

**AKENTEN APPIAH MENKAH UNIVERSITY OF SKILLS TRAINING AND
ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT**

**FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY**

MALIK RAHINATU

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**A dissertation in the Department of Educational Leadership, submitted to the
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Science in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the Master of
Education (Educational Leadership) Degree**

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

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

Signature.....

Date.....

MALIK RAHINATU

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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

Signature.....

Date.....

DR. KOFI YEBOAH

DEDICATION

Dedicated to ALLAH Almighty, for his protection and guidance during my studies. This study is dedicated also to my dear parents late Alhaji Lamin Malik Saniguohuu and Mrs. Hajia Amushetu Geewaa, my dear husband Abdulai Alhassan, my children Zuleha, Yasmin, Yassrat, Shuriaf, Nasiba and Najwan.

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ABBREVIATIONS

FREQ	Frequency
HND	Highest National Diploma
SD	Standard Deviation

ABSTRACT

The underrepresentation of women in educational leadership roles remains a critical issue, particularly in Senior High Schools (SHS) within the Wa Municipality. This research delves into the multifaceted factors contributing to the low participation of females in educational leadership positions. The study aims to identify and analyze these factors, providing insights that can inform targeted interventions and policy recommendations. Utilizing a descriptive survey research design, this investigation employs surveys to gather data from both female teachers (that held administrative responsibilities) and female headmasters and assistants. Quantitative data was subjected to statistical analysis to identify patterns. The research reveals that the belief in traditional gender roles, specifically the notion that "men are supposed to protect women," is a significant factor deterring females from engaging in educational leadership. The study highlights that females express a perceived lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualifications, and experience compared to males. The study concludes that the multifaceted nature of barriers to female participation in educational leadership. Traditional gender norms, personal factors such as lack of confidence, and institutional practices contribute to a complex web of challenges that hinder women's progression into leadership roles in the educational sector. It is recommended that conducting of workshops and training sessions to raise awareness about gender biases and stereotypes, aiming to sensitize both male and female leaders to foster a more inclusive leadership environment.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Education is a fundamental tool for all societies' economic, social, and political progress. It is widely acknowledged as a progress indicator. One of the primary goals of education is to provide trained human resources capable of overcoming a country's developmental challenges. According to Uwizeyimana et al. (2014), the goals of schools and education are to educate and teach children in the theory and practice of what it means to be a citizen in a developing and reforming democratic project. Combat (2014), thinks it is widely assumed that the success of schools determines the destiny of society.

However, the success of schools is determined by a variety of school-related factors. Next to classroom instruction, school leadership is the most critical action for improving student learning (Mekonnin, 2014). To address the diverse needs for school achievement, a solid grasp of the nature of leadership practices is required. The concept of leadership has been defined in a variety of ways, resulting in hundreds of definitions. To that end, it is difficult to come up with a single, agreed-upon definition of the notion.

However, it is critical to examine the various definitions provided by different scholars in order to gain a better understanding of how leadership has been defined. Uwizeyimana et al. (2014), define School leadership as the vision, talents, and leadership characteristics required of superintendents and principals to establish and manage their school. These educational leadership characteristics are utilized to attract skilled instructors and to develop educational programs that can give children with a superior academic environment. Msila (2013) defines

leadership as the act of persuading all employees to comprehend and agree on what needs to be done, followed by the process of coordinating individual and collective efforts to achieve organizational goals. Others, such as Spears (2010) define leadership as "the ability to persuade others to pursue goals that the leader considers important and desirable." Leadership also entails numerous specific activities, such as developing a vision that inspires people to action. Rudman and Phelan (2010) provide the most comprehensive definition of leadership as...the art or process of persuading people to work readily and enthusiastically toward group goals.

According to Chapman and Harris (2004), research findings from various countries and school contexts have highlighted the tremendous impact of leadership in securing school development and change. Many countries attempt education reform and restructuring in order to improve the quality and equity of education. One of these measures has been the incorporation of women into school leadership and management (Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016). Women's participation in decision-making positions in various educational institutions are tied to school leadership. This is because men are more likely to be leaders in school and other fields in most countries Grant (2012).

The presence of women in leadership roles at the senior high school level and above leads to sensitivity in schools for the well-being of adolescent girls and provides girls beginning to contemplate career options with decision-makers and leaders as role models (Sperandio, 2016). Dagnew, Yirdaw and Asrat (2020) recognize the inequalities in leadership between men and women. They define women's leadership styles as relational leadership characteristics such as collaboration, caring, courage, intuition, and vision. According to Mekonnin (2014), men and women have intrinsically distinct managerial dispositions. In relation to this, researchers discovered that when women cogitate, they gather information in a slightly different way than

men. Women are faster at integrating information and arranging these bits of data into more complicated patterns. Women tend to assess more variables, examine more possibilities, and see a broader range of possible solutions to a problem when making decisions. Women have a tendency to generalize, to synthesize, to view any issue from a broader, more holistic, and more contextual perspective (Disch & Hawkesworth, 2018). Furthermore, women according to Disch and Hawkesworth (2018), are better able to tolerate ambiguity—a trait that most likely stems from their ability to hold several things in mind at the same time.

Women have other abilities like school environments led by females tend to have a teaching and learning focus, are less concerned with standardized achievement, and tend to be close communities where individuals feel cared about hence allow them to lead. The capacity to discover the proper word quickly—basic articulation—is an uncommon female capability (Disch & Hawkesworth, 2018). According to Othman and Hamid, (2023), men have traditionally held leadership positions. In education, men have dominated management and leadership positions. According to Segkulu and Gyimah (2016), little has changed in this aspect during the last few decades. Despite their large numbers in teaching and school leadership preparation programs, women remain under-represented at higher levels of administration.

Her research backs up earlier findings by Latorre et al. (2013), who found that men with comparable qualifications and experiences have more career success and participate more completely in the management process than their female counterparts. Similarly, research throughout the preceding century has been overwhelmingly male-dominated, supporting the misconception that management and leadership are inherently male domains (Mudau & Ncube, Leadership qualities of women in educational management positions: stakeholders perceptions of selected schools in Matabeleland South region in Zimbabwe, 2017). Women have

traditionally played the role of housewives, while males have remained leaders in all aspects of life. As a result of this social attitude, women have been hesitant to pursue educational administrative posts (French & Eskridge, 2021). While women hold teaching positions in educational settings, men hold the highest positions of educational leadership (Djan & Gordon, 2020). As a result, it should be highlighted that due to low educational attainment, societal preconceptions, and institutional barriers that impede the upward progress of women inside organizations, women are scarcely found in managerial and decision-making positions. This would restrain many women to avoid confronting the situation and exercising decision-making authority (Dessie, 2023).

In the Wa Municipality, the number of women in administrative and leadership positions in general, and in schools in particular, remains exceedingly low. In the case of school leadership, for example, it decreases when one progresses from primary to secondary schools and then to institutions of higher learning (FMoE, 2010). Female students are thus denied the opportunity to look up to role models. Furthermore, male teachers are more educated and qualified than female teachers, making them less competitive for decision-making positions (Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016). Despite the policy of attracting 50% of females into teacher training, the proportion of females among total teaching staff remains limited.

Females are also grossly underrepresented in educational leadership and management roles, as well as office expertise, at all levels of educational institutions, including secondary school principals, supervisors and other administrative bodies (FMoE, 2010). According to a study from the Wa Municipal Education Office (WMEO), the proportion of women in educational leadership positions is 1.49%. This shows that they are underrepresented (fewer people in positions of leadership). According to the student researcher's knowledge, insufficient study

was undertaken in senior high schools in Wa municipality to evaluate the state of female participation in educational leadership positions and the barriers to predicted success. As a result, the researcher is interested in finding out the primary variables influencing limited female participation in educational leadership in Wa Municipality.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite advancements in gender equality in various sectors, there persists a notable underrepresentation of females in educational leadership positions, particularly within Senior High Schools (SHS). Women are underrepresented in many positions of power (Segkulu & Gyimah, *Women in Educational Leadership within the Tamale Metropolis.*, 2016).

The disparity in gender participation in educational leadership roles poses a significant challenge to achieving a balanced and diverse educational environment (Bayeh, 2016). This study aims to identify and understand the factors contributing to the low participation of females in leadership positions within the Senior High School setting in the Wa municipality. The most evident issue is the disproportionately low number of females occupying leadership positions in Senior High Schools in the municipality.

Women's absence in management and decision-making positions is a global phenomenon (Kassa, 2015). Despite a growing number of women in the education sector, they remain underrepresented in key decision-making roles such as school principals, department heads, and other leadership positions (Teague, 2015). Societal and cultural factors play a crucial role in shaping perceptions of gender roles and expectations (Kågesten et al., 2016). While research has sought to evaluate leadership qualities of women in educational management positions: stakeholders' perceptions (Mudau & Ncube, 2017), Bandiho (2009) examined status of

educational leadership and female participation: Women leading education across the continents, Burns and Martin (2010) looked at the examination of the effectiveness of Male and Female Educational Leaders who made use of the Invitational Leadership Style of Leadership, gaps and inconsistencies in the literature need to be addressed. These include comprehensively examine the existence of institutional barriers within Senior High Schools that impede the professional growth and career advancement of female educators.

These barriers may include discriminatory practices, biased policies, or an organizational culture that does not actively support the development of female leaders. Personal factors, such as self-perception, confidence levels, and career aspirations, may contribute to the low participation of females in educational leadership. This research aims to explore how these individual factors influence the willingness of female educators to pursue and attain leadership roles within the Senior High School context. Mentorship and support systems are crucial elements in fostering career development and leadership aspirations.

This study seeks to understand the extent to which mentorship and support systems are available and effective in encouraging female educators to pursue and thrive in educational leadership roles. The underrepresentation of females in educational leadership may have implications for the overall educational environment. This study aims to explore whether a lack of gender diversity in leadership positions affects the learning environment, educational outcomes, and the overall quality of education provided in Senior High Schools. By addressing these key issues, this research aims to contribute valuable insights that can inform strategies and interventions to increase female participation in educational leadership within Senior High Schools in Wa municipality, ultimately fostering a more equitable and inclusive educational system.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study attempts to find out the main factors responsible for low females' participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study specifically sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. To assess the extent to which female teachers participate in educational leadership positions in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality.
2. To investigate the extent to which females' involvement in educational leadership positions in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality.
3. To identify the factors that draw back females from actively involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality.
4. To identify strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality.

1.5 Research Questions

As a result, the study was guided by the following research questions:

1. To what extent do female teachers participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?
2. To what extent female teachers aspire to participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?
3. What factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?
4. What strategies could promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The significance of studying female participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools (SHS) lies in its potential to address a crucial issue affecting gender equality and the overall effectiveness of educational institutions. The significance the researcher would ascribe to this research are listed as follows:

Firstly, understanding the factors that contribute to low female participation in educational leadership roles is a crucial step towards fostering gender equality. By identifying and addressing barriers, the study can contribute to creating more inclusive and diverse leadership teams within SHS, reflecting the broader societal goal of gender equality.

Secondly, diverse leadership teams have been shown to enhance organizational performance and innovation. By promoting female participation in educational leadership, the study can contribute to the development of more effective and well-rounded leadership teams in SHS. This, in turn, may positively impact the overall quality of education and the learning environment for students.

Thirdly, the research can shed light on institutional barriers that hinder female educators' career advancement to leadership positions. Addressing these barriers can lead to the development of policies and initiatives aimed at creating a more inclusive and supportive environment for women in educational leadership roles.

Fourthly, by highlighting successful female leaders and identifying factors that contribute to their success, the study can serve as an inspiration for aspiring female educators. This could lead to increased confidence, motivation, and ambition among women pursuing leadership roles in education, fostering a positive cycle of change.

Again, the findings of the study can inform the development of evidence-based policies and strategies to promote female participation in educational leadership. Policymakers can use this information to create targeted interventions that address specific challenges faced by female educators in SHS.

Moreover, understanding the role of mentorship and support systems in fostering female leadership can lead to the development of mentorship programs within educational institutions. These programs can provide guidance and support to aspiring female leaders, helping them navigate challenges and develop the skills necessary for leadership role.

Finally, the study's outcomes can contribute to creating a more inclusive educational environment that values and promotes diversity in leadership. This inclusivity can positively impact not only female educators but also students who benefit from exposure to diverse role models and leadership styles.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

To delimit the scope of the study, the researcher restricted it to study the factors that contribute to low participation of females in educational leadership in the Upper West Region of Ghana precisely in the Wa Municipality. Only ten senior high school female education leaders were used for the study. The study also addressed only the aspiration of females' involvement in educational leadership position, trend of females' participation in educational leadership positions, challenges that draw back females from actively involving in educational leadership and traditional beliefs and cultural practices in the society that affect women's participation in the educational leadership in the Municipality.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Any research study has its own limitations and this study is no exception.

There are twenty-four (24) senior high schools in upper west region but the study was restricted to only female educational leaders in ten (10) public senior high schools in Wa Municipality in the Upper West region of Ghana when there are a lot of more senior high schools in the region. So, the result of the study is only applicable to the selected senior high schools with female educational leaders and cannot be extended to other senior high schools in different Municipalities and Districts in the region since other senior high schools were not covered by the study.

The study was limited by the fact that it was difficult for the researcher to get all the questionnaires back from the teachers. For instance, the unwillingness of some of the respondents to return the questionnaire in time delayed the response rate. This actually reduced the targeted sample size of the study. In addition, issues of participant bias could affect the quality of the data.

In addition, the researcher worried that some respondents would find the study rather sensitive, so they would be reluctant to reveal valuable information on factors that affect females' participation on educational leadership in senior high schools in Wa municipality. This was taken care of by the use of multiple methods of data collection such as questionnaires.

More, the researcher took time to explain to the respondents that their valid and thoughtful response would have very determinant worth for the achievement of the objective of the study.

1.9 Organisation of the Study

The research encompasses five chapters and is summarily listed below:

The First Chapter is an introduction which consists of the background of the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, the significance of the study, the limitation of the study, delimitation of the study, and the organisation of the study.

The Second Chapter involves the literature review which deals with other personalities' views about the problem under study.

The Third Chapter focuses on a methodology that talked about the method employed in doing the study. It deals with the research design, population and sampling techniques used in the study. It also consists of the data gathering instrument, validity and reliability, data collection procedure and data analysis as well as ethical considerations.

The Fourth Chapter deals with the presentation of the results or findings of the study.

Finally, the Last Chapter summarises, concludes and gives recommendations for the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter discusses the relevant literature on the area of study. Areas that were looked at include Females and Leadership, Gender and Educational Leadership Discourse, Women's Qualities. The review also looked at the Individual and Societal Factors as Barriers for Women Advancement to Educational Leadership, and Major Factors for low Women Participation in Educational Leadership. It finally discusses how to overcome the Factors for low Women Participation in Educational Leadership

2.1. Definition of Leadership

Although historians and philosophers have been interested in leadership since antiquity, scientific research on the subject didn't start until the 20th century. There are frequently more than 350 definitions of leadership among academics and other writers (W. G. Bennis & Biederman, 2009). The complexity of leadership itself has made it a difficult and elusive problem to solve. Some others have even argued that leadership is really a romantic ideal, possibly based on the delusion that someone will appear and resolve all of our issues (Walumbwa et al., 2008). According to a Google search of leadership-related papers and books, leadership has probably been described in a variety of ways. Here are a few additional definitions that are representative of the field. It seen as interpersonal influence that is used in communication to promote goal achievement. Again, the extra degree of influence over and above rote obedience to orders and directions. Also, an action that prompts others to take similar action or respond similarly. Moreover, the skill of persuading or inspiring others to take

a certain course of action. And, the main dynamic force that propels and directs the organization toward achieving its goal (Fanpada, 2020).

This demonstrates that there is no one definition of leadership, and that it may be exhibited by everyone, not only those in powerful positions. All levels of an organization require leadership, and anybody, even those without a formal leadership position, can exercise it to some extent. According to Harwiki (2013), leadership is the process of encouraging individuals to do tasks to a standard and quality above their norm and doing so voluntarily. Leadership involves influencing people to guide their behavior toward the fulfillment of certain common objectives. Therefore, according to Harwiki (2013), Leadership is a complex activity involving; process of influence, actors who are both leaders and followers, range of possible outcomes, the achievement of goals, and the commitment of individuals to such goals and the enhancement of group co-culture.

Others describe leadership as "the ability to persuade others to pursue the goals the leader thinks are important and desirable," (Kouzes & Posner, 2014). Creating a vision that inspires followers to take action is just one of the many particular tasks that leadership entails. According to (Poperwi, 2018), a leader's ability to sway followers depends on one or more of the following five sources of power: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent. Whereas the first three are formally associated with an organization, the last two are personally associated with a leader. These philosophies emphasized vision and influence as crucial components of leadership.

2.1.1 Leadership: A Feminist Approach

Marshall (1995) claims that the structural-functionalist and dominating male paradigms were the roots of the feminist paradigm. Marshall (1995) also asserts that women who work as

educational administrators are more familiar with teaching, curriculum, and instruction, maybe as a result of their longer experience as moms before they enter the teaching profession. Marshall (1995) argues further that women are not given credit for leadership when they speak, supervise, or lead in ways that are inconsistent with the mainstream paradigm of leadership. According to the study, an eccentric worldview has prejudiced and disadvantaged women who have tried to advance to leadership roles in institutions like schools. (Blackmore, 2013) asserts that a feminist reconstruction of leadership would incorporate women as active participants in the discussion of organizational life and ideals rather than as passive recipients of patriarchal discourse, with an emphasis on the interactions between followers and leaders. According to the researchers, at the very least, the perspective should be one of "empowerment rather than dominance over others."

The strength of a feminist paradigm, according to (Rusch & Marshall, 2006), is that it concentrates on the gaps and empty spaces of dominant cultures, knowledge bases, and behaviors. Feminism may use those places to center itself around women and their experiences, making feminist theory part of current conversations and experiences rather than merely a "add-on" to the dominant culture. According to the study, a lot of female leaders notice differences between the mainstream culture and their personal leadership experiences. They don't necessarily advocate doing away with existing knowledge bases, but rather challenging them and replacing them with discussions and concepts that are more inclusive, democratic, and open. Thinking about leadership from the aforementioned angles offers a genuine picture of the many viewpoints held by people working in schools. It is crucial that female leaders offer a unique perspective and understanding of leadership.

2.1.2 Females and Leadership

Good school management pays more attention to feminine than to masculine leadership styles. Effective administration is more frequently related with female qualities like nurturing, sensitivity, sympathetic, intuition, compromising, caring, cooperation, and accommodativeness. Even while these qualities come naturally and are important, women who are good leaders nonetheless have higher attrition and slower career mobility, especially in educational administration (Porat, 1991). Gender, more than age, experience, background, or competency, determines the job an individual will be assigned in education, according to data on equality of opportunity in educational administration (Whitaker & Lane, 1990). In fact, more women than males exhibit leadership styles linked to efficient performance as leaders, according to a growing body of research on transformational leadership that focuses primarily on women (Eagly, 2007).

Women, unlike men, tend to prioritize relationships and foster a healthy work environment (Johnson & Eagly, 2000). Women are also democratic and participatory. The researchers firmly believe that if this quality of female leadership is unleashed to the school environment and given that females have access to leadership, they will contribute their leadership qualities to the schools. Additionally, authors of well-known leadership books have claimed that the manner in which women led are consistent with effective leadership (Rosener, 1995).

For instance, Rosener (1995) characterized men's leadership as command and control, involving the assertion of authority and the acquisition of power, and women's leadership as interactive, involving collaboration and the empowerment of employees. There aren't enough women in positions of higher leadership, despite claims made by certain writers that women's "effective leadership is attributed to a transformational leadership style that frequently brings

effective leadership" (Eagly, 2007). In this context, extensive research might be done to determine the obstacles that contribute to the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership. Men and women lead in quite different ways, according to many authors. While most modern firms do not need the sort of outmoded leadership that men rely on, Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) listed 25 behaviors that define women's leadership in their book *Megatrends for Women*. The behaviors that are grouped into six main patterns include those that empower, reorganize, instruct, serve as role models, promote openness, and pique curiosity. On the other hand, Gillet-Karam (1999) employed four behaviors: Getskow (1996) lists four types of leadership behaviors for women: (a) a vision behavior, in which they take calculated risks to effect change; (b) a people behavior, in which they care for and respect individual differences; (c) an influence behavior, in which they work cooperatively; and (d) a values behavior, in which they invest time in fostering openness and trust. Women do have the capacities and talents to be outstanding educational leaders, regardless of how their leadership behaviors are defined.

According to Gross and Trask (2006), women principals have a greater understanding of and concern for instructional supervision, supervisors and teachers preferred women over men, and students' academic performance and teachers' professional performance were rated higher under women principals. Supervisors and teachers favored the decision-making and problem-solving behaviors of female administrators, while female principals were more concerned with supporting disruptive students. Technical proficiency and organizational responsibility of teachers were given more weight by female principals as evaluation criteria (Allan, 2012).

2.3 The Concept of Educational Leadership

Educational leadership, according to Donaldson (2006), is the ongoing task of inspiring people to believe in and act in accordance with a common vision that produces high accomplishment for every kid. It is the capacity to encourage individuals to inquire honestly about the outcomes of their efforts, free from fear of criticism and condemnation. In other words, according to Lloyd (2009), educational leadership is largely focused on the educational goal of directing and guiding teaching and learning to enhance educational outcomes for all students. In addition, educational leadership promotes and controls pedagogical objectives and visions that undermine instructional programs in order to support teachers' professional growth for the benefit of students (Lloyd, 2009). Leithwood et al. (2021) makes a further case for educational leadership that improves student results by fostering a culture of learning inside the organization. In addition, he says, "I think that the core work of teachers is seeking to promote quality learning for all children, and that all management tasks serve that core work." What constitutes a successful, high-quality school for the present and the future is a related and critical problem of educational leadership.

Effective leadership is a requirement for school performance (Frost & Harris, 2003). Success of tomorrow's schools will depend on how well leaders can use local resources, foster a sense of purpose, and create a feeling of community. Once more, Bennis (2006) made the case that every successful business is built around good leadership. According to Chapman and Harris (2004), research results from various nations and educational situations have demonstrated the significant role that leadership plays in securing school development and change.

2.4 Gender Associations of Leadership

Perceptions of a woman's ability and success as a leader are influenced by socialization and culture. Eagly (2007) investigated how people made assumptions about leaders based on their gender and found that bias against women and men is consistent with social constructions of gender based on cultural perceptions and influences. Associations form, with men linked with agentic qualities of assertion, self-confidence, and domination and women being connected with community qualities of compassion, affection, and gentleness. When preconceived characteristics of women cross over into the leadership roles they hold, prejudices may result. As a result, favoritism for male leaders over female ones could emerge. Women may be criticized for being either overly soft or too forceful.

According to study on leadership, a woman who leads using actions that are often associated with men may find herself at a disadvantage. A delicate balancing effort is required because feminine women may be viewed as less capable, producing a "double bind" of mutual exclusivity. Hillary Clinton, for instance, who is frequently attacked for adopting an overly masculine leadership style, has also faced criticism for displaying emotion, as evidenced by the time she cried during a question-and-answer session in the 2008 New Hampshire primary (Borrelli, 2011). The idea that women should always be courteous is influenced by cultural norms. Furthermore, discrimination frequently arises when a gender role and a leadership role are inconsistent, which may explain why it is harder for women than for males to hold leadership positions and be successful.

2.5 Gender and Leadership Styles

Another issue that has been extensively studied is how gender affects leadership style. A significant portion of this research focused on the more popular distinction between interpersonally-oriented styles, also known as consideration, and task-oriented styles, also

known as initiation of structure, as well as the dimensions of democratic versus autocratic (similar to the dimensions of participative and directive). An earlier meta-analysis of gender and leadership style by (Johnson & Eagly, 2000) looked at research contrasting men and women's task and interpersonal styles, as well as democratic and autocratic styles. Both the existence and lack of differences between men and women were supported by data.

The use of democratic or participatory leadership styles was shown to be significantly different for men and women, despite the authors' conclusion that the general search for sex differences in leader style was not demonstrated. According to their study, female leaders are less directive than male ones. According to (Druskat, 1994) study on the relationship between gender and leadership in the Roman Catholic Church, both men and women leaders were judged to demonstrate more transformational leadership behaviors than transactional leadership behaviors. However, it was shown that men leaders exhibited much more transactional behaviors than women leaders and that men leaders significantly more transformative behaviors. The researcher also stated that women leaders demonstrate feminine leadership characteristics in settings with only women. According to Smith et al. (2004), women are more transformative than men. This finding raises the possibility that preconceptions connected with transformational leadership may be less disparaging of women leaders than stereotypes associated with other leadership philosophies. Additionally, women may favor a transformational leadership style because it gives them a way to get past the problem of role incongruity, which is that adhering to their gender role can make it more difficult for them to fulfill the demands of their leadership role.

2.5.1 Task-oriented, Interpersonally-oriented, and Autocratic Democratic Styles

The majority of research done before to 1990 in the long-standing tradition of leadership style research distinguished between task-oriented style or initiation of structure and interpersonally oriented style or consideration (Eagly, 2007). The difference between leaders who (a) act democratically and encourage subordinates to engage in decision-making and (b) act autocratically and forbid such participation was a less well-liked contrast. Eagly and Johnson (2009) looked examined 162 research that compared women and men on pertinent variables to analyze sex differences and similarities in these approaches.

More specifically, in this research, women showed relatively interpersonally focused and democratic styles whereas men showed relatively task-focused and autocratic styles. In contrast, gender inequalities in organizational research that looked at management styles were less pronounced. The propensities of male and female managers to exhibit interpersonally and task-oriented styles were similar. Eagly and Johnson (1990), based on analyses of their extensive database, came to the conclusion that gender stereotypic sex differences in leadership behavior were less common in organizational studies than in other types of studies because male and female managers were chosen using similar criteria and subjected to similar organizational socialization -forces that tend to equalize the sexes. A sex difference was found among managers only in a small subset of leadership behaviors measured by measures of directive-participative (or autocratic-democratic) tendencies, which are primarily related to the use of authority. These results highlight the importance of comparing research of various types: Any result about the reduction of sex disparities among managers would not have been compelling without the background given by the laboratory and evaluation studies of people not in managerial jobs.

This meta-analysis included some potential explanations for the autocratic-democratic gender gap, including (a) the possibility that women's superior social skills (compared to men's) may have encouraged collaborative, democratic leadership behavior and (b) the possibility that this behavior may have been particularly advantageous for women because it appeased peers and subordinates who might have otherwise been hostile to female leadership. A key finding from Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis was that leaders of both sexes were more task-oriented than their counterparts when their roles were compatible with their gender, that is, when they were defined in relatively masculine terms for male leaders or more feminine terms for female leaders.

2.5.2 Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-faire Styles

In the 1990s, discussions on the differences in leadership styles between men and women gathered steam as a result of new research that sought to pinpoint the leadership philosophies that are particularly suited to the needs of the time (Eagly, 2007). The new focus was on transformational leadership, which is leadership that is focused on the future rather than the present and that builds companies by igniting followers' devotion and inventiveness. According to Bono and Judge (2004), Burns (2006) first introduced the transformational leadership approach and Bass (1985) expanded on it. Establishing oneself as an example by winning the confidence and trust of followers is a key component of transformational leadership. Even when their firm is generally successful, transformational leaders set future goals, create plans to reach those goals, and innovate. Such leaders assist followers in realizing their potential and making a greater contribution to their organization by mentoring and empowering them. According to the research of Rosener (1995), men are more likely than women to describe themselves in terms of transactional leadership. Rosener claims that male executives regard their employees' work as a series of exchanges with their staff, swapping incentives for good

work or punishment for subpar work. Male leaders are said to be more prone to exercise the official authority and power that come with their organizational positions.

In his study, female leaders portrayed themselves in ways that are typical of transformational leadership-getting followers to trade in their own self-interest for the good of the group by caring about a bigger objective. Rosener (1995), described female leadership as interactive leadership. Rosener argues that the reason she refers to women's leadership as "interactive leadership" is because they actively seek to make interactions with their subordinates productive for all parties. In the words of Rosener (1995), "women foster participation, share power and information, enhance other people's sense of self-worth, and get other people excited about their work".

Transformational leaders are those who appeal to subordinates' self-interest by forging trade connections with them, according to leadership studies (Eagly, 2007). In traditional management terms, transactional leadership entails defining subordinates' tasks, rewarding them for achieving goals, and correcting them when they don't. Researchers also identified a laissez-faire style, which is characterized by a general failure to assume management responsibility. In general, (Eagly, 2007) meta-analysis showed that, when compared to male leaders, female leaders were (a) more (significant overall and on all but one subscale) and (b) engaged in more contingent reward behaviors, which are one aspect of transactional leadership and involve exchanging rewards for followers' satisfactory performance.

Additionally, male leaders demonstrated two other aspects of transactional leadership more frequently than female leaders: active management by exception (addressing followers' errors and failures to meet standards) and passive management by exception (waiting for issues to get

worse before intervening). Men also scored higher on laissez-faire leadership, which is characterized by widespread disengagement and absence.

Eagly (2007) claims that because researchers created these styles in an effort to discover effective leadership, gender differences in transformational and transactional leadership do have consequences for female advantage claims. Substantiating these claims, a meta-analysis of 39 studies showed positive correlations between effectiveness and all components of transformational leadership as well as the contingent reward component of transactional leadership, the one aspect of transactional leadership on which women exceeded men (Eagly, 2007).

The worming study of the MLQ measure produced similar effectiveness findings (Branche, 2014), and in addition, showed negative relations between leaders' effectiveness and two of the remaining measures: (a) passive management by exception, which is one of the components of transactional leadership, and (b) laissez-faire leadership. In view of these findings, the tendency of women to exceed men on the components of leadership style that relate positively to effectiveness (i.e., transformational leadership and the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership) and the tendency of men to exceed women on the ineffective styles (i.e., passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership) attest to women's abilities. Thus, research on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles does suggest female advantage, albeit a small advantage.

2.6 Women's Qualities

The research and literature cited to this point in this review confirm that women have long been denied their rightful place in administrative positions. If women should in fact be in leadership

positions, is it fair to ask, "Do they have what it takes?" "Do they have qualities that contribute to success as a principal?" I believe it is and I believe the answer is women not only have what it takes to be in leadership positions, they have what it takes to do such jobs well.

Characteristics that have been traditionally viewed as being "female" have long been regarded as being less valued than those characteristics traditionally associated with males. Terms such as nurturing, sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative are often used when referring to women. Rather than seeing these qualities as being "weak", however, some current leadership theories celebrate this "feminine" model of leadership. Mahoney (1993) says that school environments led by females tend to have a teaching and learning focus, are less concerned with standardized achievement, and tend to be close communities where individuals feel cared about. Mahoney (1993), mentions that empowerment is the main goal of feminist style leadership.

Women seem to be used to empowering people, talking to people and allowing them to decide. Many women do not tend to lead by the once favoured autocratic "bossing" style, but rather by inspiring and empowering people to find solutions to problems. Helgesen (1994) in her insightful book, *The Female Advantage: Women's 38 Ways of Leading*, studied the strategies and organization theories of our successful female leaders. Helgesen (1994) proposes that there are several differences in the ways men and women typically approach management. Women see themselves at the center of a network, or "web of inclusion", where communication, or the flow of information throughout the organization, is so vital. They are concerned with keeping relationships in good standing, and are able to pace themselves and integrate their work and home life. Women exhibit strengths in planning and communication, human relations and skills, and the ability to focus on ends as well as means. Women's experiences and expectations

as women and mothers, in addition to their acquired management and human relations skills, often make them better managers (Helgesen, 1994).

Helgesen (1994) also discusses how women use the metaphor of voice to depict their intellectual and ethical development. She concludes that women's ways of leading emphasize the role of voice over that of vision. A vision may exist alone in the mind of person and can be a vision without being communicated to anyone else. But a voice cannot be a voice unless someone is there to hear it; it finds its form in the process of interaction.

This suggests that women engage in two-way processes of communication by listening and speaking; a process in interaction and interconnectedness, rather than the quest for authority and autonomy. Shakeshaft (1989) documents the strengths that women offer educational systems: "Women enter education with clear educational goals, supported by a value system that stresses service, caring, and relationships". Women are seen to spend more time interacting with students and staff, more time in discussion about programming, viewing their job from the perspective of master-teacher or educational leader as opposed to a managerial-industrial perspective. Their democratic, participatory style of communicating and decision-making leads to a greater sense of community and inclusiveness. Shakeshaft (1989) further explains that women's commitment to education is evidenced by their academic preparation and increased membership in professional associations; their greater knowledge of teaching methods and techniques, and their focus on teaching and learning, methods, techniques, programs and progress that stress achievement within a supportive atmosphere. Because women enter administration later than men, and have generally taught longer than men, female administrators not only have more experience in the classrooms, but they also have more knowledge of curriculum, qualities that are vital for an administrator.

(Marshall, 1995) summarize extensive research documenting female leaders' strengths in management and teaching and their emphasis on instructional leadership. In a study of 142 female educators aspiring to positions of leadership, the authors note "an overriding concern for children's welfare propels the women in this study to become school leaders." Similarly, Gaskell (1992) work shows women tend to be more nurturing, less hierarchical and more consultative as administrators. Women are capable in the areas needed to strengthen our educational organizations.

Research in the United States has shown that in schools and districts with female administrators, achievement scores in reading and math are higher, there is less violence, and staff morale is higher (Mahoney, 1993). Schuster (1997), in a national study in the U.S., reported data from 183 superintendents in 1986 and compared data from a survey of 762 superintendents in 1984. Female superintendents scored significantly higher than their male counterparts on every measure: better academic preparation, more knowledge of literature, more hours spent on the job, and more teaching experience. (Brandt, 1992) summarizes this nicely when he states, "that while women are under-represented in principal ships, they are over-represented in successful principal ships".

2.7 The Effect of Gender on a Leaders' Effectiveness.

Leader effectiveness surfaced as a key concern when the research on gender and Full Range Leadership was reviewed. As previously indicated, transformational leadership and the use of contingent rewards are styles that are strongly associated with effectiveness (Eagly, 2007). Given these limitations, transformational leadership may be particularly beneficial for women

(Eagly, 2007), as it includes some behaviors that are in line with the expectations of the female gender role for supporting, thoughtful behaviors.

Women may be able to flourish as leaders by using the transformational repertoire and the contingent incentive component of transactional leadership to address some contradictions between the demands of leadership jobs and the gender roles of women. Fortunately, this upbeat, motivating, and inspiring style seems to have universal benefits for modern organizations, which will help women advance as leaders. According to Appelbaum, Auedet, and Miller (2006), this is the case. Women's styles are not at all likely to be less effective; in the context of the team-based, consensually-driven organizational structures that are more common in today's society, they are actually more effective.

Eagly (2003) made an effort to demonstrate how, in various circumstances, the efficacy of male and female leaders differs. These researchers claim that women do better in less traditionally male leadership roles and less traditionally masculine leadership roles, respectively. The observations that followed matched these predictions: Women were significantly less effective than men in military organizations, a setting that is traditionally masculine, but slightly more effective than men in non-military organizations, proving that: (a) women were less effective than men to the extent that leadership positions were male dominated; (b) women were less effective relative to men as the proportion of male subordinates increased; (c) women were less effective relative to men the greater the proportion of men among the rates of leader effectiveness; and; (d) as opposed to line or supervisory posts, middle-level leadership positions saw women perform exceptionally well in terms of effectiveness when compared to men.

According to measures of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style, which were intended to predict effectiveness, the meta-analytic study by Eagly (2003) produced comparable findings to those of prior studies, but another pattern emerged. These researchers found that female leaders outperformed male leaders, particularly on the stereotypically female transformational dimension of individualized consideration, and that women also performed better than men on two other transformational leadership subscales and the contingent reward scale for transactional leadership. On the active and passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire subscales, men outperform women.

Eagly (2003) make the following claim based on the study's findings: "It is likely that the greater effectiveness of female managers in this sample of managers reflected the negative relationships between passive management by exception and the laissez-faire styles to effectiveness and the positive relationships between transformational and contingent reward to effectiveness." According to the findings of Ekore and Attah (2007), "Sex role expectations have a significant influence on perceived work performance among employees in multinational corporations in Nigeria". Particularly, it was discovered that workers with male expected features outperformed those with female expected characteristics in terms of performance. The researchers discovered that experience on the job considerably influences performance among the personnel used in this research work, despite this finding not being the research's main finding.

2.7 Major Factors for Low Females' Participation in Educational Leadership

Several research studies in this section demonstrate the factors behind women's poor participation in educational leadership. Female administrators in educational leadership, for example, are underrepresented as a gender despite accounting for the majority of the teaching

profession (Gregory, 2000). They mention many factors connected to organizational and human factors as reasons for their underrepresentation.

2.7.1. Organizational Factors

Since the middle of the 1980s, research have shown that women still feel that stereotypes of women held by school board members and superintendents constitute a barrier. According to reports, some enduring stereotypical and incorrect beliefs maintained by gatekeepers about women include their alleged incapacity to handle funds, supervise other adults, discipline students, or function in a political context (Folmar, 1989). Many school board members, search consultants, search committee members, working administrators, and private individuals, according to Young and McLeod (2001), "continue to believe old myths that have prevented women from becoming educational leaders in the past."

Concerns regarding whether or not a woman can perform the task are related to presumptions about suitable activities. For instance, the school board can lack faith in a female superintendent's ability to supervise the construction of a new facility, so when she succeeds, the board is taken aback. Logan and Scollay (1999) also discovered that people still believed that women were incapable of handling discipline in the classroom. According to Skrla et al.(2004), school boards and other administrators think women are flexible. The school board's image of female superintendents as being simple to manage just because they are female is what the writers referred to as having malleable personalities. If it turns out that women are not flexible, women will respond far more negatively than males will. The majority of studies come to the conclusion that the primary obstacles to women's career progression are external to them. Organizational and structural impediments are cited by the Glass Ceiling Commission as the main obstacles to women moving up the corporate ladder (Wood, 2005). According to Berman

(1999), organizational systems, particularly job assignment, are structured to make it difficult for women to reach the highest administrative levels.

The fundamental requirement for women's career advancement to the leadership position in the school as an organization is thought to be job assignment. Women's potential for upward mobility is "steered away" by organizational structure by restricting them to jobs that are seen as "Women's occupations." To this purpose, employment in functional areas or a vital job assignment that results in the completion of important organizational tasks is the quickest route to the top management level (Berman & Davis-Berman, 2009). Men run or manage the schools, while women are there to instruct the students. The terms "teacher" and "principal" are typically used to refer to females and males, respectively (Greyvenstein, 2000).

From the perspective of the researcher, this is the customary presumption that allowed men to hold positions of privilege in educational leadership while undercutting female instructors in such leadership. Yes, females can lead if given the chance to do so in the classroom. It follows that research has been male-gendered because men have historically held the majority of leadership roles in all fields (Enomoto et al., 2000). In this sense, organizational theory and research developed a bias against men and their ways of knowing. Acker (2010) also pointed out that the early research on teachers' careers either ignored gender disparities or attempted to explain them by blaming women for them. It is therefore conceivable to understand how the management profession itself may be considered to be male gendered and infused with the "culture of masculine" (Acker, 2010).

2.7.1.1. Sex Discrimination and Working Conditions

According to Morgan et al. (1981), "discrimination" is the act of treating someone or a group in a derogatory or unfair manner. Naturally, discrimination frequently results from prejudice. However, prejudiced individuals occasionally fail to act in accordance with their attitudes, either due to a lack of opportunity or out of fear. Because they are the weaker sex, women are frequently the ones who are more prone to remain silent when discrimination occurs out of fear of damage or additional victimization. Men continue to be the main obstacle for women in management, according to Ouston (1993), who puts the subject of gender discrimination into perspective.

Despite some advances, traditional sexist beliefs remain widespread and constitute a genuine, not hypothetical, obstacle to women's advancement. Discrimination based on presumptions of disparities between men and women is wrong and immoral because people are inherently capable of learning. In other words, just as men may learn to adapt to new circumstances, so too are women gifted with the capacity to learn as members of the human species. Further illuminating, Enomoto et al. (2000) makes a compelling case that "leadership in dynamic organizations and schools is a shared phenomenon." Schools may be exceptional venues for increasing possibilities for leadership if we believe that almost everyone has some leadership ability.

Women are undoubtedly included in this perspective. Strong democratic beliefs-beliefs that are further grounded in and supported by such persuading viewpoints as, for instance, the claim that "there is something peculiar to human beings and common to human beings without distinction of class, race, or sex, which lies deeper than all differences"-lay the foundation for equality rather than discrimination (Dowling, 2007). Unfairness is present when discrimination

against women is based on unproven theories and assumptions. Women's impressions of the desirability of administration are shaped by the elements of administrative labor as well as the real and perceived male-defined surroundings in which many women administrators must operate.

According to women's perceptions of leadership, Enomoto et al. (2000) discovered that women experienced greater workplace stress than men did when working in a predominately or traditionally male context. Skrla et al. (2004) described organizational settings where men dissuaded women by intimidating them and keeping quiet. Name-calling, rumors, and outright lying were among the intimidating strategies and actions used by board members and community members. Furthermore, male subordinates intimidated and even made it clear that they did not want to work under a woman.

This conclusion was backed up by Logan and Scollay (1999) in research on educational leadership. In his study, (Lange, 2018) found that higher rank male coworkers were guilty of sexual bribery and had harassed women in the workplace. Personal silence regarding gender issues while in the supervisory position and the sense of not being heard were examples of silence as a type of sexism.

The women teachers Hewitt (1989) investigated were dissuaded from seeking for administrative jobs due to their comprehension of what a principal's duties included. They didn't see this definition as being adaptable or susceptible to social construction. When selecting to become principals, Coleman (2003) study of principals found that supportive work conditions were crucial. Women preferred to remain in the classroom rather than move into administration, according to Wynn and Brown (2008) research of teachers with leadership

skills, in part because of their unfavorable opinions of the principal's position. They named one of the detrimental aspects of the principalship as student discipline.

2.7.1.2. Stereotypical Sex Roles and Socialization

New leaders are assimilated into the official and informal conventions, as well as the implicit presumptions, of a school or a district through the process of organizational socialization. Traditional stereotypes portray women as socially awkward leaders; thus, they confront more difficulties, becoming integrated into the organization (Hart, 1995) ascribed women's lack of success in reaching higher levels of leadership in schools to an excess of the "cultural message of female inferiority within male systems". As a result of this marginalization, women are not only expected to "behave like men," but also evaluated on how "womanly" they are.

Additionally, according to (Hill & Ragland, 1995), coworkers could comment that "the man is firm, but the female is stub-born," and school boards are more likely to give women superintendents a bad review if they exhibit decisiveness, assertiveness, and directness (Bell & Chase, 1995). Wynn and Brown (2008) noted that cultural assumptions that women work on an emotional level are another example of sexism. According to (Langford, 1995), it is believed that women cannot make rational, natural decisions because they are intuitive (similar to the emotional work reaction).

These findings were reinforced by (Kamler & Brunner, 1999), who noted the fallacy that "women are too emotional and can't see things rationally and that affects their decision making". According to Christman (2013) research, there is a social atmosphere that discourages women from holding administration roles. Perhaps as a result of this "unexpectedness," socializing women into the field is more challenging than it is for males. The

male predominance of the profession, according to Christman (2013), is one of the factors contributing to the challenging socialization process. Negative perceptions about being a woman and then about one's ethnic background have been linked in studies of women (Christman, 2013).

2.7.1.3. Hiring Practice and Recruitment

The culture of an organization and the underlying gender stereotypes have a significant impact on how decisions about hiring, promoting, and compensating women leaders are made (Howard & Wellins, 2009). Employers may ignore brilliant applicants or restrict their access to the talent pool as a result of these presumptions and biases. The recruiting and recruitment processes, as well as job assignment, training, and promotion activities, all provide obstacles for women seeking leadership positions (Palermo, 2004).

These presumptions include the notion that, as a result of their greater domestic and caring obligations, women are less motivated to pursue careers and are less loyal to their employers (Howard & Wellins, 2009). Women are excluded from leadership positions due to gender stereotypes (Piterman, 2008). According to research, employers shy away from hiring women. Women are relegated to minor roles that do not lead to positions of power and are less likely to be considered for leadership positions.

Women are not given demanding assignments or encouraged to take on operational roles that may propel them into influential positions. For women seeking principalship, recruitment issues, particularly in particular the screening and appointment process, have been cited as a major roadblock. Sinclair (2011) claims that one of the issues is how leadership behavior is defined: When women display behaviors that, in a man, would be considered leadership

behaviors, they are viewed as less than, or not leaders at all. According to Rhodes (2012), women's lack of mentors and access to unofficial networks of contacts and guidance is the cause of them under recognition. This supports Ehrich (2000) claim that women continue to face a shortage of mentoring opportunities across a range of fields, including business, academia, and education. Ehrich (2000) identifies the role of the recruiting and hiring committee on selection panels as one of the "gatekeepers to leadership" with reference to women who are interested in becoming primary school principals.

The interviewer's influence, who is typically a non-educationalist, as well as local community members who may also be non-educationalists, are unpredictable factors for candidates. Although it might seem reasonable to assume that lay women would have taken the place of women when principal ships were available, records indicate a rise in the number of men appointed. In conclusion, socialization and gender stereotypes, personal obstacles, and organizational or systemic obstacles all work together to make it more challenging for women to be appointed to principalship. They believe it will be difficult to maintain their authenticity and create shared leadership cultures. This significant roadblock prevents women from moving beyond low-paying employment.

These actions maintain the presence of low-paying, immobile female employment ghettos in combination with the difficulties of changing career trajectories while hired in an organization (O'Farrell & Harlan, 1982). Access to ladders is determined by hiring procedures for entry-level employment. Complex organizations have numerous job ladder subsystems (pipelines), each of which has its own set of rules and processes (Osterman, 1995). Typically, employers seek candidates for a certain position inside their organization. Recruitment techniques for entry-level non-management and non-professional occupations rely on traditional sources that

provide a homogeneous group of applicants, just like in hiring decisions. Similar to this, women are supplied by business colleges and vocational education programs to meet the need for clerical workers from firms (Vetter, 2009).

Another typical method for people to learn about entry-level jobs is through their personal networks of friends and family. In the "internal labour market" of companies, employers govern recruiting, promotion, and wage systems using administrative rules and procedures (Osterman, 1995). The idea of the "pipeline" for professional advancement can be more formally and precisely analyzed using the "internal labour market" theory. An "internal labour market" is best described as a job ladder that connects rungs in a logical progression of skill, knowledge, and experience gained on the job. Who is qualified to advance and how promotions are made are governed by formal criteria. External obstacles to women's career advancement are commonplace.

Timpano (1976) claims that eligible women are excluded through the use of "filtering methods" in sex discrimination. Timpano (1976) uses a variety of filtering techniques, such as: «Recruiting filters» that limit job postings to "within the district" when few or no women are certified as administrators; «Application filters» that suggest a candidate for a top administrative position apply for a lower administrative or teaching position; and «Selection criteria filters» that use dual selection criteria by allowing men to skip one or more career ladder rungs but requiring women to move up one or more career ladder rungs.

According to data and research, there is sexual prejudice in hiring procedures for school administration, whether it is overt or covert (Timpano, 1976). Mahoney (1993) arguing that it is more likely that a male will be selected over a woman on such selection panels when both candidates are equally qualified. Women must deal with selection criteria, overt discrimination,

and expectations of dual job roles in addition to these "filters" (Cairns, 1975). Lack of female role models, community opposition, and a lack of experience working in a central office were all identified by Dopp and Sloan (1986) as common external barriers to women seeking to become superintendents.

More information on the subject is provided by Shapiro (1987), who contends that a lack of networks, a lack of role models, low levels of encouragement for women to pursue administrative positions, and discriminatory hiring and promoting practices are significant obstacles for women looking for administrative positions in school systems. The recruiting process, which continues to be mostly subjective and targeted at people who seem to belong to the "old boys" network, is one of the external hurdles that reinforces the status quo. According to Pigford and Tonnsen (1993), the "Old Boy's Network" has been utilized to hire, develop, and replace men in administrative positions.

The "locker room discussions" where these networks are formed, when informal choices and significant contacts are made, are not open to women. Women frequently do not receive the same level of incentive to apply for administrative positions due to this lack of networks. Men are claimed to frequently serve as "gatekeepers" to the industry, keeping women out: The likelihood is that a man will be favoured over a woman throughout all stages of preparation, from encouraging teachers to apply for administration posts to the final selection of administrative applicants (Henderson, 1998). Researchers have also looked at educational institutions and the reasons why advancement for women in this field of study may be constrained.

Anti-nepotism policies are common in academic institutions, as Watkins (1998) notes. Due to the fact that husbands are typically hired first and that many organizations prevent hiring of

any relative, these policies appear to be disproportionately biased against women. The absence of role models has been mentioned as an obstacle in addition to biased hiring practices and a lack of networks. Women may not even consider applying for administrative positions because they lack access to many suitable role models (Cooper-Jackson, 2001). "Women's paths into administration are often unplanned and unexpected," (Restine, 1993). The presence of female role models will undoubtedly inspire other young hopefuls to emulate them.

Coleman (2003) explains the obstacles to women's job advancement as limitations brought on by socially prescribed responsibilities outside of the workplace. The limitations taken into consideration in this regard result from socially imposed expectations that women will handle domestic duties, including childcare. Schmuck discusses the "gender overlay" in schools that discreetly favors young male teachers, as described by Coleman (2003). Young males tend to be given more opportunities to serve on committees and, as a result, start to "exhibit those qualities that will recommend them for further responsibility" (Coleman, 2003).

For instance, male principals engage more with young male instructors than young female teachers. Additionally, Coleman (2003) notes that male teachers can gain more from informal "mentoring" than their female counterparts. Male principals frequently support male educators. In addition, men predominate on a large number of school boards and selection committees.

2.7.2. Barriers to Female Advancement in Educational Leadership Stem from Both Personal and Societal Factors

Internal or psychological barriers are described as "those that can be overcome by individual change whereas external barriers require social and institutional Change" (Shakeshaft, 1989). Lack of confidence, drive, and aspirations; insufficient training and experience; socialization;

and gender stereotypes are a few of the internal obstacles cited by women. We'll go over each of these in more detail.

2.7.2.1. Lack of Confidence or a Poor View of Oneself

Women are underrepresented in leadership roles in education, and this is sometimes attributed to low self-esteem, lack of confidence, lack of desire, or lack of aspiration. According to certain data, women are less confident when seeking for promotions and, in contrast to their male coworkers, they only submit applications for positions for which they are fully qualified (Shakeshaft, 1989). Shakeshaft (1989) cited research to support the idea that women typically receive less constructive criticism than men in the workplace.

As a result, it is hypothesized that they are less able to handle critical remarks, taking them personally in the process and enabling their confidence to suffer unnecessarily. The social structure of society, not the psychology of women, is typically to blame for the injustices, according to some, who argue that these psychological, internal, or inherent impediments are rarely more prominent for women than for males (Shakeshaft, 1989). Systemic impediments may impede women from pursuing their aspirations for leadership positions, despite the fact that they may have them.

Women's lack of credentials and experience have frequently been blamed for their underrepresentation in educational leadership, despite the fact that research has repeatedly shown how false this claim is. Women's lack of qualifications may have been a problem in the past. The fact that more women are attending graduate school, though, suggests that their confidence, motivation, and qualifications have grown. Unfortunately, even if there are more and more women who are more competent for the role, this does not always guarantee them

jobs in the administrative sector. Studies cited in the article "Women and Educational Administration: Certified, But Not Employed" by O'Grady (1997) show that there are roughly as many women enrolled in graduate programs in educational administration as there are men. However, other data show that not as many women hold administrative roles as males do. O'Grady (1997). Study revealed that one significant barrier to women being employed in administrative positions despite having administration qualifications was women's reluctance to seek for those positions. They also stated that they loved their current jobs and had no interest in working in administration. Due to worries about their families or a lack of confidence, it appears that some highly skilled women have mentally accepted a secondary role in their field (O'Grady, 1997).

Women who want to work in administration are more likely than women who already work in administration to have reduced expectations or lack of confidence. In their research on women who wanted to be administrators, Brown and Irby (2001) discovered a pronounced lack of self-confidence. Hewitt (1989) found that female secondary school teachers who were nominated for the position of principal but decided against it showed no evidence of low self-esteem or lack of confidence. Markos et al. (1998) noted that female administrators rarely view themselves as experts and frequently express lack of confidence about seeing themselves at the top, but Lutz (1990) found no evidence of this internal barrier among the women superintendents she studied.

Enomoto et al. (2000) discovered that the superintendent aspirants in her study had a high level of confidence in their skills and credentials for running school systems. In a similar vein, 40% of women in top central office positions, according to Brunner and Grogan (2005), feel qualified to hold district leadership posts. Low self-esteem and a lack of confidence may not

be the same as leadership identity, which is the sentiment of belonging to a certain group of leaders or level of leadership and of feeling relevant within that group (Brown & Irby, 2001). Lack of leadership identity may result in feelings of alienation and exclusion (Christman, 2013).

Markos et al. (1998) found that women lack a feeling of themselves as leaders and believe that they have a longer way to go in building this leadership identity than do males in their research on superintendents and aspiring superintendents. Instead of low self-esteem, it's possible that this lack of a leadership identity contributes to the idea that women need to gain more knowledge, education, and classroom experience before applying for administrative positions (Brunner & Grogan, 2005). Maybe it's the fact that a woman must be more qualified than the male she is bidding against for a job in order to be treated equally.

2.7.2.2. Family and Domestic Duties

Early factors that contributed to women's lack of administrative success included family and home obligations, location-bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or a misalignment of personal and organizational goals, either because of restrictions placed by family obligations placed on women aspirants or because employers believed that women would be hampered by family responsibilities. The reality-based factor of family responsibility, which Shakeshaft (1989) identified as a barrier for women seeking administrative positions, was identified in the study as one reason why female teachers were not choosing to go into administration (Kamler & Brunner, 1999).

Hewitt (1989) noted that the role's intricacies and tensions, the workload, and the requirement to attend a significant number of meetings outside of school hours all had an influence on

personal and family life. These issues interfere with the time and space that principals want to set apart for themselves and their families and limit it. It appears that a growing number of senior executives are reevaluating how much being a principal allows them to keep a desired balance between the various aspects of their lives.

2.7.2.3. Cultural and Social Norms that are Gendered

The cultural and sociological framework that divides society into male and female spheres is a significant barrier for women seeking leadership roles in schools. Assuming that one must act in accordance with the social expectations of one's gender, ingrained norms inscribed in the culture of many developing nations (such as Turkey, China, and Islamic countries) assign specific tasks and spheres of responsibility to each gender (Sidani, 2005).

In this perspective, positions of leadership "belong" to men in society, and women should not make an effort to fill these roles. If not, they may be subject to a range of social penalties, such as less opportunities to get married (Cubillo & Brown, 2003). For instance, women have long played subordinate roles in public and at home in traditional Chinese culture (Sidani, 2005). In many developing nations, the cultural and social presumption that women are weaker than men and can't take executive roles is prevalent (Calvert, 2012). The majority of cases, as explained by Schultz (2013), still involve women being bound to their homes, which are thought to be places where they can achieve ceremonial and spiritual purity.

If a woman achieves this purity-which many still think can be attained to a great extent solely in the house, through domestic activities-she can advance to the next spiritual level and have a second chance at life as a man. Women in developing nations sometimes face obstacles to career advancement because of ingrained cultural and religious ideals that define femininity in

terms of marriage, housework, and childrearing. The lack of influence held by Pakistani women principals serves as an example of this problem; women serve as principals in the majority of the non-government schools in this nation, while men hold the majority of the governing board positions (Kirk & Shutte, 2004). Few women have been socialized to have a clear notion of a career path to develop their leadership qualities (O'Grady, 1997). They have also been excluded from the assistance, chances, and experiences available to men. The results of O'Grady (1997) study imply that there is still a psychological barrier-possibly even a subliminal occupational ceiling-that stops women from actively pursuing success in non-traditional jobs like school administration.

As a result, women are proportionately less likely than males to apply for administrative posts, which tends to hide their skills and disqualify them from competition in a wider occupational field (O'Grady, 1997). Additional internal obstacles for women have been identified as socialization and gender stereotypes. Mahoney (1993) as claiming that social expectations, parental supervision, and self-aspiration limit women's potential. Women are trained to assist and nurture others as they take on the traditional role of mother and caregiver of the home, whereas men are more frequently socialized to persevere and pursue professional success (Brown & Irby, 2001).

Men can also be classified as intellectually interested while women are nosy. Given these mindsets, it is understandable why it has been challenging for women to break through the glass ceiling and take managerial roles in higher education. Women must be given the freedom to develop their strengths (Mahoney, 1993). Female principals cannot be exact replicas of their male colleagues. The time has come to examine each person's advantages and determine how those advantages might help both men and women become the instructional leaders that our

schools sorely need. Ethiopian society is patriarchal in culture. It depicts women as being beneath males, and the labor is divided in stereotyped ways. It can be challenging for women to establish themselves when applying for jobs outside the home because they are perceived as deviants if they don't do domestic duties. Women also perform the majority of the productive roles in homes and almost all of the reproductive roles. The average Ethiopian woman works 15 to 18 hours per day, although her labor has never been compensated financially (Unicef, 1998). Additionally, women take on jobs in community management, which are typically voluntary and unpaid. This is frequently cited as justification for why women don't have the time to take on leadership roles outside of the home. These and other barriers prevent women from reaching their leadership potential and fully utilizing the supportive environment the national women policy has helped to build.

2.8 Overcoming the Barriers that Prevent more Women from holding Leadership positions in Education

This literature study has so far placed a significant amount of emphasis on both internal and external factors that affect the representation of women in educational leadership. While some of these obstacles are still present, others of them are starting to fall. There are a variety of ways to get through those obstacles, and having a mentor for female aspirants is one of them. According to Holt (2008), the single most significant aspect in an administrator's career advancement may be mentors, both male and female.

The phrase "mentors can suggest strategies for career mobility, open doors, initiate contact, and make recommendations". Despite the advantages of mentoring, research has shown that there aren't many male or female mentors available for women. When men serve as mentors, they frequently choose other guys or those who are most like them as their protégés (Coleman,

2003). According to Fleming (2004), one reason why mentoring may not be easily available to women is that they don't "fit" into the comfort zone of male mentors. Another reason could be that women are still viewed as the unknown and by some men are not seen as loyal or trustworthy, making them potentially very dangerous for the mentor. Fleming (2004) notes that the sexual connotation associated with this relationship or the potential of actual sexual harassment in the form of sexual bribery is another issue with men picking women as their protégés. Additionally, studies suggest that male teachers may gain more from informal mentoring than their female counterparts.

Clearly, mentoring when it occurs is one approach to remove the obstacles that women confront, but it is not a straightforward process. Networking is another method of overcoming obstacles that is recommended in the literature. Networks offer a growing number of personal and professional references that might help promote women as job prospects. Networks can share information via newsletters or word-of-mouth regarding systems with job opportunities and contacts, as well as providing guidance on the advantages of positions, salaries, and the background of school boards (Rees, 1999).

For exposure, knowledge, advice, and moral support as they pursue their jobs, women must actively seek networks with both men and other women (Rees). There are numerous networks in America, including Women in School Administration (WISA) and Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (SEEL). The Federation of Women Teachers' Association (FWTA) in Canada offers a variety of networking opportunities, including conferences, resource manuals, newsletters, and seminars to help people become ready for various leadership roles. The Canadian Teachers' Federation also hosts an annual conference on the status of women. Women "need time to grow together professionally and to learn from other women," according

to Irby and Brown (1998) in their study of women's support organizations. According to Schmuck, who was mentioned by Irby and Brown (1998), getting together with other same-sex people from different racial and ethnic backgrounds is something special and joyous. The companionship, the underlying assumptions that are shared, and the reveal of one's experience that is understood are perhaps some of the most compelling and potent experiences that women have in conferences and workshops for women (Brown & Irby, 2001). Another option for women to get past obstacles in the way of climbing the administrative ladder is to obtain academic degrees. There is evidence that more women than ever are enrolling in graduate programs.

Women's hurdles can be reduced in part through preparing for the position of principal, particularly at higher education institutions. Hopefully, the rise in female graduate students will have an impact on the severe underrepresentation of women in leadership roles. But keep in mind that Holt (2008) that the outcomes thus far have not been all that promising.

Through employment equality programs or affirmative action measures, there are more formal ways to lower the hurdles that women face while trying to progress in educational leadership. In order for areas of concern, such as a fair and representative work force and equality of treatment and outcome, to become public, employment equity programs entail the systematic monitoring of who holds what occupations (Dotzler, 1993). It is crucial to remember that while admittance can be required by institutions, hiring cannot.

Another method for assisting in the removal of barriers for women is to promote gender equity in the classroom. In compensating educational programs and extracurricular activities, girls are underrepresented. In extracurricular activities like school clubs, texts, department heads, unit leaders, vice principals, and school principals, they are both over- and under-represented

(Dotzler, 1993). Additionally, teachers need to be aware of the "hidden curriculum" and the terrible consequences that gender disparity in the classroom can have on females. A bias-free classroom can be achieved in a number of ways (Adams & Flynn, 2005). Set and enforce guidelines to prevent boys from monopolizing attention and dominating all extracurricular activities is one of them.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter describes techniques, tools and processes used to collect and analyze data for the study. Specifically, the chapter consists of the research design, population sample and sampling technique, research instrument, reliability and validity, Data collection procedure, Data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

The research design involves the intersection of philosophical assumptions, strategies of inquiry and specific methods (Creswell & Plano, 2007). A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2012). The approach used in this study is quantitative in nature. The descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The descriptive survey research design entails a critical observation of events, objects, subjects and ideas without attempt to control the condition of such phenomena (Jongbo, 2014). Again, it is a description of a given state of affairs that exist at a particular time which requires a direct contact with individual whose characteristic, behaviours and attitudes are relevant to the investigation (Jongbo, 2014). This research design was used because it provided information useful to the solution of the problems. It employs application of scientific method by critically analysing and examining the source materials, by analysing and interpreting data, and arriving at generalisation and prediction (Salaria, 2012). The advantage of descriptive research is that it allows the research to be conducted in the natural environment of the respondent and this ensures that high-quality and honest data is collected. The disadvantage is that the respondents

are not always truthful if questions are too personal or they feel that they are being “watched”. This may negate the validity of the data (Salaria, 2012)

3.2 Population

According to Hanlon and Larget (2011), population is entirely the unit or individuals of interest. The population, also known as the target population, refers to the entire group or set of individuals, objects, or events that possess specific characteristics and are of interest to the researcher (Pandey, 2016). Therefore, the target population of this study is staff in twenty-four (24) Senior High Schools in the Wa municipality; specifically, 825 female teachers (that held administrative responsibilities like senior house mistress, head of departments, guidance and counselling coordinator, dining hall in charge, form mistress) in Senior High School and 10 female headmasters and assistants, a total of 835. The accessible population refers to the subset of a larger population that is available and feasible to study.

It represents the portion of the population that can be easily reached and included in a research study (Wenzel & Babbie, 2016). The accessible population is determined by practical considerations such as geographic location, time constraints, financial limitations, and the researcher's ability to access and contact individuals (Neuman, 2014). The accessible population of this study was eight hundred and twenty-five (825) senior high school female teachers (that held administrative responsibilities like senior house mistress, house mistress, head of departments, guidance and counselling coordinator, dining hall in charge, form mistress) and ten (10) female headmasters and assistants in the senior schools within the Wa municipality.

3.3 Sample Size

The study employed the use of random and purposive sampling techniques to obtain data. As a result of this, the researcher selected eight hundred and twenty-five senior high school female teachers and ten female headmasters and assistants as the accessible population and sampled using Singh and Masuku (2014) sampling method. Singh and Masuku (2014) provides a simplified formula to calculate sample sizes. This formula shown below was used to calculate the sample sizes for senior high school female teachers. A 98% confidence level and $P = 0.02$ are assumed.

$$n = N / [1 + N (e)^2]$$

Where n represents required sample size, N indicates sample frame, α represents significance level or error margin. For the sample size to be fairly represented, the sample size is determined at a 98% confidence level (at a 0.02 significance level) for the study.

$$n = \frac{825}{[1 + 825 (0.02)^2]}$$

$$n = \frac{825}{[1 + 825 * 0.0004]}$$

$$n = \frac{825}{1.33}$$

$$n = 620.300 \approx 620$$

The simple random sampling method was used to randomly pick 620 senior high school female teachers and (10) out of the twenty-four (24) senior high schools and all the ten (10) headmasters and assistants were purposively selected from the accessible population for the data collection.

3.3.1 Sampling Technique

Purposive sampling technique is a non-probability sampling technique that is used to select participants based on the characteristics of the population and the objective of the study (Creswell & Plano, 2007). The main objective of purposive sampling is to produce a sample that can be considered “representative” of the population (Battaglia, 2008). The ten out of twenty-four senior high schools and all the ten headmasters and assistants were purposively selected for the study based on their outstanding records, knowledge and performances with respect to their gender inclusiveness and advocacy in the Wa municipality. A random sample in which a researcher creates a sampling frame and uses a pure random process to select cases (Neuman, 2014). In this type of sampling, each member of the population has an equal opportunity of being included in the sample (Bashir, 2017). Random sampling technique was employed to accidentally select a fraction or a reasonable proportion (sample size - 620), which represented 98% of the accessible population (825). This implied that, the simple random sampling method was used to randomly pick 620 senior high school female teachers from the accessible population for the data collection as shown in table 1.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

The instrument used to collect data for the study was questionnaire. A questionnaire is defined as a research instrument that consists a set of questions or other types of prompts that aims to collect information from a respondent (Creswell J. W., 2002). It was chosen because of the nature of this study to get the opinions and views of the respondents. Respondents reply to them on their own free will without any influence from another person; they are easy to be administered within a short time and from the relatively larger groups of people who may be scattered geographically(Cresswell, 2008).

The questionnaire for the respondents were divided into five segments; the first segment dwelt on the social-demographic characteristics of respondents which included age, marital status, number of children, academic qualification and experience. The purpose of these variables was to provide some basic back ground information pertaining to some sample population with the assumption that it might have some kind of relationship with female teachers' participation in school leadership. Section B contained 4 items and elicited information on female teachers' and female headmasters and assistants' knowledge of female teachers' aspirations for position in educational leadership in Senior High Schools. Section C contained 5 items and examined the extent female teachers participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. Section D contained 5 items and elicited information on the main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools. Section E contained 5 items and elicited information on the strategies that are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools. In sections B to E, all the items were closed-ended and on a -point Likert scale. On a five-point Likert scale, respondents were asked to rate the intensity of their responses to each of the items. Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), neutral (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1) were the scores for comments. Attached is the questionnaire at the Appendix A.

3.5 Piloting the Instrument

A pilot study is a small feasibility study designed to test various aspects of the methods planned for a larger, more rigorous, or confirmatory investigation (Arain et al., 2010). One of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated (Van Teijlingen et al., 2001).

The primary purpose of a pilot study is not to answer specific research questions but to prevent researchers from launching a large-scale study without adequate knowledge of the methods proposed. In essence, a pilot study is conducted to prevent the occurrence of a fatal flaw in a study that is costly in time and money (Polit & Beck, 2012). In this study, the instrument was piloted in Namdom Senior High School and Jirapa Senior High School in Namdom and Jirapa municipalities in the Upper West Region of Ghana prior to the main study. The objectives of the pilot study were: The objectives of the pilot study were:

- i. To establish the clarity, meaning and comprehensibility of each item in the tools
- ii. To validate the instruments by cross checking their validity and reliability
- iii. To gain basic administrative experience in conducting the research in preparation for the actual study.

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) asserted that, the accuracy of data to be collected largely depended on the data collection instruments in terms of validity and reliability. Data collected during the pilot study was not use in the final data analysis. The questionnaire was piloted using 30 female teachers that had administrative responsibilities and 5 female headmasters and assistants after which the results from the pilot were used to modify the questionnaire, that the scales were reasonably consistent and reliable. The researcher explained to the female teachers and female headmasters and assistants to appreciate the instruction as to how to fill the questionnaire.

3.6 Validity of Instrument

It is critical that the validity of any instrument used for conducting research is ensured. Validity refers to the degree to which an assessment measures what it is supposed to be measured (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2001). According to Creswell (2008), one form of validity is content

validity which asks, “Do the items measure the content they were intended to measure?” If an instrument does not serve its intended function well, then it is not valid. To address this, the validity of the questionnaire was established through pre-testing as indicated by scholars (Price et al., 2015). This process helped correct all elements of ambiguity in the instruments before its actual usage. The pilot study is used for the pre-testing of the questionnaire. Content validity of the instruments was also determined with the help of the researcher’s supervisor.

3.7 Reliability of Instrument

It is critical the reliability of the research instrument to be guaranteed. Reliability is the extent to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials (Gay & Airasian, 1999). Reliability is usually calculated using a statistic called the Cronbach’s alpha, a coefficient (a number between 0 and 1) that is used to rate the internal consistency (homogeneity) or the correlation of the items in a test. Cronbach alpha is calculated using the formula $\alpha = \frac{nc}{(v+(n-1)c)}$ where n= the number of items, c= average inter-item covariance among items and average inter-item covariance among items; and v = average variance. If a test has a strong internal consistency, most measurement experts agree that it should show only moderate among item (0.70-0.90).

If correlations between items are too low, it is likely that they are measuring different traits and therefore, not all items should be included in a test that is supposed to measure only one trait. If item correlations are too high, it is likely that some of the items included are redundant, and should be removed from the test (Assuah et al., 2016). In this study Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for test items for female teacher, head mistress and assistant head mistress was 0.7 respectively indicating that the internal consistency and reliability of the survey instrument was very good. A value of 0.7 is generally considered reliable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014)

and also Piloting determines whether questions and directions are clear to respondents/subjects and whether they understand what is required from them. Piloting was done to determine the feasibility of using the research instrument in a major study. It provides an opportunity to try out the instructions for completion of the instrument, especially if it is being used for the first time.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

To obtain authorisation to conduct the study, official letters were collected from the department of educational leadership, Akenten Appiah-Menka University of Skills Training and Entrepreneurial Development and sent to the heads of the ten (10) selected senior high schools. The questionnaires were given to 640 female teachers in the ten senior high schools in the municipality. Then ten 10 schools were randomly selected based on their outstanding performances in gender inclusion. The surveys were administered directly to the respondents by the researcher. The researcher described the study's goal as well as any parts of the questionnaire that the respondents found difficult. The questionnaire was delivered to each respondent with enough time to complete it. The questionnaires were completed and collected in four days, resulting in a 100% (640) return rate.

3.9 Data Analysis

According to Kothari (2004), data analysis is a process of editing, coding, classification and tabulation of collected data. Creswell and Plano (2007), explain that data analysis is usually connected and integrated when interpreting data and doing discussion. The respondents' responses to the five Likert- scale type questionnaire items were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25, a software which can be used to analyse data. Respondents agree replies were interpreted as agree, neutral remained as neutral and disagree as disagree.

The data were organised into frequency counts, percentages, and mean and standard deviation scores using the descriptive function of the SPSS. Montcalm and Royse (2002) attested that “registered frequency table, mean and standard deviation are of these four (4) ways in which data can be summarized. Glass and Hopkins (1996) argued that, statistical information could be more easily understood comprehended and interpreted more accurately, if it is organized into tables, mean and standard deviation. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the demographics characteristics of the respondents. Similarly, descriptive statistics was used to analyze the extent to which female teachers aspire for position in the senior high educational institutions, examined if low academic and professional qualifications are limiting factors to women leadership in educational institutions, the major challenges that draw back females from involving in educational leadership, and strategies to put place to promote female teachers’ participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. Mean, Standard deviation and Tables were also used to present the descriptive aspects of the study to enable the researcher achieved the stated objectives.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

On the aspect of consent, before the researcher conducted the study in the schools, the researcher explained the objectives of the research to the Wa Municipal Education Authorities and sought permission to carry out the study in their Senior High Schools. At each school, the informed consent of the heads of the schools and female teachers were obtained before the data collection begun. The researcher also informed the respondents of their right to withdraw when they felt like doing so. Before distributing the questionnaire, the researcher assured the participants that all data collected will be kept securely and treated as confidential. To maintain confidentiality, the schools and all the participants were given anonymous names in the data

analysis and interpretation. Therefore, private data identifying the participants and their schools were not included in the report.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This part presents the analysis of the data gathered from female teachers and headmasters and assistants from senior high schools in the Wa Municipality. This chapter also sectioned into two parts. The first section deals with the descriptive analysis of the socio-demographic background characteristics of female teachers and headmasters and assistants and the second part presents results and discussion based on the selected objectives.

4.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

In order to find out the main factors responsible for low females' participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality, demographic background characteristics were conducted. This includes the ages, marital status, highest academic qualifications, number of children and length of experience of the respondents as indicated in Table 2 below.

Table 1: Demographics characteristics of the respondents

Demographic	Demographic	Frequency	Percentage
Age	18-29	82	13.0
	30-39	170	27.0
	40-49	328	52.1
	50 and above	50	7.9
	Total	630	100.0
Marital Status	Married	491	77.9
	Single	126	20.0
	Divorce	13	2.1
	Total	630	100.0
Number of Children	1-3	391	62.1
	4 and above	145	23.0
	No Child	94	14.9
	Total	630	100.0
Academic Qualification	Diploma	44	7.0
	First Degree	410	65.1
	Masters	176	27.9
	Others	0	0.0
	Total	630	100.0
Experience	1-10	95	15.1
	11-20	246	39.0
	above 21	289	45.9
	Total	630	100.0%

Source: Field Work, 2023

The results as shown in Table 2 above indicates that majority of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants were first degree holders 410 (65.1%), followed by masters' degree of 176 (27.9%) and 44 (7.0%) and 0 (0.0%) for diploma and others respectively, in respect of their educational qualification distribution. This shows that female teachers and headmasters and assistants in the municipality have high educational qualifications.

Their marital distribution show that 491 (77.9%) were within the married female teachers and headmasters and assistants' group while 126 (20.0%) and 13 (2.1%) were within the single and divorce female teachers and headmasters and assistants' group respectively. This indicates that majority of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants were married and can be

confidently relied on for positive parental input. The distribution of length of experience shows that 95 (15.1%) of them have had 1-10 service years in their profession, 126 (20.0%) have had 11-20 service years in their profession and 286 (45.9%) of them have 21 and above service years in their profession. Their experience level show that they have magnificent professional experiences since majority of them fall within 21 and above years of constant service.

Again, table 2 illustrates that 82 (13.0%) of the respondents were within 18-29 years, 170 (27.0%) of the respondents were within 30-39 years, 328 (52.1%) of the respondents were within 40-49 years and 50 (7.9%) of them above 50 years. It can be concluded that majority of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants used in the research were between the ages of 40-49 years. Their number of children distribution show that 391 (62.1%) of female teachers and headmasters and assistants had 1-3 children while 145 (23.0%) and 94 (14.9%) had 4 and above and no child respectively.

This indicates that majority of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants had 4 and above children. With respect to the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, one can suggest that female teachers and headmasters and assistants from senior high schools in the Wa Municipality in the Upper West Region of Ghana were mostly between the ages of 40-49 years and were married. They were literate with wide-ranging of parental experiences and had first degree and master's level of education.

4.2 Research Question one: To what extent do female teachers participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?

Table 2: The extent female teachers participate in educational leadership

Items	Disagree Freq (%)	Neutral Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)	Mean	SD
Females are still the minority as both head and deputy head teachers	7(1.00%)	195(31.00%)	428(68.00%)	3.3	.460
Females’ participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads, department and unit leader)	31(5.00%)	189(30.00%)	410(65.00%)	3.66	.464
High number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position	12(2.00%)	391(62.00%)	227(36.00%)	3.36	.481
Both male and female teachers equally participate in school leadership position	567(90.00%)	63(10.00%)	00(0.00%)	1.81	.592

Source: Field Work, 2023

The results as indicated in Table 3 showed that of the extent female teachers participated in educational leadership. On the first statement: Females are still the minority as both head and deputy head teachers, 7(1.00%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 195(31.00%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 428(68.00%) of the respondents agreed to the statement.

On the second statement: Females’ participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads, department and unit leader), 31(5.00%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 189(30.00%) of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants was neutral with the matter while 410(65.00%) of the respondents agreed to the question. On the third statement: High number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position, 12(2.00%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 391(62.00%) respondents were undecided with the issue while 227(36.00%) of the respondents agreed to the issue. On

the fourth statement: Both male and female teachers equally participate in school leadership position, 567(90.00%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 63(10.00%) respondents were uncertain with the issue at hand while 00(0.00%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. With this objective result from the study revealed that females' participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads, department and unit leader) and high number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position, with the highest mean score of (means = 3.66 and 3.36) with standard deviation of (std = .464 and .481) respectively.

Again, Table 3, female teachers mean score on their extent that female teachers participate in educational leadership in senior high schools ranged from 3.3 to 1.81. All the items had mean scores above 2.0, which indicate that almost all respondents had positive participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools. In short, this reveals that the participation of females in school leadership was still minorities which coincide with of the finding of (Hart, 2015) because of traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as social incongruent as a leader. This reveals that respondents were uncertain with regard to high number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position and both females and males do not equally participate in school leadership.

4.3 Research Question two: To What Extent Do Female Teachers Aspire for Position in Educational Leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?

The second research question was formulated to find out from the respondents the extent to which female teachers aspire for position in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. Six questions were raised to solicit information using the Likert scale

method. The results of what extent do female teachers aspire for position in educational leadership in Senior High Schools is shown in Table 4.

Table 3: Female teachers' aspiration for position in educational leadership

Items	Disagree Freq (%)	Neutral Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)	Mean	SD
Females have an interest and motivation to apply for school leadership	256(36.60%)	50(7.10%)	324(46.30%)	3.05	1.46
Men are continuing to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership	353(50.40%)	76(10.90%)	201(28.70%)	2.77	1.39
Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school	262(37.40%)	16(2.30%)	352(50.30%)	3.26	1.38
Females are dependent on males, passive emotional, uncertain of themselves and weak leader	216(30.90%)	68(9.70%)	346(49.40%)	3.38	1.32
Both female and male's leader do not want to work under female	143(20.40%)	44(6.30%)	443(63.30%)	3.79	1.44
Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader	102(14.60%)	85(12.10%)	443(63.30%)	3.65	1.05

Source: Field Work, 2023

The results as indicated in Table 4 showed that of the extent for female teachers' aspiration for position in educational leadership. On the first aspiration for position in educational leadership: Females have an interest and motivation to apply for school leadership, 256 (36.60%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 50 (7.10%) female teachers uncertain with the statement while 324 (46.30%) of the respondents agreed to the statement.

On the second aspiration for position in educational leadership: Men are continuing to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership, 353(50.40%) of the respondents disagreed, 76(10.90%) took neutral stance while 201(28.70%) of the respondents agreed to the question. On the third aspiration for position in educational leadership Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school, 262(37.40%) of the respondents disagreed, 16(2.30%) and uncertain with the statement whereas 352(50.30%) of the

respondents agreed to the issue. On the fourth aspiration for position in educational leadership: Teacher provides enough items/equipment during practical lessons, 216(30.90%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 68(9.70%) respondents uncertain with the issue at hand while 346(49.40%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. On the fifth aspiration for position in educational leadership: Both female and male's leader do not want to work under female, 143(20.40%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 44(6.30%) female teachers neutral with the issue at hand while 443(63.30%) of the respondents agreed to the issue. On the sixth aspiration for position in educational leadership: Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader, 102(14.60%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 85(12.10%) of the respondents uncertain with the statement while 443(63.30%) of the respondents agreed to the issue.

With this objective result from the study revealed that both female and male's leader do not want to work under female and Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader were the aspirations of females' teachers and headmasters and assistants gave as clear aspiration for position in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. The mean scores in the Table 4 suggest that the most leading aspiration statements for position in educational leadership: Both female and male's leader do not want to work under female, Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader, with the highest mean score of (means = 3.79 and 3.65) with standard deviation of (std = 1.44 and 1.05) respectively.

Again, Table 3, female teachers mean score on aspiration for position in educational leadership ranged from 2.77 to 3.79. All the items had mean scores above 2.5, which indicate that respondents had positive aspiration for position in educational leadership. One can conclude

that more than of the respondents (56 %) aspired for position in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. Results obtained in this study is in line with the work of Combat (2014) as in his analysis of aspiration for female leader position, came by the conclusion that as many women have not carefully planned their ascent to the top management. Moreover, supporting this finding, different literature has also described that there is a strong correlation between woman's lack of career advancement and their lower career goals. They pursue their options in unplanned manner, as simply opportunities emerged (Addisu, 2011).

4.4 Research Question Three: What are the Main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?

The third research question was aimed at finding out from the respondents the main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. Three main questions were asked using the Likert scale method in relation to personal, institutional and traditional factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership. The results of female teachers and headmasters and assistants' main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality is shown in Table 5.

Table 4: Main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership

Main Factors	Items	Disagree Freq (%)	Neutral Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)	Mean	SD
Traditional Factor	Women are not expected to hold leadership positions	272(38.9%)	68(9.7%)	290(41.4%)	3.03	1.37
	Women are supposed to care for the family	289(41.3%)	68(9.7%)	273(39.0%)	2.92	1.30
	Women are not bread winners	136(19.4%)	85(12.1%)	409(58.4%)	3.43	1.08
	Men are supposed to protect women	102(14.6%)	85(12.1%)	443(63.3%)	3.65	1.05
Personal Factors	Females have less involvement in socio-economic development	102(14.6%)	85(12.1%)	443(63.3%)	3.87	1.19
	Females are reluctant to accept responsibility because they fear failure	34(4.9%)	0(0.0%)	596(85.1%)	4.60	0.94
	Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience than males	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	630(90.0%)	4.76	0.43
	Too much family responsibilities	143(22.7%)	44(7.0%)	443(70.3%)	3.79	1.44
	Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leader	102(14.6%)	85(12.1%)	443(63.3%)	3.65	1.05
Institutional Factors	Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position in the education system of the town	147(21.0%)	13(1.9%)	470(67.1%)	3.75	1.59
	Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership	272(38.9%)	68(9.7%)	290(41.1%)	3.03	1.37
	The provision made in the document and guide lines do not give priority for females to attend leadership training in their town	62(8.9%)	0(0.0%)	568(81.1%)	4.37	1.19

Source: Field Work, 2023

The traditional factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality results as shown on table 5 indicate that: women

are not expected to hold leadership positions 272(38.9%) were disagree, 68(9.7%) respondents were neutral to the statement while 290(41.4%) were agree of the statement. On Women are supposed to care for the family: 289(41.3%) were disagree, 68(9.7%) respondents were neutral to the statement and majority of the respondents 273(39.0%) were agree to the issue at hand. On Women are not bread winners: 136(19.4%) were disagree 85(12.1%) respondents were neutral to the statement while, 409(58.4%) were agree to the statement.

On Men are supposed to protect women: 102(14.6%) were strongly disagree/disagree, 85(12.1%) respondents were neutral to the statement while 443(63.3%) were agree level representing the majority group of the respondents. The personal factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality results as shown on table 5 indicate that: On the first statement on personal factor: Females have less involvement in socio-economic development, 102(14.6%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 85(12.1%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 443(63.3%) of the respondents agreed to the statement.

On the second statement on personal factor: Females are reluctant to accept responsibility, 34(4.9%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 0(0.0%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 596(85.1%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. On the third statement on personal factor: Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience than males, 0(0.0%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 0(0.0%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 630(90.0%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. On the fourth statement on personal factor: Too much family responsibilities,

143(22.7%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 44(7.0%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 443(70.3%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. The institutional factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality results as shown on table 5 indicate that: On the first statement on institutional factor: Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leader, 102 (14.6%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 85 (12.1%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 443 (63.3%) of the respondents agreed to the statement.

On the second statement institutional factor: the provision made in the document and guide lines do not give priority for females to attend leadership training in their town, 147 (21.0%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 13 (1.9%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 470 (67.1%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. On the third institutional factor: Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership, 272(38.9%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 68(9.7%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 290(41.1%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. On the fourth institutional factor:

Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position in the education system of the town, 62(8.9%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 0(0.0%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 568(81.1%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. With this objective result from the study revealed the most leading traditional, personal and institutional factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership: Men are supposed to protect women,

Females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience than males and the provision made in the document and guide lines do not give priority for females to attend leadership training in their town, with the highest mean score of (means = 3.65, 4.76 and 4.37) with standard deviation of (std = 1.05, 0.43 and 1.19) respectively. The mean scores in the Table 5 suggest that Again, Table 5, female teachers mean score on main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership ranged from 3.26 to 4.25. All the items had mean scores above 2.5, which indicate that respondents had strong challengeable factors that prevent females from involving in educational leadership. One can conclude that personal and institutional factors remain the main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. Results obtained in this study is contrary to the work of (Hart, 2015) because of traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as social incongruent as a leader.

4.5 Research Question four: What strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality?

The fourth research question was formulated by the researcher to find out from the respondents some of the strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. Six questions were raised by the researcher to solicit information using the Likert scale method. The results of female teachers and headmasters and assistants' strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality is shown in Table 6.

Table 5: the strategies to promote female teachers’ participation in educational leadership position

Items	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Mean	SD
	Freq (%)	Freq (%)	Freq (%)		
Opportunities should be provided for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities in assigned duties	143(20.60%)	44(6.30%)	443(63.90%)	3.79	1.44
There is need for formal mentoring of female teachers	178(25.70%)	69(10.00%)	383(55.30%)	3.40	1.49
Giving a chance of separate quota to compute among for female themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male counterpart competitors	146(21.10%)	92(13.30%)	392(56.60%)	3.47	1.5
Institution /schools involves the gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual or leadership	147(21.20%)	13(1.90%)	470(67.80%)	3.75	1.59
There should be presence of role models for female teachers	170(24.50%)	0(0.00%)	460(66.40%)	3.68	1.68
The school provides capacity building training to promote female teachers’ participation in SHSs leadership	62(8.90%)	0(0.00%)	568(82.00%)	4.37	1.19

Source: Field Work, 2023

The results as indicated in Table 6 showed that of female teachers and headmasters and assistants’ best strategies to promote female teachers’ participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. On the first statement on best strategies: Opportunities should be provided for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities in assigned duties, 143(20.60%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 44 (6.30%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were uncertain with the issue at hand while 443(63.90%) of the respondents agreed to the statement. On the second statement on best strategies: There is need for formal mentoring of female teachers, 178 (25.70%) of the

respondents disagreed with the statement, 69 (10.00%) of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants was neutral with the matter while 383 (55.30%) of the respondents agreed to the question. On the third statement on best strategies: Giving a chance of separate quota to compute among for female themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male counterpart competitors, 146(21.10%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 92(13.30%) respondents were undecided with the issue while 392(56.60%) of the respondents agreed to the issue. On the fourth statement on best strategies: Institution /schools involves the gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual or leadership, 147(21.20%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 13(1.90%) respondents were uncertain with the issue at hand while 470 (67.80%) of the respondents agreed to the statement.

On the fifth statement on best strategies There should be presence of role models for female teachers, 170(24.50%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 0(0.00%) female teachers and headmasters and assistants were neutral with the issue at hand while 460(66.40%) of the respondents agreed to the issue. On the sixth statement on best strategies: The school provides capacity building training to promote, 62(8.90%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement, 0(0.00%) of the respondents were uncertain with the statement while 568 (82.00%) of the respondents agreed to the issue.

Overall, we understood that widely held of the female teachers and headmasters and assistants, 453 (71.90 %) were agreed with acknowledged statements, followed by neutral 36 (5.71 %) and only one of them 141(22.38 %) disagreed with the female teachers and headmasters and assistants' strategies to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Wa Municipality. Again, the mean scores in the table 6 suggest that the most

leading statement about female teachers and headmasters and assistants' best strategies: The school provides capacity building training to promote female teachers' participation in senior high schools' leadership and Opportunities should be provided for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities in assigned duties, had the highest mean scores 4.37 and 3.79 and standard deviation 1.19 and 1.44 respectively.

Again, table 6, female teachers and headmasters and assistants' mean score on best strategies to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Wa Municipality ranged from 3.40 to 4.37. All the items had mean scores above 3.0, which indicate that respondents had positive best strategies to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Wa Municipality.

4.6 Discussion of Results

The first objective sought to assess the extent female teachers participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. The research results suggested that there is a significant decrease in female participation at higher leadership positions compared to lower positions such as club heads, department heads, and unit leaders. Additionally, the study highlights a higher number of female staff in teaching roles compared to leadership positions.

The research indicates that there is a decline in female participation as leadership positions ascend. This observation is consistent with existing literature that often reports a gender gap at higher levels of organizational hierarchy (Eagly, 2007). The study reveals that there is a higher concentration of female staff in teaching roles compared to leadership positions. This finding aligns with broader trends in education, where women are often well-represented at entry and

mid-level teaching positions but may face challenges in ascending to top leadership roles (Price et al., 2015). The second objective sought to assess the aspiration of females' involvement in educational leadership positions in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. The research results revealed interesting insights into the aspirations and perceptions regarding leadership positions in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality, particularly focusing on gender dynamics.

The study indicates that both female and male leaders express a reluctance to work under female leaders. This finding suggested potential gender biases or stereotypes that may exist within the educational leadership context, impacting the willingness of leaders to work under female superiors (Adams & Flynn, 2005). Another noteworthy result is that females, in particular, do not seem to have clear plans or set promotion goals to become school leaders. This observation may highlight potential barriers or challenges that female educators perceive in their career progression towards leadership roles (Hewitt, 1989).

The most significant aspirations, as indicated by the highest mean scores, include the reluctance of both female and male leaders to work under female leaders and the lack of promotion goals among female educators. The mean scores (3.79 and 3.65) suggest a relatively high level of agreement among respondents regarding these issues. This objective three sought the main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. The research results you provided shed light on the traditional, personal, and institutional factors that hinder female participation in educational leadership. The research identifies the belief that "men are supposed to protect women" as a significant traditional factor deterring females from engaging in educational leadership. This finding echoes the influence of societal norms and gender roles, suggesting that traditional expectations

may contribute to limiting opportunities for women in leadership roles (Holt, 2008). The study highlights that females express a perceived lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualifications, and experience compared to males. This personal factor aligns with existing literature on the confidence gap, which suggests that women may underestimate their abilities relative to men (Kirk & Shutte, 2004). This lack of confidence can be a barrier to career advancement. An institutional factor identified is that the provision made in documents and guidelines does not prioritize females to attend leadership training in their town. This institutional barrier underscores the importance of examining policies and practices that may inadvertently perpetuate gender disparities in leadership development opportunities (Schultz, 2013).

This objective four sought to identify what strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. The study identified that providing capacity building training to promote female teachers' participation in senior high schools' leadership is considered a leading strategy. This aligns with existing research emphasizing the importance of professional development and training programs in enhancing leadership skills and confidence among women (Bell & Chase, 1995). Another key strategy is providing opportunities for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities in assigned duties. This approach aligns with the idea of creating a conducive environment that allows women to showcase their skills and capabilities, potentially challenging gender stereotypes and biases (Gross & Trask, 2006).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter involves three parts. The first subdivision presents a summary of the research. The second and third sections present findings, the conclusions drawn from the research and recommendations put forward.

5.2 Summary of the Study

This study sought to find out the main factors responsible for low females' participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. Chapter one of this study presented general information on females' involvement in educational leadership positions in Senior High Schools. This chapter likewise presented the problems that necessitated the conduct of this study.

It outlined the objectives and the significance of the study. Furthermore, the terms used in this paper were clearly defined. This chapter two discusses the relevant literature on the area of study. Areas that were looked at include Females and Leadership, Gender and Educational Leadership Discourse, Women's Qualities. The review also looked at the Individual and Societal Factors as Barriers for Women Advancement to Educational Leadership, and Major Factors for low Women Participation in Educational Leadership. It finally discusses how to overcome the factors for low Women Participation in Educational Leadership. The chapter three deliberated on the research design, population, sampling technique, data collection instrument, validity and reliability of instruments, data collection technique, data analysis

procedure and ethical consideration. The chapter four of this study analysed the extent to female teachers aspiration for position in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality, the extent female teachers participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality, the main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality and the strategies are in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. The Chapter five summarized findings, draw conclusions and made recommendations of this study based on the set objectives.

5.2.1 Summary of the Findings

The summary of the findings has been organized along the objectives of the study. As such, the summary of the findings has been presented under this section. Concerning the fallouts from the data, which was obtained from the field, the findings of this study were as follows:

1. The research uncovered a significant gender disparity in leadership positions, with a noticeable decrease in female participation as positions ascend. Higher leadership roles, such as club heads, department heads, and unit leaders, exhibited lower female representation compared to lower positions.
2. The study highlighted a higher concentration of female staff in teaching roles as opposed to leadership positions. This pattern reflects a common trend in education, where women often occupy entry and mid-level teaching positions but encounter barriers to advancement into top leadership roles.
3. Both male and female leaders express reluctance to work under female leaders. This finding suggests the presence of gender biases or stereotypes within the educational leadership context, potentially influencing the professional dynamics and opportunities for female leaders (Adams & Flynn, 2005).

4. Female educators, in particular, do not seem to have clear plans or set promotion goals to become school leaders. This observation indicates potential barriers or challenges that female educators perceive in their career progression towards leadership roles (Hewitt, 1989).
5. The research reveals that the belief in traditional gender roles, specifically the notion that "men are supposed to protect women," is a significant factor deterring females from engaging in educational leadership. This finding suggests that societal norms and traditional expectations may contribute to limiting opportunities for women in leadership roles (Holt, 2008).
6. The study highlights that females express a perceived lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualifications, and experience compared to males. This personal factor aligns with existing literature on the confidence gap, indicating that women may underestimate their abilities relative to men (Kirk & Shutte, 2004). This lack of confidence can act as a barrier to career advancement.
7. The research identifies providing capacity building training as a leading strategy to promote female teachers' participation in senior high schools' leadership. This finding aligns with existing research emphasizing the crucial role of professional development and training programs in enhancing leadership skills and confidence among women (Bell & Chase, 1995).
8. Another key strategy highlighted in the research is providing opportunities for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities in assigned duties. This approach aligns with the concept of creating a conducive environment that allows women to showcase their skills and capabilities, with the potential to challenge gender stereotypes and biases (Gross & Trask, 2006).

5.3 Conclusion

The following conclusions are made based on the research outcome concerning the stated objectives.

1. The research findings underscore the existence of gender disparities in educational leadership positions, highlighting a substantial underrepresentation of females in higher roles. The overrepresentation of women in teaching positions compared to leadership positions reinforces existing challenges in women's career progression within the educational sector.
2. The research findings illuminate the existence of gender-related challenges in the aspirations and perceptions of leadership positions in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality. The reluctance of both male and female leaders to work under female leaders, coupled with the lack of clear promotion goals among female educators, indicates the presence of potential gender biases and barriers within the educational leadership landscape.
3. The research findings collectively underscore the multifaceted nature of barriers to female participation in educational leadership. Traditional gender norms, personal factors such as lack of confidence, and institutional practices contribute to a complex web of challenges that hinder women's progression into leadership roles in the educational sector.
4. The study's findings underscore the significance of targeted interventions, specifically capacity building training and opportunities for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities, in addressing the challenges that hinder female participation in educational leadership roles. These strategies not only align with existing research but also present practical approaches to empower and encourage women in educational leadership.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the study's findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. Implement targeted leadership development programs to equip female educators with the skills and confidence needed for higher leadership roles.
2. Encourage educational institutions to adopt and promote gender diversity policies that create inclusive environments and support the advancement of women into leadership positions.

3. Conduct workshops and training sessions to raise awareness about gender biases and stereotypes, aiming to sensitize both male and female leaders to foster a more inclusive leadership environment.
4. Implement targeted career development programs to empower and support female educators in setting clear promotion goals and overcoming perceived barriers to leadership roles.
5. Develop awareness campaigns and training programs to challenge and reshape traditional gender norms. Emphasize the importance of breaking free from stereotypes and embracing diverse leadership styles.
6. Implement targeted initiatives to build the confidence of female educators. This could include mentorship programs, leadership training with a focus on self-efficacy, and recognition of achievements to boost confidence levels.
7. Educational institutions should implement comprehensive and ongoing training programs designed to build the leadership skills and confidence of female teachers. These programs should cover areas such as decision-making, strategic planning, and effective communication.
8. Educational institutions should actively foster inclusive environments where female teachers are provided with opportunities to demonstrate their abilities in various aspects of their roles. Encouraging a culture that values and recognizes diverse contributions can help break down gender stereotypes.

5.4.1 Recommendation for further Studies

Based on the findings of the current study on female participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality, there are several areas that could be explored in further studies to deepen our understanding and inform more targeted interventions. Here are some recommendations for future research:

1. Conduct a more detailed investigation into traditional factors influencing female participation in educational leadership, including cultural beliefs, societal expectations, and historical perspectives. This could involve qualitative research methods such as interviews and focus group discussions to capture nuanced insights.
2. Delve deeper into the personal factors affecting female educators' aspirations and confidence in pursuing leadership roles. This might involve longitudinal studies tracking the career trajectories of female educators, examining critical points where decisions regarding leadership positions are made.

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APPENDIX A

**AKENTEN APPIAH-MENKA UNIVERSITY OF SKILLS TRAINING AND
ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT FACULTY OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCES
(DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP)**

**QUESTIONNAIRES FOR FEMALE TEACHER, FEMALE HEADMASTERS AND
ASSISTANTS**

Dear Respondents,

I would like it if you could voluntarily spend your valuable 20 minutes and energy to fill my eighteen (33) questionnaires. The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out the main factors responsible for low females' participation in educational leadership in Senior High Schools within the Wa Municipality. Kindly provide answers to the questions by ticking the appropriate boxes. Your confidentiality and anonymity are assured. This is exclusively for academic purposes.

I count on your cooperation and may God richly bless you.

Thank You

Please tick appropriate boxes where necessary

RATING SCALE KEY: 1-Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Neutral, 4- Agree, 5-Strongly Agree

SN	SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA						
1.	Age: 18-29 yrs [] 30-39 yrs [] 40-49 yrs [] 50 and above []						
2.	Marital Status: Married [] Single [] Divorce []						
3.	Number of Children: 1-3 [] 4 and above [] No Child []						
4.	Academic Qualification: Diploma [] First Degree [] Masters [] Other []						
5.	Experience: 1-10 yrs [] 11-20 yrs [] above 21 yrs []						
SECTION B: The extent of female teachers aspires for position in educational leadership in SHSs							
	Items						
6.	Females have an interest and motivation to apply for school leadership	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
7.	Men are continuing to be rated higher than women on most of the qualities associated with leadership	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
8.	Females assume that they will not be successful in leading school	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
9.	Both female and male's leader do not want to work under female	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
10.	Females do not have plan and set their promotion goals to be school leader	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
11.	Females are dependent on males, passive emotional, uncertain of themselves and weak leader	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
SECTION C: To what extent female teachers participate in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality?							
12.	Females are still the minority as both head and deputy head teachers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
13.	Females' participation decreases at higher leadership position than lower position (club heads, department and unit leader)	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
14.	High number of female staffs in teaching area than leadership position	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
15.	Both male and female teachers equally participate in school leadership position	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
SECTION D: Main factors that draw back females from involving in educational leadership in Senior High Schools in the Wa Municipality							
16.	Traditional factors	Women are not expected to hold leadership positions	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
17.		Women are supposed to care for the family	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
18.		Women are not bread winners	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
19.		Men are supposed to protect women	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
20.	Personal factors	females have lack of confidence in their capabilities, qualification and experience	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
21.		Females are reluctant to accept responsibility because they fear failure	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
22.		Females have less involvement in socioeconomic development than males	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
23.		Too much family responsibilities	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

24.	Institutional factors	Higher officials make gender bias while selecting school leader	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
25.		the provision made in the document and guide lines do not give priority for females to attend leader ship training in their town	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
26.		Job recruitment and hiring practice do not attract female candidates for leadership	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
27.		Lack of special support to females to win competition for leadership position in the education system of the town	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
SECTION E: The strategies put in place to promote female teachers' participation in educational leadership position in the SHSs							
28.	Opportunities should be provided for female teachers to demonstrate their abilities in assigned duties	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
29.	The school provides capacity building training to promote female teachers' participation in SHSs leadership	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
30.	Institution /schools involves the gender unit or office in the committee or team established for the recruitment, training and deployment of individual or leadership	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
31.	Giving a chance of separate quota to compute among for female themselves and with an additional chance to compute with the male counterpart competitors	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
32.	There should be presence of role models for female teachers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	
33.	Allocation of financial resources for female capacity building training to promote their participation to SHSs leadership	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	

RATING KEY: 1-Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Neutral, 4- Agree, 5-Strongly Agree