have IH1, IH2, IH3, IH4, IH5, IH6, IH7, IH8, IH9 and IH10.

The I mean Interviewee, the H Means Headmistress and the numbers attached are the positions. These ten (10) female participants have all had the experience of tertiary education. They have realized that being educated has helped them break out from

certain norms in the society concerning women's roles. Being educated has given them the courage to speak out.

4.3 Research Question One

What are the experiences and roles of female head teachers in educational leadership?

The research question one sought to find out the experiences and roles of female head teachers in educational leadership.

One of the main themes that emerged from the data analysis was the experiences and roles of school heads. Some of the experiences highlighted were socio- cultural and gender role in leadership experiences. The roles of female head teachers were monitoring and evaluating the teaching and learning process and finance management of the school.

4.3.1 Women socio- cultural experience

The findings revealed that experiences women leaders go through or deal with include socio- cultural entrenchments, especially in the schools. Almost all the participants, including IH3 and IH10 emphasized that culture reflected in the set of perceptions, mindset and practices in the schools and the local communities disturb negatively women leaders when they are running the schools.

“Community, including parents hardly admit or accept women heading the school where their kids are schooled; they always associate the headship with men.” IH3.

Women school heads also experienced resistance from their teachers, especially older male teachers. That happened most of the time when these female heads made

decisions or took initiatives for changes. That cultural mindset and perception on women leaders of schools affected their headship.

“I faced challenges such as disobedience and defiance from male teachers as they do not want to be controlled or supervised by a woman”. IH10

For men, women are weak in making decision effectively and they lack good leadership skills. Sociocultural perceptions are heavily embodied in male mind as teachers displayed disrespectful behaviors towards women heads.

4.3.2 Gender role in leadership experience

In this study each participant acknowledged the fact that their beliefs and attitudes had changed since working as a female head teacher over a period of time. In the research, participants also pointed out that becoming a leader should not be overly influenced by aspects such as gender. The participants said that anyone could take up a leadership role and lead if they have the skills of a leader. Their idea of only men having the skills in leadership have changed. IH2 stated that:

“My attitude has changed and I can see that there is a difference. Not only men but we ladies too have these leadership skills. If men can do it as heads, ladies too can do it”

Leadership capabilities of a leader is to be able to lead. It was pointed out in the study that women heads had leadership skills that were not thought of initially when working under a woman head. IH4, acknowledged that after working under a female principal for a period of time, she had built up confidence to work as a head. IH6 pointed this out when she said:

“At first I had no confidence in myself. I also thought leadership and responsibility was for administrators up there and was for only men. However, as I started working and also delegating responsibilities it built up my confidence in holding leadership roles. Also I have confidence in myself now.”

IH7 elaborates further that

“Yes. Working as a head, I feel my thinking and mind set of women principal has totally changed.... It has given me the opportunity to be there to render my service. It has also given me more courage in doing assigned task that I could not have done in other previously. In a way it has given me the opportunity to explore my hidden skills. Thus this has given me more skills to at least do other things. It has also helped me to developed more skills to help in other areas in the school.”

4.3.3 Monitoring and evaluating the teaching- learning process

All heads mentioned in their interviews that they devoted a bulk of their time in their schools for monitoring and evaluating the teaching-learning process in their schools. They used different methods for evaluating the teaching-learning process. The methods used included taking rounds, observing classrooms, using reflective diaries and taking feedback from teachers, students and their parents. A participant mentioned that she takes rounds in the school after two or three periods to check the presence of the teachers in their classrooms. Another school head shared:

“I have introduced attendance register, that is; daily report book where a designated student of a class takes record of a teacher’s attendance. The teachers are now regular and punctual”. IH6

The excerpt from the interview shows that the heads gave importance to the teachers and students’ feedback and input as well. This finding was further supported by another head who claimed:

“I personally visit the classes to inquire from the students about the teaching-learning process.” IH4

They not only focused on teaching-learning process, but also kept themselves fully involved in this process. For example, one of the heads stated that she had enough understanding of all the subjects that were being taught at school level. That helped her to know the academic level of the students and to carry out effective monitoring, evaluation and teaching-learning processes. She also taught the classes in order to be

in touch with the students in order to address their problems and grievances. The leaders encouraged the teachers to be more focused on lesson plans and diaries. The head mentioned:

“I have given lesson diaries to all teachers, where they write the daily lesson they deliver in their classes, and at the end of the day, I check what has been done in the classrooms.” IH7

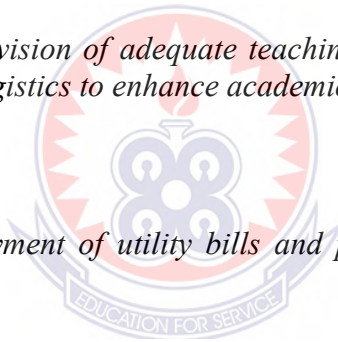
4.3.4 Finance Management

This is one of the most crucial roles of a head teacher. Here, the head teacher draws budget that proposes the revenue and expenditure of the school. She provides and disburses funds for the attainment of educational goals. The head of one school considered it as the most important thing in properly managing schools. She stated:

“I ensure the provision of adequate teaching and learning materials, tools and other logistics to enhance academic performance” IH2

Another head added:

“I ensure the payment of utility bills and provide funds for general repairs.” IH3



4.4 Research Question Two

Which educational leadership styles are exhibited by female head teachers in basic schools

The research question two sought to find out the educational leadership styles exhibited by female head teachers in basic schools.

From the interview, issues bothering on leadership styles being exhibited by head teachers came up strongly. One leadership style that came up from interviews was inspirational leadership. Some of the school head's leadership styles reflected inspirational leadership traits. As one of the respondents stated:

“The students of my school are from lower and poor segments of the society. I put my personal zeal and efforts to motivate the students and the teachers to give their best. This positively impacts their academic performance.” IH9

This desire to serve the poor students and contribute in the improvement of the society was evident in many interviews. For example, a leader mentioned:

“I wish this model would become fully successful to provide talented individuals to the society.” IH2

Another added:

“The area and community from which my students come are poor people. I motivate them for study and to become successful individuals for society.... So I enjoy this role to work for my poor student.” IH7

Another leadership style that came up from interviews was democratic leadership.

One of the respondents stated:

“I normally take decisions after meeting my teaching and non-teaching staff members to solicit their opinions” IH5

On relationships, most of the women considered that it necessary to establish a good relationship with the staff, team members and students within and outside the school.

The researchers witnessed this approach in their behaviors for time the spent with these females during the present study. An Interviewee confirmed,

“My duty is to treat my employees well so that they can perform properly. I give personal attention to people, especially my teachers and students who seem to have personal or academic problems. As heads, we should encourage and support teachers and students in the teaching and learning process, and also solicit for ideas for better management.” (IH8)

Another leadership style the female head teachers exhibited was autocratic leadership.

This was as a result of the female head teachers experiencing resistance from their teachers, especially older male teachers. This happened most of the time when the

female heads made decisions or took initiatives for changes. The cultural mindset and perception on women leaders of schools affected their headship. IH10 observed,

“Due to the challenges I faced such as disobedience, defiance from male teachers as they do not want to be controlled or supervised by a woman, I end up pushing my way through with most decisions to ensure compliance”.

Another female head teacher confirmed that,

*“one day, upon my arrival at this school, some of the teachers declared that I will fail in my administrative role ... they cannot follow nor accept to apply any decision from me.”*IH3

These cases of confrontation and insubordination come from the fact that males feel being undermined by the female authority. For men, women are weak in making decision effectively and they lack good leadership skills. Sociocultural perceptions are heavily embodied in male mind as teachers displayed disrespectful behaviors towards women heads.

4.5 Research Question Three

What are the challenges facing female head teachers in the performance of their duties?

The research question three sought to find out the challenges facing female head teachers in the performance of their duties. The responses revealed the following as posing major challenges. They are; inadequate materials and resources, socio cultural entrenchment, difficulty in balancing work load at home and school, and gender discrimination in appointments and transfers.

4.5.1 Inadequate materials and resources

The interview question sought to find out from the perspective of head teachers the challenges that influenced head teachers' work performance in the schools. All the

head teachers unanimously mentioned poor management support and inadequate resources as the most critical problems that confronted their schools. The issue of the Ministry not making resources available to the sector and lack of recognition head teachers and teachers emerged strongly. These in the views of the head teachers affected the smooth management of the schools and translate into teachers' job dissatisfaction. Few of the head teachers' responses had been selected to be representative of the general views of all participants.

The IH10 noted that:

“Inadequate materials and resources are the most important factors that affect my administration because the Ghana Education Service does not provide these materials regularly and this makes the teachers to complain a lot.”

This was supported by the IH2 who described resources as an incredibly important factor:

“Educators can only do their work if they have access to appropriate and adequate resources. Students with disabilities have distinctive special educational needs that require specialized teaching – learning resources to meet these unique needs.”

The IH5 also commented that:

The government has stopped bringing us the resources needed for our teachers to use in teaching the children and this affects performance.

According to the IH6:

“The flow of money from the government side was one of our major problems. Though it comes, but when we are in dire need we don't get the money. I think the flow of money have to be regular so we can cater for the children's academic, social and psychological needs.”

The above comment was supported by the IH8 who reported that:

“The government normally delays in releasing funds to the school and as a result, we have to be relying on the suppliers on credit basis and they keep on chancing us day-in-day- out for their monies.”

To sum it up what the interviewees said in relation to delay in funding, the IH10 concisely said:

Our challenges are mostly financial. The children don't pay fees and as a result, we depend on government grants to run everything. The feeding grant which we use to feed the children is almost always in arrears. Presently, we have only received about 20% of the feeding grant for the term. So as a head, you always have to go round begging people to come and supply you with food and also you have to look for donations to supplement the children's feeding.

4.5.2 Socio- Cultural barriers

Almost all the participants, including IH3 and IH10 emphasized that culture reflected in the set of perceptions, mindset and practices in the schools and the local communities and this negatively affects women leaders in the running the schools.

IH3 and IH10 stated respectively:

“Community, including parents hardly admit or accept women heading the school where their kids are; they always associate the headship with men.”

“I faced challenges such as disobedience and defiance from male teachers as they do not want to be controlled or supervised by a woman”. IH10

Most male teachers, especially the older ones always resisted and defied the decisions or initiatives taken by the female heads. That cultural mindset and perception on women leaders of schools affected their headship. Sociocultural perceptions are heavily embodied in male mind as teachers displayed disrespectful behaviors towards women heads. These findings show that the culture of a society contributes to how teachers have viewed women head teachers. These perceptions were mainly based on the traditionally cultural stereotype of women's role: that a women's place is at home. This resulted in positive and negative perceptions of how teachers perceived women heads. In addition, people from a matriarchal system are still strongly influenced by patriarchal norms. However, it was found that being educated seemed to facilitate

female teachers (from a patriarchal background) accepting women as heads, in this study.

4.5.3 Gender discrimination in appointments

Gender discrimination is closely linked to culture. For men, women are weak in making decision effectively and they lack good leadership skills. Due this, more males get appointed as heads of schools than their female counterparts. The dominance of males in decision making and leadership meant that they thought that male decisions were only the right decisions to follow. IH7 expressed this:

“Most decisions are done by men. Traditionally when we have the chance to share our thoughts we hold back or don’t show it.... Due to patriarchal norms, many females find it difficult to accept themselves as leaders. This is because they don’t have women leaders their village.”

For the participants who had a strong matrilineal background, they were more accustomed to seeing women as leaders, thus it did not affect their initial thoughts of women head teachers.

However, the patriarchal norms of big man leadership still have influence on people in the matrilineal system. IH3 elaborated on this:

“...You don’t really see women showing leadership in other areas of the community. Only in land decisions are women called for in a meeting. This is the matrilineal custom. However, from where I come from I see males are the ones that show leadership. But, really it should come from women to show leadership.”

So for most participants, gender and culture were not isolated but merged particularly when it came to leadership roles.

4.5.4. Difficulty in Balancing Workload at Home and School

Career women generally face a daunting task when it comes to fulfilling their obligations at their place of work and that of their families. Female head teachers are not an exception. Many of them are wives, mothers or single parents and this dual responsibility puts an increasing pressure on them to achieve and maintain work life balance. Women are the primary care givers in the home, hence, many end up getting their careers interrupted as they deal with marriage, raising children or managing the home. One respondent said that:

“I sleep very late after cleaning up after the children and I have to wake up so early in the morning to do house chores, prepare breakfast and get my two (2) children ready for school before getting myself ready for work. It’s very stressful” IH5

Two others also said;

“As a single parent, I sometimes have to leave office to attend to issues in my children’s school or sometimes even spend the whole day at the hospital seeking treatment when they fall sick” IH6

“struggling with work and home activities at the same time has negatively affected my physical and mental health in that I’m unable to sleep or eat well. I’m always tired.” IH4

It was found out that most of these female head teachers are even upgrading themselves at the universities by taking degree or masters courses. One responded indicated that:

“Combining the demands of attending evening or weekend lectures and school administration has greatly affected my relationship with my husband and kids as they always complain about me not spending or having enough time for them”. IH8

4.6 Research Question Four

How can the challenges facing women in educational leadership positions be overcome or minimized

The research question sought to find out the challenges facing women in educational leadership positions and how they can be overcome.

In this study, women heads were asked how they deal with the problems and overcome the obstacles. They mentioned the following: regular provision of resources from the government, awareness campaign on breaking sociocultural barriers, delegating some roles to other to reduce workload, and allowing and encouraging more female head teachers to take up leadership roles in their district.

4.6.1 Regular provision of resources from government

Adequate provision of resources, human, material and finance positively enhances the quality of education provided in basic schools. These include having enough teachers for all the subjects, teaching and learning materials, infrastructure and other logistics. The government should ensure that capitation and school feeding grants are not delayed. As one respondent indicated;

“the government must ensure regular and adequate provision of resources to enhance performance” IH5

Another also said:

“I think the flow of money have to be regular so that we can cater for the children’s academic, social and academic needs” IH6

4.6.2 Awareness campaign on breaking sociocultural barriers

The world is dynamic and many workplaces are into diversity when it comes to how we do things. In our culture, women are the basic primary caregivers in the family. However, things have changed. Women are becoming more literate due to pursuing

higher education and they now have a voice, unlike before. Business laws have changed to allow more women into the workplace. The basic school setting is about developing children academically and morally. In this regard, women are better placed than men to head schools where providing care and development of children is concerned. This awareness has to be prioritized by the government and society to enable them see that the role of women has changed.

“the government should put a system in place to create awareness to allow a gradual breakdown of the socio-cultural barriers” IH8

Another respondent emphasized that;

“Traditional leaders in the society should be encouraged to learn about other cultures to broaden their way of viewing women” IH5

Respondent IH7 added that;

“the society should be taught how to accept the significance of women, respect and support them as they take up higher positions in their workplaces”

4.6.3 Delegating Some Roles to Reduce Workload

Delegating roles is the act of giving authority to those at lower levels to take on relevant roles or decisions though the final responsibility remains with the superior. Female head teachers, especially those who are wives, mothers or single parents or pursuing higher education with dual responsibility can and should allow their subordinates to take up certain roles for them to reduce the pressure on them to achieve and maintain work life balance, and also focus on more strategic aspects. This even makes the subordinates working life more interesting because they get the opportunity to self-actualize and develop themselves.

“I have assigned roles to teachers for them to be in charge of the various departments and other extra curriculum activities that take place in the school.” IH9

“I have provided resources and training for some of my teachers to take charge when I’m not around.” IH10

“I have set certain goals and deadlines for my teachers to complete some projects in the school. I now have time to spend with my family” IH8

4.6.4 Allowing and encouraging more female head teachers to take up leadership roles in the district

The global representation of women in leadership positions in the private and public sector is low. This is as a result of gender stereotyping like ‘Women lack the leadership skills’; ‘women are weak in decision making’; ‘leadership was meant for men and not women’; ‘no confidence in women leadership’ among others.

Lack of proper female gender representation in leadership roles hinders good advancement in all fields. As a result, there’s a pressing need to foster female leadership.

There were two factors in the study that influenced female teachers today to aspire for leadership positions. These were: being educated; and the opportunity for promotion to leadership. Female head teachers made it clear that understanding western society’s views on women leadership through their education made them realize that there is under representation of women in leadership. Participants said that being educated gave them the courage and confidence to speak out. All stakeholders should make it a point to allow and encourage more female heads to go in for leadership roles in the district as they bring diversity in development.

According to respondent IH10;

“I mostly assign head roles and projects or assignments to female teachers to make them more responsible, develop and self-actualize themselves”

IH1 also supported the above by stating that;

“The District Education office should encourage and give more opportunities to female head teachers to take up roles like circuit supervisors, counselling coordinators among others”

It also came to light that female head teachers should be provided with more training opportunities to significantly boost their leadership skills. Gender equity training is a transformative process that seeks to provide information, strategies, and resources to help people improve their skills and make positive improvements in their attitudes and behaviors.

“In service training programs should be organized for female head teachers in leadership positions to enhance their leadership skills”

IH2

4.7 Discussion

This study explores the experiences and challenges that women face working as head teachers.

4.8 Experiences of Women Head Teachers

The school heads, as instructional leaders used different strategies in order to monitor and evaluate the teaching-learning process in their schools. These strategies included rounds in school corridors, developing coordination and student feedback. Wildy, Siguroardottir and Faulkner (2014) argue that school heads monitor teaching learning through observations of classroom teaching and getting student. Beside, Khaki and Safdar (2013) and Bahadur, Amir, Waheed, and Abdul Nasir (2017) found that the school heads used syllabus completion forms and took rounds to monitoring teaching learning processes in school in Pakistan.

The current study indicated that most school heads believed in a cooperative and democratic environment in their schools. These beliefs and practices of the heads

seem in line with the suggestions of Wildy, Siguroardottir and Faulkner (2014), and Smith and Amushigamo (2015) who argue that good school leaders often put in place democratic and cooperative structures in their schools for successful school management.

Extensive literature is available that discusses head teachers' perceptions of women's leadership styles, and empowerment to teachers in developed countries (Hudson & Rea, 1996; Love, 2007; Shum & Cheng, 1997). A perception held by educators is that women's leadership styles are more favorable to the educational reforms of today (Lee, et al., 1993). This suggests that there may be some leadership styles seen in women heads.

Another perception held by the women was that in certain context the cultural norms have a strong influence on gender roles in society. Thus, we see negative perceptions of women taking leadership positions (Akao, 2008; Pollard, 2006; Strachan, 2009; Warsal, 2009). Other literature based in developing countries concerning women in educational leadership also reflects this notion of negative perceptions from subordinates working under women heads (Celikten, 2005; Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Morris, 1999). Yet, there is little literature in developing countries that suggests subordinates (teachers) appreciating women leadership in education (Oplatka, 2006; Warsal, 2009). A comparison of literature between developed and developing countries show similarity in the attitudes and behavior of head teachers. However, to understand women in leadership, research has to be undertaken in diverse cultural context (Strachan, et al., 2010).

In particular, school improvement is concerned with improving the student's performance by focusing on the teaching-learning process and the conditions that

support it (Hopkins, 2001, cited by Berger, Norberto, Soussi, Giorgio, Gauvreau, & Heinz, 2004). In this perspective, women heads play the valuable roles of coordinator, coach facilitator as suggested Fortier (2008). Muzvidziwa (2014) explained that women heads display a motherly care approach when dealing with pupil behavioral problems. From that observation it's can be admitted that school should be a wealthy space where students can express successfully himself with motivation empower by the head school. In this regard, women school heads would favor quality life at workplace and the performance of their subordinates, as they give enough importance to teamwork roles by using efficiently the working time.

In this study, it is clear that women heads committed themselves to the common goals that would be sources of motivation for most of their school members (Héon, Savard, & Hamel, 2008). For Gauthier (2007), the educational initiative must be at the heart of the institution and can only come from a collective commitment. Looking at these women leader's tendency to lead, school leadership it is not all about personal authority or power of the leader who would impose a kind of pedagogical power, but the function of pedagogical initiative that each teacher must be an owner of that power, which must be distributed among them, and coordinated by the school head. Other scholars like Gross and Trask (1976), and Shakeshaft (1986) suggest that women heads are more concerned with the socio-affective development of students and are more sensitive to the peculiarities of the students.

How female leaders handle problems within schools was also concerned the research, as it seems women are good at solving problems (Zaid-Alkilani, 2015); they are well equipped for the workplace issues and are able to cope with unexpected conflicts. Women in this study have shown their readiness to dealing with ways of working at schools. It seemed this advantage stem from their childhood as they have been

brought up in families' environment from where they took their ability to handle people as well as their behaviors. As part of their management, they tend to take advice from the extended family. Besides, what strengthen their competence to effectively solve problems is that they pay more attention to details and everything that happens around them and especially to the relationship. This allows them to identify earlier the possible tensions between individuals, thereby anticipating solutions or avoiding conflicts by means rather diplomatic.

4.9 Cultural Influences

The findings in this study have shown that the perceived gender roles affect how women heads view their roles. In addition, the gender stereotypes that emerge from what is seen as the cultural roles of females and males also affect the perceptions that head teachers have towards women headship. This finding supports previous research on women that suggests culture as the main recurring barrier to women being involved in leadership roles (Akao, 2007; Warsal, 2008; Pollard, 2006; Strachan, 2009, 2010; Vali, 2010; Oplatka, 2006). Other authors like Whittington, Ospina and Pollard (2006, p.8) suggest that “gender roles are largely determined by the cultural context”. Thus gender roles can change but can be a sensitive issue.

The effect of perceived cultural roles and gender stereotypes were critical aspects that emerged from the findings when head teachers were appointed to work. For example, the culture and gender stereotypical thinking is evident in statements such as: ‘Women lack the leadership skills’; ‘are weak in decision making’; ‘leadership was meant for men and not women’; ‘no confidence in women leadership’, and ‘women’s role is at home’. These examples are typical of the stereotypical thinking. Such perceptions would emerge because of the cultural beliefs that are still held by a

majority of people. This is the major factor in the under- representation of women as leaders in (Akao, 2007; Pollard, 2006). Also according to Elms (2002) the gender- role stereotype is due to the under-representation of women in administration. In addition, Brunner (2001) and Fenwick (2000) also recognize that the under- representation of women is due to the myths that define what masculine and feminine stereotype qualities are, instead of looking for leadership qualities irrespective of the gender of a person.

Therefore, the observed cultural roles and gender stereotyping in this study is consistent with literature that indicates that these influence and shape the attitudes and perceptions that individuals have of gender (Akao, 2008; Warsal, 2009). The assumption is that this could be a cause for the under- representation of women heads; thus also depriving females who would like to aspire for leadership.

4.10 Experiences, Attitudes and Beliefs

The findings in this study point out that a change of attitude and beliefs of female head teachers came when participants proved that they could take up leadership. Female head teachers expressed that while working they built their confidence in trusting in their leadership skills. This confidence was built when Female head teachers were able to handle and make decisions in a strong school environment. Porat (1991) found that acceptance resulted when women were able to lead as men led, which is the accepted norm of society. The findings in this study also are supported by Strachan (2009) who states that “some women found that in order not to be perceived as weak, emotional and irrational leaders, they needed to lead like men” (p 73.).

This study found that female head teachers were aspiring to leadership. There were two factors in the study that influenced these female teachers to aspire to leadership. These were: being educated; and the opportunity for promotion to leadership. Female head teachers made it clear that understanding western society's views on women leadership through their education made them realize that there is under representation of women in leadership. Participants said that being educated gave them the courage and confidence to speak out.

This perception is in the same line with what some authors (Rigg & Sparrow, 1994; Brinia, 2012) have demonstrated. In fact, these scholars showed that characteristics leadership of women primary school heads are described as emotional, sensitive, and expressive. Other studies have demonstrated the emotional practices of women school heads as they mostly operate within a dynamic context. Certainly, that is why Sachs and Blackmore (1998: p. 272) stated that "*the complexity of life in schools and the daily exigencies of their professional and personal lives gave rise to a variety of emotions*", as women nourish emotions of care, especially when they are involved with school children matters. In this study, women Heads seemed to attach great importance to the learning and social-well-being of their teachers and pupils, which as result creates a caring school climate.

Furthermore, Hooks (1994) reported that during her twenty years of teaching many students still seek to enter feminist classroom because they continue to believe that there, more than in any other place in the academic, they will have an opportunity to experience education as the practice of freedom.

That is why women are still under-represented in the leadership and decision-making positions (Cubillo & Brown, 2003). The path to the top position for female remains

full of challenges and hurdles. The consequences of the obstacles are that men still outnumber women in holding in headship. The women leaders confirmed that they also face other structural constraints, as they seek to balance home life with office demands (Brown, 2004).

4.11 Leadership Styles

In the findings it was discovered that there were some influential leadership skills shown by female heads. The skills were identified as the head teachers' strengths. These particular skills brought success to the school and teachers were motivated when these leadership skills were practiced by female head teachers. These leadership qualities were: sharing responsibilities with teachers; relational approaches made to colleagues and students; firm decision making and visionary leadership. Grove and Montgomery (2000) states that "Good school administration is more attuned to feminine than masculine modes of leadership behavior. Female attributes of nurturing, being sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are increasingly associated with effective administration" (p.1).

Again in this study it was also found that female head teachers were role models and mentors for female teachers, thus helping them to aspire to leadership themselves. Female head teachers in the study mentioned that they admired their own leadership styles since it is producing needed results for them. Some of the leadership styles that they used were the head teachers' ability to make decisions and be firm in those decisions; being supportive; being open and good organizers; implementing development of infrastructure of the school; high achievements of students' grades; being strict with the finances, and using a redemptive disciplinary system as well as motivating other women to rise to leadership. In this study, Bush and Coleman (1995)

explain that women aspire to leadership because of the women heads being a mentor to female teachers. Mentoring and role modelling can be used as a platform for women's advancement. Shakeshaft (1987, as cited in Brown & Ralph, 1996) acknowledge that the ways women aspire however are different to men. She (1987, as cited in Brown & Ralph, 1996) suggests that traditionally, by male definition women would not be seen as aspiring to leadership because of the male role of leadership in society. In addition, organizational and societal barriers hinder women in acknowledging and acting upon their leadership aspirations. Strachan (2009) stated that women do not have role models because of the under- representation of women in leadership. Yet, in this study women in their own personal way do aspire to enter leadership roles.

Furthermore, the female school heads play an important role in the success of schools and students. The findings indicated that leaders in high-performing and excellent schools perform multiple leadership styles. In other words, leaders in such schools adapt their leadership styles according to specific needs and situations (Hussin & Waheed, 2016; Lazaridou & Beka, 2014; Mulford, 2008). However, the main leadership styles evident in the data were instructional leadership, transformational leadership and moral leadership. Thus, the findings are in line with Hussin and Waheed (2016) and Michel, Lyons and Cho (2010) who state that leaders along with being change focused, relation focused and task focused also need to be moral or ethical focused. These findings also show that the integrated leadership styles such as studied by Marks and Printy (2003) are incomplete and integrated leadership styles should add moral leadership as one of the most important leadership styles for effective leaders.

Besides, the heads also demonstrated moral leadership styles in their school as heads. They tried to remain close to the students in order to get in touch with them and resolve their problems. This study also revealed that heads, as moral leaders were fully committed towards their profession and school. Moral leaders often focus on serving the community (Yates, 2014). This study indicated that the heads had a desire to serve the community by providing quality education in their schools. Similar are the findings of Ismail and Abdul Ghani (2012).

The majority of women in this study emphasized participative, collaboration, caring as characteristics of their leadership. Besides, they described their self-perception of style as transformational leadership. Several studies (Eagly & Johansson-Schmidt, 2003; Lortie-Lussier & Rinfret, 2007; Eagly, 2007; Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Holmes, 2005) pointed out that, women leaders are known as having transformational skills and adopting individualized consideration towards people than men. Research into leadership styles found that transformational leadership emphasizes empowerment of followers including a shared vision. Besides, transformational leadership emphasizes individualized consideration (Bass, 1985; Eagly, 2003) and providing a role model for ethic of care (Gilligan, 1982), which encourages respect and trust (Mascia, 2015).

Individual consideration has great importance in managing school, in sense that there are students from diverse and different background and origins within school. Justice, equity and solidarity should be promoted based on the ethics and inclusion. Gilligan (1982) approached moral development of women in her research and found an ethic of care and sensitivity displayed by female in their leading role.

Collaborative leadership is abundantly discussed in the academic literature, which suggests that collaboration in modern organizations creates effective teamwork. Judge and Piccolo (2004)'s studies have demonstrated the positive relationships between leadership styles and measures of the effectiveness of leaders. These scholars found that transformational leadership was one of the greater source the school effectiveness. Eagly and Johansson-Schmidt (2003) also came to the conclusion that women leaders were more 'transformational' than colleagues' men. Other researchers have found that women are better than men are at transformational leadership, especially in leading teams. For example, Carwright and Gale (1995) conclude that women were people-oriented, and they seemed having better communication skills than males (Lee & Sweeney, 2001). Though women heads in this study possess abilities and assets as discussed, they experience a number of hindrances that affected their headship and themselves.

4.12 Challenges in Working as Female Head teacher

This study highlights that there were four challenges identified by the participants, when working as women head teachers. These were: disciplinary actions, the approaches of female head teachers, administrative challenges and the criticisms that female head teachers get from their counterparts. Since this study focuses on women heads, two of these challenges are more significant to women head teachers. Female head teachers also expressed concerns about job dissatisfaction. The job dissatisfaction as expressed by the female head teachers of schools seemed to have negatively impacted on retention of the school teachers. This finding was supported by Locklear (2010) who conducted a study on factors contributing to teacher retention in Georgia and found that most of the teachers considered leaving their chosen careers due to low morale and low pay. Other researchers such as Emery and Vandenberg

(2010) also reported that high attrition rates and low retention levels were some of the negative consequences of job dissatisfaction.

Administrative and infrastructural challenges also came up strongly. The conclusion that could be drawn from the responses of the participants regarding availability of resources was that head teachers in schools had challenges regarding provision of resources for effective teaching and learning. The implication of this finding is that teachers did not get adequate resource to teach the learners and as a result present their lessons in abstract form without any concrete materials. The finding is consistent with the finding by Council for Children with Behavior Disorders (2007) cited by Albrecht, Johns, Mounstevan and Olorunda (2009), who identified lack of current, appropriate textbooks and materials as well as no access to resource services as significant factors that determine teachers' intention to leave the profession of teaching children with emotional and behavior disorders. In a similar study which also supports the present study, Ngithi (2013) concluded that majority of the head teachers in Kenya were faced with administrative challenges in management of the pupils which include, inadequate textbooks and other learning resources, lack of adequate classrooms and furniture and poor sanitation.

Most female head teachers also complained about lack of funds to run their schools properly. The conclusion that may be drawn from the above analysis is that most of the female head teachers are confronted with greater financial burdens and this may impact on their ability to provide for their teachers the necessary resources that will enhance their job performance. The influence of resources on special needs educators' level of job satisfaction and retention appears to be a problem in Africa in general. For instance, in Kenya, Mutua (2011) reported that head teachers in Kenya faced numerous challenges including delayed in release of government bursaries and

inadequate teaching and learning materials. Also, the findings again collaborated with the findings by Oduro (2006) who explored challenges facing new heads in Africa reported that the heads are faced with daunting challenges including inadequate resources and these challenges affect the morale and job satisfaction of employees of school establishments



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations. It ends with suggestions on areas for further research.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of the current study was to investigate lived experiences and the challenges facing women occupying leadership positions at the basic school level in the Awutu Senya East Municipality with view of highlighting the support strategies to minimize these challenges.

Ten (10) female head teachers were involved in the study. All the participants were females since the whole study concerns them. Most of them were between the ages of 35-45 years. The data for the study was based on a self-report of ten (10) female head teachers. The study adopted the phenomenology design. Qualitative data gathered was analyzed using thematic analysis.

5.2 Summary of Findings

1. The findings revealed that women heads were collaborative, team-oriented and caring among others qualities. Most of the school heads employed transformation leadership style in order to bring changes in the school set-ups. Being committed as a moral and ethical leader acts positively and influences school performance.
2. The study found out that there were a set of socio-cultural and organizational obstacles along with stereotyping perceptions and attitudes that undesirably

affected their headship roles in one way or the other. Some were being discriminated against once a while based on their gender especially coming from their opposite sex.

3. The study revealed that inadequate supply of teaching- learning resources and delays in release of funds by the government to the schools were another block of challenges confronting female head teachers of schools in Ghana.
4. Another major finding dealt with women heads' leadership in the context of school organization itself. Due to the demand placed on the heads' role in school organization there are expectations and challenges that teachers face while working with women heads.
5. It came to light that government, Ghana education Service and other agencies that matter in education should come out with a lot of sensitization programs which seek to protect women from being discriminated against and to empower women to venture into leadership roles in education.

5.3 Conclusion

It is hoped that the findings from this study will be useful, especially for those who are decision makers such as stake holders, the Ministry of Education Ghana Education Services, other agencies in education; School leaders, especially women administrators; as well as teachers, students, parents and the communities who support and are involved in the running of school organizations. To be able to appreciate and value the leadership of women, particularly women head teachers, stakeholders must consider recommendations and to be aware of the potential that women heads can bring to schools. Perceptions of other people such as students, parents and stakeholders need to be sought when considering women's' leadership. Thus, those who are there to decide and appoint head teachers can make valid

judgement when it comes to recommending women to become head teachers. It is hoped that the key findings of this study can be a potential step towards changing the perceptions often those involved in decisions and help progress of women in schools.

The study has raised awareness of the perception teachers have about females in administrative position. The study has stressed the importance of maintaining a contextual and objective mind set when assessing females as leaders or managers in any particular setting. The findings from the study would inspire management, teachers, students and researchers on the perception and misconception about females who aspire to be leaders and managers in various professional settings.

5.4 Recommendations

In the light of the findings and the conclusions of this study outlined, the following recommendations are made:

1. It is recommended that gender balance of leadership be seen in Awutu Senya East Municipality. There should be more emphasis put on promoting more women into administrative level positions at the district and in the various schools. Even though it is set as one goal for equality in the education sector, this is not currently practiced. This approach needs the voice of women in the education sector, and education authorities to give a chance for potential women to hold leadership positions.
2. The Ministry of Education should make a deliberate effort to increase funding to the District Office to help provide teaching and learning resources to the various basic schools to propel effective teaching and learning in the district.
3. It is also recommended that more mentoring and networking workshops, in service training opportunities and role modelling be given to female head

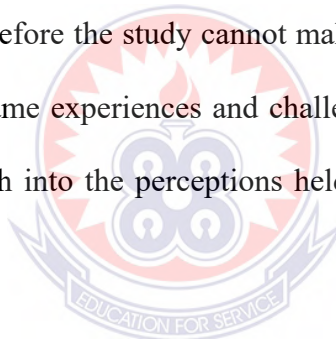
teachers who aspire to, and have potential in leadership in the district. This is so that these female teachers can feel empowered and see that they have the potential of being leaders. Women's groups, non- government organizations and the Ministry of Women, Youth and Children's Affairs have been doing a lot to promote women's leadership through workshops. However, individual female administrators in respected schools need to mentor, train and recommend young females with potential leadership skills for in service training overseas.

4. It is recommended that the District Education Office should see the potential leadership skills that women in the various schools have and appoint potential female leaders for administrative positions such as head teachers.
5. It is also recommended that it would be useful to get the perceptions of other stakeholders in the district such as school boards, parents and students about women head teachers' leadership to support as well as recommend more women to leadership positions. Women heads' leadership can be viewed from a wider perspective, so that those who are actually involved in school organizational programs in the district are involved.
6. There is the need for a strategic plan of action for women leaders in education in the district, to be given opportunities to showcase what they have by actively, bringing women on board in major decision making at the district level in order to build their confidence.
7. The Awutu Senya East District Education Office should organize seminars and programs that seeks to educate male teachers on how they should relate and communicate with female heads and how female heads should not be too autocratic in their leadership style.

8. Colleges of Education should enrich their curriculum with issues that borders on female leadership and how they can build confidence to take up managerial roles when the opportunity occurs.
9. Female heads in the district should be willing to mentor the up and coming women leaders on the different leadership styles that would best suit them wherever they find themselves.

5.5 Limitation of the Study

On reflection, there were some limitations pertaining to this study. First, the current study included lived experiences of only female head teachers and did not include that of female teachers. A second limitation was that this study uses a small sample of ten female head teachers therefore the study cannot make a generalization that all female head teachers have the same experiences and challenges across the country. Another is the inability to research into the perceptions held by male teachers on the role of female head teachers.



5.6 Areas for Further Research

1. Further research needs to be done on perceptions of teachers on female head teachers' role to get a clear picture of what they think of women head teachers' leadership. In turn, this could broaden the perspectives, and also give a clear picture of where women heads' leadership sits in education.
2. In addition, it would give stakeholders and the education ministry a clear picture of the leadership that a woman head can bring to a school organization as a whole.

REFERENCES

- Akao, S. M. (2008). *Seen but not heard: Women's experiences of educational leadership in Solomon Islands Secondary Schools* (Master's thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10289/2379>
- Al-Jaradat, M. K. M (2014). Challenges facing women academic leadership in secondary schools of Irbid educational area. *International Educational Studies Journal*, 7(5), 147-160
- Al-Shihabi, E., & Mohammad, M. (2001). Woman predicative problems of the leading position as viewed by the women leaderships. *Creative Leadership Conference on Facing the Contemporary Challenges of the Arab Management, The Arab Administrative Development Organization, Cairo*, 5-8/11/2001.
- Anderson, G. (1990). *Fundamentals of educational research*. London: Britain: Falmer Press
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2002). *Developing potential across a full range of leadership: Cases on transactional and transformational leadership*. Mahwah, NJ, USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Azaola MC, De Wet A, Skervin H, Williamson A (2010). *Women School Principals in South Africa: Leading the Way*. London: University of Southampton.
- Bahadur, W., Amir, B., Waheed, Z., & Abdul Nasir, K. (2017). Multiple-oriented leadership behavior and school performance: A multiple-case study. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Management*, 5(2), 25–41.
- Bahari, Siti F. (2010). Qualitative versus quantitative research strategies: Contrasting Epistemological and ontological assumptions.” *Journal Teknologi*, 52, 17-28.
- Bandiho, H. A. (2009). Status of educational leadership and female participation. In H. C. Sobehart (Eds.), *Women leading education across the continents*. Lanham, United States of America: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Banks, M. (2007). *Multicultural education*. Washington: USA
- Barbour, R., & Schostak, J. F. (2005). Interviewing and focus groups. In: B. Somekh & C. Lewin, (eds.) *Theory and methods in social research (2nd ed.)*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Barnett, K., & McCormick, J. (2004). Leadership and individual principal- teacher relationships in schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(3), 406-433. doi: 10.1177 /0013161X0326 1742.

- Bartlett, J. E., Kotrlik, J. W., & Higgins, C. C. (2001). Organizational research: Determining appropriate sample size in survey research. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, 19(1), 1-8.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., & Atwater, L. E. (1996). The transformational and transactional leadership of men and women. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 45(1), 5-34.
- Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1997). *The full range leadership development manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Redwood City, CA: Mindgarden Inc.
- Bell, J. (2005). *Doing your research project (4th ed.)*. Berkshire, England: Open University Press.
- Berg, B. (2007). An introduction to content analysis. In: Berg, B.L., (Eds.), *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (pp. 238-267). Allyn and Bacon, Boston,
- Berger, E., Norberto, B, Soussi, A., Giorgio, O., Gauvreau, C., & Heinz, R. (2004). De l'émergence du courant «School improvement» et exemples d'applications. *Revue Française de Pédagogie*, 148(1), 119-134. <https://doi.org/10.3406/rfp.2004.3255>
- Blasé, J. (1987). Dimension of effective school leadership: The teacher's perspective. *American Educational Research Journal*, 24(4), 589-610. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1163181>
- Blasé, J., & Blasé, J. (2002). The dark side of leadership: Teacher perspectives of principal mistreatment. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(5), 671-727.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S.K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. B. (2001). Leading with soul. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, No. 4, 2002 105 <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190200800412> volume 8,
- Brenneman. K., A. (2018). Integrating STEM into preschool education; designing a professional development model in diverse settings. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 47(1), 1-14
- Brinia, V. (2012). Men vs. women: Educational leadership in primary schools Greece: An empirical study. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 26(2), 175-191. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09513541211201988>

- Bronars, S. G. (2015). *A vanishing breed: How the decline in U.S. Farm laborers over the last decade has hurt the U.S. economy and slowed production on american farms*. Washington DC: Partnership for A New American Economy.
- Brown, H. E. L. (2004). *Barriers to women in educational leadership roles in Montana (Doctoral Dissertation, Bozeman*. Montana: Montana State University-Bozeman).
- Brown, M., & Ralph, S. (1996). Barriers to women manager's advancement in education in Uganda. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 10(6), 18-23. Retrieved from the Emerald Research database
- Brunner, C. C. (2001). New faculty member examines power and female school superintendents, Retrieved from <http://education.umn.edu/alum/link/2001fall/female.html>
- Burger, C., Abbott, G., Tobias, S., Koch, J., Vogt, C., & Sosa, T. (2007). Gender equity in science, engineering, and technology. In S. Klein (Eds.), *Handbook for achieving gender equality through education*, (p. 255-279). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Klein, C., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E. & Halpin, S. M. (2006). What type of leadership behaviors are functional in teams? A met analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(3), 288-307.
- Burley, J.E., & Lenz, P (2009). Desert, rainforest and growing oasis; Trans versing challenges and opportunity in Africa. In H. C. Sobehart (Ed.), *Women leading education across the continents: Sharing the spirit, fanning the flame*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to Research Methods*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Bush, T. (2003). *Theories of educational leadership and management (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Bush, T., & Coleman, M. (1995). 'Professional development for heads: the role of mentoring'. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 33(5), 60
[73.doi.org/10.1108/09578239510098536](https://doi.org/10.1108/09578239510098536).
- Caldwell, B. (2006). *Re-imagining educational leadership*. Victoria, Australia: ACER Press.
- Campbell, S., Mueller, K., & Souza, J. M. (2010). Shared leadership experiences of women community college presidents. *Journal of Women in Educational Leadership*, 8(1), 19-32. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com.ezproxy.mnsu.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ978091&site=ehost-live>

- Cannon, H. (2008). Shared Leadership: Building productive relationships. *Leadership National Education Magazine*, 52-55.
- Catalyst. (2009). Catalyst census of women board directors of the fortune 500. Retrieved on March 5, 2011, from http://www.catalyst.org/file/242/08_census_wbd_jan.pdf
- Catano, N., & Stronge, J. H. (2006). National association of secondary school principals. *NASSP Bulletin*, 90, (3), 221-237.
- Çelikten, M. (2004). Diary of a school principal, *Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 14(1), 123-135.
- Celikten, M. (2005). A perspective on women principals in Turkey. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 3, 8, 207-221.
- Çelikten, M., & Yeni, Y. (2004). 'The evaluation of leadership and management characteristics of school administrators with respect to sexuality. *Kastamonu Education Journal*, 12(2), 305-14.
- Chapman, J. B. (1975). Comparison of male and female leadership styles. *Academy of Management Journal*, 18(3), 645-650.
- Chisholm, L., & September, J. (2005). *Gender equity in South African education 1994-2004: Perspectives from research, government and unions*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.
- Chliwniak, L. (1997). Higher education leadership: Analyzing the gender gap. *ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education*, 25(4), 5-138.
- Choudhury, J. (2010). Performance impact of intellectual capital: A study of Indian it sector. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5, 72-80.
- Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (1994) *Research methodism education* (4th ed.). London: Routledge
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2009). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). Abingdon, USA: Routledge.
- Connor, N. L. (1992). Restructuring schools will there be a place for women? *Clearing House* ,65(6), 337-339.
- Cortina, L. M. (2006). Unseen injustice: Incivility as modern discrimination in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 33, 55-75.

- Cranston, N., & Ehrich, L. (2009). Senior management teams in schools: understanding their dynamics, enhancing their effectiveness. *Leading and Managing*, 15(1), 14-25.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. California, United States: Sage Publication.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed Methods approaches*. United States: Sage Publication.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston: United States of America.
- Cuban, L. (1988). *The managerial imperative and the practice of leadership in schools*. Albany State University of New York Press.
- Cubillo, L., & Brown, M. (2003). Women into educational leadership and management: international differences? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 41 (3), Pp. 278-29.
- Dash, N. K. (2005). *Module: Selection of the research paradigm and methodology*. Online research methods Resource for teachers and trainers. Retrieved from http://www.celt.mmu.ac.uk/researchmethods/Modules/Selection_of_methodology/index.php.
- Davies, P. G., Spencer, S. J., & Steele, C. M. (2005). Clearing the air: Identity safety moderates the effects of stereotype threat on women's leadership aspirations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88, 276-287
- Davis, B. (2009). *The essentials of school leadership (2nd ed.)*. London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications.
- Davis, B. (2011). *Leading the strategically focused school* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California, United States: Sage Publication.
- Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D. (2005). School leadership study developing successful principals. Retrieved from http://www.srnleads.org/data/pdfs/sls/sls_rr.pdf
- De Klerk. (2004). *'n Prinsipiële analyses van die taal in Onderwysbeleid* (1997). MEd verhandeling. Bloemfontein: Universiteit van die Vrystaat.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2003). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (2nd ed., pp. 1 - 46). Thousand Oaks, CA, United States: Sage Publications.

- Donnie A. & Zuliana M. Z. (2017). Educational leadership for the 21st Century. *International Online Journal of Educational Leadership*, 1, 1, 1-4.
- Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: Resolving the contradictions. North western University. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2007.00326.x>
- Eagly, A. H., Johannessen-Schmidt, M. C., & van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(4), 569-591. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.129.4.569>
- Earley, P., & Weindling, D. (2004). *Understanding school leadership*. London, Britain: Paul Chapman Publishing
- Elms, M. (2002). Female management. Retrieved from <http://www.schoolzone.co.uk/leaders/jft/GoodPracticed/Managementfinance/Female.htm>
- Emery, D. W., & Vandenberg, B. (2010). Special education teacher burnout and ACT. *International Journal of Special Education*, 25, 119–131.
- Eskandari, M. (2014). *Analysis and criticism on transformational leadership*. pp. 124-126
- Everard, K. B., Morris, G., & Wilson, I. (2004). *Effective school management*. London, Britain: Sage Publication.
- Feistritzer, C. E., Griffin, S., & Linnajarvi, A. (2011). *Profiles of teachers in the U. S. 2011*. Washington, DC: The National Center for Education Information.
- Fetterman, D. (2008). “Emic/Etic Distinction.” *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*, edited by Given, Lisa M., Sage.
- Foote, Mary Q. and Tonya Gau Bartell. “Pathways to Equity in Mathematics Education: How Life Experiences Impact Researcher Positionality.” *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, vol. 78, 2011, pp. 45-68.
- Fortier, I. (2008). Les femmes et le leadership. *Gestion*, 33(3), 61-67. <https://doi.org/10.3917/riges.333.0061>
- Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed (M. Bergman Ramos, Trans.)*. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.

- Fullan, M. (2002). *Change forces with a vengeance*. London, Britain: Routledge Falmer
- Galinsky, E., & Swanberg, J. E. (2000). Employed mothers and fathers in the United States: Understanding how work and family life fit together. In L. L. Haas, P. Hwang & R. Graeme. *Organizational change & gender equity: International perspectives on fathers and mothers at the workplace*. London: Sage: Publication
- Gauthier, R.-F. (2007). Qui a l'initiative pédagogique? *Les Cahiers Pédagogiques*, 458, 22-24
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures*. Basic Books.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Glanz, J. (2006). *Cultural leadership*. Thousand Oaks, California, United States: Sage Publication.
- Glass, T. E. (2000). Where are all the women superintendents? *School Administrator*, 57(6), 28- 33.
- Gonzalez Sullivan, L. (2009). Informal learning among women community college presidents. In D. R. Dean, S. J. Bracken, & J. K. Allen (Eds.), *Women in academic leadership: Professional strategies, personal choices* (pp. 95-127). Sterling, VA: Stylus Pub.
- Grant-Vallone, E. J., & Ensher, E. A. (2011). An examination of work and personal life conflict, organizational support, and employee health among international expatriates. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol. 25, 3, 261- 78.
- Greyling, S. C. M., & Steyn, G. M. (2015). The challenges facing Women aspiring for school leadership positions in South African primary schools. *Gender & Behavior*, 13(1), 6607- 6620.
- Grix, J. (2019). *The foundations of research*. Macmillan: Macmillan International,
- Gross, N., & Trask, A. (1976). *Men and women as elementary principals*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.
- Grove, R., & Montgomery, P. 2000. Women and the leadership paradigm: Bridging the gender gap. *National Forum Journals* (<http://www.nationalforum.com/12grove.htm>).

- Guba, E. G., Lincoln, Y. S. (1981). *Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gumusluoglu, L., & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(4), 461-473.
- Hallinger, P. & Heck, R. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980-1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5-44.
- Hallinger, P. (2017). "Revealing a hidden literature: Systematic research on educational leadership and management in Africa." *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*. doi:10.1177/1741143217694895
- Hayward, Q., Goss, M., & Tolmay, R. 2004. *The relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and employee commitment*. Rhodes University: Business Report. Grahams town.
- Helgesen, S. (1995). *The female advantage: Women's ways of leadership*. New York: Doubleday Dell Publishing Group Inc.
- Héon, L., Savard, D., & Hamel, T. (2008). L. Héon, D. Savard, & T. Hamel (Eds.), *Les cégeps: Une grande aventure collective québécoise* (p. 533). Les Presses de l'Université Laval.
- Hermanowicz, J. C. (2002), "The great interview: 25 strategies for studying people in bed", *Qualitative Sociology*, 25, 4, 479-499.
- Hilliard, A., & Jackson, B. T. (2011). Current trends in educational leadership for student success plus facilities planning and designing. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 4(1), 1-8.
- Hoff, D. L., & Mitchell, S. N. (2008). Cyberbullying: Causes, effects, and remedies. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 47(5), 652-665
- Hoff, E. (2005). *Language development (3rd ed.)*. Australia: Wadsworth Thomson Learning
- Holmes, G. (2005). *Effective leadership*. The Australian Educational leader.
- Hooks, B. (1994). *Teaching to transgress: Education as the practice of freedom (Chapter 1)*. New York: Routledge.
- Hoy, K. W., & Miskel, G. C. (1991). *Educational administration: Theory, research and practice (4th ed.)*. New York: USA: McGraw Hill.

- Hoyt, E. (2005). *Marine protected areas for whales, dolphins and porpoises: A world handbook for cetacean habitat conservation*. London: Earthscan, 16pp
- hudson, j., & rea, d. (1996). *teachers' perceptions of women in the principalship: A current perspective*. Missouri United States: Kansas City,
- Hussin, S., & Waheed, Z. (2016). Rising to prominence and excellence: A conceptual model of school transformation. *In NTED 2016* (pp. 3221–3231). Valencia, Spain.
- Inandi, Y. (2009). The barriers to career advancement of female teachers in Turkey and their levels of burnout. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(8), 1143-1152.
- Ismail, A., & Abdullah, A. G. K. (2012). A journey to excellence: A case of Ulu Lubai national primary school in Limbang Sarawak, *Malaysia. Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 69, 1309-1313.
- Jayaweera, S. (1997). Women, education and empowerment in Asia". *Gender and Education*, 9(4), 411-423.
- Johnson, J. (2008). The principal's priority 1. *The Positive Classroom*, 66, (1), 72- 76. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/educationalleadership/sept08/vol66/num01/The-Principal%27s-Priority-1.aspx>
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 755-768. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.755>
- Kamassah, S. (2010). Factors that enable women of South Asian and African descent to succeed in leadership positions in higher education. *College Quarterly*, 13(3), 1-24.
- Kamau, W. (2004). *Problems faced by female head teachers in the administration of secondary schools in Thika district*. Unpublished M. Ed project, Kenyatta University Nairobi.
- Kanco E. H. (2013). *Challenges of women in Administrative position in Edu*. In the Adenta District in the greater-Accra Region of Ghana.
- Kellerman, B., & Rhodes, D. L. (2014). Women at the top: The pipeline reconsidered. In F. Ngunjiri, K. A. Longman, & S. R. Madsen (Series Eds.), *Women and leadership in higher education. A volume in women and leadership: Research, theory, and practice* (pp. 23-39). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, Inc.
- Khaki, J. E. A., & Safdar, Q. (2013). *Educational leadership in Pakistan: Ideals and realities*. Karachi: Oxford University Press.

- Khorshid, S., & Pashazadeh, A. (2014). The effect of transformational leadership on organizational learning capabilities with respect to the mediating role of organizational intelligence, *Journal of Change Management*, 6(11), 7.
- Kim, S., & Kim, E. P. (2005). Profiles of school administrators in South Korea". *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 33(3), 289-310.
- Kim, Y., & Brunner, C. C. (2009). School administrators' career mobility to the superintendency: Gender differences in career development. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 47, 75-107. doi:10.1108/09578230910928098
- Kirkbride, P. (2006). Developing transformational leaders: The full range leadership model in action. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38(1), 23-32.
- Kowalski, T. J. (2006). *The school superintendent (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- Kowalski, T. J. (2008). School reform, civic engagement, and school board leadership. In T. L. Alsbury (Ed.), *The future of school board governance: Relevancy and revelation* (pp. 225-243). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Kowalski, T. J., McCord, R. S., Peterson, G. J., Young, I. P., & Ellerson, N. M. (2011). *The American school superintendent: 2010 decennial study*. New York, NY: Rowan & Littlefield Education.
- Kowalski, T. J., McCord, R.S., Petersen, G. J., Young, P., & Ellerson, N. M. (2011). *The American school superintendent: 2010 decennial study*. New York, NY: Roman & Littlefield Publishers in partnership with the American Association of School Administrators.
- Kramarae, D. Pollard & Dwyer C. (Eds.), *Handbook for achieving gender equity through education* (2nd ed., pp. 103-129). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Kusow, Abdi M. (2003). "Beyond indigenous authenticity: Reflections on the insider/outsider debate in immigration research." *Symbolic Interaction*, vol. 26, 4, 591-599.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interview views: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lazaridou, A., & Beka, A. (2015). Personality and resilience characteristics of Greek primary school principals. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 43(5), 772-791.
- Leach, L. S. 2005. *Nurse executive transformational leadership and organizational commitment*. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 35(5), 228-237.

- Lee, D. R., & Sweeney, J. P. (2001). An assessment of influence tactics used by project managers. *Engineering Management Journal*, 13(2), 16-25. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10429247.2001.11415112>
- Lee, J. K., Coyne, R. S., Dubreuil, R. R., Goldstein, L. S. B., Branton, D. (1993). Cell shape and interaction defects in -spectrin mutants of *Drosophila melanogaster*. *J. Cell Biol.*, 123(6 2), 1797--1809.
- Lee, V. E., Smith, J. B., & Cioci, M. (1993). Teachers and principals: Gender related perceptions of leadership and power in secondary schools. *American Educational Research Association*, 15(2), 153-180.
- Lichtman, M. (2006). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA, United States: Sage Publication.
- Lortie-Lussier, M., & Rinfret, N. (2007). La contribution des femmes à l'émergence de nouvelles cultures organisationnelles: Entre réalité et utopie. *Télescope*, 13(4), 1-13.
- Love, A. (2007). *Teacher's perception of leadership effectiveness of female and male* (Unpublished master's thesis, Tennessee State University, Tennessee, United States).
- Luenburg, F. C., & Orstein, A. C. (2008). *Educational administration: Concepts and practices*. Belmont, CA, USA: Wadsworth.
- Lumby J. (2003). Managing motivation. In: J. Lumby, D. Middlewood, E. S. M. Kaabwe (Eds.) *Managing human resources in South African schools* (pp. 155-170). London: Commonwealth Secretariat, Lumby J,
- Luttrell, W. (2010). *Qualitative educational research: Readings in reflexive methodology and transformative practice*. New York, United States: Routledge.
- MacBeath, J. (2005). Leadership as distributed: A matter of practice. *School Leadership and Management*, 25(4), 349-366
- MacBeath, J., & Dempster, N. (2006). *Connecting leadership and learning: Principles for practice*. London: Routledge
- MacBeath, J., & Dempster, N. (eds) (2009). *Connecting leadership for learning: Principles for practice*. Routledge: London.
- Malasa, D. (2007). *Effective school leadership: An exploration of issues inhibiting the effectiveness of school leadership in Solomon Islands secondary school*. (Unpublished master's thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand) Retrieved from <http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz?handle/10289/2429>

- Marks, H. M., & Printy, S. M. (2003). Principal leadership and school performance: An integration of transformational and instructional leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 39(3), 370–397.
- Marsh, D. (2017). A skin not a sweater: Ontology and epistemology in political science.” *Theory and methods in political science*, edited by Lowndes, V. et al., Palgrave- Macmillan Education,.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G.B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Mascia, S. (2015). *Are women better suited to project leadership than men?* Retrieved May 1, 2016, from <http://www.gpmfirst.com/articles/opinion/guest-editorial-are-women-better-suited-project-leadership-men>
- Maseko, N. (2013). *Determinants of tax compliance by small and medium enterprises in Zimbabwe*. Available at SSRN.
- Mason, M. A., & Goulden, M. (2002). Do babies matter? The effect of family formation on the lifelong careers of academic men and women. *Academe*, 88, 21–27.
- Maynard, M., & Purvis, J. (1994). *Researching women's lives from a feminist perspective*. London, Britain: Taylor & Francis.
- McCabe, C. (2011). *Leading the strategically focused school* (2nd ed.). Larchmont, NY, United States: Eye on Education
- Memua, J. (2011). *The experiences, perceptions and expectations of teachers, students and parents of the Community High School model in Solomon Islands: A Case study*. (Master’s thesis, Waikato University, Hamilton, New Zealand. Retrieved from <http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/handle/10289/5348>
- Mensah Odei-Tettey & Osaebó (2014). *Mainstreaming the functional concerns of female leadership in basic schools in the Akuapem-South Municipality of Ghana*. Aspect of performance and challenges in a male dominated culture. Published by Europeans Center for Research Training and Development, UK. (www.eajournals.org).
- Mestry, R., & Schmidt, M. (2012). A feminist post-colonial examination of female principals’ experiences in South African secondary schools. *Gender and Education*, 24(5), 535-551.
- Meyerson, D. E., & Fletcher, J. F. (2000). *A modest manifesto for shattering the glass ceiling'* (pp. 127-36). Harvard Business Review, January-February,

- Michel, J. W., Lyons, B. D., & Cho, J. (2010). Is the Full-Range Model of Leadership really a full-range model of effective leader behavior? *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 18(4), 493–507.
- Mirkamali, M., Shateri, K., & Uzbashi, A. (2013). Explaining the role of transformational leadership in the field of organizational creativity, *Journal of Innovation and Value Creation*, 2, 23.
- Mitroussi, K. (2003). “Third party ship management: the case of separation of ownership and management in the shipping context”, *Maritime Policy & Management*, 30, 1, 77-90
- Montas-Hunter, S. S. (2012). Self-efficacy and Latina leaders in higher education. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, 11(4), 315-335.
- Morris, J. (1999). Managing women: Secondary school principals in Trinidad and Tobago. *Gender and Education*, 11(3), 345-355. doi: 10.1080/09540259920627
- Mortazavi, N., & Partovi, N. (2014). Analysis of the effect of transformational leadership on organizational performance with human resource approach (Case Study: Keshavarzi Bank). *MAGNT Research Report*, 2(1), 277-285.
- Msila V (2013) Cross-gender mentoring of principals in selected South African schools. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 5(1), 19–27
- Mulford, B. (2003). Leadership in Education: Losing sight of our interests? In N. Bennett, M. Crawford, & M. Cartwright (Eds.), *Effective educational leadership* (pp 3–13). London: Open University Press & Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Mulford, B. (2008). *The leadership challenge: Improving learning in schools*. Australian Education Review. Australia: ACER Press.
- Muzvidziwa, I. (2014). Principalship as an empowering leadership process: The experiences of women school heads in Zimbabwe. *Anthropologist*, 17(1), 213-221. [https://doi.org/ 10.1080/09720073.2014.11891431](https://doi.org/10.1080/09720073.2014.11891431)
- Nolutho, D. (2014). Women in educational leadership: The case of Hope High School in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. *Journal of Educational Management administration and management*, Vol. 42(6).
- Oplatka, I. & Hertz-Lazarowitz, R. (2006). Women leadership in education: a review of the knowledge base. In Oplatka, I. & Hertz-Lazarowitz, R. (Eds.) (2006). *Women principals in a multicultural society: New insights into feminist educational leadership* (PP. 17-32). The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

- Oplatka, I. (2006). Women in educational administration within developing countries. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 44(6), 604-624.
- Oram, A. (1996). *Women teachers and feminist politics, 1900–39*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Ormston, R. (2014). “The foundations of qualitative research.” In Ritchie, & Jane (Eds.) *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage.
- Paludi, M. (2008). *The psychology of women at work: Challenges and solutions for our female workforce* (2nd ed.). USA: Praeger Publishers.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA, United States: Sage Publications.
- Pichler, S., Simpson, P., & Stroh, L. (2008). The glass ceiling in human resources: Exploring the link between women’s representation in management and the practices of strategic human resources management and employee involvement. *Human Resources Management*, 47 (3), 436-479.
- Pollard, A. A. (2006). *Gender and leadership in the 'Are 'Are society, the South Sea Evangelical Church and parliamentary leadership*. Doctoral thesis, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Porat, K. L. (1991). Women in administration: The difference is positive. *Clearing House*, 64(6), 412-415.
- Redmond, J., & J. Harford. (2010). One man one job’: The marriage ban and the employment of women teachers in Irish primary schools.” *Pedagogical Historical International Journal of the History of Education* 46(5), 639–654
- Rigg, C., & Sparrow, J. (1994). Gender, diversity and working styles. *Women in Management Review*, 9(1), 9-1. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09649429410050971>
- Robertson, J., M. (1995). *Theories of leadership. Educational leadership: Issues and Perspectives* (Lecture Notes). Hamilton, New Zealand: University of Waikato.
- Rosener, J. B. (1990). Ways women lead. *Harvard Business Review*, Nov- Dec (119-125).
- Rowe, W. E. (2014). Positionality.” *The sage encyclopedia of action research*, edited by Coghlan, David and Mary Brydon-Miller, Sage Publication
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

- Rudman, L. & Phelan, J. (2010). The effect of priming gender roles on women's implicit gender beliefs and careers aspirations. *Social Psychology, 41*(3), 192-202.
- Sanghera, Gurchathen S., & Suruchi, T. (2008). Methodological dilemmas: Gatekeepers and positionality in bradford." *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 31*, 3, 543-562.
- Savin-Baden, M. & Claire Howell Major (2013). *Qualitative research: The essential guide to theory and practice*. London: Routledge,
- Schaeff, A.W. (1985). *Women's reality*. Minneapolis. United States: Winston Press.
- Schein, E. H. (1985). *Organization culture and leadership*. San Francisco, United States of America: Jossey – Bass
- Schostak, J. F. (2006). *Interviewing and representation in qualitative research projects*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Scotland, J. (2012). "Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms." *English Language Teaching, 5*, 9, 9-16.
- Szesny, S. (2003). A closer look beneath the surface: Various facets of the think manager-think- male stereotype. *Sex Roles, 49*, 353-363. doi: 10.1023/A:1025112204526.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: USA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Shakeshaft, C. (1987). *Women in education administration*. New Delhi: Sage publication Inc.
- Shakeshaft, C., Brown, G., Irby, B., Grogan, M., & Ballenger, J. (2007). Increasing gender equity in educational leadership. In S. Klein, B. Richardson, D. Grayson, L. Fox, C. Kramarae, D. Pollard & C. Dwyer (Eds.), *Handbook for achieving gender equity through education* (2nd ed., pp. 103-129). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Shakeshaft, C., Brown, G., Irby, B., Grogan, M., & Ballenger, J. (2007). Increasing gender equity in educational leadership. In S. Klein, B. Richardson, D. Grayson, L. Fox, C. Kramarae, D. Pollard & C. Dwyer (Eds.), *Handbook for achieving gender equity through education* (2nd ed., pp. 103-129). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information, 22*, 63-75.

- Shum, L. C., & Cheng, V. C. (1997). Perception of women principal's leadership and teacher's attitudes. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 35(2), 165- 186. doi: 10.1108/09578239710161786
- Sidani, Y. (2005). "Women, work, and Islam in Arab societies". *Women in Management Review*, 20(7), 498-512.
- Sikes, P. (2004). Methodology, procedures and ethical concerns." In Opie, Clive, *Doing educational research: A guide for first time researchers*, Sage.
- Skelton, C. (2001). *Schooling the boys*. Buckingham: Open University Press
- Smith, C., & Amushigamo, A. (2015). *The perceived influence of school leadership on learner behavior in a Namibian Secondary School*. Retrieved from <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177> on April 13, 2022
- Smithson, J. (2000) Using and analyzing focus groups: Limitations and possibilities. *International Journal of Methodology: Theory and Practice*, 3(2), 103–119
- Sperandio, J., & Kagoda, A. (2010). Context and the gendered status of teachers: Women teachers' aspirations to school leadership in Uganda. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 24(1), 22-33.
- Sprague, J. (2005). *Feminist methodologies for critical researchers, bridging differences*. CA, United States: AltaMira Press.
- Starratt, R. J. (2004). *Ethical leadership*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass.
- Strachan, I. A. B. (1993) Some integrable hierarchies in (2+1) dimensions and their twister description. *Journal of Mathematical Physics*, 34, 243-259 doi:10.1063/1.530379
- Strachan, J. (2009). Women and educational leadership in New Zealand and Melanesia. In H. C. Sobehart (Ed.), *Women leading education across the continents: Sharing the spirit, fanning the flame*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Timberlake, S. (2005). Social capital and gender in the workplace. *Journal of Management Development*, 24 (1), 34-44. doi: 10.1108/026217106510572336.
- UNESCO. (2011a). *School-based sexuality education programs. A cost and cost-effectiveness analysis in six countries*. Paris, UNESCO.
<http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/pdf/CostingStudy.pdf>
- 2-Covey, S. (2007). Transformational leadership report, p. 10.

- Van der Westhuizen, P. C. (1997). *Effective educational management*. Cape Town: ABC Press (Pty) Ltd.
- Vigoda-Gadot, E. 2007. *Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance: An empirical examination of two competing models*. *Personnel Review*, 36 (5), 661-683.
- Warsal, D. (2009). The impact of culture on women's leadership in Vanuatu, Secondary Schools. (Master's thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/handle/10289/2776>
- Watson, T. N., & Rivera-McCutchen, R. L. (2016). #BlackLivesMatter: A call for transformative leadership. *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*, 19(2), 3-11.
- Weiss, R.S. (1994). *Learning from strangers: The art and methods of qualitative interview studies*. The Free Press, New York.
- Wellington, J. (2005). *Succeeding with your doctorate*, London: Sage.
- Whitaker, T., Whitaker, B., & Lumpa, D. (2009). *Motivating and inspiring teachers: The educational leader's guide for building staff morale*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education
- White, K., Riordan, S., Ozkanli, O., & Neale, J. (2010). Cross cultural perspectives of gender and management in universities. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 24(4), 646-660.
- Wildy, H., Siguroardottir, S. M., & Faulkner, R. (2014). Leading the small rural school in Iceland and Australia: Building leadership capacity. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 42(4), 104-118
- Yates, L. A. (2014). Exploring the relationship of ethical leadership with Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership*, 7(1), 1-15.
- Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluative essay on current conceptions of effective leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8 (1), 33-48.
- Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX

Interview Guide on Challenges of Female Head Teachers in Educational Leadership of Schools

Dear Respondent,

I am an M. Phil student of the University of Education, Winneba undertaking a study on challenges of female head teachers in educational leadership of schools in Awutu Senya-East Municipality. The study is for educational purpose and your readiness to respond appropriately will make its outcome beneficial to stakeholders. I wish to assure you that your identity and whatever information you provide will not be disclosed to anyone. Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

Respond carefully and state your candid opinion on the following interview guide

1. How long have you worked as a head teacher?
2. What has been your experiences so far with being a head teacher?
3. Apart from being a head, what other roles do women occupy in educational leadership?
4. Do you think there should be women head teachers? Why?
5. What impressions do your colleagues at work have towards you as a female head teacher?
6. How did these impressions influence your attitudes and beliefs of women in leadership?
7. What are some of the positive outcomes you had from working with your colleagues? Give examples of these positive outcomes.

8. How have these positive outcomes influenced your perceptions of female head teachers?
9. What are some of the challenges you faced while working as a school head?
Give examples of these challenges that you faced.
10. What are some of the ways by which challenges that women face can be minimized?

Thank you.

