

AKENTEN APPIAH-MENKA UNIVERSITY OF SKILLS TRAINING AND
ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT

CHALLENGES FACING FEMALE HEAD TEACHERS OF PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS IN BOLGATANGA MUNICIPALITY OF UPPER EAST REGION



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Arts (Educational Leadership) degree**

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

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

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation as laid down by the Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development

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DATE.....

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Nathaniel Musah Baabotin and my sister, Harriet Akuka.



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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the challenges facing female head teachers of Junior High Schools in the Bolgatanga Municipal of the Upper East Region. The objectives of the study were to identify the socio-cultural challenges that female headteachers face in carrying their roles and responsibilities, identify the organizational related challenges facing the headteachers and to determine the support systems put in place for the female headteacher to improve upon their performance. The study used descriptive survey as the research design. The targeted population was all the 293 female heads and female teachers of public Junior High schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality. Purposive sampling was used to select female heads while simple random sampling was used to select the females teachers for the study. The researcher used questionnaire with closed ended questions to gather data for the study. The study found, among others that the negative attitude of people towards female leadership and the perception of females being inferior to men are socio-cultural challenges of the female headteachers. Inadequate financial resources and problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions are other challenges facing the female headteacher. Support systems put in place for the female headteachers were the provision of teaching and learning materials and provision of professional training and development. Based on the findings, it is recommended that the Ghana Education Service in collaboration with the Ministry of Education should organize awareness creation through PTA meetings, seminars and forums to sensitize parents and guardians on the importance of female education.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Female education is paramount as well as male education as they all help in the socio-economic development of the nation. In spite of the golden age of females which was proclaimed in the Berlin Conference of 1995, females continue to be disadvantaged when it comes to positions in the world of work, especially in the public and private sectors of the society. It is this social injustice which has led to women feeling reluctant to take up leadership positions in society (Scheerens & Bosker, 2014).

Sashkin and Sashkin's (2003) and Hoy and Miskel's (2001) define leadership as the art of transforming people and organisation with the aim of improving the organisation. From this perspective, leaders (including head teachers) define the task and explain why the job is being done; they oversee followers' activities and ensure that followers have what they need in terms of skills and resources to do the job. It is required of leaders to develop a relationship between themselves and their followers, align, motivate and inspire the followers to foster productivity. Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organisation because it determines the success or failure of the organisation. Thus the study of leadership in organisations is closely tied to the analysis of organisations' efficiency and effectiveness.

In Ghana, government education policy and the Ministry of Education guidelines are implemented at school level where the headteacher as the leader has to be involved in all activities, including curriculum implementation, discipline of teachers, other staff and the students (Oduro & MacBeath 2003). Supervision has been identified as one of the major roles performed as a service to teachers and students as a

means of offering special help in improving instruction (Oduro & MacBeath, 2003). Ensuring quality improvement in teaching and learning by emphasizing on ways and methods of instilling excellence in the quality of instruction, head teachers must execute their supervisory role with expertise. As such the head teacher is the leader of the school responsible for organizing, providing requisite resources, implementing policies, communicating and evaluating the daily activities within the school.

Fisher (2000) asserted that sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, even business analysts have extremely described this multifaceted gender difference: women's interest in personal contacts, their drive to achieve interpersonal harmony, and their tendency to work and play in egalitarian teams versus men's sensitivity to social dominance and their need to achieve rank in real or perceived hierarchies.

Women have the capability to perform duties and functions, as men would do and also have talents and competencies to contribute effectively to nation building. Some women held higher positions worldwide such as Prime Ministers in their countries. Prominent among them are Golda Meir in Israel, Indira Gandhi in India, Benazir Bhutto in Pakistan and Margaret Thatcher in Great Britain. Queen Elizabeth II of England, remains one of the most prestigious and longest serving monarchs in the world ever. Dr. (Mrs.) Esther Ocloo, a woman in Ghana is also one of the world's distinguished female industrialists.

Women's leadership styles tend to be more transformative and inclusive than that of their male counterpart. This makes females more capable of adopting collaborative management approach than men (Fagenson, 2003). Fagenson further stated that this style is the preferable one for today's schools.

In Ghana, there are few women who hold positions as headteachers in Junior High Schools. Only about 10% of Ghanaian women are found in leadership positions despite the fact that women are 51% of the total population of the country. Ninety one percent (91%) of Ghanaian women are found in the informal sector, and are largely concentrated in non-managerial positions. About eight (8%) percent are economically active in the wage earning formal sector in the country (The Ghana Statistical Service, 1995).

It has been stated that women need to be in numbers large enough to make a visible impact on the presence style and content of decisions. There is the absence of unequivocal commitment to gender equity on the part of governments and resistance within the civil society in many countries. It is therefore gratifying that the Government and other organizations are putting in every effort to ensure that women occupy leadership positions where they can influence decision and policies in Ghana.

There has been some progress in the effort to ensure that women occupy leadership positions but it is rather far from being enough as the ratio is still high in favour of their male counterparts. Women representation in high leadership positions in the country as a whole and educational administration in particular is nothing to write home about.

In Ghana there have been numerous interventions by Government and NGOs through the Ghana Education Service aimed at encouraging women to aspire to take up leadership positions but the problem still persist. The question is what is inhibiting female not to have the interest to aspire to take up leadership positions?

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Notwithstanding the great strides made by various Governments towards empowering women in public life, women still remain relegated in many ways as their representation in key decision-making positions in critical areas of public life remains low.

Despite remarkable stride towards appointing more women into leadership positions through the Affirmative Action, women continue to experience challenges in dispensing their management responsibilities. Given the patriarchal nature of most societies and households and the double workloads that most working women experience, being responsible for domestic responsibilities and being in leadership position in the public sector is bound to have an impact on women's social and personal lives and in turn affect how they perform. Larwood and Wood (2007) suggest, that a woman entering a management/leadership position must decide the extent and the types of demands she is willing to accept.

Even though questions about women's leadership positions and roles have often arisen, their leadership styles and challenges facing women are understudied. Perceptions of gender equality as well as the eradication of discrimination against women are very often closely linked.

According to Amuzu-Kpeglo (2005), the only way to preserve the natural relation of the sexes is when there is the agreement that men and women are to have a common way of life, common education, common children; and they watch over the citizens in common whether abiding in the city or going out to war. Women are blessed with specific talents, which when nurtured, can be used to bring about development in a nation.

Culturally, in Ghana it is perceived to be a taboo for females to form an integral part of the council of elders to make decisions for the way forward in almost every town and village. Notwithstanding these difficulties, some courageous women in the society take up the responsibility to take up high leadership positions. Ghana, since independence has been striving hard to encourage women to take up leadership positions without hesitation, yet it persists. There has been the perception that female headteachers in junior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality are facing some challenge in the course of their duties. Females are discriminated upon when it comes to appointment into leadership positions due to some traditional/ cultural beliefs on female leadership. This study seeks to find out the challenges female head teachers face in junior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipal of the Upper East Region.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the challenges facing female head teachers of Junior High Schools in the Bolgatanga Municipal of the Upper East Region.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

Specifically the study sought to:

1. identify the socio-cultural challenges that female headteachers face in carrying out their roles and responsibilities Bolgatanga Municipality of the Upper East Region. .
2. identify the organizational related challenges facing the headteachers Bolgatanga Municipality.
3. determine the support systems put in place for the female headteachers in Junior High Schools to improve upon their performance Bolgatanga Municipality.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What socio-cultural challenges do the female headteachers in public Junior High Schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality face in carrying their roles and responsibilities?
2. What are the organizational related challenges facing the female headteachers?
3. What are the support systems put in place for the female headteachers to improve upon their performance?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The outcome of this study will be useful to the Ghana Education Service (GES) and the Ministry of Education as it will contribute to knowledge on the challenges facing female head teachers.

The outcome of the study will serve as a guide or to future researchers who will like to conduct the same study in other municipality of the Upper East Region. The outcome of the study will be motivate to females of this country who feel reluctant to take up leadership positions in various institutions for national development to muster courage to do so. The outcome of the study will aid school headteachers and teachers in understanding the needs of girls in their schools and what internal measures could be taken to address them. The outcome of the study will also add to the existing literature on the challenges facing female headteachers.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

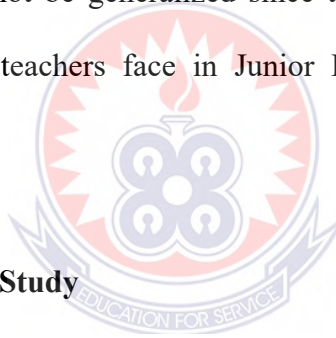
This study was delimited to challenges facing female head teachers in Junior High Schools of the Bolgatanga Municipal only, even though there are other challenges faced by female head teachers in private Junior High Schools of the study area. The

findings may therefore not be generalized to challenges female head teachers face in Junior High Schools in the other metropolis, municipals and districts of the Upper East Region. Apart from that the headteacher readily availed themselves during data collection.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Inadequate time and funds were some of the constraints which limited the researcher's efforts to complete the study on time. Also there was scarcity of literature on women in leadership positions in educational institutions as compared to other fields of study.

The results may not be generalized since the research was focused only on challenges female head teachers face in Junior High Schools of the Bolgatanga Municipality.



1.9. Organization of the Study

This project work consists of five chapters. Chapter one dealt with the introduction, background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and organization of the study.

Chapter Two covers the review of available literature related to the topic under study. Chapter Three is the methodology which includes the research design, the population, sampling procedures, data collection instrument, data collection procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations. Chapter Four focuses on the findings and discussions and Chapter Five is the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter contains the review of related literature on works done on leadership of women in general and education in particular. This section has been organized into sub-headings which relate to the study.

2.1 Leadership Concept

Leadership has been defined by different theorist and researchers in different ways. Armstrong (2015) also define leadership as a process of getting people to do their best to achieve desired results. It involves developing and communicating a vision for the future, motivating people and gaining their engagement. Kouzes and Posner (2017) also define leadership as a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow.

Leadership is an attribute of personality whereby leaders are born and not made, a status, titles, or position recognized in a formal leadership where the person and position become confused as this recognition may disappear when he or she vacated the status, title, position or office and a function or role performed in an organized group where leadership is not viewed as existing in isolation but as related to interpersonal relations and group operations (Knezevich, 2014). Thus the fundamental issues in leadership are what the leader does to help the group define its goals, achieve its objectives or maintain its strength as a body.

2.1.1 Leadership Qualities

High moral standards and exemplary characters should be the hallmark of an effective leader. School leadership preparation should include moral and ethical

formation. Every leader needs to possess personal and professional qualities as well (Afful-Broni, 2004).

According to Moore (2018), there have been times when the search for school leader placed great emphasis on character as a required ingredient. Leadership should be able to foster the process of growth, renewal and progress within the community or organization (Deal & Peterson, 2005).

For leadership to foster growth and progress within an organization, unique qualities are needed on the part of the leaders. Every organization needs to grow from one level to another; and be renewed from strength to strength. A leader needs the eyes to see, the ears to hear and the mind to know what is. This depicts that every leader should have vision or be a forecaster; be a good listener; and a good thinker (Afful-Broni, 2004).

Sergiovanni (2012) posited a leader would need to integrate his or her knowledge of what is, with what he or she believes to be the essentials of what ought to be. Leaders must necessarily be creative, flexible and open to the changing times and needs [of the organization]. Each leader should be conversant with the dynamics of the society or organization he or she governs. The needed variations or changes have to be made when and where necessary.

According to Mankoe (2007) effective administration is best done in a collective, co-operative, collaborative manner. Schools are major social institutions where wisdom and courage are required to infuse practice with our highest hopes. Leaders need to understand group dynamics and have the ability to go through unpleasant times in the life of the organization. Leaders make their attitude clear to their

staff; maintain definite standards of performance; work out plans with them; let staff know what is expected of them, and so forth.

It is justifiable to reiterate that organizations exist to provide valuable services for the people. They otherwise make it superficial. Since leadership occurs in a cultural context, leaders can help shape the culture of an organization by what they pay attention to and reward (Amuzu-Kpeglo, 2005).

It could therefore be concluded that leadership is more than the technical and interpersonal aspects of efficient management. Leaders are not 'bossy', they listen to the views of their followers and in order to achieve maximum organizational goal depends on the qualities of the leader of the organization or community.

2.1.2 Educational Leadership

Educational leadership, according to Scheerens and Bosker (2014), refers to all leadership activities directed at the school's primary process and its immediate facilitative conditions. The writers contend that as a whole, 'educational leadership can be seen as a phenomenon that needs to strike a balance between several extremes: direction versus giving leeway to autonomous professionals, monitoring versus counselling and using structures and procedures versus creating a shared (achievement-oriented) culture'. Some authors who define educational leadership focus more on cultural aspects (Leith wood & Montgomery, 1982), whereas others (Irwin, 1986) say more about structural conditions surrounding the instructional process. In more recent times, views on educational leadership, motivating staff by providing incentives and creating consensus on goals is emphasised (Mitchell & Tucker, 1992).

The educational leader affects school climate and student achievement. Qualitative reviews by Levine and Lezotte (1990), Sammons et al, (1995) and Cotton

(1995) also mention leadership as an effectiveness-enhancing condition of schooling. Levine and Lezotte (1990), mention 'outstanding leadership' and 'superior instructional leadership' in their review, mainly based on case studies with an outlier design. They also see faculty input into decision making as a characteristic of unusually effective schools. Sammons et al. (2004) refer in their review based on case studies and quantitative school and teacher effectiveness studies to 'professional leadership' as a factor for effective schools (even when taking into account their intake). They identified three main aspects: 'strength of purpose', 'a participative approach', and 'the leading professional', which refers to instructional leadership. Sammons et al. (2004) conclude that such a leadership is operating indirectly rather than directly and should work in conjunction with other key characteristics of effective schools.

The review by Cotton, which is, among others, based on school and teacher effects research, research on instructional leadership, and research on educational change, mentions 'leadership' and 'administrator-teacher- student interactions' as categories for effective school practices. The type of management and leadership that is stressed in Cotton's work is fully in line with the concept of instructional leadership, and participative aspects of this kind of leadership are frequently mentioned in Cotton's work. With respect to the effectiveness of the leadership of schools, and, in particular, the effectiveness of educational leadership, the empirical evidence is rather weak. Hallinger and Heck (1996) conclude that 'despite the traditional rhetoric concerning principal effects, the actual results of empirical studies in the United States (US) and United Kingdom (UK) are not altogether consistent in size or direction'.

Some empirical studies have found evidence for a positive relationship between (educational) leadership and student outcomes. For instance, Brandsma and Stoel (1987) found effects of educational leadership on student achievement and well-being

in secondary schools in the Netherlands. Also, in the study of Sammons et al. (1995) evidence for the effect of leadership on achievement in the UK was found, but the amount of total variance in student outcomes accounted for was very small (less than 1%). However, research by Grisay (1996) in lower secondary education in France did not find an effect of educational leadership on the development of cognitive (French, mathematics and general knowledge) and non-cognitive outcomes of pupils.

Scheerens and Bosker (2014), conducted a study in the Netherlands in which a positive association between educational leadership and outcome variables was found. Furthermore, the meta-analyses of Scheerens and Bosker (2014), indicated a rather weak positive relationship between school leadership and achievement, with adjustments for intake differences (correction for prior achievement and/or background variables) producing somewhat higher effect sizes. They did not find a significant relationship between leadership and achievement in the Netherlands. The results of the meta-analysis of Scheerens and Bosker (2014), point in the same direction: a weak positive relationship between leadership and student outcomes and the lack of a significant relationship in the Netherlands. One of the reasons for the rather weak or even absent relationship could be that many school leaders do not have (enough) time to perform educational leadership. Research by Cuban (1988), Leithwood et al. (1990) and Stoel (1995) indicates that this is indeed the case for many school leaders.

Research by Peters and Slegers (2011) indicates that school leaders are, most of the time, highly engaged with the organisational functioning of the school and have almost no time to develop and disseminate a vision of education. Hallinger and Heck (1996) and Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) conclude from research on school leadership that school leadership is working on student outcomes in an indirect way by means of mediating or moderator variables. Van de Grift and Houtveen (1999) state that not

finding an effect of educational leadership in primary schools in the Netherlands in the 1980s and finding an effect of this kind of leadership in the 1990s has to do with the low occurrence of this kind of leadership in the 1980s and the higher occurrence of this leadership in the 1990s because of state stimulation of educational leadership by means of training programmes for school leaders.

Educational leadership has attracted a great deal of theoretical interest and debate. 'Leadership' as a concept has been contested with little agreement between researcher and commentators as to what it actually means (Southworth, 1999). Allix and Gronn (2005) refer to the phenomenon as leadership and agree that it remains in large a theoretical enigma and paradox. Although there is no single definition that satisfies everyone, there is some agreement that 'leadership' should be differentiated from the terms 'management' and 'administration'. Leaders and managers play different roles and make different contributions – leaders have followers, managers have subordinates. Those who make the distinction (for example: Zaleznik, 1977; Kotter, 1990) portray the leader as someone who develops vision and drives new initiatives and a manager as someone who monitors progress towards objectives to achieve order and reliability. Increasingly, it is recognised that, whilst leadership and management are juxtaposed in theory, in practice the distinction between leadership and management is blurred (e.g. Adair, 2006; Muijs et al., 2006). Leadership is one dimension of a multi-faceted role. In education, it is increasingly recognised that the traditional model of a leader as head, is no longer appropriate. Leadership has increasingly become associated with individuals at different levels within an organisation and that improvement is strongly associated with the effectiveness of leadership throughout the organisation (Jackson, 1999; Gronn, 2002; Muijs and Harris, 2003; Deem, 2004; Heck and Hallinger, 2005; Muijs et al., 2006; Brundrett, 2007).

Past writings focused on situational leadership (Blanchard, 1986) and, to some extent, transactional leadership. Situational leadership was seen to consist of four styles; directing, coaching, supporting, delegating, and four development levels on a progressive scale ranging from low competence/high commitment to high competence or high commitment. Transactional leadership could be equated with ‘management’ which relied on the leader-follower dichotomy, where leaders gave tasks to followers who carried them out within tightly controlled procedures. These two approaches to leadership were more concerned with structures and organisational purpose than people and, to some extent, have links with the origins of scientific management as espoused by Taylor (1911). In reaction to this, more recent research has focused on such concepts as cultural leadership (Southworth, 1999), where there are suggestions that organisational cultures are created by leaders; instructional leadership (Hopkins, 2000) where strategies are developed to promote effective teaching and learning and, transformational leadership (Foster, 1986, 1998; Gronn, 1999) which focuses on managing change and future outcomes. Such literature has increased the emphasis upon the links between leadership and the culture of the organisation and that leaders have the potential to change the cultural context within which people work. As a result, this literature realigns the leader-follower relationship to one where the relationship is based more for mutual benefit than power hierarchies.

More recent studies in conceptualising leadership emerging in the literature, and I would argue, of more relevance for middle-level leader-academics in higher education, are those of post-transformational leadership (Day et al., 2003; Harris, 2003) and distributed leadership (Wallace, 2001; Gronn, 2002; Gunter, 2004; Rayner & Gunter, 2005; Muijs et al., 2006). Although both are similar, in that leadership is considered not to be the domain of the ‘leader’, there are subtle differences. Post-

transformational leadership focuses on two main aspects of leadership, suggesting that: firstly, effective leaders are constantly and consistently managing several competing tensions and dilemmas, and, secondly, effective leaders are, above all, people-centred” (Harris, 2003, p. 19).

This style of leadership is based on the premise that leaders are able to interpret the situation and modify their leadership style to be consistent with the context and situation and, therefore, better able to cope with complex situations. In doing so, they do not act over others, but enable others to act by engaging the hearts and minds of followers whilst raising their levels of consciousness about the importance of goals they are pursuing for their organisation (Muijs et al., 2006). Thus, there is a distinct power shift from the earlier literature suggesting leaders have power ‘over’, to one of leadership power with. This can clearly be seen in the literature on leader-academic changing roles within higher education.

However, there is the implication in post-transformational leadership that the leader can mould and change organisational culture by engaging with its followers. Dimmock and Walker (2002) refute this, arguing that organisational culture is equally likely to, itself, change and mould leadership. This is especially likely in higher education institutions, where a strong subject-based culture exists which influences any proposed organisation change (Muijs et al., 2006). The weakness of post-transformational leadership has more recently led to researchers and practitioners espousing the value of distributed forms of leadership.

Distributed leadership is based on the premise that shared leadership is potentially more effective than a sole leader and, certainly in terms of ‘learning to lead’, staff are indeed entitled to learn through this experience in support of their professional

development and career. Thus, distributed leadership reduces the power ‘over’, further suggesting that it is more than ‘enabling others to act’, to one of a shared responsibility to lead. This is of critical importance to middle-level leader-academics in higher education, who often share the dual role of academic team member and head of section, whether it be head of a department, faculty or school. It is also more relevant to the strong subject-based culture which prevails in higher education. Research has shown (Knight & Trowler, 2001; Muijs et al., 2006) that authoritarian forms of leadership are far less effective than collegial processes which involve staff in decision making and initiative taking.

Post-transformational and distributed forms of leadership are not necessarily contradictory, but sit alongside each other on a continuum of leadership. Indeed, Muijs et al. (2006) report on the term ‘shared transformational leadership’ as now being coined to describe the interaction of both types of leadership to promote reform and change in a more sustainable way by involving staff at all levels.

2.1.3 Leadership and Management

Ubben, Hughes and Norris (2001) assert that management is characterized by maintaining standards and an extremely steady environment. That is, ensuring that things are going on precisely according to the existing pattern. Thus the manager is preoccupied with activities that will help to maintain the existing situation in the organisation.

Consequently, the organisation almost always has a predictable atmosphere. According to Ubben et al. (2001) the manager’s belief is that the existing standard is good enough and there are sees no reason for changes and when things are not running as expected; the manager puts things back on track. Management focuses on problem

solving and maintenance. Thus, it can be assumed that the primary job of a manager is the maintenance of the current model.

Leadership on the other hand, according to Ubben et al. (2001) is characterized by change and constant improvement. The leader persistently analyses the standard to ensure that the organisation is accomplishing its goals, otherwise the leader initiates change to improve standard. In this regard, Bennis (1997) argue that 'managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing'. Ubben et al. (2001) posit that leadership is problem-finding as well as problem-solving oriented. In effect, headmasters as leaders do manage but use their management skill from a leadership viewpoint.

Davidoff and Lazarus (in Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana 2004) assert that leadership is 'providing vision and direction in a school whereas management is 'ensuring that the organisational goals are achieved'. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2004) allude to Fullan's opinion on the difference between leadership and management and state that leadership deals with guidance of purpose and motivation while management deals with drawing, effecting and accomplishing things within the setting of effective working relations.

Similarly, Dunklee (2000) holds that leaders influence while managers implement and administer; leaders motivate while managers facilitate. Leadership and management according to Lussier and Achua (2001) and Bell (1999) are interwoven. Lussier and Achua (2001) believe that successful managers employ democratic form of leadership as they work with people in the organisation. In addition to that, Bell (1999) states that management entails formulating a vision for the school according to its values and the aims of education, while leadership incorporates stating clearly this

vision and communicating it to others. In essence, an individual uses both management and leadership skills in a complementary way.

Anderson, Ford and Hamilton (1998) propose that the combination of management and leadership is required to successfully transform an organisation and the people in it. Anderson et al. (1998) believe that management cannot function effectively if it does not have leadership as its cornerstone because management is 'undermined by a lack of humanity, clarity, focus, adaptability and creativity'. Anderson et al. (1998) emphasise that both management and leadership must be developed and integrated because of the constant change the world is experiencing in all aspects of human endeavours and assert that an individual manager must lead and each leader must manage in order to respond appropriately to the needed change.

Complementary to Anderson et al.'s (1998) opinion about the need to amalgamate both management and leadership, Shermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) contend that the new leadership is inadequate as the emphasis on vision could be so much that the necessary day-to-day activities might be neglected. Therefore, both transformational and transactional leadership functions are needed for the success of an organisation (Leithwood & Jantzi 2000). Nevertheless, Gronn (2003) reports that school reformers and standards proponents consider the heads as leaders instead of managers, because school reformers subscribe to the opinion that leadership is the vehicle for structural change and that the heads as the leaders of the school drive it. In effect, the heads are expected to initiate and work toward the realization of the necessary change in their schools.

In view of the above, it could be inferred that a manager's activities are geared toward getting the job done in a particular manner in order to enhance consistency and

organisational stability. Whereas, a leader's activities are directed toward establishing good interpersonal relationships with the followers, motivating and encouraging the followers to be independent as they endeavour to accomplish the shared vision in order to sustain continuous improvement of the organisational performance. However, both management and leadership skills are important for organisation's effectiveness.

2.1.4 Importance of leadership Practices

There is consensus among scholars that the importance of effective leadership cannot be overemphasised. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) maintain that leadership matters because leaders help reduce ambiguity and uncertainty in organisations or society. Leaders take constructive acts to achieve long-term goals and provide clear positive reasons for their actions, goals, and accomplishments. In essence, leaders add clarity and direction to life and make life more meaningful. These scholars say that leadership matters because effective leaders make a difference in peoples' lives; these empower followers and teach them how to make meaning by taking appropriate actions that can facilitate change.

Schermerhorn et al. (2000) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organisation because it determines the success or failure of the organisation. Thus the study of leadership in organisations is closely tied to the analysis of organisations' efficiency and effectiveness. In an organisation such as a school, the importance of leadership is reflected in every aspect of the school: instructional practices, academic achievement, students' discipline, school climate, etc. For instance, the Social Policy Research Association's findings (as reported by Soukamneuth 2004) on how leaders create circumstances for positive inter-group relations and a caring and safe environment indicate that strong leadership is of great importance. The heads in the

schools studied were able to prevent disruptive behaviour by promoting positive inter group relations using different approaches to create a safe and caring environment. In essence, the headmaster as a leader needs leadership skills to reduce racial tensions among students that lead to negative social behaviour and attitude.

The findings of Quinn's (2002) study on the relationship between head leadership behaviour and instructional practices supports the notion that leadership impacts instruction. His findings indicate that head' leadership is crucial in creating a school that value and continually strives to achieve exceptional education for students. Similarly, Waters, Marzona and McNulty's (2004) research findings indicate that heads' effective leadership can significantly boost pupil's achievement.

Apart from the fact that the heads knows what to do, he/she knows when, how, and the reason for doing it, the kind of changes that are likely to bring about improvement on students' achievement and the implication for staff and students. In effect, the head is expected to communicate expectations for the continual improvement of the instructional programme, engage in staff development activities and model commitment to school goals. It may therefore be argued that a head, who does not engage in actions consistent with instructional leadership, has a wrong perspective of the school's goals.

It takes leadership for a school to be transformed and to be successful. This is evident in research findings as reported by Barker (2001), which portrays the headmaster/mistress as an individual capable of creating the climate needed to arouse the potential motivation of staff and students. The study indicates that an effective headmaster/mistress can turn around a school that lacks direction and purpose to a happy, goal-oriented and productive school.

Thus, it may be argued that an effective leadership is critical in increasing productivity and in transforming an unpromising circumstance in a school. Likewise, Finn (2002) maintains that the most important thing to an organisation is the quality of its leadership, particularly the quality of the headmaster/mistress in a school setting. In this context, Hurley (2001) upholds that the headmaster/mistress is the answer to a school's general development and improvement of academic performance, in that an effective headmaster/mistress creates an environment that stimulates an enthusiasm for learning.

Accordingly, it implies that the main job of the headmaster/mistress is to create an atmosphere that fosters productivity, effective teaching and learning. Therefore, the type of climate that exists in a school could be used as a yardstick to measure the headmaster/mistress's effectiveness.

Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000) and Tirozzi (2001) assert that the headmaster/mistress is at the centre of all school improvement initiatives in teaching and learning and therefore, he/she is a change agent for school success and expected to explore and judiciously utilize the resources for continuous improvement in organisational performance. By implication, if the headmaster is not vision-oriented and productive in regard to his/her responsibilities, improvement of school achievement will remain a dream for a long time. The question is whether the headmasters/mistresses in Botswana Community Senior Secondary Schools carry out their duties such that a positive climate is promoted to improve productivity.

In view of the afore-stated views, in the context of this project, leadership will be perceived as the ability of the headmaster/mistress to relate with the teachers such that the flairs that are embedded in individual teachers are liberated, causing them to constantly see and seize opportunities to improve organisational performance and

enhance individual development leadership is an integral part of this study therefore various perspectives on leadership will be discussed.

2.1.5 Leadership Styles

Every leader in every organisation performs certain roles/tasks for the smooth running of the organisation and improvement of organisational performance. The manner the leader performs these roles and directs the affairs of the organisation is referred to as his/her leadership style. 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 emphasises the task or human relations is usually considered central to leadership style.

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). 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 organisational goals or not, and whether they will be able to achieve and maintain positive relationships with staff (Mazzarella & Smith 1989).

- **Likert's Management Systems**

Likert embarked on an extensive research over a period of 30 years on the basis that a good leader would improve efficiency (Unit of University of Leicester 1994). Likert's research covered various firms and organisations, including schools and

universities, involving many managers and employees, headmasters/mistresses and teachers. His findings, revealed four basic styles of management. This model is depicted on a continuum from system one to four: System I: Authoritative-coercive; System II: Authoritative benevolent; System III: Consultative; and System IV: Participative (Paisey 1992).

- **System I: Authoritative – coercive**

This kind of leadership style portrays the manager as an authoritative leader. He/she demands compliance with orders without explaining the reason behind them. He/she uses threats and punishment to instil fear in the employees, sets goals for the school and his/her decisions are accepted without questioning. The manager does not have confidence in his subordinates. As a result, they are monitored at all times, and he/she focuses on followers' mistakes rather than what they did well. Employee-management interaction is limited and it is characterized by fear and mistrust (Hersey & Blanchard 1993) and he/she rarely praises; rather he/she criticizes a lot, leading to followers loss of confidence in him/her and become less committed to their work (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee 2002). Likewise, DuFour & Eaker (1998) confirm that top down coercive method of running a school leads to lack of commitment on the part of the teachers.

The employees perceive the manager as an inconsiderate leader who is only concerned about completion of tasks. Employees see him/her as a leader who does not consider employee cooperation as a crucial issue in the organisation. Even though there is little upward communication within the organisation, suggestions from employees are disregarded by the manager because of lack of trust. Downward communication is characterized with suspicion. Thus, employees distort the messages, instructions and

circulars. This is because employees believe that the communication is serving only the interest of the managers (Hersey, Zigarmy & Zigarmy 1987).

Teamwork does not exist; teachers are used to achieve goals. They have no say in how they should perform their work and they are expected to work hard to achieve the goals set by the managers. Even though teachers overtly accept their responsibilities because of fear, they resist covertly. As a result, employees disregard the process in a subtle way by giving excuses when they have to carry out their duties. Teachers are dissatisfied with their work and this leads to informal grouping for the purpose of opposing the goals of the school (Hersey & Blanchard 1993). Paisey (1992) warns against this type of leadership behaviour as managers of successful organisations emphasise consultation, teamwork and participation.

- **System II- Authoritative-benevolent**

Even though the manager is authoritative, he/she allows a bit of participation by the staff. He/she makes the bulk of decisions, but subordinates are allowed to make decisions within a prescribed framework. Rewards or punishment are used to motivate the workers. Employee-management interaction is characterized by fear, caution and pretence. Thus, employees' motivation is very low and they are dissatisfied with their job (Hersey & Blanchard 1993).

Workers attribute success to the manager. Although workers do not oppose the goals set by the manager, they do not see themselves as part of the organisation. As a result, they are not committed to their work. Communication flows downward mostly from the manager. Workers view orders from the manager as a way of giving them too much work; the manager also suspects upward communication because of lack of trust in employees.

- **System III: Consultative**

The manager has substantial but not complete confidence and trust in the employees. Although general decisions are made by the manager, he/she seeks the opinions of the employees, but he makes the final decision. The employees have positive attitudes toward the organisation, 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, 1988).

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).

- **System IV: Participative**

The manager has complete confidence and trusts in the employees. Thus, the workers are involved in the management of the organisation. The workers are highly motivated by their involvement in the setting of goals, improving methods and appraising progress toward goals.

There is good employee-management relationship and the workers see themselves as part of the organisation by exhibiting a high degree of responsibility and commitment (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson 1996). The employees work together as a team. This is because the manager creates a situation where everybody participates fully in the activities of the organisation. Everybody strives to make the organisation a better

place to work in. Communication flows to and from the hierarchy, and also among colleagues. This is because the subordinates are well involved in decision-making. The manager's behaviours include coaching team members, negotiating their demands and collaborating with others. The manager still assumes the responsibility of whatever decision that is taken. Informal grouping exists, which works to the achievement of the organisation goals (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson 1996).

Conclusively, Likert's management model is mainly based on management activities such as planning, decision-making, communicating, controlling etc. These activities form the framework for defining the four managerial systems from which four management styles are derived. In other words, Likert's proposition is that a manager is categorized as authoritative-coercive, authoritative-benevolent, consultative or participative based on how he/she makes decisions, communicates, organizes and carries out other management tasks, and the amount of involvement he/she allows from group members in the decision making process.

Of all the above management styles, the participative style is probably the one that can affect an organisation's climate positively. Findings by Goleman et al. (2002) indicate that the authoritative-coercive management style is the least effective in most situations, because followers become emotionally cold from intimidation and therefore, the climate is affected negatively. However, these scholars suggest that the style is effective during emergency or when all else has failed especially when dealing with problem employees; otherwise, it should not be used in isolation, but should be used with other styles in the interest of building commitment and team spirit.

- **Autocratic Leadership Style**

Headmasters face a lot of challenges in their leadership style as some heads decide and expect the staff to implement whatever decision taken, unilaterally and this brings about problems.

According to Kavanaugh and Ninemeier (2001) an autocratic style is embedded in leaders who have full organisational power and authority for decision making without sharing it with their subordinates, while a democratic style implies that leaders share their authority of decision making with employees and delegate, and finally a laissez-faire or free-rein style exists where leaders give their employees most of the authority over decision making. Centralised organisations seem to favour an autocratic style, while decentralised organisations seem to prefer a democratic style (Woods & King, 2002), and organisational culture can therefore be strongly influenced by national culture which may determine the prevalent leadership style (Rollinson, 2005).

However, in Jordan, the style of leadership appears inconsistent. Al-Hajjeh (1984) assumed that Middle Eastern managers encouraged autocratic leadership, as they had a negative impression about the ability of subordinates to carry out instructions. In support, Jar-Allah (2000) indicated that autocratic leadership was the most common style in industrial organisations in Jordan. In contrast, Yousef (1998) assumed that a consultative style prevailed in non-Western countries particularly in Arab countries, and indeed, Yousef (2000), found that participative or consultative leadership behaviour, as perceived by employees, was prevalent in Arabian countries.

- **Democratic Leadership Style**

This type of leadership style is grounded in the thesis that the organisation is the responsibility of all, even though the leader has a primary role of guiding the rest of the group in arriving at the collective mission (Afful-Broni, 2004). It consists of the leader sharing the decision-making abilities with group members by promoting the interest of the group members and by practising social equality (Atta, Agyenim-Boateng & Baafi-Frimpong, 2000). Mankoe (2007), also submits that power sharing and participative decision-making characterise this style of leadership. According to him, ‘responsibility is spread rather than centralised’. The democratic leadership style does not necessarily mean that the leader is a group facilitator whose task is to help the group reach a consensus (Archer, Adentwi & Sam, 2008). Mankoe (ibid), contends that the democratic leader prefers to adopt influence mechanisms that appeal to high level needs for belongingness, challenge, autonomy and self-actualization.

- **Laissez-faire Leadership Style**

The term ‘laissez-faire’, according to Afful-Broni (2004), is of French origin, meaning ‘let them do what they wish’ while Mankoe (2007), explains the term as ‘leave it alone’. According to Mankoe, the laissez-faire leader gives his subordinates total freedom to select their objectives and monitor their own work. Under this approach, group activities are allowed to take their own course with virtually no direction from the leader (Archer et al., 2008). Afful-Broni (ibid), adds that in this style, anything goes, and that there are no hard and fast rules

- **Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

Our society is characterized by change, which also affects the school as the expectations of the stakeholders change from time to time. In the past decade, schools

experienced mental changes in areas such as curriculum development, students and teachers' roles and learning strategies. As a result, educational leadership as a concept has been perceived in another dimension. Leithwood (1992) states that the form of instructional leadership matched the era of 1980s and the 1990s as it met the public and decision makers' expectations from the headmaster/mistress. However, the changes experienced by schools during the 1990s could not be managed when the headmaster/mistress was functioning as an instructional leader. The concept of transformational leadership gradually became an issue as headmaster/mistress were expected to bring visionary leadership to the organisation: an area, which was not catered for by instructional leaders (Bogler 2001). According to Leithwood and Jantzi (1990, p. 254), headmaster/mistress who succeeded in their job used a different method to motivate and bring about changes in their schools. It implies that those who are not successful have not used the kind of strategies that successful heads used.

- **Transactional Leadership**

Transactional leadership is another form of leadership style exhibited by most headmasters. According to Bass (1998) transactional leadership is largely based on exchanges between a leader and group members, such as using rewards and punishment to control behavior and that each enters the transaction because of the expectation to fulfill self-interests and their leaders are supposed to maintain the status quo by satisfying the needs of the subordinates. Bass further states that, each enters the transaction because of the expectation to fulfil self-interests and their leaders are supposed to maintain the status quo by satisfying the needs of the subordinates. This leadership emphasises process in which the leader defines needs, assigns task and gives rewards to followers for good performance or punishment for mistakes (Ubben et al. 2001). For instance, the headmaster/mistress observes what the teachers want from

work and tries to provide them with what they want depending on their performance. He/she exchanges rewards and promises of rewards for their efforts and responds to their immediate self-interest. Otherwise, he/she uses threats or punishment for their mistakes. Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000) opine that a transactional leader has a command and control mentality.

Ubben et al. (2001) are of the opinion that this kind of exchange inhibits subordinates' commitment because it is a matter of performing duties as directed; the 'how' and 'what' of the job are given, meaning that teachers are labourers and they do the job because of what they will benefit from it, not because of their loyalty to the headmaster/mistress or the school. Lussier and Achua (2001) assert that transactional leadership seeks to maintain stability and that is the main reason that Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) perceive this concept as management rather than leadership. Thus a transactional leader sets goals for followers depending on the effort he/she expects from them; he/she does not expect the followers to perform beyond normal standard, and makes no effort to change the situation, attitudes and values of followers. Therefore, the transactional leader does not transform followers or organisation.

Bass (1998) identifies some sub-factors of both transactional and transformational leadership. Sub-factors of transactional leadership include: contingency reward, management by exception and laissez-faire. Bass (1998) states that, contingent reward refers to the situation where the leader rewards the subordinates on completing an agreed-upon task. In other words, when the leader is satisfied with the performance of a follower, the leader responds positively by using rewards in form of praise, recognition and recommendation of such follower for promotion. Bass (1998)

asserts that contingent reward is good, but not as good as any of the transformational components in terms of achieving results.

Bass (1998) holds that management by exception could be either active or passive. Active management by exception is related to a situation where the leader watches and searches for instances where subordinates deviate from rules and standards for the purpose of correction. In other words, the leader is all out looking for subordinates' mistakes while performing their duties. Passive management by exception refers to a situation where the leader intervenes only if the standards are not met. Bass (1998) believes that contingent reward or transformational elements tend to be more effective than corrective transaction. However, Bass (1998) maintains that active management by exception should only be used in necessary situations. Laissez faire, the last aspect of transactional leadership refers a situation where the leader abdicates responsibility and avoids making decisions; a situation where no one is in control creates a lawless environment (Bass, 1998).

Geijssel, Slegers, and Berg's (1999) study reveals that state management by exception is a negative attribute of leadership as it demoralizes subordinates. This is especially true with regard to active management which is seen in terms of looking for mistakes or enforcing rules to avoid mistakes, rather than devising or adopting strategies to correct subordinates' mistakes when they occur. Transactional leadership discourages collaborations between the headmaster/mistress and teachers and disregards teacher's potential to contribute to school improvement. However, Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) assert that transactional leaders, through their effective management, get things done right, even though it may not always be that the right things are done. This assertion is affirmed by Chirichello (2004) whose findings

indicate that many heads are managers rather than leaders. This is because they spend most of their time on administrative work.

In effect, it is assumed that headmaster/mistress waste lots of valuable time on paper work preventing them from focusing on more important aspects of school.

- **Transformational Leadership**

Norris, Barnett, Basom and Yerkes (2002) state that transformational leadership focuses on a different kind of leaders' influence that encourages followers to emerge as leaders. They create organisational conditions in which followers can develop their own leadership capabilities.

Wilmore and Thomas (2001) hold that transformational leaders share power with followers rather than exercise power over followers. Thus, transformational leadership is meant to empower followers. The leaders are concerned with how to use their power to help followers to accomplish what they think are important, become successful and experience a greater sense of efficiency. Therefore, transformational leaders are aware that teachers need to be empowered to be able to function effectively. As a result, followers are exposed to responsibilities that release their potential. These leaders are more concerned with what followers are accomplishing rather than what they are doing.

According to Cheng and Chan (2000) transformational leadership is a pivotal force for activating self-management in schools. Wilmore and Thomas (2001) stated that, the quality of school leadership can be assessed by the ability of the headmaster/mistress to create a climate that fosters staff and pupil productivity and creativity. They add that transformational leaders are value driven and committed to the

creation of learning communities. Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000) describe transformational leaders as visionary, change agent and skilful in dealing with complex issues, such as developing staff, mapping new directions, mobilizing resources, supporting employees, and responding to work-related challenges. If transformational leadership is appropriately practiced, then there is the potential to transform the prevailing negative climate to a positive one in some senior secondary schools and to improve the existing positive climate in other community senior secondary schools in Botswana.

Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000) believe that transformational leaders create incentives for followers to continuously improve their work practices. In view of this, a climate that is conducive to effective teaching and learning is created. Wilmore and Thomas (2001) argue that transformational leadership provides direction for the school because transformational leaders are perceived to be educational reformers or agents of positive change in schools.

Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000) hold that, the key goal of transformational leadership is to help teachers build and sustain a collaborative and work-oriented culture, to foster staff development and to help teachers to tackle problems together more effectively. Thus, it appears that transformational leaders give direction to staff and coordinate the work performed by different units in the school, develop a work-oriented school climate, and are given to the desire to continuously improve their work processes.

Wilmore and Thomas (2001) state that there are three elements of transformational leadership, which are:

A collaborative shared decision-making- This underscores the importance of involving other members of staff in decision-making. An emphasis on teacher professionalism and empowerment- As a result, transformational leaders emphasis a high professional standard and code of practice to teachers. In order to achieve this, leaders could empower teachers through skills development and delegation of authority.

The main task of the heads is to be clear about the nature of change their school should embark on. Once this is achieved, mobilizing the support and commitment of staff becomes easier. With reference to this study, the question is whether heads in Ghana secondary schools assume the roles of transformational leaders in managing schools.

Hoy and Miskel (2001) assert that transformational leadership resembles people's mental picture of an ideal leader because people prefer a leader who communicates an expectation of high performance instead of over emphasizing transactional activities; someone who develops others and raises teams. Transformational leadership has become an issue since headmaster/mistress are expected to bring visionary leadership to the organization. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) stated that headmaster/mistress who succeeded in their job used a different method to motivate and bring about changes in their schools. It implies that those who are not successful have not used the kind of strategies that successful heads used.

Conger and Kanungo (1987), asserted that leadership behavior have gender peculiarity. Powell (1993) is of the view that women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders; although some situations favor women and others favor men. Gray (1993) has observed that the styles of management must show that there is no single masculinity or femininity in being a leader and no single gender model for managerial behavior. He elaborated that to be a woman or a man is distinct personality

without regard to sex stereotyping. Notwithstanding, Gray further asserted that women in leadership position are more democratic and willing to share while male executives are more autocratic and directive. From the foregoing it could be deduced that, what men can do, women can equally do and even do it better given the opportunity.

2.2 Women in School Leadership

In our Ghanaian society, women are considered inferior to men and it is very difficult to eradicate this notion in the Ghanaian traditional setting despite efforts being made by successive governments to empower women. The public strongly agrees that men are better able to handle discipline than women. In fact, an ancient and pervasive belief in Western thought is that women lack reason and is governed by emotions (Wood, 2007).

A different view was expressed by some writers. Noteworthy is Kottis (1993) who asserted that the need for women to participate in the management of schools is very crucial to the effective development of educational institutions. The situation has not changed that much in the modern world, but it has seen considerable improvement over the years. Yet, inside and outside the family, women are viewed as subordinates. At the workplaces they are expected to fill subordinate occupational roles, which are defined as an extension of women's domestic roles. This rationale has been used to justify and determine the payment of workers. Women are being paid less than the men for doing comparable work (Rebore, 2001). The natural male dominance also depicts how women are rarely hired in positions of authority especially in the educational sector.

2.3 Gender and Leadership

The works of Eagly, Wood and Diekmann (2002) and McGee-Banks, (2007) focused more on gender and leadership. Leaders are expected to function in certain ways in order to provide leadership necessary for the success of the organization. The roles of the leader (principal) like other roles within an organization (school) do impact behaviour. These behaviours may be perceived by the leaders themselves and their followers (teachers) in terms of gender roles, which prescribe certain behaviours for leaders based upon their identified gender. Eagly, Hohannesen-Schimidt, and Van Engen (2000), describes these roles as agentic and communal. Agentic qualities are commonly identified with male behaviours more than female and include being aggressive, assertive, confident and competitive. Conversely, communal qualities such as empathy, affection, nurturing, collaboration and dependence are more likely associated with women instead of men. Since gender roles may influence the behaviour of the leader, female and male leaders may have different expectations as to how to fulfil the required leadership tasks (McGee-Banks, 2007). Female leaders may adapt their leadership behaviours, either to accommodate gender role expectations or to fight against societal prejudice that suggests how female leaders should behave. Thus, the female leader can be faced with the dilemma of failing to meet the requirements of their particular leadership position by either conforming to such expectations or by being perceived in a negative manner by followers and other leaders. In America, research indicates that there exists a mythology around women as leaders and attempting to be successful, can be caught between becoming to and “male-like in her leadership, or remain true to her gender, and can be perceived as too gentle, nurturing and emotional (Adler, Laney & Parker, 1993, Pigford & Tomnnsen, 1993). Lugg, (2003) found that when men led organizations with authority and

decisiveness, that was seen by the followers as being a positive leadership quality. However, women who led in a similar manner were perceived in a manner in which their esteem as the leader is often diminished.

A number of studies in America also suggest that women in Leadership are often faced with the dilemma of balancing the societal expectations of women regarding their family responsibilities with that of the leadership at the workplace, and to alienation, isolation and exclusion for women educational leaders (Hoff & Mitchell, 2008). 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. Tyree (1995) suggested that there exists a perception that women lack support from the staff, parents and community that does not exist with the male principal.

2.4 Socio-cultural Challenges Facing Women

Women as well as men learn to belong to society through the process of socialization which begins from infancy. Such socialization process entails both verbal and non-verbal forms of communication. Learning to be male or female is therefore learnt from infancy as the infants interact with their family members and their care-takers (Maccobby & Jackling, 1974). Gender roles are found in every society which spells out certain kinds of behaviour as appropriate, and others as inappropriate for women and men.

Majority of cultures worldwide have advocated the traditional homemaker roles for female and the parallel traditional breadwinner role for males. The female traditional role depicts that she cannot pursue higher education or a career. It is very difficult to

find support for a desire to secure an advanced degree or to commit oneself to a career in a social context in which being a female means taking care of the home and family.

Lauer (1998) states that neither in the developing nor the most developed nations do women have equality with men in workplace. It was further explained that the extent of the discrimination varies, but the consequences are similar. Nukunya (1998) posited that there is the belief in Ghana that a woman is never independent. Women are therefore to be under the control and guidance of a man. Before marriage that man is the father and during marriage, the father hands her over to the man to continue the guidance. The responsibility of guidance is thus transferred to husband.

Davidson and Cooper (1992) also said that a centered culture puts value in males. Males, according to them, always have at the back of their mind that women are wives, mothers and mostly, secretaries. This stereotype is not by men alone. The women themselves believe that their ascension to higher positions is due to luck. The writers also alluded to the point that most women in top management positions got there without planning their career strategies. Some religions have come to terms with these cultural dispositions about male and female roles in the society.

Stromquist (1989) stated that embedded within culture and religion are some values that affect the participation of females in management. The practice of giving girls to early marriages would mean their withdrawal from school. This is the case because the parents of such children see education as conflicting with marriage. The smaller number of women in leadership positions is due to economic conditions, cultural norms and religious beliefs which allow women to enroll in traditionally feminine fields. To avert this trend, it was realized that there was the need to terminate

such outmoded practices. These stereotyped roles disparities have gone a long way to affect the career choices of females.

There is the belief that men are capable of manning and holding higher positions than their female counterparts. Females who are seen in management positions were generally thought to have some male qualities such as strong task direction, toughness critical analysis and detachment. In some instances, women themselves believe and accept the traditional stance that women are incapable of manning higher positions. These females perceived their holding of higher positions as mere luck (Al Khalifa, 1992).

Gender disparities have caused the long absence of females in managerial positions in the educational sector. Wood, (2007) also noted that there has been an exclusion of women from the management of institutions for a very long time. Wood further stated that such exclusions over time have been given a measure of legitimacy by several cultural practices and attitudes that have created the impression that the roles of women are different from men. He further argued that the traditions and beliefs of society have divided labour among men and women based on the sex. Male tasks are said to be more valued than that of females. The situation concerning gender stereotype roles began to experience a rebirth in modern society when some women subjected themselves to the emancipation of mental slavery.

Early study has revealed that the earlier a woman has sexual experience, marries, and become pregnant, the lower her educational attainment is likely to be. The status of women however tends to rise as a nation modernizes. Most women's aspirations suggest that females be treated in the same way as males (Wood, 2007).

2.5 Organizational Related Challenges of Women in Leadership

A range of issues arise in restraining women's potential to aspire to positions of leadership. Sadie (2005) maintained that at the bottom of the restrictions that women face is the patriarchal system where decision-making powers are in the hands of males. In this context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes concerning the role and status of women in society are still common and many women who are part of this system are finding it difficult to diverge from this culture and tradition they be ostracized. Regardless of women's education and access to the job market the woman's role is considered to be the typical one of homemaker. The man on the other hand is the breadwinner, head of household, and has the right to public life.

Confining women's identity to the domestic sphere is one of the barriers to women's entry into politics, and politics by its nature catapults one into public life. Commonly cultural attitudes are antagonistic to women's involvement in politics. Some women were capable of transcending cultural barriers and climbing to positions of leadership whether in politics or other spheres of public life, but more often than not it meant having to cope with cultural expectations with their leadership roles. The South African government adopted a policy framework which outlines South Africa's vision for gender equality and how it intends to realize this ideal. The office on the status of women developed the policy framework, namely South Africa's National Policy Framework for women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (Kornegay, 2000). The Gender Policy Framework attempts to achieve the integration of gender consideration into the transformation process, which is currently occurring in South Africa. The following principles and guidelines are stipulated in the Gender Policy Framework: When the need arises, additional legislation is to be developed to attain women empowerment and gender equality. The Constitution of South Africa is to enshrine the

equality of all people, through a non-sexism and non-racism approach. Women are not a homogenous group. This principle must guide policies and programmes to will result in the implementation of gender equality. Women's rights are to be seen as human rights. All customary, cultural and religious practices and procedures are to be aligned with the right to equality.

Affirmative action programme with regards to women empowerment are to be developed and implemented. Policies and procedures that hinder women's access to basic needs, the economy and decision making are to be reviewed and change in terms of gender equality. Economic empowerment of women is to be promoted. Efficient machinery is to be put in place to effect and implement this policy on national and provincial levels, as well as in the private sector. Current situation in South Africa, legally binding commitment to promote gender equality is very high on the agenda. South Africa was ranked 18th out of 115 countries in terms of narrowing the inequality gap between men and women. In terms of political empowerment South Africa was ranked number one in Africa, with 42% of its cabinet ministers and 33% of its members of parliament being women. In terms of the corporate environment the picture seems less impressive. In comparison with 79% men, only 46% women found to be employed in South Africa, it also appears that these women earned on average less than half of that of their male counterparts (Van der Walt, 2007).

The 2008 results of the annual BWA South African Women in Corporate Leadership Census, released in May 2008 proved an eye opener with the introduction of the public sector into the comparative analysis of women's upward mobility in the South African workplace. The percentage of women in government across all salary levels totals 54.76%, indicating a clear majority. Despite the encouraging figures a huge disparity still exists in terms of salary levels with male civil servants still earning far

more than their female counterparts at senior management/leadership positions. On the corporate side it is evident that although there has been a steady increase of women in top executive positions, women are still lagging behind their male counterparts within corporate South Africa (Beeton, 2008).

Political activism entails that one travels widely, spend nights away from home, go into bars, and for women it means gathering men. All of these effects are not easily acknowledged for women in various African societies. Women who contest for public office have to think about the risk of being labeled „loose“ or „unfit“ as mothers and wives and being socially stigmatized. Such thoughts make lots of women introvert away from politics and positions that locate them in the public eye. One more factor which has played a role in countering political support for women is the media (Sadie, 2005). In Botswana and Mozambique the media over and over again fail to provide coverage to the campaigns of women aspirants or to interview them. Men have also been known to treat women with aggression throughout political crusades.

According to Tripp (2003), in the 1996 presidential elections in Uganda there were a lot of instances of threats and pestering of women by men, even husbands, who had contradictory political views. Politically energetic women in that country were threatened with withdrawal of family support, some were thrown out of their homes, and others were murdered. Emmett (2001) states that life passages of women are not notable or even acknowledged. This is clarifying of the situation attributed to women, starting right from the birth of the girl child in similarity to the boy child, and the chance of women succeeding in society. In various African cultures the customs and rites of passage pertaining to the boy child nurture them for leadership positions, whether at local or national levels of governance in business, politics or public running. Religion is likely to strengthen these cultural norms.

According to Emmett (2001) the majority religions have stereotypical functions for men and women where women are professed as less equal than men, often being kept apart in the way functions are assigned. In her account of women's experience of religion, Emmett examined the ceremonies executed for and by men in diverse religions such as Hinduism, Islam and Christianity. Her judgment was that men are usually empowered by religion in various ways. Women do not benefit from such dispensation, being disempowered by religious structures and practices. In other public arenas women's admission to leadership positions has been hindered by favouritism and stereotyping. Women are more or less victimized for being in search of a management position. This is basically due to society's stance toward appropriate male and female functions. In their argument on challenges women face in seeking leadership positions, Grove and Montgomery (2000) argue that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to search for such positions. There are also a few social networks, formal and informal, for women such as membership in clubs consequential in a lack of acknowledgment that leads to progress.

Leadership positions entail hard work and long hours. For women this stress is additional to their child care, home and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the dual shift in Sadie (2005). These considerations are also accurate of women in higher education. In addition to issues of family responsibility that do not make it easy for women to progress, cultural beliefs concerning the roles of men and women inhibit women's progression to top leadership as much it does in politics (Pandor, 2006) pointed out that women at senior level positions are not always helpful to other women who tend to want to sustain the status quo.

For many women the time demands of such positions clash with the demands of the family, and this itself is an obstacle. There are also other structural obstacles

beyond culture and religion. Facts from the Danish sample of the Comparative Leadership Study indicate that certain admission situations and conditions of gender positioning appear to encode admittance to top leadership positions, in business, and in political and public leadership.

Hojgaard (2002) argues that the social milieu of men and women leaders as an admittance stipulation played a particular task in political leadership. The sample of politicians demonstrated that both parents of women leaders had better education and more highly placed jobs than the parents of men politicians. A major finding was that in order for women to obtain top jobs in politics they have to come from a more fortunate social milieu than men. In addition there were differences in career paths between men and women leaders with men being recruited from a wider spectrum of jobs than women. Men also achieve top leadership jobs faster than women.

With regard to conditions of gender positioning, Hojgaard (2002) looked at marital status, presence of children and allocation of work at home. The male leaders were more likely to be married, while a higher proportion of female leaders were divorced or independently living together. Furthermore, a higher proportion of women had no children. The partners of women leaders were also more likely to be full-time workers, while among the partners of male leaders, especially business leaders there was a high proportion of part-time workers and full-time housewives.

Two thirds of male leaders did little or no housework, demonstrating that most male leaders unlike female leaders, are relieved of the weight of with family life, and can dedicate all their energy to their jobs. These findings were very clarifying of the social cost of leadership for women and gender positioning conditions showed in the Danish study could be applied to African women. It is little wonder that many women

are hesitant to take up positions of leadership because of the pressure involved, complementary work, family and domestic violence (Cole, 2006; Tiggerman, 1999).

In the African perspective including Ghana, the work and family dichotomy is filled with many inconsistencies for women that incite pressure. African women have certain conventional roles to play. They are expected to tolerate and look after children as well as manage the home. At the same time today's African woman is likely to earn a living and contribute to the management of society (BBC News, 2005). In short, McLagan and Nel (1995) referred to current African women as walking a political/gender tightrope, but it is also a leadership and gender tightrope.

Tsitsi Dangarembga from Zimbabwe in her interview with BBC News (BBC News, 2005), said that one of the reasons there are few women in positions of power is a lack of unity among women themselves. She said that since women were vying for limited resources they have a tendency to see other women as a menace and are envious of one another. She further went on to say that women have the potential to bring about transformation, but they lack organization due to lack of time, given their multiple roles as bread winners, wives and mothers which is the case in Ghana too. African women also fear to raise their voices and speak out for fear of victimization, allegedly by fellow women, but also by men, given the cultural expectations of what a woman should or should not do. Dangarembga also pointed out that women fear to excel because it makes them look intimidating. Women who wish to get married have to present themselves as good marriage material by being humble and submissive. One more cause for the complexity of African women's experience in obtaining national and international acknowledgment is their day-by-day struggle for endurance.

Tripp (2001) also found that regardless of the political progress made by women in the 1990s their efforts did not pay off in terms of women being allotted to public office. Women lack the essential financial support or resources often mobilized individually, and publicly and this is another strategic measure applied to include women from politics. In addition they are said to lack too much political familiarity, coolness, education and connections to run for office (Tripp, 2001; BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to women's reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to women's involvement in leadership (Shayo, 2005). These obstacles are not distinctive to African women. Analogous matters have been raised concerning educated Chinese women.

Qin (2000) in investigating the progress of female college students in China found that several factors combine to restrict their wish to become victorious career women. These comprise traditional discrimination, social pressures, women's kindness to people's misconception of successful women and the propensity of men to prefer family oriented wives. These women even fear being more talented than men and as a consequence shy away from demanding jobs. Women are torn between work and family as they do not want to be housewives, but at the same time are challenged to be super women. They both desire and panic about the opportunities and challenges of the external world.

Expert women in managerial positions face many challenges and those in institutions of higher learning are no exception. McMillan & Schumacher (2001) argue that the socialization of women in the work place arises within a system of power and inequality and such systems tend to repeat a variety of forms of inequality. In South Africa traditional universities have had corporate cultures that override white male society. When women join such institutions as leaders they soon comprehend that they

are expected to conform or be assimilated to the established culture. After all how can one be admitted to an exclusive club and then contradict the club's core values? McMillan and Schumacher (2001) argue that black women particularly in management are more noticeable, experience more adversity and suffer isolation. Women have to work extra hard as they do not seem to be given the latitude to make mistakes. In many institutions women's achievement of leadership positions has been facilitated by the execution of employment equity policies and affirmative action.

Leadership for women is not a simple task and so, as observed by Morna and Nyakujarah (2010), moving up and staying at the top is not necessarily filled with joy. Other literature on women's leadership in higher education discloses that women are less likely than men to take part in upper levels of leadership. Acker (2000) advances the theory that there is some sort of achievement prevention by women that influences their leadership aptitude or curiosity in leadership positions. Advocacy in the higher education arena has tended to rely upon and react to government legislation on equity rather than being something that women in the sector actively struggle for.

Obviously lots of women do make sacrifices to achieve something whether professionally or individually. For instance, women are expected to take responsibility for bringing up their children, but less parental responsibility is expected of men. As observed by Polly (1998) if women don't care enough for their children they know their children risk neglect. If men don't care enough they know their wives will. This observation is true for lots of working African women nowadays.

2.6 Support Systems for Women in School Leadership

Human resource development (HRD) is the process of increasing the knowledge, the skill and the capabilities of all the people in the organization (Kusi,

2012). It has been accepted that every organization needs qualified and competent human and material resources to achieve its goals. It is therefore imperative for every organization to invest into the professional development of their staff in their best interest to achieve organizational goals. In-service training programmes should therefore be an administrative policy. Training affects the quality of productivity and performance.

Managers as well as their subordinates need management and support. The world is dynamic, and so, there is a need to be abreast with time through periodic in-service training. The issue of accommodation is another proper investment which can enhance performance. Leaders who live not too far from their workplaces are able to sacrifice time and energy to perform beyond the required.

Supervision of work coupled with regularity and punctuality will be evident. Dedication which every organization desires will be visible. Another issue of much concern here is motivation at workplaces. Heads of institutions or organizations need to be stimulated or influenced to come out with their best in meeting desired goals. Amar (2004) was critical about the motivational process or the steps to be taken. The working conditions, human relations and pay are some critical issues that need to be satisfied. Teachers, headmistresses and headmasters morale become low when the environment for learning and working conditions are not conducive.

Bennell (2004) reiterated that job satisfaction has a positive relationship to the degree of commitment to work. Incentives, rewards and credit facilities should be made available as motivating factors. The respect of any manager or worker in a society goes with the condition of service and provision of incentives they have in place for them. The welfare of workers, whether head or not, should be prioritized.

The presence of up-to-date textbooks and syllabuses, constant supply of stationery, availability and accessibility of equipment and relevant teaching and learning materials and a well-equipped office space are the little improvement headmistresses and headmasters are yearning for. Healthy interpersonal relationships can bring about high performance in any organization, and the school is not an exception. Spouses, subordinates, associations and friends of female administrators of educational institutions need to provide both professional and moral support. The benevolence of relatives, individuals and associations can boost performance.

2.7 The Duty of the School Head

School heads are managers and leaders in the school and are responsible for the day to day administration of the school. The school head is responsible for the success or failure of the school as an institution. Kouzes and Posner (2017), define leadership as a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow. Armstrong (2004) also define leadership as a process of getting people to do their best to achieve desired results.

The duties of school heads are categorized into the following: curriculum, instruction and appraisal, school-community relationship, pupil personnel service, staff personnel service, financial management and other duties.

2.7.1 Curriculum, Instruction and Appraisal

According to Eisner (1994) curriculum is a series of planned events that are intended to have educational consequences for one or more students. The school head is responsible for the acquisition of the appropriate syllabuses; develop adequate timetables, course contents and textbooks for teachers touse. The head of school should again make sure that the curriculum is developed through the appraisal of instruction.

The knowledge of teachers have to be updated or upgraded through in service training and other workshops and seminars with proper supervision of their work to improve their performance.

2.7.2 Pupil Personnel Service

Pupil personnel service comprises the keeping of registers, controlling student's behavior, providing entertainment and organizing sporting activities to meet the physical, spiritual and mental health needs of pupils and students while maintaining discipline in the school.

2.7.3 School-Community Relationship

The school head is required to define the community in which the school is situated and also find out about the occupational practices, values aspirations and norms of the community as they facilitate the formulation of educational policies, goals and strategies for the education of the citizenry. Teaching and learning materials are derivative of the community so the school head need to be abreast with the occupational practices, values aspirations and norms of the community to help in future transformation.

The school head should let the school to be known to the community through the Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA) and other agencies, like the churches, Mosques, public libraries, and the media.

Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) posited that if our modern school is to fulfill the roles that Africans expect, our educational administrators, teachers, supervisors and all people concerned with running it should be made good students of our society.

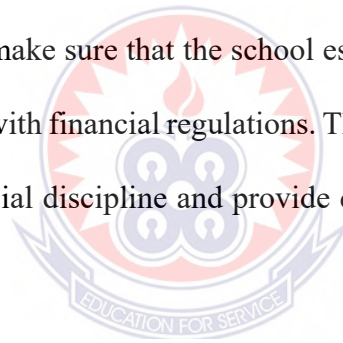
2.7.4 Staff Personnel Service

The school head should manage both teaching and non-teaching staffs as he or she has to attract, select, motivate, supervise and maintain all staff and build cooperation among the staff. The school head should be acquainted with the code of ethics and the condition of service of the Ghana Education Service.

The school head should motivate his or her staff and promote staff professional development

2.7.5 Financial Management

The school head should maintain proper financial discipline in the provision and disbursement in his or her institution for greater cooperation and development. The school head should also make sure that the school estimates and expenditures are well organized in accordance with financial regulations. The school head is therefore obliged to maintain proper financial discipline and provide quarterly statement of accounts to the higher authorities.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology used in the study. The areas under consideration include research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, the research instrument, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations

3.1 Research Design

The researcher used a descriptive survey design for the study. According to Gay (1992), the descriptive survey entails the collection of data in order to test hypotheses or to answer research questions concerning the present status of a subject under study. It is aimed at determining the nature of a phenomenon at the time of the study.

Descriptive survey design was chosen for it determines the opinions attitudes, preference and perceptions of group of people of interest to the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2004) which is the interest of this study. Descriptive surveys interpret, synthesize, and put together data, point to implications and relationships. Descriptive data are usually collected through questionnaires, interviews or observations.

Descriptive survey has its own strengths and weaknesses. The major strength for using the descriptive design is that it provides researchers with a lot of information from various respondents. The data collected are easily analyzed. One of the major weaknesses of descriptive survey design is how to retrieve all questionnaires administered.

3.2 Population

According to Kusi (2012), population is a group of individuals or people with the same characteristics and in whom the researcher is interested. It may also be defined as a group of individuals that the researcher generalizes his or her findings to. The targeted population was all the 19 female headteachers and 274 female teachers of public Junior High schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality of the Upper East Region of Ghana. The targeted population was therefore, 293 in all.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Procedure

Sampling is a research technique used for selecting a given number of subjects from a target population as a representative of the population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). To determine an applicable sample size an updated list of all female heads and female teachers of public Junior High schools in the Bolgatanga Municipal was obtained from the Municipal Director of Education.

Purposive sampling was used to select all the 19 female heads while simple random sampling was used to select 131 female teachers who hold various positions in the schools for the study. These positions included form masters, PTA secretaries, school treasurers, sports masters, assistant headteachers etc. The 150 respondents consisted of 19 female headteachers of Junior High schools and 131 female teachers who hold various positions in the various schools.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), a research tool is a specific mechanism or strategy, the researcher uses to collect, manipulate, or interpret data. The researcher used questionnaire with closed ended questions to gather data for the study. White

(2005) described questionnaires as instrument designed to collect data for decision making in research. A questionnaire can also be described as a systematic compilation of questions that are administered to a sample of a population in research. The researcher used closed ended questionnaires because it has the advantage of being easy to administer on a large population. Questionnaires also require less time and money compared to other methods like focus group discussions (Merriam, 1998). However, questionnaires are limited to only the areas indicated in the questionnaires, and do not give room for self-expression. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire to all the 150 respondents to collect data for the study.

3.5 Pilot -Testing of the Instrument

A pilot test was conducted to make sure the research instruments were valid and reliable. According to Bell (2008) the purpose for piloting is to get the bugs out of the instrument so that the respondents in the study area will experience no difficulties in completing the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered on 10 female heads teachers, who were selected randomly. The purpose of the pilot test was to enable the researcher to make necessary changes to items which may be inappropriate and also to determine the level of ambiguity of the questions for corrections and determine the percentage of responses. Ambiguous items were modified and inappropriate items were removed and made appropriate.

3.5.1 Validity

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. Face validity is the likelihood of a question being misunderstood or misinterpreted. Face validity was granted by my colleague students on the Masters programme.

Content validity is whether an instrument adequately covers all the topics concerned. The validity of the instrument was established through expert opinions, literature searches, pre-testing of the questionnaire and the scrutiny by my supervisor.

3.5.2 Reliability

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistency in its results or data after repeated trials. The questionnaire was administered on the same group of respondents twice in the pilot study with a two week grace period between the first and the second test and the results of the two tests correlated to obtain the coefficient of reliability. The reliability test yielded Crombach alpha of 0.86.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained permission from the Bolgatanga Municipal Director of Education to enable her to undertake the study after the University has given approval of the research topic. Thereafter, the researcher visited the sampled population at the staff common room to brief them on the purpose of the study after which the questionnaires were administered on all the 150 female heads, assistant heads and female teachers of Junior High schools selected purposively in the Bolgatanga Municipality. The respondents were given two weeks grace period to fill the questionnaire before they were collected.

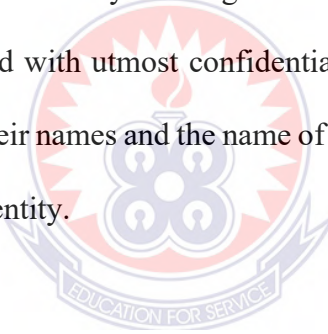
3.7 Data Analysis

The data collected were edited to ensure consistency. Edited responses were then tabulated and analyzed with the use of the Statistical Package for Social sciences

technique. The researcher presented the descriptive statistics in tables with frequencies and percentages to explain the responses from on some important issues in the questionnaire. All the analysis was precise descriptions, clear and comprehensible for conclusions to be drawn to achieve the expected results.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The respondents were informed of their rights to willingly accept or decline to participate, and to withdraw participation at any time and were duly informed about the purpose of the study, the procedures that would be used to collect the data, and assured them that there were no potential risks or costs involved. The respondents were made aware that any information that they would give would be used for the purposes of the study and would be treated with utmost confidentiality. The researcher requested the respondents not to write their names and the name of their schools on the questionnaires in order to protect their identity.



CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with analysis of data and discussion of the findings of the study and covers the demographic characteristics of the respondents in relation to the research questions.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents comprised age distribution, marital status and highest educational qualification. The data is presented in tables, frequencies, percentages, graphs and charts. The demographic characteristics of respondents is presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
21-30	12	8
31-40	42	28
41-50	68	45
51-60	28	19
Total	150	100
Marital status		
Married with children	130	87
Married without children	2	1
Separated/divorced	4	3
Single without children	8	5
Single parent	4	3
Widowed	2	1

Total	150	100
Academic Qualification		
Diploma	8	5
Bachelor's degree	109	73
Master's degree	33	22
Total	150	100
Work Experience		
1-5 years	8	5
6-10 years	52	35
11-15 years	41	27
Above 16 years	49	33
Total	150	100

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 4.1 depicts that nearly one tenth of the respondents (8%) were between the ages of 21-30 years, above one quarter of the respondents (28%) were between the ages of 31-40 years, above two fifth of the respondents (45%) were between the ages of 41-50 years while almost one fifth of the respondents were between the ages of 51-60 years. The results indicate that the respondents were matured to take part in the study.

On the marital status of the respondents above four fifth of the respondents (87%) were married with children, 1% of the respondents were married without children, 3% of the respondents were either separated from their husbands or divorced, 5% of the respondents were single without children, 3% of the respondents were single parents while another 1% of the respondents were widowed.

On the academic qualifications of the respondents, 5% of the respondents were holders of the Diploma certificate, almost three quarters of the respondents (73%) were holders of the Bachelor's degree while slightly above one fifth of the respondents (22%)

were holders of the Master's degree. The result shows that all the respondents were professional teachers and therefore qualified to participate in the study.

On the respondents length of service in the teaching profession, 5% of the respondents had worked for between 1-5 years, slightly above one third of the respondents (35%) had worked for between 6-10 years, above one quarter of the respondents (27%) had worked for between 11-15 years while almost one third of the respondents (33%) had worked for 16 years and above.

4.2 Answers to the Research Questions

Research Question One: What socio-cultural challenges do the female headteachers in public Junior High Schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality face in carrying their roles and responsibilities?

Women as well as men learn to belong to society through the process of socialization which begins from infancy. Such socialization process entails both verbal and non-verbal forms of communication. Learning to be male or female is therefore learnt from infancy as the infants interact with their family members and their care-takers (Maccobby & Jackling, 1974). Gender roles are found in every society which spells out certain kinds of behaviour as appropriate, and others as inappropriate for women and men. The researcher asked the respondents to agree or disagree with some of the socio-cultural challenges female headteachers face in public Junior High Schools. The result is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Socio-Cultural Challenges facing the Female Headteachers in public Junior High Schools

Statements	Strongly Agree N (%)	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)	Strongly Disagree N (%)
Negative attitude of people towards female leadership	68(45)	66(44)	16(11)	-
Perception of females being inferior to men	56(37)	72(48)	22(15)	-
Poor interpersonal relationship with the community	62(41)	60(40)	16(11)	12(8)
Resentment from both male and female staff	84(56)	66(44)	-	-
Negative perception on the competencies of females leaders by females themselves	48(32)	95(63)	7(5)	-
Low self esteem	52(35)	68(45)	23(15)	7(5)

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 4.2 indicates that above two fifth of the respondents (45%) strongly agreed that negative attitude of people towards female leadership is a socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers, above two fifth of the respondents (44%) agreed while 11% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that attitude of people towards female leadership is a big challenge facing female headteachers. Hoff and Mitchell (2008) suggested that women have excellent leadership skills, but often face obstacles that men may not face. Tyree (1995) suggested that there exists a perception that women lack support from the staff, parents and community that does not exist with the male principal.

Again, nearly two fifth of the respondents (37%) strongly agreed that perception of females being inferior to men is a socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers, almost half of the respondents (48%) agreed while 15% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that there is the perception that females are inferior to men. In our Ghanaian society, women are considered inferior to men and it is very difficult to eradicate this notion in the Ghanaian traditional setting despite efforts being made by successive governments to empower women. In fact, an ancient and pervasive belief in Western thought is that women lack reason and is governed by emotions (Wood, 2007).

A different view was expressed by some writers. Noteworthy is Kottis (1993) who asserted that the need for women to participate in the management of schools is very crucial to the effective development of educational institutions. The situation has not changed that much in the modern world, but it has seen considerable improvement over the years. Yet, inside and outside the family, women are viewed as subordinates. At the workplaces they are expected to fill subordinate occupational roles, which are defined as an extension of women's domestic roles.

Also, slightly above two fifth of the respondents (41%) strongly agreed that poor interpersonal relationship with the community is a socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers, above two fifth of the respondents (40%) agreed, 11% Of the respondents disagreed while 8% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result suggests the poor interpersonal relationship with the community is a socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers. Leader's activities are directed toward establishing good interpersonal relationships with the followers, motivating and encouraging the followers to be independent as they endeavour to accomplish the

shared vision in order to sustain continuous improvement of the organisational performance. Leadership skills are important for organisation's effectiveness.

Table 4.2 further indicates that all the respondents (100%) strongly agreed that resentment from both male and female staff is a great socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers. The result suggests that resentment from both male and female staff is a major socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers. Again, nearly one third of the respondents (32%) strongly agreed that negative perception on the competences of females leaders by females themselves is a socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers, above three fifth of the respondents (60%) agreed while 5% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that negative perception on the competences of female leaders by females themselves is another challenge facing female headteachers.

Finally, slightly above one third of the respondents (35%) strongly agreed that low self-esteem is a socio-cultural challenge facing female headteachers, above two fifth of the respondents (45%) agreed, 15% of the respondents disagreed while 5% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (80%) were of the view that females themselves have low self-esteem. The department of education of Republic of South Africa (2004) points out that the women manager may be the managers' worst enemy. The feeling of inferiority makes women managers let everyone walk over them instead of taking charge. When a woman does not approve herself, she must not expect others to value her. Low self-esteem affects one's performance at work. Coetzer (2004, p.15) states that if managers can't live with themselves, they will not be able to get along with others as well. It is of paramount importance for a manager to first accept himself or herself.

According to Wood, (2007) , stereotypical beliefs such as women’s inability to be competitive, inability to be decisive and inability to be emotionally stable continues to plague women managers. Women are generally seen as being unable to control their tempers, thus throwing temper tantrums. In a highly charged emotional situation, women are unable to manage the situation. Women are also seen to be having attitudes, such as bearing grudges and not forgiving and forgetting when hurt. Low self-esteem that leads to lack of confidence by women poses a challenge in female leadership.

Research Question Two: What are the organizational-related challenges facing the female headteacher?

A range of issues arise in restraining women’s potential to aspire to positions of leadership. Sadie (2005) maintained that at the bottom of the restrictions that women face is the patriarchal system where decision-making powers are in the hands of males. In this context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes concerning the role and status of women in society are still common and many women who are part of this system are finding it difficult to diverge from this culture and tradition they be ostracized. Regardless of women’s education and access to the job market the woman’s role is considered to be the typical one of homemaker. The man on the other hand is the bread-winner, head of household, and has the right to public life. Despite these challenges females face other challenges at the work place. So the respondents were asked to rate their opinion on the following organizational-related challenges facing the female headteacher. The result is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Organizational-Related Challenges Facing the Female Headteacher

Statements	Strongly Agree N (%)	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)	Strongly Disagree N (%)
Inadequate financial resources	86(57)	64(43)	-	-
Problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions	66(44)	72(48)	12(8)	-
Inadequate material resources	58(39)	69(46)	23(15)	-
Perception of teachers towards female leaders	75(50)	69(46)	6(4)	-
Lack of social networking	48(32)	62(41)	22(15)	18(12)
Psychological factors	56(37)	80(53)	14(9)	-
Favoritism and stereotyping	52(35)	86(57)	12(8)	-

Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 4.3 shows that all the respondents (100%) strongly agreed and agreed that inadequate financial resource is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher. The result suggests that inadequate financial resource is a major organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher. Tripp (2001) also found that regardless of the political progress made by women in the 1990s their efforts did not pay off in terms of women being allotted to public office. Women lack the essential financial support or resources often mobilized individually, and publicly and this is another strategic measure applied to include women from politics. In addition they are said to lack too much political familiarity, coolness, education and connections to run for office (Tripp, 2001; BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to women's reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to women's involvement in leadership (Shayo, 2005). These obstacles are not distinctive to African women. Analogous matters have been raised concerning educated Chinese women.

Again, above two fifth of the respondents (44%) strongly agreed that problem of balancing reproductive and workplace function is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher, nearly half of the respondents (48%) agreed while 8% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (92%) agree that problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher, A number of studies in America also suggest that women in Leadership are often faced with the dilemma of balancing the societal expectations of women regarding their family responsibilities with that of the leadership at the workplace, and to alienation, isolation and exclusion for women educational leaders (Hoff & Mitchell, 2008). 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. Tyree (1995) suggested that there exists a perception that women lack support from the staff, parents and community that does not exist with the male principal.

Also, almost two fifth of the respondents (39%) strongly agreed that inadequate material resources is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher, nearly half of the respondents (46%) agreed while 15% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (85%) agree that inadequate material resources is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher. Again, half of the respondents (50%) strongly agreed that perception of teachers towards female leaders is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher, above two fifth of the respondents (46%) while 4% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (96%) agree that perception of teachers towards female leaders is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher. There is the belief that men are capable of manning and holding higher

positions than their female counterparts. Females who are seen in management positions were generally thought to have some male qualities such as strong task direction, toughness critical analysis and detachment. In some instances, women themselves believe and accept the traditional stance that women are incapable of manning higher positions. These females perceived their holding of higher positions as mere luck (Al Khalifa, 1992).

Furthermore, nearly half of the respondents (48%) strongly agreed that lack of social networking is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher, slightly above two fifth of the respondents (41%) agreed, 15% of the respondents disagreed while 12% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (73%) agreed that lack of social networking is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher. In other public arenas women's admission to leadership positions has been hindered by favouritism and stereotyping. This is basically due to society's stance toward appropriate male and female functions. In their argument on challenges women face in seeking leadership positions, Grove and Montgomery (2000) argue that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to search for such positions. There are also a few social networks, formal and informal, for women such as membership in clubs consequential in a lack of acknowledgment that leads to progress.

Again, above one third of the respondents (37%) strongly agreed that psychological factor is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher, above half of the respondents (53%) while 9% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (91%) agreed that psychological factor is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher.

Finally, above one third of the respondents (35%) strongly agreed that favoritism and stereotyping 52(35) 86(57) 12(8) -is an organizational-related challenge facing the female headteacher, nearly three fifth of the respondents (57%) agreed while 8% of the respondents disagreed. The result suggests that majority of the females (92%) agreed that favoritism and stereotyping is an organizational related challenge facing the female headteacher. In other public areas women's admission to leadership positions has been hindered by favouritism and stereotyping. Women are more or less victimized for being in search of a management position. This is basically due to society's stance toward appropriate male and female functions. In their argument on challenges women face in seeking leadership positions, Growe & Montgomery (2000) argue that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to search for such positions.

Research Question Three: What are the support systems put in place for the female headteachers of Junior High Schools to improve upon their performance?

Table 4.4 Response on Support Systems put in Place for Female Headteachers

Statements	Strongly Agree N (%)	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)	Strongly Disagree N (%)
Provision of teaching and learning materials	75(50)	67(45)	8(5)	-
Provision of professional training and development	62(41)	79(53)	9(6)	
Provision of accommodation	58(39)	72(48)	11(7)	9(6)
Provision of Financial support	82(55)	56(37)	12(8)	-
Provision of Incentives and Rewards	47(31)	88(59)	15(10)	-
Provision of means of Transport	45(30)	83(55)	22(15)	-

Availability of educational policies and code of ethics	63(42)	78(52)	9(6)	-
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Source: Field Data, 2021

Table 4.4 shows that half of the respondents (50%) strongly agreed that provision of teaching and learning materials is a support systems put in place for female headteachers, above two fifth of the respondents (45%) agreed while 5% of the respondents disagreed. Bennell (2004) indicated that the presence of up-to-date textbooks and syllabuses, constant supply of stationery, availability and accessibility of equipment and relevant teaching and learning materials and a well-equipped office space are the little improvement headmistresses and headmasters are yearning for. Healthy interpersonal relationships can bring about high performance in any organization, and the school is not an exception. Spouses, subordinates, associations and friends of female administrators of educational institutions need to provide both professional and moral support. The benevolence of relatives, individuals and associations can boost performance.

Also, slightly above two fifth of the respondents (50%) strongly agreed that provision of professional training and development is a support systems put in place for female headteachers, above half of the respondents (53%) agreed while 6% of the respondents disagreed. Human resource development (HRD) is the process of increasing the knowledge, the skill and the capabilities of all the people in the organization (Kusi, 2012). It has been accepted that every organization needs qualified and competent human and material resources to achieve its goals. It is therefore imperative for every organization to invest into the professional development of their staff in their best interest to achieve organizational goals. In-service training programmes should therefore be an administrative policy. Training affects the quality

of productivity and performance. Managers as well as their subordinates need management and support. The world is dynamic, and so, there is a need to be abreast with time through periodic in-service training.

Again, almost two fifth of the respondents (39%) strongly agreed that provision of accommodation is a support systems put in place for female headteachers, nearly half of the respondents (48%) agreed, 7% of the respondents disagreed while 6% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The issue of accommodation is another proper investment which can enhance performance. Leaders who live not too far from their workplaces are able to sacrifice time and energy to perform beyond the required.

Further, above half of the respondents (55%) strongly agreed that provision of financial support is another support system put in place for female headteachers, nearly two fifth of the respondents (37%) agreed while 8% of the respondents disagreed. The result means that financial support is put in place for female headteachers to help them to perform better. Tripp (2001) found that regardless of the political progress made by women in the 1990s their efforts did not pay off in terms of women being allotted to public office. Women lack the essential financial support or resources often mobilized individually, and publicly and this is another strategic measure applied to include women from politics. In addition they are said to lack too much political familiarity, coolness, education and connections to run for office (Tripp, 2001; BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to women's reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to women's involvement in leadership (Shayo, 2005). These obstacles are not distinctive to African women. Analogous matters have been raised concerning educated Chinese women.

Furthermore, nearly one third of the respondents (31%) strongly agreed that provision of incentives and rewards is another support system put in place for female

headteachers, nearly two fifth of the respondents (59%) agreed while 10% of the respondents disagreed. Bennell (2004) reiterated that job satisfaction has a positive relationship to the degree of commitment to work. Incentives, rewards and credit facilities should be made available as motivating factors. The respect of any manager or worker in a society goes with the condition of service and provision of incentives they have in place for them. The welfare of workers, whether head or not, should be prioritized.

Also, nearly one third of the respondents (30%) strongly agreed that provision of means of transport is a support system put in place for female headteachers, above half of the respondents (55%) agreed while 15% of the respondents disagreed. The result means that provision of means of transport is a support system put in place for female headteachers to help them in the discharge of their duties. Again, slightly above two fifth one of the respondents (42%) strongly agreed that the availability of educational policies and code of ethics is a support system put in place for female headteachers, above half of the respondents (52%) agreed while 6% of the respondents disagreed. The result means that the availability of educational policies and code of ethics for female headteachers would enable the heads to be acquainted with the ethical code and the educational policies in order to work effectively with the staff. The school head should manage both teaching and non-teaching staffs as he or she has to attract, select, motivate, supervise and maintain all staff and build cooperation among the staff. The school head should be acquainted with the code of ethics and the condition of service of the Ghana Education Service.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter comprises the summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the challenges facing female head teachers of Junior High Schools in the Bolgatanga Municipal of the Upper East Region. The objectives of the study were to identify the socio-cultural challenges that female headteachers in public Junior High Schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality face in carrying their roles and responsibilities, identify the organizational related challenges facing the headteachers and to determine the support systems put in place for the female headteachers in Junior High Schools to improve upon their performance.

The researcher used descriptive survey as the research design for the study. The targeted population was all the 19 female heads and 274 female teachers of public Junior High schools in the Bolgatanga Municipal of the Upper East Region. The targeted population was therefore, 293 in all.

Purposive sampling was used to select all the 19 female heads while simple random sampling was used to select 131 female teachers who hold various positions in the schools for the study. The researcher used questionnaire with closed ended questions to gather data for the study.

5.2 Main Findings

The socio-cultural challenges of the female headteachers the study revealed were the attitude of people towards female leadership, the perception of females being inferior to men , poor interpersonal relationship with the community, resentment from both male and female staff and the negative perception on the competences of females leaders by females themselves.

The study also revealed that inadequate financial resources, problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions, inadequate material resources, perception of teachers towards female leaders, lack of social networking, psychological factors and favoritism and stereotyping are the organizational related challenges facing the female headteacher.

The study further revealed that support systems put in place for the female headteachers of Junior High Schools to improve upon their performance were the provision of teaching and learning materials, provision of professional training and development, provision of accommodation, provision of financial support, provision of incentives and rewards, provision of means of transport and the availability of educational policies and code of ethics for female heads to work with.

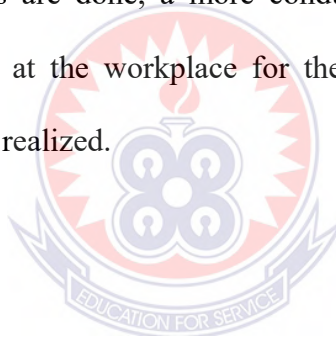
5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings it can be concluded that while females have potential and ability to be leaders to perform at the top level of public life, the unpleasant set of challenges against their leadership often restrict their success. Factors such as socio-cultural stereotypes, the problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions, negative attitude towards female leadership and the negative perception on the

competences of females leaders by females themselves have contributed immensely in restricting their leadership success.

Since females in higher position have to manage both the home and the workplace of which their feminine values of nurturing and caring demand, it is paramount to improve their empowerment by changing institutional structures, processes and procedures as well as changing the negative attitudes of men and women towards females in leadership positions. Support systems like the provision of teaching and learning materials, professional training and development, accommodation, financial support and means of transport should be given to the female leaders to improve upon their performance.

If these measures are done, a more conducive and serene female friendly environment will prevail at the workplace for the full potentials of females in in leadership positions to be realized.



5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations were made.

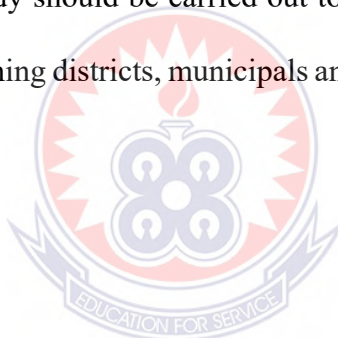
1. The Ghana Education Service in collaboration with the Ministry of Education should organize awareness creation through PTA meetings, seminars and forums to sensitize parents and guardians on the importance of female education.
2. The Ghana Education Service should team up with the community and traditional rulers to uphold cultural practices that enhance female education and discard those practices that discriminate against female education.
3. The Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Ghana Education Service should motivate female leaders in the educational sector in the forms of awards,

rewards and recognitions to enable them have the extrinsic motivation to enhance their performance.

4. The Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Ghana Education Service should provide adequate teaching and learning materials and decent accommodation for female heads in the educational institutions.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

The study was conducted to investigate the challenges females in high position in public junior high schools face in the Bolgatanga Municipality. Further study should therefore be carried out in the private junior high schools in the Bolgatanga Municipality. Further study should be carried out to investigate the challenges facing female heads in the remaining districts, municipals and metro of the Upper East Region.



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APPENDIX A

INTRODUCTION LETTER

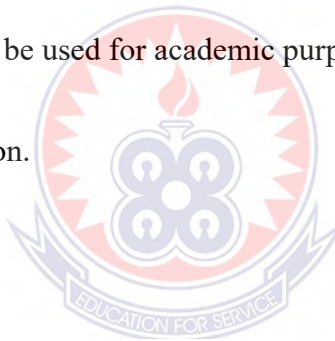
Dear Respondent,

I am a graduate student of the Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development, conducting a study to investigate the challenges female head teachers face in public Junior High Schools of the Bolgatanga Municipality, in partial fulfillment for the award of Master of Arts in Educational Leadership.

I would be very pleased if you could respond to the questionnaire attached as a respondent of the study. The information you would provide would be treated with confidentiality and would be used for academic purposes only.

I count on your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,



REBECCA AKUKA

(POST GRADUATE STUDENT)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FEMALE HEADS AND ASSISTANT HEADS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please provide your response in the blank space or tick () the appropriate box with the correct answer.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Indicate your age in the appropriate box

(a) 21-30

(b) 31 – 40 ()

(c) 41 –50 ()

(d) 51 – 60 ()

2. What is your highest Academic qualification?

(a) Diploma ()

(b) Bachelor's Degree ()

(c) Master's Degree ()

(d) Others (specify).....

3. Work Experience

(a) 1-5 years ()

(b) 6-10 years ()

(c) 11-15 years ()



(d) Above 16 years

4. Marital Status:

(a) Single without children ()

(b) Single parent ()

(c) Married without children ()

(d) Married with children ()

(e) Divorced/ Separated

(f) Widow ()



SECTION B: SOCIO-CULTURAL CHALLENGES OF THE FEMALE HEADTEACHERS

Please, respond to the statements by ticking [√] the number on the 4-point likert scale using the following keys: 1= **Strongly agree**, 2= **Agree**, 3=**Disagree**, 4=**strongly Disagree**, as sincere as possibly.

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4
5	Negative attitude of people towards female leadership				
6	Perception of females being inferior to men				
7	Interpersonal relationship with the community				
8	Resentment from male counterparts				
9	Resentment from females themselves				
10	Negative perception on the competencies of females leaders by females themselves				
11	Low self esteem				

SECTION C: ORGANIZATIONAL RELATED CHALLENGES FACING THE FEMALE HEADTEACHER

Please, respond to the statements by ticking [√] the number on the 4-point likert scale using the following keys: 1= **Strongly agree**, 2= **Agree**, 3=**Disagree**, 4=**strongly Disagree**, as sincere as possibly.

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4
12	Inadequate financial resources				
13	Problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions				
14	Inadequate material resources				
15	Perception of teachers towards female leaders				
16	Lack of social networking				
17	Psychological factors				
18	Favoritism and stereotyping				

SECTION D: SUPPORT SYSTEMS PUT IN PLACE FOR FEMALE HEADTEACHERS

Please, respond to the statements by ticking [√] the number on the 4-point likert scale using the following keys: 1= **Strongly agree**, 2= **Agree**, 3=**Disagree**, 4=**strongly Disagree**, as sincere as possibly.

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4
19	Provision of teaching and learning materials				
20	Provision of professional training and development				
21	Provision of accommodation				
22	Provision of Financial support				
23	Provision of Incentives and Rewards				
24	Provision of means of Transport				
25	Availability of educational policies and code of ethics				

