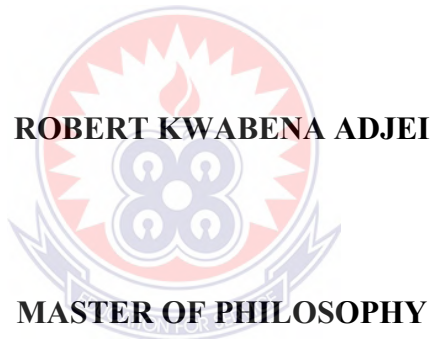


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**CAREER PROGRESSION EXPERIENCES OF FEMALE LECTURERS IN
THE UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**



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THE UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**

ROBERT KWABENA ADJEI

8180210033



**A thesis in the Department of Educational Administration and Management,
Faculty of Educational Studies, submitted to the School
of Graduate Studies in partial fulfilment**

**of the requirement for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Educational Administration and Management)
In the University of Education, Winneba**

SEPTEMBER, 2021

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

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

Signature:.....

Date:.....

Supervisor's Declaration



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

Supervisor's Name: Paul Kobina Effrim, (Ph.D)

Signature:.....

Date:.....

DEDICATION

To God almighty, my family and friends.



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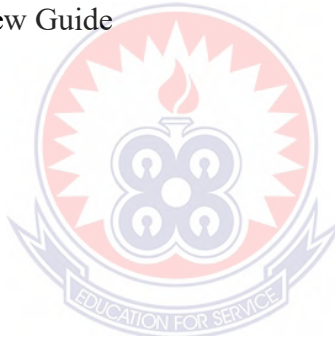
Finally, I would like to show appreciation for the enormous contributions and encouragement from friends especially; Mr. Samuel Agyei Agyare, may God richly bless you.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the career progression experiences of female lecturers at the Winneba Campus of University of Education. Specifically, the study explored the factors that motivate females to nurture career in tertiary educational institutions in Ghana, challenges faced by female academics in career progression, strategies to success from the lived experiences of female academics and the support systems that female academicians believe their organisation should put in place to facilitate their career progression. The qualitative study employed phenomenological design and interview guide was used to gather the primary data. Maximum variation; a kind of Purposive sampling technique was used to select nine (9) participants for the study. Thematic analysis was employed the in data analysis. The study revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors motivate females to enter into academia and progress in it. It was also found that inadequate policies to ensure gender equity, stereotyping, heavy workload, difficulty in balancing work and family responsibilities, lack of female mentors and role models impede the career progression of female academics. The study concluded among other things that home responsibilities determined by gender roles and patriarchy which are all rooted in culture and perpetuated by early socialisation explain the challenges female academicians face to a larger extent. The study recommended among other things that society and government should make deliberate effort to bring about cultural change which would not disadvantage any sex. Government should vigorously implement affirmative action laws to take care of the challenges facing females.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Females constitute about half of the world's population and the workforce. The contribution of female is indispensable for the economic growth and development of any country, yet females have been marginalised in all facets of human endeavours, such as home, community, church/mosque, workplace, politics, education, among others, where both sexes need to compete among themselves.

Literature on women's access to college and employment in higher education worldwide provides evidence that women's participation in higher education has improved (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2012). Women's participation in higher education also has improved due to, among other things, positive attitudes toward girls' education (UNESCO, 2012). Since 2005, female enrollment has continued to grow, and in many regions of the world, women make up more than 50 percent of the total enrollment in tertiary education. In 2009, female enrollment surpassed male enrollment in most countries (UNESCO, 2012).

This promising figure, unfortunately, does not reflect women's share of research careers, teaching, and leadership positions in tertiary education worldwide. The worldwide trend in 2010 showed that most countries reached gender parity from primary education to graduate levels; however, following the doctorate degree level, men were in advantageous positions (UNESCO, 2012). According to Rathgeber (2003), in many countries in Africa, there has been concern about how to better

integrate women into social and economic development processes. Despite an increased emphasis on gender issues, the actual progress made by African women in the past two decades is still small in terms of equity, access to power, and prestige in their societies, (World Bank, 2019). The figures on tertiary education academic staff; percentage of female for the year 2018, revealed 43% for the advanced countries but just 22% for developing countries of which Ghana is included (World Bank, 2019). On average, less than 50 percent of tertiary teachers worldwide are female. It was only in a very few countries, such as Belarus and Kazakhstan, that women's share of teaching positions in tertiary education was more than 50 percent. In other parts of the world, the trend remains the same; college and university teaching is a male-dominated arena (World Bank, 2019).

While the status and representation of women in the workplace over the last 50 years appears to have improved, the primary factors constraining women's career development are still related to gender inequity, particularly in places of power that mirrors women's low level of representation internationally and across industries (Catalyst 2012; McKinsey & Co. 2012). Gender disparity tends to be wider in leadership positions. The increase in female participation in higher education has not changed women's academic representation at senior levels in universities (Aiston, 2014; Morley, 2013). Morley (2005) suggests that gender impacts negatively on women's academic and professional identities. She argues that a lack of opportunities to develop academic capital, and the fact that women's professional and academic capital are devalued and misrecognised in the knowledge economy, affect women's academic careers.

The underrepresentation of women in senior positions in universities is a systemic worldwide phenomenon (Blackmore, 2014; Bruckmuller, Ryan, Rink & Haslam, 2014; European Commission, 2012). The pipeline of women's progression into senior positions within the tertiary educational institutions is leaky, due in large part to a culture that rewards male practices and patterns of interaction that is not conducive to recognising women's different styles and pathways. The numbers of women decrease at every stage of appointment on the academic scale (Eveline, 2005). Internationally, women in academia are clustered at lower levels (Eveline, 2005). The dearth of women in senior roles suggests that at some point, careers peak, stall, or derail. A study in Australian universities by Strachan, Glenda, Peetz, Whitehouse, Bailey, Broadbent, Troup and Nesic (2016) shows that the numbers of men and women are similar until they reach the top of the senior lecturer rank. In almost all sub-Saharan African countries, female teaching staff are few in number and comprise less than 10% of the faculty at the senior professorial level (Rathgeber, 2003).

This issue of slow career progress of women culminating in their underrepresentation in top positions in workplace including tertiary education has become a major concern in recent times and many governments and their institutions have responded by implementing various policies to ameliorate these gender disparities in workplaces. However, it appears that the efforts put in place are not effective or there is more to the issues which is still unknown as most women remain stuck in the middle and lower positions at the workplace (Tsoka, 2010). This calls for more studies into career progression experiences of female to be able to remedy the situation.

Barriers related to women's career progression have metaphorically been called many terms. Scholars have used numerous terms to describe the barriers related to women's

career advancement. One of which is the glass ceiling. This is the evident but intangible hierarchical barriers that prevent minorities and women from reaching the top positions of prestigious professions (Reiners, 2002). Some scholars also use the term sticky floors to describe how women tend to be stuck in low-skilled and low-paid positions (Iverson, 2011). Eagly (2007) also used the term labyrinth to describe the circuitous paths that women have to navigate in order to attain top positions. The term Concrete ceiling is also used to describe the significantly tougher hurdle women of colour face in reaching elevated success in their chosen professions (Reiners, 2002). In addition, other related terms such as Pink-collar ghetto, Maternal wall, Glass escalator and Bamboo ceiling are also used (Reiners, 2002).

Barriers that hinder career progression are numerous and include sexism, stereotypes, unconscious bias, and work-family responsibilities (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Morley, 2013; Reitman & Schneer, 2008; van den Brink & Benschop, 2012). The claim that women lack ambition or are being deficient in ways that prevent them from achieving similar career outcomes to men (Fels, 2004; Litzky & Greenhaus, 2007), have been refuted by many studies which argue that, women's progression is rather, structurally constrained by inequalities arising from factors such as culture, power dynamics, and the framing of merit (Lipton, 2017).

One of the most often cited barrier to women's career progression in tertiary education is the pressure to balance family responsibilities and work. Male and female in academia face great challenges with combining their domestic and professional responsibilities. However, the challenges are compounded for women due to their roles as care givers for children and keepers of homes which society has assigned to them (Boakye, 2018). This has often prevented many women from making progress in

their career aspirations. Gender stereotypes, according to (Carli & Eagly, 2011; Lipton 2017), are well-documented factors that create resistance to women's influence and authority.

Obers (2015) asserts that a dearth of female role models and mentors affect the self-esteem building of female academics. According to Gibson (2006), a mentoring program that pairs women with senior women facilitate a positive culture with the potential to effect change and promote women and minority academics.

The qualities and norms of leadership expected in today's universities emphasise productivity, competitiveness, hierarchy, strategy, performativity, and an intense all-consuming commitment to paid work (Fitzgerald, 2011). Leaders are expected to demonstrate authority, affective agency, and effective communication to achieve organizational goals and influence change (Morley, 2013). This definition of leadership, however, is socially constructed, articulated, and reinforced by a social and policy agenda that is primarily shaped by men. Consequently, these qualities and expectations do not necessarily align well with women's academic careers and leadership.

Although awareness about improving the status of women can be found in all spheres of society, especially in the media, political arena, and in education, the change has been slow, as shown by (Prah, 2002; Kweisiga, 2002). The status of women in higher education in Ghana is of major concern, however, data provided by the National Council on Tertiary Education (2006) reveals that in the 2000/2001 academic year, there were only 12% women in the faculty of six public universities in Ghana; in 2005/2006, the number had increased to only 13.8%. Prah (2002) reveals that most issues regarding tertiary education that are discussed in Ghana deal

with financing higher education and making universities economically independent. According to World Bank (2019) the share of female academic staff in tertiary education in Ghana in 2018 was 21.57%. Gender issues do not feature in the innovations in higher education in Ghana. Therefore, there is the need to create awareness in decision-making bodies in Ghana's public tertiary institutions of the urgent need to bring gender issues to the table for discussion and policy formulation. In order to formulate effective policies on women's issues in Ghana's institutions of tertiary education, it is important to hear, in their own words, the experiences of these women. This research basically, seeks to explore the motivation and challenges of female academics in their career progressions as well as the strategies that help them to achieve success.

1.2 The Statement of the Problem

Dr. J. K. Aggrey; an illustrious patriot of Ghana once proclaimed that, if you educate a man, you educate an individual; educate a woman and you educate a nation. Education is an enterprise in which women have a vital stake, as women are generally those on whom the responsibility of educating falls, whether in the home or in the school (Boakye, 2018). Yet, Dr Aggrey's statement while widely used in Ghana, does not reflect women's actual involvement in higher education (Boakye, 2018).

The small numbers of women in higher professional ranks in the academia is not unique to only Ghana, but ubiquitous. Many researchers (Hearn, 2001; Morley, 2013) have demonstrated that work in higher education institutions is highly gendered.

The 24 February 2014 edition of *The Guardian* reported that despite accounting for 45% of the academic workforce, women hold only 20% of professorships in UK universities, and just 15.3% of such posts in Cambridge (The Guardian, 2014). in

tertiary institutions. Substantial research on women academics and career advancement in western countries has been produced in Australia, United Kingdom, Canada and United States of America in the past years (Acker & Armenti, 2004; White, 2004; Morley, 2013) but that cannot be said about Africa and Ghana in particular as there is limited research and published literature on experiences of female lecturers

The statistics on classification of teaching staff of University of Education, Winneba campus, in which the numbers of female lecturers have been juxtaposed against that of males in the various ranks revealed that, out of a total of 370 lecturers, only 93 were female. The breakdown of the total number of lecturers revealed the following information. It emerged that at the topmost ranks of associate professor and full professor, there were only six females out of 40 professors, representing 12%. In the ranks of Senior Lecturer, there were 33 females representing 23.5%, female Lecturers were 41, representing 28.1% and female Assistant Lecturers were 14 representing 29.1%. (Planning unit UEW, 2020)

The crux of the matter, is that the ratio of female to male dwindle as they advance through the ranks. Majority of the females lecturers occupy the middle and the lower ranks positions; the career trajectory of the female lecturers barely stalls at the senior lecturer's rank. There exist, extensive research literature on factors contributing to the underrepresentation of females in the academia in general, yet, there is dearth of literature on why the career trajectory of the female lecturers barely stalls at the lower and middle ranks, particularly at University of education, Winneba campus.

There are limited answers to elucidate this enigma as there are limited researches on women's experiences in tertiary education in Ghana and as a result, there exists insufficient data to explain and also serve as basis for rectifying the chronic gender imbalances in higher education. Although many subpopulations of women in higher education have been the focus of research, there is a gap in the literature regarding career progression of female lecturers in universities in Ghana, particularly, at University of Education, Winneba. It is precisely due to the foregoing that this study is warranted.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the motivation, challenges, and strategies to success from the lived experiences of female academicians in their career progression.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

1. explore the factors motivating females to nurture career in University of Education, Winneba.
2. examine the challenges that female academicians in University of Education, Winneba face in their career progression
3. examine the strategies female academicians attribute their successes to.
4. investigate the support systems female academicians want their organization to put in place to facilitate their career progression.

1.4 Research Questions

On the basis of the issues raised above, the study was guided by the following questions:

1. What factors motivate females to nurture career in University of Education, Winneba?
2. What challenges do female academicians in the University of Education, Winneba face in their career progression?
3. What strategies do female academicians attribute their successes to?
4. What support systems do female academicians want their organization to put in place to facilitate their career progression?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Considering the dearth of research literature on women in tertiary education in West Africa and Ghana, an empirical study on female academicians' career progression experiences would be an invaluable contribution to the field. Examining the experiences of female academicians would provide an important framework for understanding the ongoing gender imbalance in the tertiary institutions in Ghana specifically, University of Education, Winneba.

The findings of the study would invariably add to the existing literature on issues affecting women in Education. The study findings would also serve as valuable information to policy makers. It is hoped that findings from this study can contribute to modifying and creating new policies which would enhance gender equity as far as career advancement of females is concerned.

The findings of this study would in no doubt contribute in diverse ways to the ongoing discussions about women in tertiary education in Ghana, specifically, the

recommendations of the research may be adopted by tertiary institutions to implement policies and programmes that would facilitate the promotions of hardworking female lecturers to higher ranks. The finding of the study could provide valuable information with regards to strategies that could be employed to facilitate the career progression of female lecturers. This research could also be cited by women groups as basis for advocating gender equity principles in the tertiary institutions in Ghana. The study finding and recommendations would certainly expose a lacuna in research which consequently, would provoke further research into women's issues in academia.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

This study is delimited to motivation and challenges to female academics career progression and the strategies that helped them to weather the storm. The study was delimited to some selected female lecturers in University of Education, Winneba (UEW), Winneba Campus. It is worth noting that the research problem of this study is a worldwide phenomenon and so it is rife in all the tertiary institutions in Ghana, albeit, the study focused attention on only the main campus of University of Education, Winneba (UEW). The study employed qualitative approach and also made use of semi-structured interview schedule as an instrument for data collection

1.8 Limitation of the Study

The major constraint encountered in this study was how to get respondents; the women lecturers for interviews amid the Covid-19 restrictions. The school had closed down making it difficult to access respondents. Also, those who obliged were too busy and could not often honour their initial appointments for interviews. Consequently, the researcher could not get the participation of any full professor who are undoubtedly the most information-rich.

Another limitation was the fact that the study was delimited to only one university; the University of Education, Winneba (UEW), Winneba main campus, therefore, the findings would be applicable only to the population under study, and cannot be easily generalised as the ideas of all Tertiary Institutions in Ghana.

Thirdly, since the study employed qualitative approach which provided explanations from the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity, the findings of the study cannot be generalised to all academic staff of the study area.

Finally, some respondents opted for notes taking instead of the intended audio recording of the interviews, making the exercise more tedious. Nonetheless, the researcher managed to capture those interviews verbatim to forestall compromising the validity of the findings.

1.9 Definition of Key Terms

Academician: A lecturer in the University of Education, Winneba.

Barrier: challenge that impedes career progression of female lecturers

Career: profession with different levels or ranks for advancement.

Career progression: Transition from lower rank to higher rank in a profession

Gender: Being a male or female born

Patriarchal Society: A society in which males enjoy more opportunities than females

Strategies to success: Activities that aids one to make progress in a profession

1.10 Organisation of the Study

In Chapter two, theoretical review, review of related literature were presented.

The methodology of this study was detailed in Chapter three. Sections in chapter three were philosophical underpinning, study area or institutional setting, research type and design, population, sample and sampling technique research instrument, validity and reliability evidence, data collection procedure data analysis plan, ethical consideration, and permission, voluntary participation and informed consent. Chapter four presents the findings of the study and the discussions of the findings. Chapter five presents the summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for future research.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focused on the review of body of literature related to the Career Progression of Female Lecturers in Ghanaian Tertiary Institutions. Specifically it presented a theoretical framework, empirical review and chapter summary. Under the empirical review, the following headings were discoursed; The History of the Development of Women's Education in Ghana, Factors Influencing Females to venture into Academia, Experience of Women in Higher Education in Africa, Strategies to Success for Female Academics in Higher Education.

2.1 The Concept of Career, Career Development and Career Progression

The term "career" has been defined in many different ways by scholars reflecting four distinct stages the career concept has journeyed through (Mulhall, 2014, p.209). Beukes (2009) define "career" as the sequence of interaction of individuals with a society, education and organizations throughout their lifespan. Weinert (2001) also sees a career as a pattern of work experiences comprising the entire life span of a person and which is generally seen with regard to a number of phases or stages reflecting the transition from one stage of life to the next. Savickas (2009) contend that career is no longer merely just a sequence of jobs but is now a story that working people build about themselves. Sullivan and Baruch (2009) reveals that a *career* is an individual's work-related and other relevant experiences, both inside and outside of organizations that form a unique pattern over the individual's lifespan.

Traditionally, career has been linked with paid employment and was connoted to a single occupation. Contemporary, career is seen as a continuous process of learning and development which is anticipated to enhance acquisition of values that foster employee development (Shaito, 2019). A career encompasses the various functions and roles one engages in throughout life, and these include education, training, paid and unpaid work, family, volunteer work, leisure activities and so on (Shaito, 2019).

Career development is the process of managing your life, learning and work. Peter Tatham, Executive Director, (Career Industry Council of Australia) says the quality of the career development process significantly determines the nature and quality of individuals' lives: the kind of people they become, the sense of purpose they have, the income at their disposal (Niles & Harris-Browlsbey, 2002) It also determines the social and economic contribution they make to the communities and societies of which they are part.

Career development entails the management of a person's growth and progress in his or her career. Baer, Flexer, Luft and Simmons (2008) contend that an individual's career development is a lifetime process that encompasses the growth and change process of childhood, the formal career education at school, and the maturational processes that continue throughout a person's working adulthood and into retirement. Schreuder and Coetzee (2006) are of the view that a career consists of different stages and the individual is faced with different issues during each of these stages. It will therefore be accurate to assume that different individuals have different issues that confront them as they move on in their work lives and it may be possible for this to generate different views about career development and progression in different individuals.

Career development enables employees to learn better aspects of their work and improve their capabilities in their current position in the occupation. It helps them to manage their time efficiently and ensure that the use of employee increases over time which ultimately inures to the benefit of the organization as well as the employee (Shaito, 2019). It improves the morale and motivation of employees and helps to reduce employees' turnover by providing promotional opportunities. It also enables the organization to fill job vacancies internally thereby reducing the cost of managerial recruitment. Thus career development is a win-win activity for employers and the employees. According to Shaito (2019), the components of career development are: Education, Capability, Network, and Experience. There are two critical strategies for career development which are: Individual strategies and Organizational strategies. Usually, organizations put efforts to develop their employees. However, employees should also take initiatives to develop their own careers. Career is the result of matching individual's goals with the organizational goals. Career development is a joint responsibility of an employee and the organization (Shaito, 2019). If an employee wants only the organization to develop his career, the organization is likely to impose too much organizational control restricting the autonomy of that employee.

The patterns of women's career development are frequently affected by family as well as workplace commitments and responsibilities, unlike those of men. Therefore Austin (1984) cited in Frimpomaa (2013), proposed that career development theory should describe women's career separately from men's careers. Her model of career development is based upon four constructs which she believes shape women's career development. They are: work motivation, work expectations, sex-role socialisation

and structure of opportunity which includes factors such as sex-role stereotyping, distribution of jobs and discrimination.

Larwood and Gutek (1987) concluded that any theory of women's career development must take account of five factors: Career preparation, or how women are brought up to view the idea of a career and whether they believe they will have one or not, availability of opportunities should be taken into consideration, and whether they are limited for women, compared with men, marriage, viewed as neutral for men but harmful to the career of women. Similarly, pregnancy and having children inevitably cause women to take some kind of career break and timing and age, as career breaks and family relocations often mean that women's careers do not follow the same chronological patterns as those of men's.

There are two perspectives on the meaning of career success. Dreis, Hofmans, Pepermans and Rypens (2009) explain that the concept of career success has different meanings for different people. Career success therefore is a subjective and objective measure of individual career attainment. Heslin (2003) contrasting the two: objective career success and subjective career success, assert that objective career success reflects verifiable attainments in areas such as work performance, pay, position, and promotions, while subjective career success is typically measured relative to self-referent criteria, such as a person's career goals and aspirations.

Career growth in simple terms is the process of moving from one point of corporate ladder to another usually through promotions (Betz, 2021). This is occupational mobility within the organizations hierarchy from a lower rank to a higher rank. It involves moving a step further along the professional ladder through promotions. Career growth often comes with new or additional responsibilities, and better

remuneration. Career growth traces workers' career path. Career growth strongly depends on career development as the later provides the requisite skills and attitudes to achieve the former.

Career progression in simple terms is a process of climbing the career ladder during the employee's work life (www.Pushfar.com). It may involve being promoted, new opportunities and getting the most out the career, new challenges. Career progression does not necessarily mean finding a better job but it could also be about receiving higher remuneration, being given additional responsibilities or more authority and it can even be quitting the organisation and establishing once own. There are a number of ways in which one can improve Career progression in an organization. This entails, inter alia, training and development, mentoring and coaching, networking and simply asking from appropriate office, (www.pushfar.com).

2.2 Theoretical Framework

It would be fitting to begin this literature review with an overview of feminism and feminist theories because they provide theoretical foundation on which this thesis is built.

Feminist theory or Feminism reflects a world view that values women and that confronts systematic injustices based on gender (Chinn & Wheeler, 1985).

Martin (2002) outlined the agenda of feminist theory succinctly by stating that feminist theory shares two objectives: a) to expose subtle and overt gender inequalities by describing them, and b) to reduce or eradicate those inequalities through social change. There are epistemological and ontological differences in why and how gender inequality exists. Feminist empiricists, for example, believe that women and men are equal and therefore should be treated the same socially,

politically, and economically (Hackett & Haslanger, 2006). Feminist standpoint theorists believe that women's lives, perspectives and experiences in the social world, in economics, in politics, and in education, are different from men's experiences, and these differences are what provides for the unique and privileged standpoint of women (Tanesini, 1999). Postmodern feminists believe that the binary division of gender into men and women serves to create an inequitable social order wherein those binary categories are privileged and other genders are ignored (Lorber, 2001). These distinctions tend to define the various types of feminisms.

Many, consider being a feminist and an empiricist is a challenge, as empiricism purports to be value neutral while feminism focuses on the ways that society devalues women and other gender non-conforming individuals. The rendition of feminist empiricism presented here is removed from the positivist, value neutral, and objectivist historical renditions of empiricism. From this perspective, feminist empiricism is a revised, updated, and feminised version of empiricism (Doucet & Mauthner, 2006; Hundleby, 2012). Scholars approaching feminist theories through this rendition of feminist empiricism accept knowledge as value-laden and reject single truths (Doucet & Mauthner, 2006).

While feminist empiricists believe women and men should have the same rights and treatment because they are fundamentally the same, standpoint feminists believe that women are fundamentally different from men. Feminist standpoint theorists, in contrast with feminist empiricists, suggest that the knower's position mediates knowing. Specifically, this means that women's position as being oppressed grants them unique claims to knowing (Doucet & Mauthner, 2006), which in turn establishes a unique feminist epistemology. A critique of this feminist epistemological category is

that it is premised on a common and undiversified position of women. Postmodern feminist theorists reject any claim to a truth by drawing attention to situated knowledge and knowing in all contexts (Hawkesworth, 1988). In other words, all claims to knowledge are situated in particular and unique contexts making it impossible for there to be a common knowing, such as the kind supported by feminist standpoint theorists and feminist empiricists. Postmodern feminists reject a common feminist position and support a plurality of perspectives on knowing and truth. From these perspectives of plurality, postmodern feminist theorists critique notions of uniform subjects and categories. Specifically, this group of feminist theorists critique essentialised notions of women as a unified category and the grand narratives that emerge from such categories (Lorber, 2001). Theorists that use these conceptualizations of gender inequality argue against what they see as feminist standpoint theorists' essentialised notions of women as a category of knowers. From that position, these theorists propose conceptualisations of gender intended to deconstruct other essentialised notions.

One central tendency of postmodern feminism is the destabilization of what is considered normal or natural in relation to gender (Alcoff, 1997). Postmodern feminists view gender inequality as stemming from the division of gender into a dichotomy. Calling for an end to gender inequality, postmodern feminists believe in challenging the gendered social order, which is the basis of gender division. Their foci tend to be on deconstructing symbols and processes, which structure and maintain the unequal gender order (Lorber, 2001, p. 10). These theorists deconstruct the gendered social order by increasing the categories and obscuring the boundaries between previously taken-for-granted divisions such as men/women and homosexual/heterosexual as unified categories

A feminist lens asks us to see individuals, groups, family, and organisations in their social, political, economic, ethnic, and cultural contexts. The intersection of these contexts produces the potential for oppression that is rooted in gendered relationships. Feminism is theory that men and women should be equal politically, economically and socially, whilst a feminist is one who believes in that men and women should be equal politically, economically and socially. The goal of feminism is to challenge the systematic inequalities women face on a daily basis. Contrary to the popular belief feminism has nothing to do with belittling men, in fact feminism does not support sexism against either gender. Feminism works towards equality, not female superiority (www.dosomething.org/feminism).

There is no overarching unified “Feminist theory,” but there are central tendencies that run through multiple feminist theories (Harding, 1987). These tendencies include using gender as a central category of analysis, and applying praxis to improve the lived experiences and social circumstances of varied genders, but particularly women. Feminism has evolved in different arenas rather than as one unified concept. The labels that define those arenas have varied. The most commonly used feminist theories include; black feminism, radical feminism, cultural feminism, lesbian feminism, liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, materialist feminism, postmodern feminism, postcolonial feminism and socialist feminism (Andermahr, Lovell, & Wolkowitz, 1997; Evans, 1995). Four types of feminist theories; liberal feminist theory, radical feminist theory, socialist feminist theory and postcolonial feminist theory which were pertinent to this thesis have been discussed below.

2.2.1 Liberal feminist theory

Liberal feminism was derived from a much older tradition of liberal theory that relies on the core assumption that all humans, regardless of being born a man or a woman, are rational beings, and that their unique capacity to reason constitutes human essence. Liberal theory has always had much stronger support in the US than in the UK, where assumptions about people's "natural" rights which governments may not intrude upon was the ideological basis of documents such as the US Declaration of Independence (1776) (Donovan, 1985). Following from this then, liberal feminism states that women, like men, are rational beings, and are therefore entitled to basic human rights and equal opportunities (Bryson, 2003). Liberals believe that individuality exists prior to birth and is a universal phenomenon, implying that sex, gender, race, class and so forth, is irrelevant to one's development in society. Because of these beliefs, liberal feminists do not want to revolutionise society by changing the economic, judicial, educational, or social systems in place, but to instead redistribute existing social and economic rewards along more egalitarian lines (Bouchier, 1983). As a result, they try to work within the system to attain sex equality through reforming the legal system and introducing equal rights legislation, coalition building, single-issue campaigns, direct intervention and influencing public opinion, especially through educational means.

Foundationally, liberal feminists believe women and men are the same, and should be, therefore, afforded equal status and opportunity (Hackett & Haslanger, 2006). Implicitly, liberal feminists conceptualize gender inequality based on the idea that women's participation in public and social life should be equal to men. This means ensuring equal opportunities for women in the workplace, higher education, and government. Tong (1989), noted that we owe to liberal feminists many, if not most,

of the educational and legal reforms that have improved the quality of life for women. These reforms included, for example, women's access to higher education, equal pay for equal work, voting rights and ability to run for public office, as well as comprehensive maternity leave, among others. Much of the social movement work of liberal feminists happened throughout the first wave of feminism when they secured voting rights for women and rights to property. Liberal feminists believe that by creating public opportunities for women, they will see a revised socialization that replaces women's unequal public and social participation with equal participation.

According to Acker (1987), liberal feminists who write about education use concepts of equal opportunities, socialization, sex roles and discrimination, and their strategies involve altering socialisation practices, changing attitudes, and making use of relevant legislation. For example, liberal feminists may seek to increase the representation of women in textbooks and in the sciences. Coulter's research (1996) demonstrated the application of liberal feminist approaches to gender equity policy work across Canada, while Gaskell and Eyre (2004) found evidence of liberal feminist approaches to gender equity at work in British Columbia, New Brunswick, and Ontario. These included the promotion of women to leadership positions, with the expectation that their addition alone would alleviate the inequalities.

In the 1970s-1980s, liberal feminists in Canada made significant headway in law, government, and national representation (Adamson, Briskin, & McPhail, 1988). These included the rights entrenched in the 1982 Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, of which Section 28(b) stated, "notwithstanding anything in this Charter, the rights and freedoms referred to in it are guaranteed equally to male and female persons". While this Charter right was helpful for encouraging women's equality, the narrow

definition of gender as binary categories ignored the inequities faced by gender non-conforming individuals

2.2.2 Socialist feminism

Socialist feminist conceptualizations of gender inequality share the foundational belief that the economic structure and material expressions of that economic structure are the primary sources of gender inequality (Lorber, 2001). This approach to feminism is often characterized as stemming from dual systems theory, wherein the combined effects of patriarchy and capitalism account for women's oppression (Wharton, 1991). Socialist feminism tends to examine social and structural arrangements. Women's work in the home, which remains largely unpaid, is considered one of the primary sources of gender inequality. Socialist feminists contend that by addressing both capitalism and patriarchy they can secure a redistribution of capital and power for women's equality.

Coulter (1996) noted that, to the extent that socialist feminists consider education at all, they are concerned with how the schools work to replicate the social relations of gender, race, and class. According to Acker (1987), socialist feminists analyse the role of the school in the perpetuation of the gender division under capitalism including sociocultural reproduction, and to a lesser extent acceptance of and resistance to gender-based patterns of behaviour. Socialist feminism is concerned with how schooling processes reproduce class divisions that play out in the work force (Acker, 1987). Socialist feminists view schools as places where the inequitable division of labour is learned and reified. Problematically, much of the work of socialist feminism tends to be theoretical rather than practical (Acker, 1987), and primarily the creation of white, privileged women (Gunew, 2013).

Evidence of the influence of socialist feminism within Canadian social history exists throughout the Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada (1970). In chapter two of the report, women's roles in the Canadian economy are discussed. The chapter takes aim at capitalist, patriarchal structures, and recommends changes to minimum wage, working hours, and paid maternity leave, among others, all of which are evidence of practical applications of socialist feminism theories. Other examples from the Canadian context are the equal pay campaigns, day-care campaigns, and the creation of groups like Organized Working Women (Adamson et al., 1988). While socialist feminists made significant contributions to labour policy and relations, their contributions to the field of education remained somewhat limited

2.2.3 Radical feminism

Radical feminism developed as a conceptual framework and a particular form of political activism during the women's liberation movement in the late 1960s, by mainly white, middle-class, college-educated US women (Jaggar, 1983). Radical feminism in the UK did not really take off until the late 70s when the Revolutionary Feminists, a radical women's group, targeted men as the enemy and spoke out against sexual violence, rape, and pornography (Lorber, 2001). Unlike liberal feminism, which is based on a previously existing theory, the radicals created their own.

Radical feminists suggest that patriarchy, or men's systemic oppression of women, is the primary concept useful for explaining gender inequality. By drawing attention to violence against women, sexual exploitation, and the objectification of women, radical feminists continue to raise awareness about equity issues related to women. Radical feminism is commonly associated with the second wave of feminism. Radical feminists conceptualize the categories of women and men as distinctly different, and

argue that it is these differences that require attention. The manifestation of these differences in equality is articulated in the micro, everyday experiences of women, including date rape, and sexual harassment in the workplace. It is also manifested in the overvaluing of ~~men's~~ traits such as aggressiveness, competitiveness, and emotional distance (Lorber, 2001). For radical feminists, the personal is political (Jagger, 1983). In this sense, personal matters such as abortion and sexual consent came to the forefront of radical feminists' advocacy.

Radical feminists call for an overhaul of the appraisal of values so that ~~women's~~ values, (e.g. compassion, care, and intimacy) become valued. Such essentialist conceptualizations of the categories of men and women have been helpful for drawing political and legal attention to women's inequalities. Radical feminists believe that all social institutions reflect sexism, and that because social institutions are so intertwined, sexism is insurmountable (Lindsay, 2005).

In short, Calas and Smircich (1996) noted that what makes radical feminism ~~radical~~ is it being women-centred. Coulter (1996) suggested that the concerns of radical feminists are centred on structural issues and the role of the school in reproducing power relations such as patriarchy. To overcome these structural issues and the reproduction of patriarchy, radical feminists tend to adopt strategies that put the concerns of women and girls at the forefront of educational matters (Acker, 1987), such as the inclusion of women's perspectives in all disciplines and insisting on sexual harassment policies in the workplace. An example of the unfolding of radical feminism in educational arenas is seen with regard to the development of the Women's Studies movement in higher education (Rowland & Klein, 2013). In the Canadian context, this was often evidenced by the creation of women's studies

centres at the post-secondary level as well as the creation of classroom materials aimed at ending violence against women.

Some of the contributions of radical feminism to the Canadian social context have been securing abortion laws for women, countering anti-abortion movements, creating women's studies programs, and establishing rape crisis centres and women shelters. Radical feminists worked tirelessly to have the perspectives and standpoints of women become central to social, political, and economic interpretations of the world. A central critique of these perspectives is that they primarily represented heterosexual white women and did not account for the myriad and complex matrices of oppression (Collins, 1990) experienced by lesbian women, women of colour, or gender non-conforming individuals.

2.2.4 Postcolonial feminism

It would be imperative to describe succinctly the meaning of postcolonial theory, postcolonialism, and its influence on postcolonial feminism in order to clearly delineate postcolonial feminism. Adusah-Karikari (2008) defines Postcolonial as “the time period after colonial rule; but in some instances, it refers to the literature that has been written in opposition to colonialism” (p. 61). Quayson (2000) also defines postcolonialism as that which includes “studied engagement with the experience of colonialism and its past and present effects, both at the level of local societies, as well as at the level of more general global developments thought to be the after-effects of empire” (p. 93-94). According to Smith (2007), postcolonialism theory seeks to speak to the vast and horrific social and psychological suffering, exploitation, violence and enslavement done to the powerless victims of colonisation around the world. It

challenges the superiority of the dominant Western perspective and seeks to reposition and empower the marginalised and subordinated Other.

Postcolonial theory is utilised to eliminate oppression, powerlessness and worthlessness (Greenwood & Levin, 2007) built by the inequities widespread during colonization. Furthermore, postcolonialism theory pushes back to resist paternalistic and patriarchal foreign practices that dismiss local thought, culture and practice as uniformed, “barbarian” and irrational (Dussel, 2000). It recognises the complicated method of creating an identity that is both distinct from, yet impacted by, the colonist who has left (Parsons & Harding, 2011).

Kayira (2015) offers a deeper understanding of the effect of colonisation on African countries and education. —Colonialism goes beyond territorial conquest: it affects one’s epistemological stance, worldviews and perceptions. Although most African countries gained independence in the 1960s, the impacts of colonialism continue to be present through modern-day globalization as a form of neocolonialism. Education systems in many countries in southern Africa continue to be grounded in Western viewpoints, marginalising local Indigenous ways of knowing and being” (p. 106)

Postcolonial theory serves as a platform to challenge the dominant truths embraced by Western thought (Adusah-Karikari, 2008). It concentrates on rethinking the conceptual, institutional, cultural, legal and other boundaries that are taken for granted and thought to be universal, but have their origins in Western belief systems and act as structural barriers (Kayira, 2015). The objective of postcolonial theory is to offer voice to unacknowledged voices recuperating from decades of colonial rule and oppression (Adusah-Karikari, 2008). Postcolonial theory identifies "language,

questioning authority and madness as empowering" strides for the postcolonial subject (Odenmo, 2010).

Dirklik (1994) explained the usage of the term postcolonial and asserts that there are numerous usages which carries a variety of implications that should be recognized for analytical purposes. Three uses of the term appear to be particularly conspicuous: –(a) as a literal description of conditions in formerly colonial societies, in which case the term has concrete referents, as in postcolonial societies or postcolonial intellectuals; (b) as a description of a global condition after the period of colonialism, in which case the usage is somewhat more abstract and less concrete in reference, comparable in its vagueness to the earlier term Third World, for which it is intended as a substitute; and (c) as a description of a discourse on the above-named conditions that is in-formed by the epistemological and psychic orientations that are products of those conditions (p. 332). Therefore, postcolonial criticism can still be viewed as a more or less particular set of reading practices, if it is comprehended as preoccupied essentially with analysis of cultural structures which intervene, challenges or reflect upon the relations of domination and subordination – economic, cultural and political – between (and often within) countries, races or societies, which typically have their underlying foundations in the history of modern European colonialism and imperialism and which, typically, continue to be noticeable in the present era of neocolonialism (Moore-Gilbert, 1997).

Postcolonial feminism focuses on issues of cultural identity, language, nationalism, and the position of women in formerly colonised countries as they become nation-states (Rosser, 2007). Within postcolonial feminism it is important to understand the notion of double colonization, a theory formulated in the 1980s that describes women

in former colonised societies. The double explains that women were double colonialised by imperial and patriarchal ideologies (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 1995). According to Kim (2007) postcolonial feminists –typically rely on a rigorously historical and dialectal approach to understand the imbrications of gender, nations, class, caste, races, culture and sexualities in the different but historically specific contexts of women’s lives” (p.112). Feminists have suggested that patriarchy still dominates post-colonial life as much as it dominated colonial, everyday life. Thus, women continue to remain in subordinate positions.

Postcolonial feminist theory is principally interested with the representation of women in once colonized nations and in Western locations (Tyagi, 2014). The project of postcolonial feminism includes women living in the developing and developed world and this theory is also called ‘Third world feminism’ (Mishra, 2013; Weedon, 2002). Postcolonial feminists have routinely pointed out the courses in which the —woman question” powered colonial practices and mediated relations amongst colonial and native male elites” (Jyoti, 2015, p. 65). What is more of a concern for Postcolonial feminists is to work for cultural, economic, social, and religious freedoms for women (Mishra, 2013)

Feminist postcolonial work shares many similarities with postcolonial theory. Kim (2007) reveals that these theories offer gendered conceptualization of colonialism and post colonialism. Both theories engage themselves in the politics of racial relations and in the struggle against injustice. Additionally, they reject established patriarchal systems and challenge the supremacy of hegemonic masculine authority and power. Postcolonial and post-colonial-feminist discourses center on the —other.” Rosser (2007) and McClintock (1994) both acknowledged that the decolonisation of the

formerly colonised states led to a disparity in the advancements between men and women. Rosser (2007) reveals that, “as new nation-states are constructed, women in formerly colonised countries experience discrimination along race, class and gender lines due to the entanglement of patriarchy with colonialism” (p. 244). In affirmation of this observation, McClintock (1994) articulates that, “in a world where women do two-thirds of the world’s work, earn 10% of the world’s income, and own less than 1% of the world’s property, the promise of ‘post-colonialism’ has been a history of hopes postponed” (p. 298).

Howry and Wood (2001) note that feminism brings women’s experiences into existence, offers a premise for understanding and articulating women’s experiences, and provides a means of healing. These values can only be achieved when a space for subjectivity among the marginalised is created and facilitated through a search for the marginalized voice. Kim (2007) states that as Spivak and other post-colonial feminists have revealed, third world women are often perceived and represented as victims or members of a minority, both economically and politically and are allowed to speak only to give evidence of Third World Difference. Thus, in discursive representations, subaltern women are excluded from having their voice and subjectivity (Kim, 2007). The issue of voice is an important component in ensuring that marginalized experiences are able to surface.

African women’s mobilization and self-assertion are not represented adequately in feminist theorizing and this can be traced, in part, to colonial forces and practices (Oyewumi, 2005). Although Oyewumi (2005) contends that much of the emphasis has been on the voiceless African woman, Kolawole (1997) opposed such distorted forms of representations.

The literature reviewed reveals that even women in higher education in developed countries face challenges. Universities have been considered as patriarchal institutions and have, one way or the other, contributed to the gender imbalances that occur in tertiary education today. Research findings reveal that in developed countries, there is evidence of disparities in salaries as well as in the award of research grants and promotions. In Africa, the effect of colonialism and patriarchal society impacts the experiences of women in higher education. Women's childbearing and childrearing roles directly affect their freedom to operate in and articulate issues that affect them in the academy. Clearly absent from the literature review were the experiences of women in higher education in Ghana, yet research is needed to understand the experiences of Ghanaian women and to identify challenges they face in their career progression in the academia so as to equip other females with the strategies which will enable them to cope with the challenges women face in academia.

2.2.5 Gaps in feminist views

Feminist theory is one of the theories that have contributed significantly to creating an awareness of women's problems around the world. Ideally, a unanimous view of gender equality would have been the best option to enhance women's progress. The fact that Liberal, Socialist/Marxist and Radical feminists look at gender inequality in different ways is a problem because there is disagreement amongst them about suitable political action. For instance, Liberal feminism is interested in equal opportunities and access to resources, while Social feminism advocates for economic and gender transformation. Lastly, radical feminism argues that transformation can be achieved by raising women's consciousness of their domination rather than reforming legal, social, and other institutions. The researcher believes that rather than adopting such

different views on the issue, a unanimous approach to gender equity would be the ideal way to help address gender inequality in the work-place.

2.3 Challenges facing Gender Equality and Equity

Gender equity at work can be viewed in different ways and is one of the most challenging situations to change (Silander, Haarke & Linderberg, 2012). Gender inequality is a feature of social relations in most societies. It is linked to poverty, violence, the labour market, health, housing and education. It structures the relations of production and reproduction and is inextricably linked to knowledge construction and dissemination. Yet there has been little sustained attention globally to find out the challenge facing gender equity at the workplace in general and higher education in particular. It has been left largely to feminist academics to record and account for the persistent inequalities and gender power relations of academic life (Morley, 2005).

According to Morley (2005) the challenge for gender equity has given rise to the formation of a partnership with gender scholars in Nigeria, Sri Lanka, South Africa, Uganda and Tanzania to begin to plan and evaluate interventions for gendered change in areas such as; curriculum transformation, staff development Policy networks and transfer are strong across the Commonwealth. According to Onsongo (2009), attempts on gender equity were made by the 1998 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education by demanding the elimination of all gender stereotyping in higher education at all levels and in all disciplines in which women are under-represented as well as increase of women's active involvement in decision-making. As good as this may sound, it is important to note that equity at the workplace is still a challenge.

Teigen (2012) identifies three main reasons why gender equity is a challenge: Firstly, there is a lack of positive action policies on equal promotion procedures, as well as

poor monitoring of authority in day to day work: Secondly, challenges on family/redistribution policies in parental leave policies, and kinder-garden; and finally, employment segregation patterns exist where-by women dominate the public sector while men dominate the private sector. He points out that 70% of the public sector is women, while less than 40% of women were in the private sector. This implies that there is a problem when it comes to employing women in the private sector.

In the case of Ghana, the struggle for gender equality and equity began way back in 1957 by the government. Ghana has made some commitments by ratifying international treaties, charter and legal instruments put in place by the United Nations (UN), African Union (AU), Economic Community for West African States (ECOWAS) and other regional bodies, Beijing Platform for Action 1995 and the Sustainable Development Goals, geared toward the implementation of policies to actualise gender equality and equity. The Article 35(6) of the fourth Republican (1992) Constitution mandate the state to take appropriate measures to ensure regional and gender balance in education and employment.

Ghana has made some strides with regards to gender equality in the areas of enrolments in basic school and marginal increases in female representation in public offices. However the journey to social equality has been very slow and gender inequality is rife in every aspect of human life. Ghana has made some futile attempt since 1998, starting with the affirmative action policy guideline to promulgate an Affirmative Action Law (AAL). Affirmative Action refers to a body of policies and procedures designed to eliminate discrimination against marginalized groups including ethnic minorities and women it is regarded as a panacea to challenge faced by females. Regrettably, various advocacy campaigns toward the passage of the Affirmative Action Bill into Law over decades have not yielded any results due to

apparent lack of commitment on the part of the male-dominated government in the Fourth Republic.

2.4 Empirical Review

This section discusses various studies that are pertinent to this study.

2.4.1 The history of the development of women's education in Ghana

Prior Ghana's independence from the British, the country was called Gold Coast. Ghana was the first country in Africa to gain its independence in 1957 (Enos, 2003). The historical backdrop of formal education in Ghana goes back from 1592 (Agbemabiese, 2007). Although the Portuguese impact on the Gold Coast is barely remembered today, Portugal was one of the primary European nations to have an impact on the economic and educational life of the country (Graham, 1971). The Portuguese were likely the first to open a school there, their focus then being generally to convert the locals at Elmina to the Catholic faith. King John III had given directions to the Governor at Elmina in 1529 to provide reading, writing, and religious teaching for African Children (Graham, 1971). Even though there are no records to indicate enrollment, it is plausible, nevertheless, that only a few of the boys attended this school.

Prior to the advent of the British, there was no formal education system (Graham, 1971). Education was transmitted from parents to their children (Bardley, 2000). Mothers taught their girls and fathers taught their sons. At the time formal education was brought into Ghanaian culture, just boys were permitted to go to school (Bardley, 2000). According to Bradley, the British understood the concept that the only assured way to keep a country of individuals reliant, stagnant, and subservient was to deny girls, the sheer spine of society, formal education (Bardley, 2000). This ensured future

generations of weak people. This assertion by Bardley (2000) is congruent with Tamale and Oloka-Onyango (2000) who opined that in Africa a systematic and deliberate colonial policy ensured that African women were excluded from the various ‘ivory towers’ that dotted the continent. The historical backdrop of education reform in Ghana goes back to 1592, when the Danes and Portuguese initially arrived in what was then called the Gold Coast, now Ghana. Since then, educational reforms have had a wide range of objectives, for example, training teachers to secure skills important in spreading the gospel to developing an elite class to run the colony alongside the colonial masters (Agbemabiese, 2007). After Ghana gained freedom in 1957 the education framework, then based on the British system, has experienced a progression of changes and constantly looking for the model which would fit the necessities of the nation and the desire of its citizens (MacBeath, 2010).

Interest in formal education for girls and women started between 1800-1850 in the Gold Coast colony (Graham, 1971). In 1821 the Wesleyan missionaries opened a girls’ school in Cape Coast and another girls’ school was established in Aburi in 1854 (State University, 2016; Bardley 2000; Graham, 1971). The curricula used in school were gender-biased. Women were trained to be needle workers, western-style housewives, petty traders, and farmers rather than scientists, professionals, and civil service workers (Bardley, 2000). Also, the girls’ school taught women reading and sewing. As students received religious education as part of their basic education, the main reason for educating young people was to equip them to work in the European commercial market on the coast (State University, 2016). Women who received education from the missionaries excelled in all courses and could read, write clearly, and answer questions on catechism (Graham, 1971). Even in the early in the 1960's, the Government proposed a change in curricula for elementary education which

avored boys receiving education in various trades related to the industrial and construction sectors of the economy; modern agricultural techniques; typing and shorthand together with simple office routine; elementary book-keeping and accountancy. Girls were trained in some of the commercial and manipulative skills taught to the boys and in addition received training in such specialized fields such as domestic science and handicrafts (George, 1976).

In the first half of the nineteenth century in Gold Coast colony, there was an expansion of teacher training colleges to train both male and female students to be teachers so as to improve the quality of education and spread the Gospel (Bardley, 2000; State University 2016). By 1848 the Basel mission established a training college in Akropong. In 1845-1851 there was another training college established in Accra for 4-5 men receiving instructions to be teachers (Graham, 1971). But women were required to remain at home or trained to run affairs and to perform household chores while the men receive better education (Bardley, 2000; Graham, 1971). All these authors ascertain that the education of women in Ghanaian society has been seen as inferior to men. Graham's (1971) study claimed, in traditional African societies also, the aim of girls training was generally to make good wives and mothers; and even at a very early age they were expected to help in running the affairs at home.

In 1948 the University College of the Gold Coast was established. It was later renamed as University College of Ghana in 1957 and is now University of Ghana. The Kumasi College of Technology was also established in 1952 (George, 1976). By 1959, the universities enrolled more than 1,100 students. These colleges were established to provide higher education to Ghanaians in the 1950s. In 1962,

University of Cape Coast was also established. In 1971-72 there were 632 women among the 5,063 students in Ghana's three government universities (George, 1976). In the same year, out of 2,530 students, 382 women enrolled into University of Ghana undergraduate programs. The University for Development Studies (UDS) was built in May 1992 by PNDC Law 279 to integrate the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive and important collaboration between the two for the total development of all the regions in the Northern part of Ghana, in particular, and Ghana as entirety (UDS, 2016). It started academic work in September 1993. The first batch of students admitted were 39 into the Faculty of Agriculture, (FOA), Nyankpala (UDS, 2016). The University of Education, Winneba (UEW) was set up in September, 1992 as a University College under PNDC Law 322 (UEW, 2016). The University College of Education of Winneba consolidated seven diploma awarding colleges situated in different towns under one umbrella institution. The seven colleges are the Advanced Teacher Training College, the Specialist Training College and the National Academy of Music, all at Winneba; the School of Ghana Languages, Ajumako; the College of Special Education, Akwapim-Mampong; the Advanced Technical Training College, Kumasi; and the St. Andrews Agricultural Training College, Mampong-Ashanti (UEW, 2016).

This brief history of women's education in Ghana portrays their marginalization from pre colonialization to post-colonialization. Also, the history showcases the preference for women getting education to be good wives and managers of the house (Bardley, 2000) instead of for contributing to the workforce and economic development of the country. It is imperative to examine the experiences of the few women who challenged the status quo to work harder and achieve academic success within a male dominant academy.

2.4.2 Factors motivating female academics' career choice

Motivation is a psychologically complex issue and generally accepted as one of the most important factors that determine the rate and success of any human activity and this is why researchers have focused on those factors that motivate learners, Stipek (2002). Motivation refers to choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect, Meece (2006). Motivation energises and sustains behaviour towards achieving a particular goal. Motivation may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Eccles and Wigfield (2002), wrote an article titled; motivational beliefs, values and goals in annual review of psychology in USA. Eccles and Wigfield (2002) distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation explained that when individuals are intrinsically motivated, they engage in an activity because they are interested in and enjoy the activity, while when extrinsically motivated, individuals engage in activities for other reasons such as receiving a reward. Intrinsic factors in this context include the attributes of being self-driven, love for reading, a sense of accomplishment and personal growth. Extrinsic factors on the other hand refer to rewards such as salary and job security. Intrinsic rewards are more satisfying and motivating than extrinsic rewards. Eccles and Wigfield (2002) agree that behaviour is influenced by personal factors (motivation or internal factors) and by environmental factors (external or outside influences).

Gender differences in motivation have been established by many research findings. Social psychologist researchers like Eccles and Wigfield (2002) have studied patterns of attribution about success or failure, and have found that the success of women is often attributed to unstable factors such as luck or hard work. The success of men on the other hand, are generally attributed to stable factors such as ability, while women are more likely to exhibit what has been labeled as low-expectancy attribution pattern

(Meece, 2006). This cognitive pattern is probably most likely to be found when the activity at which people are successful is one that is considered stereotypically masculine. De La Rey (2001) in her study found that success was perceived by women as luck, rather than a result of skills and competence. When women fail, their failures are likely to be attributed to stable factors such as lack of ability, whereas men's failures are generally attributed to unstable factors such as lack of effort (Meece, 2006).

Raburu (2011) conducted an exploratory study in Kenya on the topic: women academics' careers in Kenya. She approached the qualitative study from the constructivist paradigm and interpretivist theoretical perspective. Using a semi-structured interview guide the researcher purposively interviewed sixteen participants and the data was analysed thematically. According to Raburu (2011), socialisation and achievement experiences play a crucial role in the development of gender differences in motivation. The child's home environment plays a key role in the shaping of their competency beliefs and interests.

Eccles and Wigfield (2002) contend that the school also offers children the opportunity to validate, refine and enact their gender behavior and both parents and teachers contribute to gender differences in motivation. Through parental socialisation, children's motivation is influenced through role-modeling from parents, communication about their own abilities and skills and what is valued as important. This reflects greatly of the children's own beliefs and academic abilities (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). According to Eccles (1983), socio-cultural influences also impact on the development of motivation. Children begin to form gender role conceptions that influence their beliefs, attitudes, and behavior well before they enter school. Eccles

(2007) has also asserted that the socialisation processes that lead children to internalise and accept these gender stereotypes are largely responsible for gender differences in motivation and achievement.

Researchers (Raburu, 2011; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) have further demonstrated that male and female adolescents differ not only in their interests, attitudes and plans for the future but also, in their self-confidence and self-evaluation. Thus, in the course of their socialization, a different orientation to work develops between boys and girls which may have an effect on their future career choices. Women for example attach less importance than men to opportunities for promotion or higher income and more to the content of work itself and the atmosphere (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

Moreover, motivation to pursue career is decisively influenced by family duties. Men on the other hand are, socialised in a male-dominated world, are admitted to old boys' networks, and their names enter the lists of quotable authors, the women have neither the backing of other women nor role models to motivate them and show them the way forward (Eccles, 2007).

Research with women academics describe different motivational factors that impacted on the women's lives during their careers. By focusing on individual beliefs, values and goals, motivation researchers such as Eccles and Wigfield (2002) have learned much about the reasons why individuals choose to engage or disengage in different activities related to their achievement behaviours.

Tarimo (2019) conducted a qualitative study on factors affecting career progression of female academics to senior positions as a case study in Open University of Tanzania. The study sampled twenty one participants purposively, interviewed them and

analysed the data thematically. The study found among other things, that academic qualification and achievement, self-driven, family and role models, organisational support, policies and practices motivated females in career choice and progress.

An exploratory study on the experiences of women academics in relation to factors that motivated them towards academia and challenges experienced while balancing family and career, in Kenya by Raburu (2015), revealed that Socio-economic or desire to escape poverty, family, gender, role models and culture are among the factors that motivate the female academics towards joining and staying in academia. Intrinsic factors in this context include the attributes of being self-driven, love for reading, a sense of accomplishment and personal growth. Extrinsic factors on the other hand refer to rewards such as salary and job security. Intrinsic rewards were more satisfying and motivating than extrinsic rewards.

Raburu (2015) found that some of the respondents who were bright, hard-working and eager to learn in their student days wanted to lecture because that would afford them the opportunity for continuous academic exercise and satisfy their passion for knowledge and the discovery of new knowledge. Another form of intrinsic motivation mentioned was love for teaching and achieving a prestigious social status in society. Gender and cultural attitudes were dominant factors found to influence the career decisions of most women in academia. Both factors had a great influence on the respondents' self-image, others' perceptions of them as academics and as women. Parents reinforce gender roles through socialisation (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Perceptions of gender inequality in a society that was patriarchal had driven some of the respondents to challenge the status quo by proving their abilities in the academia.

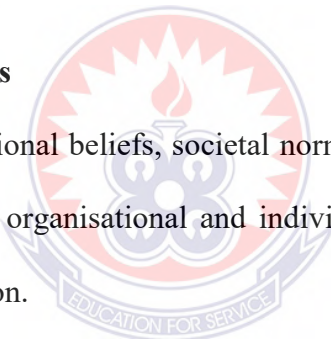
Tarimo (2019) found that organisational rewards motivated some academic staff. The good rewards help some participant to publish and hence progress their career. The good reward package also is linked to organisational practices and policies. The study further argued that, if the organisation has good policies it help female academics to reach senior positions easily.

2.4.3 Barriers to the academic career progression of women in tertiary education

The factors that serve as barriers or hindrances to career progression of women female academics are numerous and interrelated. A critical study of these factors in literature reveals that they can be discussed under these three headings; Societal level factors, Organisational level factors and Personal or individual level factors

2.4.4 Societal level factors

The cultural values, traditional beliefs, societal norms and policies are the precursors to all other factors at the organisational and individual level which militate against women's career progression.



2.4.4.1 Culture, tradition and religion

Historically, the dominance of men over women has been an issue for many societies. Women in Africa experience exploitation and oppression traditionally, intellectually, politically, socially, economically, sexually, and religiously (Wachege, 1992). Wachege explained exploitation and oppression of African women by stating that –Women oppression and exploitation is a distorted way of life in which women are dehumanized, marginalised and subjugated by being denied their rights as real persons, being treated and mistreated as inferior beings and deprived of growth into human authenticity and self-fulfillment” (p. 10). These women are generally silenced, living in patriarchal social order where they are supposed to be submissive, meek and

dutiful, and are not supposed to dine with men (Boakye, 2018). According to Tsoka (2012, p.12), “the past experiences of women have made them believe that there are jobs that are traditionally designated for women such as child nurturing and cooking”. This fact is quite true because, even today, there are many women who still believe domestic or household responsibilities are meant for women only. Some of our traditions, especially in Africa, still believe that it is taboo for a man to undertake these responsibilities because it is regarded as him going against culture and tradition. “Cultural and traditional obstacles have continued to shape women’s progress and leadership experiences in the sense that women have become more scarce to go in for leadership positions, but are more visible in other positions or areas in organizations — (Ibarra, Ely & Kolb, 2011, p.14).

Botool and Sajid (2013) further explain this view by stating that educational promotion largely depends on publication records, conference presentations and research that sometimes require academics to travel for some days. However, some traditions and cultures still restrain the movement of women and, as such, put women in a disadvantaged position in this regard. This implies that some women do not exercise their freedom of movement as men do.

According to Corward (2010), history is not the only thing that influences women to see men as leaders. Women’s psychological fall-outs also perpetuate this perception. Cultural factors have given this impression that top management positions are only suitable for men and that women should play secondary roles since emphasis is placed on women’s role as mothers, caregivers and nurturers (Corward, 2010).

Williams (2017) also employed mixed method approach to study the decelerating factor that impact on the career progression of women in Stellenbosch University in

South Africa. Using sequential exploration design, the qualitative aspect employed panel discussion and focus group discussion and the results were thematically analysed. The quantitative strand employed questionnaires as data collection instrument and SPSS was utilised to generate the descriptive statistics. Study results showed that gender roles are carried into the workplace because, at work, there are some men who still believe that a woman is supposed to be a subordinate and not the boss. Societal norms and early socialization entrench and perpetuate patriarchy ideology and spills over into tertiary educational institutions since these institutions are microcosm of society (Williams, 2017). With these factors in mind, the progress of women would always be impeded because they are blocked by tradition and cultural practices that make them to do double work at workplace and at home, while the men do single work. Consequently there is a need for change because men can also do the things that were previously set aside for women to do such as household chores and nurturing children.

Customary beliefs cause parents to place more value on sons as compared to girls (Bardley, 2000). Girls typically take part in broad family household chores, work in the market with their mothers, and nurture younger siblings, while their brothers go to school, play, and study (Bardley, 2000). Accordingly, if parents need to pick between educating their daughter or son, they will more than likely pick their son who will more likely have admittance to civil service work, compared with the farming and informal economy work of his sister (Bardley, 2000).

Murniati (2012) conducted a qualitative study on career advancement of women senior academics and administrator in two public universities in Indonesia. The study purposively sampled nine interviewees and the results were analysed thematically.

The study found that culture and religious belief affect career progression of female academics. Economic status of women also affects their career, those with poor economic status failed to get assistance in domestic role hence affect their career. Religious belief also shapes how women view domestics' role and what other belief. Religious make women to believe that they were created to be wife and mother and thus career should not be the first priority. The study further argued that women should not forgo wife and mother role when develop their career. The issue of policies was also carried weight in the Murniat's study.

In the society, women are seen as inferior to men intellectually and they hardly play a role in decision making (Boakye, 2018). According to norms in the society, women are supposed to constantly undertake domestic roles. Notwithstanding when they add on career roles to their domestic duties, the latter are not to be compromised. Serving children and husband is a cardinal domestic obligation. By and large, it is not seen as appropriate for males to embrace housekeeping chores (Boakye, 2018; Lundgren & Prah, 2009). Customary beliefs cause parents to place more value on sons as compared to girls (Bardley, 2000). Girls typically take part in broad family household chores, work in the market with their mothers, and nurture younger siblings, while their brothers go to school, play, and study (Bardley, 2000). Accordingly, if parents need to pick between educating their daughter or son, they will more than likely pick their son who will more likely have admittance to civil service work, compared with the farming and informal economy work of his sister (Bardley, 2000).

Psychosocially, women in the academic world receive subdued and subtle messages from their workplace that deny them of their feeling of belongingness. Women are imperceptible in meetings, their voices are suppressed, and their lives are monitored

in their workplace (Mama, 2008). Culturally, women are characterized as mothers, spouses, and domestic workers (Boakye, 2018; Mama, 2008; Prah, 2009). In accordance with traditional beliefs, men were the sole supporters of the family, and were allowed to obtain formal education. Marital success is broadly comprehended to be contingent on women not over-qualifying themselves on the scholarly front. High scholarly performance is often seen as unattractive to prospective male accomplices, as has likewise been reported by past observers (Manuh et al., 2007; Mama, 2008).

Kwapong (2007) studied the widening access to tertiary education for women in Ghana through distance education, her findings opened up some cultural and gender biases that affect women in the Ghanaian society. The participants of her study spoke about some of their challenges encountered in the classroom such as “low participation in class discussions due to male domination in discussions and suspicion of husbands” (p. 73).

Kwapong went further to discuss socio-cultural expectation of women and its effect on their education and performance. Some men just simply enjoy only the food and services of their wives. This puts much stress on professional women and affects their studies as well. Kwapong proposed a solution or suggestion on how to make things better for women seeking education in the modern world. She stated that “society is changing, and both men and women need to wake up to the realities that modernisation brings and adjust their way of life to create space for women and provide both traditional and modernized support systems to enable them to enhance themselves professionally” (p. 75). Husbands misconstrue the practice of a wife employing the services of domestic help to mean laziness on the part of the woman.

2.4.4.2 Insufficient policies and programmes to address gender issues

Globally, there are laws in place to support women at work. However, Davidson and Burke (2011) note that there are great inconsistencies across countries when it comes to the interest and support of organisational employers in developing policies and programmes to support women's career advancement. For them, organisations in Canada, Britain and the United States seem to be the most proactive whereas employers in Argentina, Africa and Turkey seem to be the least proactive, in the support of women managers and professionals. Elaqua, Beehr and Hansen (2009) argue that policies and practices such as training, career development, promotion and compensation are major components of the glass ceiling that prevent women from making it to the top.

Batool and Sajid (2013) also reveal that the main obstacle to the progress of women is selection and promotion in the academic domain. Women complain that more men than women are on academic boards, and this has created a lack of transparency promotion and selection not transparent. Women also complain that despite fulfilling the criteria for promotion, they are still not promoted. Moreover, Batool and Sajid (2013) note that promotion systems largely depend upon the publication record of academics. Due to a lack of publication women are not promoted. The reason for this is that domestic responsibilities limit women's research activities. Boushey and Farrell (2013) add that working women are disadvantaged by a lack of policy solutions on how to balance their domestic responsibilities and workplace activities, since women generally take a larger share of family responsibilities.

2.4.5 Organisational level factors

According to literature, even though most organizations have put in efforts to improve the exclusive work environments of previous eras, systemic barriers affecting the advancement of women still remain.

2.4.5.1 Balancing work and family life

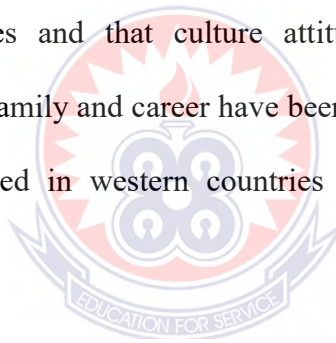
Work-life balance has become an important focus for organisations and the working professional insofar as it is crucial for overall health and wellbeing and also for creating productive and positive work environments. Historically, household tasks such as childcare, household chores and care for the elderly were seen as the obligation of women only. Women's strong family obligations act as the strongest macro socio-political cultural barrier to female academic advancement (Huong, 2013). Research has shown that women, particularly those in traditional societies, are expected to take more family responsibilities than men, such as solely caring for their children, husband, and extended family (Kulis & Sicotte, 2002). Consequently, university leaders are often in favour of men in selecting a manager since as a social norm men have more time for work than women.

Psychologically, women themselves may feel ashamed if they are involved too much in career activities and cannot devote adequate time to their family and consequently face family problems (Huong, 2013).

Some scholars have suggested that women intentionally pursue careers or jobs that are viewed as less challenging, so as to balance it all—that is, to be successful as a career woman and a mother. Hakim (2003) suggests that this is an adaptive lifestyle preference, whereby engaging in paid work is important but valued proportionately to engaging in domestic, household, and personal/family obligations. The ideology that

women select less demanding jobs as a means to create balance speaks to the socio-cultural impact on career choice, and for women faculty and women athletic trainers this has been investigated and found to be somewhat true.

Luke (2000) in her study of female academics found family work conflict affect career advancement of female. Balancing family responsibilities and work responsibilities interrupt career advancement of female. The study further found that even woman who are not married and those who have no children does not excluded from these challenges. Despite the fact that single women have much time to develop their career, the study argued that single women are also responsible for family care especially care for their parents and relatives. Unmarried women face negative perception from societies and that culture attitude affect their career. Similar challenges on balancing family and career have been found in many studies However, most of studies conducted in western countries which cannot be generalised to African context.



Female academics in higher education encounter multiple barriers en route to their degrees (Snyder, 2014). Also, in Africa, women are expected to perform many more tasks or roles as compared to men.

Motherhood is seen as bestowing upon a woman the obligation of bringing up a child. She is expected to get to work on time, as well as to attend to the needs of her children both at home and as related to involvement in school. She is also short of time to take care of her home simultaneously (Jayita & Murali, 2009).

Onsongo (2005) also found that in Kenya female academics may not go to study abroad simply because of family issues like husband to refuse or a fear to be far with

children. The women are expected to be good wives who obey society norms and husband.

The demands for women seeking postgraduate degrees in Ghana are typically regarded to be more challenging than in some countries. At home, because of social roles or 'gender division of labor, female students convey the weight of combining their studies with other difficult required duties (Ohene, 2010), cited in (Boakye, 2018).

Various studies on adult women students' encounters in higher education points out some similarities to stories of struggle to combine higher education with family life/responsibilities and full time work (Baxter & Britton, 2001; Leathwood & O'Connell, 2003).

In Ghana, the socialization women receive makes them the caretakers and nurturers of the house and the children, and these responsibilities do not change when they set out to achieve higher education (Adu-Yeboah, 2011).

Kwapong's (2007) research in Ghana reaffirms women juggling multiple roles in addition to higher education. Her study reveals that even women participating in distance education face issues such as combining household responsibilities with education, inability to manage limited time, nursing mothers having problems of managing their babies, pregnancy related problems, and pressure from career obligations" (p.73). As the women juggle their roles, fragmentation or compartmentalization of the self may happen (Baxter & Britton, 2001; Edwards, 1993), which leads to significant stress on family responsibilities and relationships. Notwithstanding family roles, women likewise work full time in professional roles, mostly at the institution where they finished their doctorates or other educated-related

institutions. In this manner, having time to balance work, life, and school additionally poses challenges.

When these adult students focus more on education instead of household responsibilities and the consequences of the mother's physical and psychological disconnection, there is a weight of guilt or self-blame for being an irresponsible mother (Adu-Yeboah, 2011; Snyder, 2014). Sometimes, there have been indications that in the absence of a mother, the children's academic performance deteriorated (Adu-Yeboah, 2011).

2.4.5.2 Negative stereotypes at the work place

The impact of stereotypes on gender and leadership has been studied for decades (whereby women have been seen as unfit for management positions). Awung (2014) notes that this stereotype in the work environment occurred because most jobs were previously held solely by men and, instead of creating new words for women in those professions, the nouns remained masculine. Even women who have risen to exceptional career heights are targeted by negative attitudes about them as leaders. Awung (2014), explain that women who do take up leadership roles are often judged negatively by men and women alike. They also reveal that women who abide by the traditional "female" or feminine characteristics are considered to be too nice and therefore not capable enough to handle leadership positions. On the other hand, those that show more masculine characteristics are also considered to be hard. This perception alone makes it difficult for women who are in leadership positions because they have to work harder than men to prove themselves. Awung (2014) believes that this is a barrier to the progress of women.

Awung (2014) notes that the issue of stereotyping at the workplace still exists because men do not see it fit to help women in leadership positions. Due to the lack of help and support from their husbands and at the workplace, women opt to work fewer hours or half-days due to obligations to maintain their homes, and are consequently paid less.

Stereotyping has blocked the progress of women by casting doubts over their leadership abilities and by forcing them to personally conform to those doubts. Dominici, Fred and Zeger (2009) state that another reason to be that leadership positions are less attractive to women than men is because women in administrative offices are underfunded as compared to the amount of work they do. Secondly, women in leadership positions are expected to be available at work at any time and success in such positions often depends on the spouse who can shoulder domestic responsibilities. The same may apply to academic leaders. Some women find it less attractive because they have personal obligations that they cannot delegate to others. In the same light, Gouws (2012,) in the Report of the Colloquium on –Overcoming Barriers to Women in Leadership in Higher Education, holds that some women are not interested in senior management positions in higher education because of the inherent challenges of such positions.

Boakye (2018) posit that –Ghanaian women in academia have had to consistently fight for space within the academe, as they constantly face overt and covert forms of gender stereotypes. These stereotypes create contexts that tell women who are successful that they are exceptions, and women who have experienced setbacks that it is their own fault for failing to be sufficiently aggressive or committed to the job”.

2.4.5.3 Institutional environment

Another cause of women's lack of progress is the institutional environment; Levine, Lin, Kern, Wright and Carrese (2011) assert that the institutional environment is another reason for the lack of progress of women. Women describe the work culture as individualistic, not collaborative and possibly biased in favour of men. De Varies (2012,) in the Report of the Colloquium on "Overcoming Barriers to Women in Leadership in Higher Education" explains that women under-representation is as a result of structures in institutions of higher education that have been very formalized and steeped in traditions and rituals that favor males. According to Morley (2013), this under-representation of women comprises missed opportunities for women to influence and contribute to the future of higher education. The underlying premise of this perspective is that men and women are equally capable of and committed to assuming positions of leadership.

Kamau (2004) conducted a study to examine the barriers faced by female academics on their career progression. The study found that the career of female academics is greatly faced with challenges of gender issues, role conflict and organisation culture and practices. The study further found that lack of support and unfriendly working environment as reasons why females do not progress fast compared to male counterparts.

Badjo and Dickson (2001) found that organisation culture and practice have contribution in supporting career progression of women academic. The study observed that organisational that has culture that consider and promote gender equity had great chance to increase representation of female academician in senior positions. The organisational practice has many management activities including training and development which may support career development. Like Badjo and Dickson other

study also argued the same. Burke (2002) found that training help increase the chances for female academics to reach senior positions. Access to education also was found to support career of female employees.

Currie et al. (2000) conducted study on the female career in Australian context. The interview within two Universities discovered that organisational culture affect career development of female academics. Some organisational culture limits female progression through their policies and practices. Lack of sound and fair promotion criteria cited as discouragement factors. Lack of policies that support childcare at work place also was found to affect career development of female employees. Interviews with the staff in two Australian Universities about the sacrifices they make to do their jobs, describe the institutions as greedy, making the women work long hours and away from their families.

2.4.6 Personal or individual level factors

The studies of women's career progression in tertiary educational institutions worldwide reveal several internal barriers. Personality is a strong determinant of success for an academic staff. One of the most consistent themes in studies on women's career progression worldwide is that women's personal attributes can be a motivating or an impeding factor to career progression. Studies focusing on Western universities and non-Western universities are uniform in their findings. Several personal attributes that are likely to help women in reaching top positions are networking skills (Lam, 2006; Madsen, 2008); flexibility/adaptability, resilience, sense of humor, determination, self-motivation, confidence, and independence (Beck, 2003; Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Ismail & Rasdi, 2006; Lam, 2006, Madsen, 2008); and a high level of job commitment. These studies demonstrate that women with the

above-listed personal attributes are likely to survive in the male-dominated world of higher education.

Further observation of women's personal traits reveals evidence of an identity clash among women (Madsen, 2008). Traditionally women bear the roles of mother and possess characteristics of a mother; they are nurturing, comforting, and protective. When becoming leaders, women need to develop a new identity, one that makes them productive and effective leaders. Women, in addition to being nurturing, comforting, and protective, have to be assertive, strong, and decisive.

Women often struggle with these two identities, however. Studies on this issue consistently show that women are torn between personal and professional responsibilities and behavior. Studies on women academics in Hong Kong and Southeast Asia look at women's own reluctance to move into the top positions for a multitude of reasons. Assuming a leadership role takes its toll on women's various roles in their family, marriage, and society as well as on their academic productivity. Awareness of these conflicting roles renders women less interested in applying for administrative positions (Lam, 2006).

Many women cannot achieve higher leadership positions because of their own lack of self-confidence, the pressure to maintain a professional image and lack of self-confidence in their ability to lead (Lam, 2006). Murniati (2012) argued that these internal barriers have harmful effect on women's career aspirations. Women who lack self-confidence or self-esteem are less likely to overcome their challenges.

Lack of self-confidence is also seen as a cause of the slow progression of women in the workplace (Morley, 2013). Hofmeyr and Ndobe (2012,) argue that in South

Africa, one of the major problems hindering the career progression of women is poor self-image. They reveal that most women lose self-confidence as a result of gender discrimination and lack of mentoring and leadership development programmes. In the same light, Davidson and Burke (2011) assert that some women believe that just making their way to the workplace is an achievement because in the past women were not allowed to work. Awung (2014) notes that major constraints to the career progression is the choice of women in deciding not to go for promotions, while men are always ready to apply for higher positions even when they lack the official requirements. He believes that this lack of willingness on the part of female is a result of a lack of self-confidence.

Butler (2004) claims that women conform to gender norms which frame them as nurturers and caregivers. Slaughter (2012) suggests that women do not feel as comfortable with being away from their children as men do. She adds that if men have to choose between their work and their family, their work generally takes precedence, while the opposite is true of women. Obers (2014) investigated into career success for women academics in higher education: choices and challenges in South Africa and found that some female academics choose to prioritise their family over career to the detriment of their research productivity.

2.4.7 Strategies to success for female academics in higher education

It is important to identify and analyse strategies used by women in the past who progressed to the top ranks in tertiary educational institutions. The body of literature related to strategies used by successful women academicians revealed the following themes; engaging in a mentoring relationship, family support, seeking leadership

development opportunities, and establishing a professional networks, time management and hard work.

2.4.7.1 Mentoring relationships

Some successful female academics have shared their strategies which catapulted them to success. Mentoring in supportive environments is one strategy that could develop and train capable and confident researchers to replace those retiring academics (Schulze, 2010). Mentoring fosters the development of areas important for women's research productivity, such as self-esteem, professional capabilities, development of professional network structures, access to information and career advancement Obers (2014). Boakye (2018) also affirmed that mentoring relationships greatly influence the progression of a career for women.

However, due to the limited number of women in top positions, women have not benefitted much from mentorship in their careers. Ragins and Cotton (1999) had earlier asserted that women face greater challenges initiating or developing informal mentoring than men, attributable to the relatively little or no representation of women in higher echelons of organizations who can identify protégés in lower levels for mentoring. Mentoring Relationships although the formality and structure of mentoring may vary, Madsen (2008) provided a definition of the role of mentor that allowed for these variations: "an individual in a position of formal or informal influence who advises, counsels, encourages, teaches, and coaches another" (p. 155). This supportive figure could provide many benefits to the protégé. Evans and Chun (2007) described the benefits of the mentoring relationship as follows: (a) mentoring can prevent a person from leaving an organization; (b) mentors may be in a position to confront

biased or unfair criticism aimed at the protégé; and (c) mentors can provide insider information, connecting the protégé to the institution.

Madsen's interviews with ten women presidents revealed that few of the presidents had formal mentoring relationships; however, the presidents did describe supportive role models who influenced their careers by giving the women "permission to aspire, to act, and to be themselves" (p. 166). These influential individuals, whether in formal or informal relationships, were often men (Brown, 2005; Cox, 2008; Santee, 2006). Thus, mentors, no matter their gender, are uniquely positioned to provide encouragement and to support their protégé's experiences. Several researchers agreed that mentoring was a critical component in the success of women administrators.

Britt (2002) conducted a study to determine if a glass ceiling existed for women executive administrators at a variety of institutional types in the New England region. Her analysis of the data revealed that, "mentoring is critical for career advancement but especially for women to move into executive positions" (p. 136). In interviews with women provosts from Ivy League institutions, some participants said that having an administrative role model who was willing to provide advice was a key to success.

In a study of community college administrators, VanDerLinden (2004) discovered that mentoring relationships might improve career knowledge and skills critical for advancement. Moreton (2001) examined the career paths of female and her findings revealed that mentoring relationships played a significant role in the success of female administrators in faith-based institutions and helped the protégés to develop professional skills and characteristics. Another strategy successful women adopt is to hire house-helpers to do the domestic duties of keeping the home and caring for children while they focus on the professional demands (Moreton, 2001).

The study conducted by Gardinar et al. (2007) found that mentoring and role model support career progression of female academics. The study argued that mentoring help the junior staff to gain necessary skills needed in doing academic job. Skills needed for publications and research can be obtained from the mentor. In the same vein other studies (Kamler & Rasheed, 2006; Silver, 2003) found that mentoring help the employee to understand organisational culture which will help to build network hence progress their career. Some participants in aforementioned studies attribute their promotion as the result of working with mentors. It was further found that mentoring help to build the confidence of the female academic hence support their career successes (Kamler & Rasheed, 2006).

2.4.7.2 Support networks

Family, the institution, and professional networks can each provide support for women in their career paths. As a result of these factors, women can overcome barriers, acquire the encouragement they need to continue in their career pathways, take advantage of equitable institutional policies, and gain the inside track for career progression.

The burdens of family responsibilities have hindered the careers of some women, but family members can also serve as sources of encouragement (Moreton, 2001). Moreton's study reported parents as being instrumental in encouraging their daughters to pursue education. Moreton also stated, the married administrators overwhelmingly reported that their spouses have played a key role in their vocational success, offering encouragement, family support, and the opportunity for mobility. Santee (2006), in interviews with twelve senior-level women administrators, confirmed Moreton's findings. Every participant interviewed indicated that a close member of the family or a spouse provided significant personal support (Santee).

Institutional support can significantly encourage women in their pursuit of advancement. Nutt (1996) conducted a survey of female presidents in selected institutions nationwide in Texas state, USA. This study focused on the participant's level of career satisfaction and the variables that predicted career satisfaction. Nutt discovered that institutional support and acceptance of a female president was a predictor of career satisfaction for women presidents. Institutions with cultures that are accepting of women leaders may help advance women up the administrative ladder. "The complex structure of organizations creates concepts of organizational roles and images of the kinds of people who should occupy them" (Chliwniak, 1997, p. 71). Every participant in Santee's (2006) interview study described the supportive environment of the institution as having contributed to personal success.

A specific way to support women is through institutional policies that help to shape an accepting culture. An attempt to foster such a culture was detailed by Wood (2009) in his description of the group called Nine Presidents. This group was comprised of the CEOs of nine renowned universities, with a history of male-dominated traditions and gender inequity. The Nine Presidents pledged to "develop equitable academic personnel policies at its institutions, support those policies through institutional resources, and take steps to create more family-friendly and gender-equitable campus cultures" (Wood, 2009, p. 87). These family-friendly policies should allow parents to be the caregivers of their children without being penalized in their work environment (Cox, 2008). According to Wood, establishing strong mentoring programs, encouraging women to participate in leadership development programs, and providing tuition benefits and flexible schedules for terminal degree completion could impact the institutional culture. Overall, institutional structures, policy, and culture can

significantly foster leadership development and provide support and encouragement for women administrators (VanDerLinden, 2004).

Professional networking is a “significant source of social support in the academy” (VanDerLinden, 2004). Cox (2008) interviewed 18 female, senior-level, academic administrators in land grant institutions regarding the motivational factors leading to their achievement. Support groups were a motivating factor for women, especially women administrators who were new to their positions and in an institution where women comprised less than a quarter of the upper-level administrative positions. Cox stated that, “women need sounding boards and people to encourage them to do well at the new institutions” (p. 192). As a whole, the women interviewed “emphasized the need for support groups not only for building confidence and assisting in the direction of their career path, but also as role models, coaches or to provide feedback” (p. 181). Opportunities to network with administrators on other campuses helped women administrators gain a holistic view of higher education and examine the differences between institutional types and leadership styles (Santee, 2006). Networking was often key in having the inside track to employment positions, committee assignments, and task force participation (Chliwniak, 1997). Thus, professional networking provides a variety of advantages and supports for women academics in tertiary educational institutions.

Raburu (2015) conducted qualitative study on career progression of female academics in Kenyan context. The study found that lack of female role model, family work conflict; culture and gender, lack of female network are among the factors that hinder career progression of female academics. The study further demonstrates that female academician felt isolated from male networks that make them to lack relevant

information concerning career development. Women in Tarimo (2019) study argued that women lack information about securing scholarship and sometimes their view in meeting are not considered. How male and societies perceive about female also was cited as hindrance factors on that study. Mavin and Bryans (2002) found that networking as the factors that support career progression of female academician. The study found that networking help women to access different information concerning their career. The access to scholarship, training and development opportunities were also found to support career progression of female academics to senior positions. The current study saw the necessity to link.

Adusa-Karikari (2008) investigated into the barriers of female academician in Ghanaian public universities and found that lack of female role models and inability to form networks were major problems. It was revealed that to be promoted in the academy one's publications, presentations and research were crucial. Women academics report greater isolation than men and are less integrated into the university department which results in low statistical visibility. Male academics have the opportunity to hold informal gathering as friends or old boys where they could share drinks and important ideas such as discussions about research, publications and other important information pertinent to their career growth and development which women are not excluded. The role of these meeting in terms of networking and role models cannot be overemphasized. As Bagilhole (1995) rightly puts it, success in the academic market place requires a high level of educational attainment, but moving up the system of rewards and status requires knowing colleagues who can provide guidance, support, and advocacy to the apprentice, because there are few women in the top echelon of the academic ladder, women have little access to female role models and networks, which is obstacle to their career progression.

2.4.7.3 Research and publication, time management and diligence

Several studies have corroborated the finding that research and publication, time management and working hard as strategies used by female academics to reach senior ranks (Tarimo 2019; Boakye, 2018; Murniati, 2012; Bagilhole & White, 2003). These scholars contend that academic writings; books, articles and research publications in internationally recognized journals form an integral part of the requirements for promotions to senior positions such as senior lecturers, associate professor and professor. Publications apparently require a lot of time and commitment, therefore, for any women academician to reach these echelons amid the heavy workload in academia and family responsibilities, it needs no mention that the person is hard working and takes time management seriously.

Onsongo (2000) and Forster (2001) also found that research and publication help academics to build strong academics profile and networks. Literature has it that publications carry much weight for promotion into senior positions (Raburu, 2015; Bagilhole & White, 2003). According to Tarimo (2019), some women associate failure to publish and conduct good research to traditional gender role. McCall et al. (2000) associated poor performance of female in publication to lack of time due to family responsibilities. Through research and publications different strategies could be used to meet that requirement for promotions. The most suggested strategy is co-author, collaboration with abroad and fund donations for research.

Working hard also has been found to be one of the strategies for career progression. Tarimo (2019) and Raburu (2015) observed that working hard was very crucial for career progression of female academic who managed to excel to the senior positions. Under this domain of working hard and commitment different strategies were used.

These include waking up early and sleeping late in order to perform some responsibilities.

Raddon (2002) argues that for women academic to achieve success in academic career must be able to fulfill multitasking which entails the ability to perform both professional responsibilities and family responsibilities. Multitasking go hand in hand with time management. Bagilhole and White (2003) found that female academic who managed to balance family responsibilities and work responsibilities are good in time management. Despite the fact that research and publication, and diligence are major strategies for female academic to reach senior position, time management is an indispensable strategy (Tarimo, 2019).

Boakye (2018) studied the experiences of female academics in three public universities in Ghana and found that time management was crucial for balancing work and family life. Some of the strategies employed to manage time included inter alia; working late in the night whilst husband and children are asleep, (Armenti, 2004), so as to have time and space or wake up at dawn before everyone else, depending on husband and close relatives like sisters and mothers to perform certain domestic responsibilities or employing the services of house-helps.

2.4.7.4 Personality traits, cooperation and team work

It has also been found that some academicians attribute their success to certain personality traits like personal empowerment and characteristics which included resilience, perseverance, taking responsibility, and self-confidence. Adusaa-Karikari (2008) also discovered that –survival in academic setting requires a personal commitment to persevere. The expectations of the academy and the patriarchal family are time consuming for the Ghanaian women in tertiary education, demands a great

deal of resilience and perseverance to thrive” (p. 152). Most of the faculty members interviewed referred to the phrase “you publish or you perish,” a reminder to them of the requirements and expectations of their jobs – teaching, service and research. Failing to publish and conduct research would render them virtually nonexistent in the academe. There is a high level of drive, enthusiasm and energy among these women but it is with perseverance that they can succeed.

Tarimo (2019) and Boakye (2018) found in their studies that cooperation and team work was unique strategy that facilitates career progression. The findings implied that if academics cooperate it reduces the problem of mentoring and lack of confidence. This increases female network in academics arena. Cooperation and team work help junior staff to co-publish with senior staff who are well versed in publication.

Tarimo (2019) observed that provision of special program for female academics was essential strategy which facilitates career progression of female academics. Special programme help to build capacity of women in research and publication. Special programme of encouraging women to get engaged in research training have proved effective in western countries as proposed by some of participants who study abroad. The findings suggest that we may use that strategy to help women to reach senior positions.

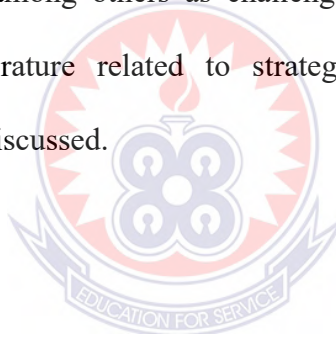
2.5 Summary of Reviewed Literature

The chapter elucidated the concept of career, career development and career progression, pertinent to the topic. Under theoretical framework feminist theories were outlined. Four strands of feminist theories: liberal feminist theory, radical feminist theory, socialist feminist theory and postcolonial feminist theory were discussed. These theories basically espoused the basis of gender inequality against

females in society and advocate for gender equality. Gaps in feminist views were also outlined.

Empirical studies pertinent the study were discussed. The analysis of empirical studies revealed suggest that sociocultural beliefs, gender roles and expectation, perpetuated by various agencies of socialisation provide a framework for understanding female academics career progression. The literature cited intrinsic and extrinsic as main motivational factors driving people take up profession in academia.

The literature pointed out cultural values, societal norms, policies, balancing work and family life, negative stereotype at the workplace, lack of mentors, poor networking, lack of self-confidence among others as challenges confronting female academics career progression. Literature related to strategies used by successful women academicians were also discussed.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the overall methodology and study design employed by the researcher in the conduct of the study. It describes the research paradigm, design, approach of the research, setting of the study, population of the study, sample and sampling technique, trustworthiness, data collection, and data analysis methods utilised by the researcher, and ethical issues.

3.1 Theoretical and Philosophical Underpinning of the Study

An important academic research of this calibre deserves to lay claim to theoretical framework and philosophical perspectives regarding what is knowledge and how it is acquired. The philosophical perspective for this study is constructivist epistemology which argues that, meaning is constructed not discovered, so subjects construct their own meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon (Gray, 2004) and it is linked to nominalist ontological school of thought which posit that knowledge of the world is socially constructed, understood and interpreted by individual participants based on their experiences of the world in which they live and work (Kusi, 2012).

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) Assert that, paradigm is “a way of seeing the world that frames a research topic” and influences the way that researchers think about the topic (p. 26). Henn, Weinstein and Foard (2009) indicate that a paradigm is a set of assumptions about how the issue of concern to the researcher should be studied. Paradigm adopted directs the researcher’s investigation which includes research

approach, design, data collection and analysis procedures. Paradigm therefore has important implications for every decision made in the research process” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 26).

Pursuant to the ontological assumption and epistemological perspective adopted, the theoretical perspective underpinning this study is the interpretive paradigm or worldview. The interpretive paradigm was chosen because the purpose of the study was to explore the career progression experiences of female lecturers. Interpretive paradigm argues that social reality is created jointly through meaningful interaction between the researcher and the researched on agreement (Grbich, 2007; Rugg & Petre, 2007) in the latter’s socio-cultural context. Social reality is experienced in a number of ways and interpreted often in similar but not necessarily the same manner. Interpretive research acknowledges the feelings, experiences and viewpoints of the researched as data (Walliman, 2018). Therefore, researchers working within the interpretive paradigm collect data verbally. Interpretive paradigm was employed for this study for three main reasons. Interpretive paradigm permits the researcher to access the experiences and viewpoints of research participants, recognises the role of the researcher and the research participant in knowledge construction and is useful in an attempt to understand a phenomenon in all its complexity in a particular socio-cultural context (Kusi, 2012).

Qualitative research was considered appropriate for this research because a qualitative researcher collects the viewpoints, feelings and experiences of participants as data. Also, during the interpretation of such data, attention is emphatically given to perspectives of the research participants (Kusi, 2012). The study was qualitative in nature. The aim of this study was to explore the career progression experiences of

female lecturers in tertiary educational institutions in Ghana. Qualitative research explores social or human problems by building a complex holistic picture, analyzing words rather than numbers, and providing detailed information on the views of the participants in their natural certain (Creswell, 2018).

Qualitative research consist of a set of interpretive material practices that make the world visible and researcher study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or to interpret phenomenon in terms meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In particular, qualitative research is naturalistic, interpretive approach concerned with understanding meaning, which people attach phenomenon within their social world. It is an in-depth interpreted understanding of the social world of research participants by learning about their social and material circumstances, their experiences, perspectives and histories (Snape & Spencer, 2003).

In this study, the researcher acknowledged the feelings, experiences and viewpoints of the researched through verbal collection of data. This was because through the face-to-face interview with the participants in their offices, the researcher was able to explore their feelings, experiences and viewpoints on career progression. Qualitative research aims to elucidate the truth that exist in regard to a particular phenomenon and to generate a comprehensive understanding of the reality given the subjective experiences of researchers and participants of what is real (Williamson, 2009).

3.2 Research Approach

This study employed qualitative approach to address the research questions. Qualitative approach was appropriate for several reasons. First, considering the research questions and the objectives this approach was appropriate as it seeks to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the

interactions there (Patton, 2015). Qualitative research methods are used to answer questions relating to experience, meaning, perspective, most often from the standpoint of the participant (Hammarberg, Kirkman & de Larcey, 2016), and precisely this intersects with the goal of this study. Qualitative approach was appropriate due to the dearth of research currently available on lived experiences of female academicians in Ghanaian tertiary institutions. Qualitative researchers are interested in the complexity of social interaction expressed in daily life and the meanings that the participants themselves attribute to those interaction (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

3.3 Research Design

The research methods selected say much about the views on what qualifies as valuable knowledge and the perspective on the nature of reality. This study employed the phenomenological design, for various reasons that are pertinent to the issue under investigation.

Firstly, phenomenology elucidate the meaning of the lived experience of a group of people related to a specific phenomenon. Phenomenology targets obtaining a profound understanding, description, and meaning of the everyday experiences of a group of individuals, female academics for this case (Creswell, 2018). Selecting phenomenology research is a deliberate attempt to give a “voice” to the participants (women) who are mostly silenced in a patriarchy or a male-dominant academic environment.

Secondly, phenomenology as a research tool and methodology focuses on descriptions of what people experience and how it is that they experience what they experience. One can employ a general phenomenological perspective to elucidate the importance of using methods that capture people’s experience of the world without

conducting a phenomenological study that focuses on the essence of shared experience” (Patton, 2015).

In addition, Creswell (2018) explains that a phenomenological researcher owe it as a duty to search for essentials, invariant structure (or essence) or the central underlying meaning of the experience and emphasise the intentionality of consciousness where experiences contain both the outward appearance and inward consciousness based on memory, image and meaning. Creswell (2018) goes on to state that a phenomenological study describes the meaning of the lived experiences for several individuals about a concept or the phenomenon” (p. 51).

For the purpose of this study, therefore, phenomenology was employed to explore, analyse and describe a phenomenon while preserving its richness, breadth and depth, so as to gain ‘a near-real picture’ of it (Matua & Van Der Wal, 2015).

3.4 Settings of the Study

The University of Education, Winneba is a contemporary, multi-campus, multi-site public University. It was established in 1992 by a government ordinance (PNDC Law 322) and with a relationship with the University of Cape Coast. The University is charged with the responsibility of teacher education and producing professional educators to spearhead a new national vision of education aimed at redirecting Ghana’s effort along the path of rapid economic and social development.

The University consists of two satellite campuses and over 35 distance education study centres with a student population of over 60,000. The main campus which host its administrative office is spread over three sites; South, Central and North, all within Winneba town, the Effutu Municipality of Central Region of Ghana. The other

campus is located at Ajumako in the Central Region of Ghana and Ghana. The University offers courses in Science Education, Mathematics Education, Home Economics Education, Creative Arts Education, Counseling Psychology and Educational Administration and Leadership among others.

One justification for selecting this public university was that it typifies the other tertiary institutions in Ghana. The university was selected also due to the fact that it is one of the fast growing universities as it has the highest student population. Also, not many studies have been published on the status of female academics in this university. The researcher is also a concerned student of at the setting who wanted to contribute the development of the school by bringing the issues under study to the attention of various stakeholders.

3.5 Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of all female academics working in the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) main campus for at least two years. Statistics on the classification of teaching staff at the University of Education, Winneba campus retrieved from the Planning Unit of UEW, August 26th, 2020 indicated that there were ninety-four female lecturers. The breakdown of this number revealed that there were two full professors, four associate professors, thirty-two senior lectures, forty-one lecturers and fourteen assistant lecturers. These groups were deemed appropriate for the study because the theoretical and philosophical perspective guiding this study as espoused above suggest that these senior-level women who were also more information-rich ought to be the subject of the study since the research concerned them. In addition, the interpretive paradigm chosen for this study argues that social reality is created jointly through meaningful interaction

between the researcher and the researched on agreement (Grbich, 2007; Rugg & Petre, 2007) in the latter's socio-cultural context, therefore the study must rely on these female academics for data since the study under investigation concerned them.

3.6 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The study used nine participants. The sample consisted of two associate professors, three senior lecturers, two lecturers and two assistant lecturers. This was considered suitable because qualitative studies typically require a small sample size, and for phenomenological studies, Creswell (2018) recommends three to ten cases. Creswell, (2018) contends that selecting a large number of interviewees result in superficial perspectives and the overall ability of the researcher to provide an in-depth picture diminishes with the addition of each new individual or site. This is because the general aim of sampling in qualitative research is to acquire information that is useful for understanding the complexity, depth, variation, or context surrounding a phenomenon. Some researchers have addressed the challenges of determining sample size. In addition to the purpose of the enquiry, Patton (2015) acknowledged the role of resource limitation in determining a qualitative sample size. Merriam (2009) also discussed the process for selecting a sample and determining sample size. She noted that it depends on the research questions, the data collected, the data analysis and the resources available.

The sample size of nine was deemed appropriate as the responses of the nine participants were consistent implying the data collection had reached saturation point. This was justified since the commonly proposed criterion for determining when sufficient sample size has been reached in qualitative research is saturation (Charmaz, 2003; Glaser & Strauss, 2017; Lincoln & Guba, 2011; Merriam, 2009; Morse, 1995).

The study employed purposive sampling method. The fact that the study is qualitative and the nature of research objectives make purposive sampling technique appropriate because Patton (2015) pointed out that purposive sampling is suitable in qualitative research for identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources. Also, according to (Creswell & Clark, 2011), purposive sampling involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced phenomenon of interest. The above qualities make purposive sampling appropriate for this research as it is consistent with the aims and assumptions inherent in the study.

The specific type of purposive sampling applied in selecting the nine participants was criterion based sampling. This was deemed appropriate due to the fact that Criterion-based as a subset of purposeful sampling, is a strategy widely utilised in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases (Patton, 2015). In support, criterion sampling helps to identify weaknesses in a system and provides means to improve it. This includes recognising and choosing participants who are particularly knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest (Creswell & Clark, 2011 as cited by Palinkas, et al., 2015, p. 534). Criterion-based selection first determines what attributes of the sample are essential to your study and afterwards includes a search for individuals or sites that meet the stipulated criteria (Tisdell & Merriam, 2016).

Participants were identified by the following criteria: a) Ghanaian; b) female; c) Professor, Associate Professor, Senior Lecturer, or Lecturer in University of Education, Winneba (UEW); Winneba campus and worked with the University for at least two year.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

Semi-structured interview was the instruments used for data collection. This was deemed suitable because Patton (2015) assert that qualitative enquiry focuses on meaning in context, and requires a data collection instrument that is sensitive to underlying meaning when gathering and interpreting data.

In addition, considering the research questions guiding the study, semi-structured interview was most appropriate because Seidman (2006) stated that interviewing ~~is~~ a powerful way to gain insight into educational and other important social issues through understanding the experience of the individuals whose lives reflect those issues” (p. 9). The study used in depth-interviewing because according Punch (2013), it enables the researcher to understand and interpret social reality through meanings that the respondents attach to their career experiences.

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), interviewing is a qualitative tool which allows the researcher and the participant some freedom to negotiate their own meanings and further allowing the researcher to explore in depth interesting issues through conversations. Interview was appropriate for the study due to the fact that it permits the investigation of respondent experiences and perceptions in great detail (Dicicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Patton, 2015). Patton (2015) further reveals that qualitative findings grow out of four kinds of data collection: in-depth, open-ended interviews, direct observation, and written documents.

In qualitative research, interviews may be used in two ways. They may be the dominant strategy for data collection, or they may be employed in conjunction with participant observation, document analysis, or other techniques (Rapley, 2004). In all these situations, the interviews are used to gather qualitative data, in the subjects’ own

words, so that the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world.

The semi-structured interview schedule had two sections; A and B, and was scheduled to last for less than an hour. The section A solicited for the demographic information of the participants and section B focused on items relating to the research questions guiding the study. In section A, the researcher inquired about the demographic information of respondents such as the age, marital status, number of children, academic qualification, number of years worked in the institution and rank in academia.

The section B explored the lived experiences of participants using semi-structured interview guide. Specifically, it sought to find out the factors that motivated female academicians to venture into academia and progress through the ranks, beside financial motivation and prestige. This provided answers for research question one. In order to gain appropriate answers for research question, participants were asked to share their experiences relating to what they consider as challenges or barriers to their career progression. In this domain, the instrument explored participants' reflections on sociocultural beliefs, values, norms, gender roles and expectations in their socialisation process, stories of their upbringing and how it has influenced their life and career aspirations and progression. Participants were asked to share challenges they encounter in their organisation with respect to their gender. On the same tangent, respondents were made to express their opinions on certain self-limiting attitudes and behaviour believed to be often associated with some women who have the potential of impeding their own career progression.

Researcher also solicited responses on key strategies that female academics ascribe their successes to and their sources of support so as to deal with research question three. The concluding part of the interview which solicited solutions for research question four entreated respondents to indicate the kind of support systems they would want their organizations to provide in order to facilitate their career progression. The content of the interview schedule was crafted after a meticulous review of related literature from Ghana, Africa and beyond.

3.8 Trustworthiness of the Study

In any systematic enquiry into human condition, it is vital to establish true value of the study. Thus, the study must be judged against certain criteria to ensure that the findings and interpretations are true reflection of the participants or reality and are reliable (De Vos, 2002). The concept of “validity” and “reliability” are often renamed “trustworthiness and “authenticity” for qualitative research (Creswell, 2018). According to Lincoln and Guba (2011) accommodation between and among paradigms on axiomatic grounds is simply not possible. Therefore, Lincoln and Guba (2011) argue that trustworthiness criteria be employed to judge the quality of a study located in the interpretivist qualitative framework. Qualitative research is deemed trustworthy when it accurately represents the experiences of the study participants (Streubert & Carpenter, 2011). The elements of the trustworthiness criteria include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3.8.1 Credibility

Trochim and Donnelly (2006) assert that the result of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspectives of the participants in the research. As qualitative research explore people’s perceptions, experiences, feelings and beliefs, and it is

believed that the respondents are the best judge of whether or not the research findings have been able to reflect their opinions and feelings accurately.

Creswell (2018) posit that respondent validation is where the result of the research is submitted to the respondents for confirmation as a means of establishing credibility. Bryman (2004) also holds the view that the establishment of credibility of findings demands that the research is carried out according to good practice and by submitting it to the social world that were studied for confirmation that the researcher understood the social order correctly. Kumar (2014) suggested that prolonged engagement is a technique to ensure credibility.

The researcher employed good protocols, designs, and member checking in order to validate the accuracy and credibility of the research findings. Also, the researcher engaged in prolonged engagement by spending one month in the field collecting data. It was also noted that the higher the agreement of the interviewees with the findings the higher the validity of the study (Kumar, 2014).

3.8.2 Transferability

Transferability is the degree to which the findings can be applied or generalised to other contexts or groups (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002). Transferability can be achieved through thick and rich description and reaching maximum variation in sampling (Anfara, Brown & Magione, 2002).

The researcher achieved this in this study through describing the process that was adopted for deeper understanding. Also, the research context and methodological processes were comprehensively delineated so as to enable other researchers to apply the findings to similar settings of their choice thereby regarding the findings in this

study as solution to their chosen context. In addition, the researcher provided adequate background information about the respondents, the research context and setting that allow others to assess the level transferability of the findings. The researcher kept accurate record of all the activities while carrying out the study. These included the raw data as well as the details of the data analysis.

3.8.3 Dependability

Dependability corresponds to reliability of findings in quantitative studies (Merriam & Associates as cited in Kusi, 2012). Lincoln and Guba (2011), admit that there could be no credibility without dependability in qualitative research. Dependability is concerned with whether we could obtain the same result if we observe the same thing twice (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006).

Dependability aspect of the trustworthy was met by making inquiry audits which involved letting colleagues and two research experts to review and examine the research process to ensure that the results were consistent and could be replicated. Dependability is often established with an audit trail which includes maintaining and preserving all transcripts, notes, audiotapes etc. Audit trails clarify the methods of the study, how participants were chosen, illustrate how data were collected and analyzed, and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry (Merriam, 2009).

In order to address the dependability issue more directly, the processes involved in the study were reported comprehensively to enable future researchers replicate the work, if not necessarily to obtain the same findings. In addition, information from the literature assisted the researcher to develop question that elicited appropriate responses to answer the research questions that were formulated to guide the study. There was systematic data collection procedure that reached the point of saturation,

the extensive documentation of the data (transcription of interview narratives), methods and decisions were steps in proving the dependability of the study. The thesis supervisors assessed the work to ascertain whether or not the findings, interpretations and conclusions were supported by the data.

3.8.4 Confirmability

Trochim and Donnelly (2006) declare confirmability to mean the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others. Patton (2015) associates objectivity in science with the use of instruments that are not dependent on human skill and perception. He recognises, however, the difficulty of ensuring real objectivity, since, as even tests and questionnaires are designed by humans, the intrusion of the researcher's biases is inevitable. The concept of confirmability is the qualitative investigator's comparable concern to objectivity. Here steps must be taken to help ensure as far as possible that the work's findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher. Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (2002) opine that the audit trail is the fundamental strategy used to exhibit confirmability. The audit analyses the research work to ascertain whether that the findings, interpretations and recommendations are supported by data (Lincoln & Guba, 2011). Another key criterion for establishing confirmability is the extent to which the researcher admits his or her own predisposition which many refer to as positionality.

To this end, the researcher explained his positionality with regards to the topic being studied in chapter one. Also, underpinning decisions and methods adopted were acknowledged within the research report by the researcher. In addition, the reasons for favouring one approach when others could have been taken were explained and

weaknesses in the techniques actually employed by the researcher were admitted. Confirmability was ensured by avoiding biases that could skew the interpretation of what the research participants said to suit a certain narrative. The researcher also provided an audit trail, which highlighted every step of data analysis that was made in order to show the justifications for the decisions made. The researcher conducted the study in an objective manner, such that its findings were not affected by the convictions, orientations and prejudices of the researcher (Kumar, 2014).

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

Patton (2015) reveals that qualitative findings grow out of three kinds of data collection: in-depth, open-ended interviews, direct observation, and written documents. Glesne (2016) also affirms that the use of multiple data collection methods contributes to the trustworthiness of data. The concept of triangulation was employed in the data collection which is the practice of employing several instruments or tools within the same research design (Sarantakos, 2013). Patton (2015) notes that triangulation within a qualitative inquiry strategy can be obtained by combining both interviewing and observation. In this research, semi-structured interview and observation were used for the purpose of triangulation. Bell (2008) asserts that observation is useful in assessing what people actually do or how they actually behave in their context.

To address the issues and answer the research questions, an in-depth, open ended interview based study of nine female academicians was done. Using the literature and research questions, pertinent questions suitable to gain a holistic impression of the participants' experiences was crafted. The researcher observed the ethical issues involved in data collection as he visited the prospective interviewee to schedule times

for interviews with them. During the interview, the interviewer began with section –A” which solicited for responses on the demographic information of the respondent. The interviews were recorded because Patton (2015) asserts that no matter what style of interviewing you use and no matter how carefully you word questions, it all comes to naught if you fail to capture the actual words of the person being interviewed. The second face of the interview focused on section –B” of the interview guide. Open-ended questions pertaining to the research questions or the objectives were asked. The researcher observed respondents demeanour and ambiance closely and made field notes during each interview session as a means to capture key experiences and reflections made by each participant.

3.10 Data Analysis

The study applied the thematic analysis principles. This was viewed as suitable for the study because Braun and Clarke (2006) posit that thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns or themes within a set of data, and this method is not grounded in any particular theoretical and epistemological framework so it can be applied to a wide range of qualitative research approaches. Also, according to Attride-Stirling (2001) thematic analysis seeks to unearth the themes salient in a text at different levels.

The study applied the six steps process for doing thematic analysis, originally developed by Virginia Braun and Victoria Clark. The six steps were;

1. Familiarisation
2. Coding
3. Generating themes
4. Reviewing themes

5. Defining and naming themes
6. Writing up

After the interviews, the first step of data analysis process was initiated by listening to the recorded audio interview and transcribing the digital recordings for each interview into a text file and effort was made to retain the original words of respondents verbatim. The transcription was done manually by the researcher himself because Patton (2015) affirms that “doing all or some of your own interview transcriptions (instead of having them done by a transcriber), provides an opportunity to get immersed in the data, an experience that usually generates emergent insights” (p. 441). The researcher created a database of the responses, after transcribing all of the interviews. The database was meant to allow the researcher to view the responses of one participant or to analyse the data for one interview question. The researcher read over the transcripts to familiarise himself with the general feeling or idea of what respondents were saying and the necessary corrections were made.

The second step involved developing codes and coding of all the responses from each interview. Thereafter, the researcher grouped similar kind of information together in categories that relate different ideas.

The study employed deductive approach to thematic analysis, consequently the themes were predetermined after a careful review of literature in line with the research questions. The researcher then reviewed the themes in the light of the codes they represent. This was done to ensure that the themes accurately represent the data. After a careful review of the themes, the necessary adjustments were made in order to correct old theme and add new ones.

In the finally analysis, the researcher interpreted and discussed the themes in relation with the research question or objective they intend to answer. The findings under each theme were compared and discussed against existing literature and appropriate conclusions and recommendations were made.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues in research refer to the general agreements shared by researchers about what is proper and improper in the conduct of scientific inquiry (Babbie, 2016). These include seeking permission, voluntary participation, no harm to participants, informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality (Babbie, 2016) Furthermore, Punch (2013) posit that ethical guidelines direct researchers so that their studies are of high standard. It is imperative to adhere to ethical issues in a research of this kind in order to avoid participants withholding vital information from the researcher. The researcher observed all the ethical aspect of the research through the following.

3.12 Permission, Voluntary Participation and Informed Consent

The research was conducted at UEW; Winneba campus in Efutu municipality. The researcher first sought permission from the school authorities and the research participants. An introductory letter issued by the department of educational administration and management and a consent form containing the synopsis and the purpose of the study was presented to some members of the research population to read and subsequently decide to either partake in the study or otherwise. These potential participants were made to understand what the study was all about, the potential benefits and risks and the fact that their participation was absolutely voluntary. The consent form provided information that assured potential interviewees anonymity and confidentiality through the use of descriptions that will not reveal or

suggest their identities and use of participants synonyms; w1 to w9 as expressed in (Creswell, 2018). Participants were also assured that the information they provided would be handled as highly confidential and used for the academic purpose only and the tapes and notes would be destroyed as soon as the research was over. A briefing on the purpose and significance of the study being conducted was given to the interviewees prior to each interview to allay their anxieties for sharing confidential information. The researcher ensured that any act that could in one way or the other cause harm to the respondents were avoided. Appendix B and C present copies of the consent form and the introductory letter respectively.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter reports on the qualitative data collected, the analysis of the data and the discussion of the results obtained from interviews conducted. The purpose of this study as earlier mentioned in chapter one, was to explore the motivation, challenges, and strategies to success from the lived experiences of female academicians in their career progression. The analysis was guided by the research questions designed for the study.

4.1 Background of the Study Participants

Nine female lectures participated in the interview and they were represented by pseudonyms; W1, W2, W3 up to W9. The participants' background data collected was based on different attributes such as qualification, rank, age, marital status, number of children and years of experience with the institution.

The rank and years of experience in the service greatly influence the understanding of participants on the issues under investigation. Years of experience ranged from two to twenty-eight. There were two associate professors, three senior lecturers, two lecturers and two assistant lecturers. The study discovered that participants who have more years of experience had sufficient and profound information about career progression experiences of female academicians. This provided the researcher the opportunity to pose more probing questions to the more experienced women.

The study took marital status and number of children into consideration purposely because the researcher was interested in finding out how those could influence their

responsibilities, how participants succeeded in juggling work and family responsibilities.

Out of the nine participants interviewed, five were married with children, two were divorced with children and two were also single without children. Seven of the respondents had at least one child and at most four children. The views of the unmarried women were compared to those of the married women and it was found that women who were married and had young children experienced more challenges and conflicting responsibilities as compared to those who were unmarried.

4.2 Factors that Motivate Females to Nurture Career in Tertiary Institutions

This section addressed the first research question of the study: factors that motivate females to nurture career in tertiary institutions in Ghana. The study sought to explore those factors that motivate women to enter tertiary institutions and progress through the ranks to the ultimate level of professor. The result showed that participants were motivated by mainly intrinsic factors. Love for teaching or imparting knowledge, being self-driven, and academic achievements, were cited as intrinsic motivational factors which inspired participants. Extrinsic factors such as remuneration and prestige formed integral part of the factors but were referred to in a circumlocutory manner. In answering this question of what inspired you into the academia? These were what some of the participants had to say;

4.2.1 Love for teaching or imparting knowledge

Participant shared their opinion on intrinsic factors that informed their decision to enter into the academia and what inspired them to progress to higher ranks.

For instance, one assistant lecturer intimated;

I was a professional teacher before coming to do masters, therefore my goal was to improve myself and move to a higher level in teaching. I wanted to be at the peak of teaching profession. It was not the money attached the work per se but the love for imparting knowledge inspired me into the academia (W1)

Others also shared similar views. For example, another one in senior position disclosed that;

for me it was neither the money nor prestige attached to the work, rather, my motivation was to impact knowledge at the highest level because I had already taught at all the other levels of education. (W5)

She believed that she must grow in whatever positive endeavour she finds herself so she was determined to reach the apex of the teaching profession.

Another woman also expressed her form of internal motivation;

my ultimate goal is to reach the rank of full professor. I love imparting knowledge to others and want to always be the best. It is this philosophy of life that keeps propelling me in my career. (W7)

The results showed that intrinsic motivation in a form of passion for imparting knowledge was the main driving force behind the career development and progression of W1, W5 and W7. The responses concur with the findings of Raburu (2015), who studied the motivation of women academics and balancing family and career in Kenya. She found that some of the participants who were bright, hard-working and eager to learn in their student days wanted to lecture because that would afford them the opportunity for continuous academic exercise and satisfy their passion for knowledge and the discovery of new knowledge. Again, this finding was consistent with that of Tarimo (2019), who studied factors affecting career progression of female academics to senior positions in public universities in Tanzania using qualitative approach. It was found that love for teaching and reading was one of the intrinsic

factors that motivated some academicians into their profession and progressed into senior positions.

4.2.2 Being self-driven

Being self-driving was another intrinsic motivating factor expounded by some of the respondents. Some participants revealed that their ambition to enter the service and progress in it came from within and they were self-driven. They believed that it was their philosophy of life that always goaded them through their career. The potential influences of remuneration and prestige attached to the profession were considered as secondary matter.

One proponent of the above factor; an associate professor disclosed that;

my goal was to get to the ultimate level of teaching profession; full professor. In the first place, I did not see lecturing as being prestigious but I have a philosophy of life that whatever is worth doing should be done well. This is what has taken me this far. I am the type who does not look at people per se, but whatever I decide to do I want to be the best; on top of what I am doing (W3).

Another woman, sharing similar sentiments hinted that:

...I believe I have to grow and develop in any positive human endeavour I find myself and this has been my guiding principle. (W6)

The passion for imparting knowledge coupled with their philosophy of life was the main internal motivation. This discovery resonated with the findings of Tarimo (2019), who did a study on factors affecting career progression of female academics to senior positions in Open University in Tanzania and established that some respondents pursued their career and progressed to senior positions because they were self-driving by some principles and philosophies.

4.2.3 Professional development and high academic qualification

Another theme on motivational factors that came to light was professional development and acquisition of high academic qualifications. The employment history of some of the participants revealed that hitherto qualifying to join the academia they belonged to two different backgrounds. There were some who were professional teachers; diploma and first degree holders teaching in the basic and secondary schools and those who had not taught before. The minimum qualification for entry into the academia in Ghana is masters with thesis option and PhD with the PhD being the most preferred. Therefore when teachers especially, and other professionals, upgrade their knowledge and skill and they meet the academic requirements for academia, they feel highly motivated to enter into academia which is the highest level in the teaching profession to nurture their career there. Recounting how and what motivated them into academia, some participants professed that after acquiring their highest qualification they realised that the new knowledge they have acquired would be more suitable and functional for teaching at the university than to apply the new knowledge in their previous employment.

For example, a senior lecturer explaining how and why she made a transition to the academia intimated that;

I was a secondary school teacher and I wanted to upgrade my knowledge, so I studied a master's programme but after the programme, I realised that the course was not taught in the secondary schools, so I decided to join the university where I would get the opportunity to teach that course. (W2)

One of the participants also shared this;

I was a professional teacher before coming to do masters, my goal was to improve myself and move to a higher level in teaching, therefore, after the programme, I decided to join this university. (W1)

Another woman elaborated that;

I taught at almost all levels; JHS, SHS, College of Education and Teaching Assistant at University of Education, Winneba, so the next level of the profession which I desired was lecturing as a result I managed to get my master's degree and joined the university (W4).

It emerged that some ambitious teachers who had chalked successes in the pre-tertiary levels of education, find the job uninspiring after some time. Therefore, after going through professional development and excelling in their graduate programmes such as Master of philosophy degree and Doctorate degrees hunger for transition into the academia to progress their career and quit the humdrum job. This finding is similar to Tarimo (2019) who also found that qualification and achievement motivated some females to join academia to progress their teaching career.

4.2.4 Remuneration and prestige

Participants admitted that acquiring higher levels of education comes with many benefits of which escape from poverty was paramount. Money and prestige were not patently cited as their prime motivational factor but obviously, they are inextricably linked to higher promotions. The expressions of some respondents alluded to the fact that financial incentives and the prestige of being a lecturer in senior position were also important sources of motivation.

For instance, one respondent noted;

My goal was to lecture at the university and become a professor in future I love reading and teaching a lot, so I wanted to fulfill my dream of becoming a professor; after all, being a professor is more prestigious and most rewarding level in the teaching profession. (W1)

The quest for money and prestige were rarely mentioned as the focus, yet, it was implicit in some of the accounts. W1 for instance said this;

for me it was neither money nor prestige attached to the work, rather my motivation was to impact knowledge at the highest level because I

have taught at all the other levels of education. I wanted to be at the peak of teaching profession. (W5)

4.3 Challenges faced by Female Academicians in their Career Progression

This section answered the research question two: What challenges do female academicians in the University of Education, Winneba face in their career progression? Under this domain, the challenging factors to career progression of female academics were categorised under three major themes; societal level factors, organizational level factors and individual level factors.

4.3.1 Societal level factors

Discrimination against women from early socialisation

The results showed that society has different expectations for female and males. The society expects women to be wives, mothers and care givers. Therefore, the training of young female involves carrying out responsibilities such as washing cleaning, cooking, caring for babies, be obedient and so on, purposely to accustom them to the roles expected in future. Participants acknowledged performing those responsibilities to help their homes when they were growing up. It was found that females work more at home than their male counterparts. The participants unanimously agreed they were steeped in that household chores such as washing, cleaning, cooking and so on more than their male counterpart for the obvious reasons that they would be able to fulfill their responsibilities as suitable wives, mothers and care givers in future. However, in terms of access to education, they said that their families did not discriminate between the sexes.

For example, one senior lecturer intimated this;

In my family there are no gender biases against females regarding access to educational opportunities. But doing household chores like cooking, cleaning washing was considered normal for girls to prepare

you for future life. I am accustomed to the traditional roles and responsibilities like household chores and I manage to fulfill them in addition to my office work (w2).

Another woman also had this to say;

.... Unlike boys, you cannot avoid working at home, helping your mother or guardian. It was stressful and difficult to combine with studies but I never allowed anything to draw me back (W3).

Another woman also shared this;

I come from a family of good educational and religious background so I did not experience cultural traditional and religious discrimination based on gender. The females in the family were rather encouraged to go higher in education and we served as models of excellence for other females in our community. People often cited us as good examples for those who got pregnant and dropped out of school. ...I was born into a devout Presbyterian home and because Presbyterians do not joke with education, they encouraged and did not discriminate between the sexes (W4).

The above findings agree with that of Boakye (2018), who argued that gender division of labour or social roles exist in Ghanaian societies. He argued that typical Ghanaian homes have female students convey the weight of combining their studies with household chores. This result also re-echoes the finding of Tsoka (2012), who argued that the past experiences of women have made them believe that there are jobs that are traditionally designated for women such as child nurturing, washing cleaning and cooking. However, the study's finding opposes the arguments by Bardley (2000) that customary beliefs cause parents to place more value on sons as compared to girls and that if parents need to pick between educating their daughter or son, they would more than likely pick their son who would more likely have admittance to civil service work, compared with the farming and informal economy work of his sister. This disagreement stem from the fact that most of the respondents averred that their parents or guardians did not discriminate against them with regards to access to

education, rather, they were encouraged and supported to go through their education because it was common for girls to drop out of school in those days for many obvious reasons.

One woman in senior position elaborated that;

I never allowed anything to draw me back not even my marriage. I was determined to do whatever I wanted to do. Religious beliefs did not have any impact on me. If you do not know the word of God maybe it can have some negative influence on you but I make time to read the bible so I know what is in the bible and nobody can use the bible to change my mind.... A lot of it depends on the individual but that does not mean there are not obstacles in the way of a woman. You only have to know what you want in life and never allow anyone to suppress you because you are a woman (W3).

The participants indicated that unlike some other families, their families rather encouraged and supported them and that was the reason why they were able to achieve higher level of education among their peers. On the same tangent, some were of the view that, there is always discrimination against women which is rooted in culture and that discrimination permeates and transcends even religion and academia.

One woman in senior position elaborated;

As far as religious beliefs are concerned, I did not suffer any restrictions but the point is that society is influencing everything; culture is influencing everything to the extent that even in the church women are supposed to be submissive, obedient, do this, do that... Simply put, those cultural expectations are brought into the church. Sometimes, church activities will not permit you to do what you want to do in terms of academic work unless you determine to do it... For instance, if you are a member of women's fellowship, you should always attend meetings and they would not understand why you cannot make it due to your academic work. If they give you a role to play in the church, you should be seen as doing it and if you do not involve yourself in church activities you are regarded as unspiritual (W5).

In response to the probing question of how come some women manage to get to the top in spite of numerous hindrances, she pointed out that

Even though, there are some women in high positions, it does not necessarily obviate the fact there is systemic discrimination against women. When a woman is striving to go up, usually they ask why you want to go up, when you have what you are expected to do. They do not expect you to go that up because that is a preserve for men. They want you to fulfill your expectation as a woman before you go there, so that has been a big challenge. In my family, we were all females and my mum was also a teacher and so understood education, so accessing education was not a problem (W5).

In summary, it emanated that discrimination against women begins right from early socialisation at home, school, church or mosque when gender division labour or social roles are defined. It was revealed that society has preference for male leadership and expects women to occupy subordinate positions such as fulfilling home responsibilities such as care giving, supporting husband and household chores which are not paid for. These findings are in line with Corward (2010) who also found that cultural factors have created the impression that top management positions are only suitable for men and that women should play secondary roles since emphasis is placed on women's role as mothers, caregivers and nurturers. This finding also coincided with (Tarimo, 2019; Williams, 2017) who argued that religion, societal norms and early socialisation entrench and perpetuate patriarchy ideology and transcends into tertiary educational institutions since these institutions are microcosm of the larger society. The mind set of patriarchy coupled with the drudgery of fulfilling home responsibilities which men virtually perform none is major societal problem that thwart the career progression of female academics. Conventional women; steeped in tradition and religion would find very difficult to circumvent these plots against women.

Policies and programmes

The study also found divided opinions to the question of whether there were enough policies and programmes to address gender issues. Some of the respondents believed that there were already enough policies and programmes but it was the women who usually refused to avail themselves of those opportunities. One of the proponents of the position above said;

there are a whole lot of programmes and policies on gender but some people are not making effective use of them. There are programmes and policies but it is the women who do not just patronise them (W2).

Another respondent also shared similar view that there are enough programmes and policies. She however, bemoaned that policies and programmes on gender unduly advocate for females to the neglect of males. She said;

I think there are to some extent sufficient policies and programme for gender, but most of the time when you talk about gender, we look only at the girl-child to encourage them to go to school or come to the lime light. They overly focus attention on female empowerment and development to the neglect of males and if care is not taken, in a near future the boy-child will also suffer. I feel that the policies on gender should look at both sexes and should not be discriminative (W3).

Some women on the contrary, were of the view that there are inadequate policies and programmes to support women in academia. For instance one respondent noted;

...There are insufficient policies and programmes, and the few that are there exist only in books(W6).

These view that policies and programmes on gender are insufficient and exist only in books but not in practice affirms the findings of Davidson and Burke (2011) who noted that there are great inconsistencies across countries when it comes to the interest and support of organisational employers in developing policies and programmes to support women's career advancement. For them, organisations in advance countries such as Canada, Britain and the United States seem to be the most

proactive whereas employers in Argentina, Africa and Turkey seem to be the least proactive, in the support of women managers and professionals. The results also validates the arguments by Elaqua, Beehr and Hansen (2009), that policies and practices such as training, career development, promotion and compensation are major components of the glass ceiling that prevent women from making it to the top.

4.3.2 Organisational level factors

Under this section, the researcher was eager to ascertain factors related the workplace which negatively influenced career progression of the women.

4.3.3 Promotions and appointments

When respondents were asked to characterise the culture at their institution in accepting women into higher positions, they quickly replied that the institution accepts women into higher positions. It was made clear there were no discrimination in terms of promotions into higher ranks.

One woman, affirming this finding said;

...yeah, they accept females into higher positions. They do because we have a lot of women in higher position both in teaching and non-teaching staff.(W4)

They unanimously agreed that anyone who dully qualifies is always promoted and there was no gender biases as male and female are given equal opportunity in terms of promotions but it was found that the home factors place women at a disadvantageous position and give men the advantage.

For instance another participant affirmed it by saying;

The chances are open for everybody both men and women but you see the demands of the opportunities opened are such that in some context it does not favour women. For example in academia you need to publish, have so many papers, must have your PhD before you get to the top. Comparatively, males will have the time because in the house

it is somebody who does what he wants; somebody would cook and wash for him but the woman is supposed to do those things for the family and so would not have what it takes to meet the demands, consequently, you see a lot of women below the ladder and a lot of men at the top of the ladder. The opportunities are there but the limiting factors for women are from the home.(W5)

This result disagrees with that of Batool and Sajid (2013), which reported that the main obstacle to the progress of women was discrimination against women during promotion in the academic domain. They argued that, women complain that there were more men than women on academic boards, and this has created a lack of transparency in promotion, leading to a situation where despite fulfilling the criteria for promotion, they are still not promoted.

However, regarding appointment into higher positions some respondents in the senior ranks averred that they were not often based on merit. They complained that appointments were characterised by male chauvinism and god father kind of thing.

For, example one woman in senior position made this revelation;

You should have a God father in most cases. There are some human faces in there, so it is not always by merit. I see male chauvinism in the system. In many cases where the rank of a gentleman is a little lower the gentleman will still chair a committee and all the answers will be coming from the ladies. Tradition has found its way into the formal system in a way (W3).

These findings were also similar to Tarimo (2019) and Raburu (2015) who found that societal beliefs under value the capacity and abilities of women hence women were excluded in higher ranks positions.”

4.3.3 Stereotyping

It was found that female lectures suffer various degrees of negative stereotyping from their male counterparts in the academia. The practice is often very subtle and it is taken in stride but at times too it is severe and worth talking about it. Some women

bemoaned that males occupying the same ranks and positions as females are revered than the females. Some of the women attributed this stereotyping in the patriarchal system which has existed since the antediluvian era.

A women who shared some of her experiences said;

I have suffered stereotyping before. Sometime some men would talk to you in a condescending manner as if you are in inferior position or you are not also a lecturer. (W3)

Another participant, lending credence to the forgoing claim elaborated that:

yes, I have experienced negative stereotyping before. Sometime, men find it difficult to accept leadership of women. When a woman is at the top and giving instructions, men and some women as well find it difficult to accept it. Though we all want to be there, when a woman is there and she is giving instructions or giving the command, people find it difficult to accept because society does not permit women to give command. Your fellow women even find it difficult to accept. Again with women it is like you are a woman and you know their problems and you still want them to do things the way it is done, forgetting that the work demands are different from personality.(W5).

The study revealed that females in academia do not receive the same support, authority and respect as their male counterpart from some people. This finding is similar to the argument made by Awung, (2014) that women who do take up leadership roles are often judged negatively by men and women alike. For example a woman sharing her frustration said that:

...it has been very difficult for me. There is always discrimination against women. Although there are some women in high positions, when a woman is striving to go up usually they ask why you want to get go up, when you have what you are expected to do. They do not expect you to go that up because that is a preserve for men. They want you to fulfill your expectation as a woman before you go there, so that has been a big challenge (w4).

They also reveal that women who abide by the traditional “female” or feminine characteristics are considered to be too nice and therefore not capable enough to handle leadership positions. On the other hand, those that show more masculine

characteristics are also considered to be hard. This perception alone makes it difficult for women who are in leadership positions because they have to work harder than men to prove themselves. For instance one woman who had held some management positions before intimated that:

...the men have nothing to lose when they are leaders in the sense that society them expected to be there so they are accepted but the women will have to prove themselves that they are capable and in doing so she may go beyond limit. It happens because some subordinate would pull your legs; because you are a woman (w5).

Females are expected to justify by their performance that they are worthy of the position they occupy because society has created an impression that that is not their rightful place in society .This finding is similar to that of Boakye, (2018) who posit that –Ghanaian women in academia have had to consistently fight for space within the academe, as they constantly face overt and covert forms of gender stereotypes. These stereotypes create contexts that tell women who are successful that they are exceptions and women who have experienced setbacks that it is their own fault for failing to be sufficiently aggressive or committed to the job ” (p. 96).

4.3.5 Balancing of work and family responsibilities

The researcher wanted to find out how participants managed to combine their paid work with their family responsibilities and how the work and the home responsibilities affect their career progression. The paid work responsibilities or the academic duties of the lecturers among other things included; teaching, examination, marking, attending conferences, consulting, supervision, research and publications. The family responsibilities of entailed activities like cooking, washing, cleaning, childbearing, and taking care of children, husband and other relatives.

All respondents attested to the fact that balancing work and family responsibilities posed serious challenges. Many attributed their slow career progression to difficulty in combining family responsibilities with paid jobs. However, the extent to which balancing of work and family responsibilities affected individuals depended on certain factor such as number of children, age of children, age of participant, marital status and support from home. For instance one woman lamented that:

It has not been easy because society expects the woman to be a woman; marry, be a wife, bear children, take care of children, and it is not easy combining these expectations or responsibilities (w4).

It was found that, participants who were single, divorced or had no dependents such as young children and aged mother did not perceive balancing of work and family responsibilities as very serious responsibilities hindering their career progression.

A woman, single and without children said this;

balancing work and family responsibilities is major problem; it is not easy at all for many women, but being single and without children, I am not so burdened as compared to my senior colleagues who have children and husbands to take care of. That notwithstanding, as a woman there are many household chores I have to do. You have to wake up early or sleep late at night to clean, wash, cook and so on, so at times you not able accomplish much academic work as you wish because of stress and tiredness and that potentially slows down your career progression. (W6).

An older woman, sharing similar opinion intimated that;

combining work and home have not been too burdensome because luckily for me, my children were already teenagers and were at the boarding house at the time I was joining the academia, so I was virtually alone. Also, because of my marital status as a divorced mother, I was a bit free to do what I wanted. However, it was not all that easy as compared to the males, who after office work only call home to ascertain what has been prepared for him to come and enjoy; everything is set for him. But in my case, I do not have anybody to assist me; home early to go to the kitchen, attend to social activities and do some other things. (W6)

Another woman, sharing similar sentiments said;

Balancing work and family was a challenge but not after my first degree because I had my children before I went for my first degree, and probably that delayed my first degree. (W4)

Some women who had young children, husbands and other dependent relatives bemoaned that juggling work and family responsibilities have had terrible consequences on their career progression.

For instance one woman lamented that;

I have had a very difficult time, because I had my aged mother with me who needed my attention and you know now getting a house-help is not easy. I have worked for about eight to nine years without house-help so you can imagine my life. You close from work and quickly you have to go home and prepare meals. I have a nine year old child and husband to take care of, so all these years without a house-help, it has been terrible. For me, church activities is almost zero, as I hardly have time to go to church and visit friends, my social circles are closing up. My life is torn between work and home. The work at home is so demanding and it has affected my career progression a lot. (W5)

Another woman lending credence to the issue complained bitterly about juggling paid work and home responsibilities. She bemoaned:

it is not easy combining work and family life. I have to take care of the children, and my husband. I do not have any house-help so I do everything myself with little support from my husband. The children also help but still I have to keep an eye on what they do. After lectures, I often go home immediately to cook and do a whole lot of things. You end up being tired at the end of the day, so you are not able to do more academic work as you wish. I am always the last person to go to bed and first to wake up in the house. (W7)

The responses from most of the participants clearly pointed to the fact that female lecturers face serious challenges combining paid work and home responsibilities. This results confirm the findings of Huong (2013) which asserted that household tasks such as childcare, household chores and care for the elderly were seen as the obligation of women only and Women's strong family obligations act as the strongest macro socio-political cultural barrier to female academic and career advancement (Huong, 2013).

The results also concur with the findings of many studies which argued that women, particularly those in traditional societies perform more family responsibilities than men, such as solely caring for their children, husband, and extended family (Boakye 2018; Tarimo 2019)

For example a woman also intimated that:

...the males do not perform household chores so they can go home anytime they wish but for us at certain times you have to go home and work. As a woman you have to get use it because that is what the culture says (w2).

The results also support the argument made by Adu-Yeboah (2011), that in Ghana, the socialisation women receive makes them the caretakers and nurturers of the house and the children, and these responsibilities do not change when they set out to achieve higher education.

Even those who were single, and divorced complained they perform more home responsibilities than their male counterparts. For instance one woman comparing the burden of household chores undertaken by female lecturers and their male counterparts made this statement:

.... it was not all that easy as compared to the males who after office work only call home to ascertain what has been prepared for him to come and enjoy; everything is set for him. But in my case, I do not have anybody to assist me; I have to do everything myself. Sometimes I have to get home early to go to the kitchen, attend to social activities and do some other things (w4).

The women who acknowledged receiving support from their husbands and other family member still shoulder more responsibilities at home than the men as they have to assign task, supervise the assigned tasks and at times partake in the tasks. Similar challenges on balancing work and home responsibilities have been found in the study

conducted by Luke (2000). She found that Balancing family responsibilities and work responsibilities interrupt career advancement of female.

The study further found that even women who are not married and those who have no children are not excluded from these challenges

Despite the fact that single women have much time to develop their career, the study argued that single women are also responsible for family care especially care for their parents and relatives. Unmarried women face negative perception from societies and that cultural attitude affect their career.

Some women attach much seriousness to some of the home responsibilities such as child bearing and child care than their career aspirations due to the premium they place on human life and proper upbringing of their children. The above finding is similar to that of Huong (2013) who argued that psychologically, women may feel ashamed if they are involved too much in career activities and cannot devote adequate time to their family and consequently face family problems. The study further argued that some women deliberately pursue careers or jobs that are viewed as less challenging, so as to balance it all; that is, to be successful as a career woman and a mother. The result also concurred with Hakim (2003), who suggests that this is an adaptive lifestyle preference, whereby engaging in paid work is important but valued proportionately to engaging in domestic, household, and personal/family obligations. The study opined that the ideology that women select less demanding jobs as a means to create balance speaks to the socio-cultural impact on career choice.

The participants were of the view that the major contributor to differences in career progression between male and female lecturers was the home responsibilities. The

women were of the view that their male counterparts virtually do not do anything at home, so they have ample time for academic work. This finding is in consonance with the findings of Snyder (2014), which assert that female academics in higher education encounter multiple barriers en route to their degrees and that in Africa, women are expected to perform many more tasks or roles as compared to men. Motherhood is seen as bestowing upon a woman the obligation of bringing up a child. She is expected to get to work on time, as well as to attend to the needs of her children,

4.4 Individual Level Factors

The study sought to find out if certain personality trait such as the level of self-confidence, perseverance, working hard, time management skills, team work and cooperation, among others could have influence on the career progression of the participants. It was found that absence of some of the above mentioned traits could slow down career progression of female academicians, and women who do not engage in self-development and rely heavily on godfathers usually suffer from lack of self-confidence and perseverance which negatively impact on their career progressions.

A woman in a senior position, emotionally emphasised;

how could a person be self-confident if she is not developing herself and is dancing to the tune of a “godfather”? Somebody is running your life for you, how can you develop yourself to be self-confident? If you do not have firm grips on what you are doing you will never have that self-confidence. (W3)

Some of the Participants admitted that low self-confidence slow career progression of women. This result is in line with Morley, (2006), who also found that lack of self-confidence causes slow progression of women in the workplace. The result is also

similar to the findings of Hofmeyr and Nzobe (2012, p.8) which argued that, one of the major problems hindering the career progression of women is poor self-image.

The participants further reveal that some women exhibit certain attitudes such as being sentimental and touchy. Consequently, women find it difficult to cooperate or work as a team for longer period. They conceded that such eccentric behaviours do not augur well for research collaboration, networking and mentorships.

One woman sharing some experiences, intimated that;

for women, it very difficult to work together as a team, I do not know why it happens that way, maybe, that is our nature. Usually when you have a lot of women working together, you will notice one or two would always want to withdraw not that they will draw you back, but may not be able to pull along due to some personal problems. (W4)

On the same tangent, another woman affirmed that;

...women often find it difficult to cooperate due to personal sentiments, like this person has said this and that and we read meanings into it. Therefore collaborating with others becomes difficult. (W5)

Touching on self-promotion, majority were of the view that for fear of being maligned by their fellow women they do not engage in it.

One participant noted that;

When you try to project yourself, your female colleagues would malign you. Sometime you would not deliberately project yourself, but when you do a particular thing amongst your colleagues and you do it perfectly well that could project you, they start maligning you, at times out of jealousy. At time you hear discouraging comments like “you want to show that you are the only one who knows. (W4)

Personality is a key determinant for success in academia. The participant were of the view that women’s personal traits such as working hard, being focused, perseverance, networking, cooperation, self-promotion could facilitate career progression. For example one woman attributing her successes her innate characteristics had this to say:

...I have gone through a lot of bitter and devastating experiences, potential enough to ruin me but for my perseverance, my upbringing and I know apart from everything, God's grace, I have been able to sustain myself; I see myself to be very persistent (w4)'

Another woman also added that:

..Somehow, it is true but for me, I persevere a lot, I am very spersistent with what ever I do. I encourage myself I do not wait for somebody to encourage me because I know what I want (w3).

This result is consistent with existing literature from (Boakye, 2018; Tarimo, 2019; Lam, 2006; Madsen, 2008). These studies expounded several personal attributes that are likely to help women in reaching top positions and they include networking skills, adaptability, resilience, sense of humor, determination, self-motivation, confidence, independence and a high level of job commitment. These studies demonstrated that women with the above-listed personal attributes are likely to survive in the male-dominated world of higher education.

However, respondents discounted the assertion that laziness was the main reasons for slow career progression of some women in academia. They were of the view that combining paid work and home responsibility is an onerous task no lazy woman could handle. They argue that as far as career progression is concerned, even the women who are lagging behind the men put in extra effort.

It was found that women who were family oriented with young children have their focus divided between career and family. Some women in such circumstance may prioritise their families over career aspiration whilst others risk their families to concentrate on career aspirations. This finding is similar to the findings of Butler (2004), who claims that women conform to gender norms which frame them as nurturers and care givers. The results also agreed with Slaughter (2012) who found that women do not feel as comfortable with being away from their children as men do.

She adds that if men have to choose between their work and their family, their work generally takes precedence, while the opposite is true of women.

One woman with deep sentiment averred that;

Some people mention laziness but I bet to differ on that because if a woman is combining domestic activities and academic work, you cannot say the person is lazy, as it is not easy to put the two together. It is either the person's attention is divided or it is focused on something else. If the woman is family oriented and have children, definitely she cannot neglect them and concentrate on academic work. (W5)

Most participants attributed their inability to persevere towards their career to the limitation arising from the home. Due to heavy workload amid inflexible schedules at the workplace coupled with childbearing and domestic responsibilities, the women who do not receive enough support from home to balance the two, realised they have to make a choice between career and family. Most often than not, they tend to prioritise their families and put their careers on the line. This result concurred with findings of Obers (2014). Obers investigated into career success for women academics in higher education: choices and challenges in South Africa and found that some female academics chose to prioritise their family over career to the detriment of their research productivity. Unless the woman has her children grown before entering the academia or has a very supportive home, usually, the choice to focus would favour the family; otherwise, she may risk losing her children to social vices.

4.5 Strategies for Career Progression of Female Academics

This was the third objective of the study. This aspect of the study essentially sought to bring to bear the various useful strategies employed by female academicians in their quest to clamber up the academic ladder which could serve as a paradigm for new female academics. The study established that, time management, use of supportive

devices, perseverance, mentoring, research and publications were the dominant strategies employed.

4.5.1 Time management

Time management was emphasized as one important strategy employed to juggle the multiple roles of women. Combining work and home responsibilities require proper planning and efficient use of time.

For example, a respondent sharing her experiences said that;

...I am very focused and well organised so I know what to do at any point in time, however it is more stressful. (W2)

It was discovered that in the process of managing time, the women usually sacrificed part of their sleeping time in order to juggle work and home responsibilities.

For example, one participant describing her strategy indicated that;

the main strategy I use to juggle the office work and that home is cutting down on my sleep drastically because I have to work very late in the night, sometimes, I go to bed at 2:00am and have to wake up very early, usually 4:00am because if I wake up at say 5:00 am I will be late for work. The whole day you have no rest so you come home tired and you have to take care of the home. Reducing my sleep enable me to do the household chores and also attend to the academic works like marking and preparing for lectures. (W5)

Another participant narrated similar experiences and this was her strategy;

I sleep late at night and wake up early so as to get some time to do some readings, markings, preparation for lectures and also perform some household chores. I have planned my activities in such a way that I do most of my things during the weekends; cleaning, washing and cooking in order to get time for academic work in the working days.(W6)

One participant described some of her strategies;

I plan my activities and manage my time properly. I do a lot of house work and academic work in the evenings, dawns and weekends. Therefore, I have limited time for rest and sleep. (W9)

The above responses of the participants concurred with that of Boakye (2018) studied about experiences of female academics in three public universities in Ghana and found that time management is crucial for balancing work and family life. Some of the strategies employed to manage time included inter alia; working late in the night whilst husband and children are asleep. The result also agreed with Armenti (2004), who found that in order for women to have time and space go to bed late in the night or wake up at dawn before everyone else, depend on husband and close relatives like sisters and mothers to perform certain domestic responsibilities or employ the services of house-helpers. It also emanated from the study that, women do not only just manage time but also work hard.

4.5.2 Research and publication

The study found that research and publications were the principal requirement for promotions. Participants commonly cited this phrase; “in the academia you either publish or you perish” to signify how essential and necessary research and publications were in the career progression in the academia. Some participant intimated some of their strategies they employ to navigate their way through research and publication. One participant reflected:

There is something about me that helped a lot. Whatever publication that I prepared, I never kept it to myself, I give it to people I know are higher to go through to be sure that they good and then look for a journals where people like vice chancellors and the likes publish. I do not send my publications to just any journals because I want it to be published, no, I look for the best. (W3)

The responses of the participants agrees with (Tarimo 2019; Boakye, 2018; Murniati, 2012; Bagilhole & White, 2003). These scholars contend that academic writings; books, articles and research publications in internationally recognized journals form

an integral part of the requirements for promotions to senior positions such as senior lecturers, associate professor and professor.

Co-authorship or collaboration was another strategy employed by some participants.

Touching on this strategy, one woman elaborated that;

I do collaboration in research but not too often though. I realised people are interested in just adding names which I do not like, so those who are prepared to work with me, I work with them. (W3)

The above result concurred with According to Tarimo (2019), who cited that the most suggested strategies for meeting the research and publication requirement for promotion were engaging in co-authorship, collaboration with other lecturers abroad and fund donations for research.

It was also found that performance of home responsibility limit women's ability to produce more research and publications. This finding agrees with Tarimo (2019) who established that some women attribute their failure to publish and conduct good research to traditional gender roles. She attributed poor performance of female in publication to lack of time due to family responsibilities.

4.5.3 Use of supportive devices

Most of the participants identified home responsibility as the main factor militating against their career progression. Consequently, some shared their strategies employed in dealing with home responsibilities. One respondent, who shared her strategies for accomplishing household chores said;

the other thing I do is, I use a lot of household gadgets like the refrigerator, blender, microwave oven and so on to save time. I have taught my children to be a bit independent so they are able to do some basic things for themselves. I also plan my activities very well, such that they run into each other smoothly. (W5)

Another respondent who share similar experience noted that;

I make use of electrical gargets and appliances like the refrigerator, blender, microwave oven, rice cooker, fridge.... to save time. (W7)

There was no literature to affirm or dispute this finding, yet participants assert that it was useful strategy they have been relying upon.

4.5.4 Mentoring and networking

Most of the participants emphasised the relevance and the contributions of mentoring and networking to their career growth and progression. Some respondents intimated that their mentors helped them to imbibe some essential skills with regards to research and publication, gain some encouragements and impetus to accomplish many difficult tasks. The above findings on the positive impact of mentoring coincide with literature from Obers (2014), which said mentoring fosters the development of areas important for women's research productivity, such as self-esteem, professional capabilities, development of professional network structures, access to information and career advancement.

The findings reaffirms the results from a study of community college administrators, by VanDerLinden (2004) which asserts that mentoring relationships might improve career knowledge and skills critical for advancement. The result also agreed with Schulze, (2010), who argued that mentoring in supportive environments is one strategy that could develop and train capable and confident researchers to replace those retiring academics. The results further concurred with the findings of Boakye (2018), which affirmed that mentoring relationships greatly influence the progression of career for women. It was also found that participants mostly engaged in the informal kind of mentoring and many preferred male mentors.

It was also found that, mentoring and networking at times come with certain challenges. Participants often did not find mentors in their immediate departments. Some participants complained they did not have females in the top ranks from their immediate department while others were of the view that the few senior most women among them in their departments do not provide fertile grounds for mentoring as opposed to the men who are more open and welcoming. Some of the older women relate to them as though they are competitors and such attitudes compelled them to fall on the men. W4, sharing her experiences on the disadvantages of mentoring said the men though were found to be good mentors, the unchaste ones make sexual advances towards the women especially, if the woman is young and not married.

These findings on the challenges of mentoring resonates with the findings of Ragins and Cotton (1999) who had earlier asserted that women face greater challenges initiating or developing informal mentoring than men, attributable to the relatively little or no representation of women in higher echelons of organizations who can identify protégés in lower levels for mentoring. The findings also concurred with that of Boakye (2018), that contend that due to the limited number of women in top positions, women have not benefitted much from mentorship in their careers.

4.5.5 Support and encouragement

This section sought to ascertain the main sources of support and encouragement for women towards their career progression. In all, the support and encouragement for the women came from varied sources: the family; parents and spouses, friends, classmates, co-workers, teachers and lecturers. The family mostly provided the initial support and encouragement for the women.

For instance, one woman recounting the support and encouragement she enjoyed from family in her career journey said;

my main source of support and encouragement came from my family particularly my husband and mum. (W1)

Others indicated that it was friends and schoolmates who provided them valuable support and encouragements. For example, one participant reflected that;

I think the first person was my roommate at the diploma level. She even tried to bring me back to classroom for further studies and a colleague teacher at the secondary school somewhere encouraged me to go and do the masters. A friend took care of my children when I was going to do my master. (W2)

Some participants attributed their success stories to pieces of advice and counsel they received from their teachers and lecturers. One of those respondents intimated;

It was my lecturers at the first degree level who made me felt like continuing my education and made me understood self-improvement. They made me aware that I was a very good student, and that I had something in me which others did not have, but I taught I was like any other person. In fact it was one lecturer who advised me to rather pursue Mphil instead of MSc. programme I was about to start. (W3).

Participants cited family members, spouses, lecturers and classmates and friends as their sources of support and encouragement. Family members and husbands helped to perform some home responsibilities, provided financial support and encouragement which enabled them to deal with some of the challenges impeding the career progression of women.

These revelations from the study are similar to what Moreton (2001) reported. The study found that parents were instrumental in encouraging their daughters to pursue

education. Moreton also stated, ~~the~~ married administrators overwhelmingly reported that their spouses have played a key role in their vocational success, offering encouragement, family support, and the opportunity for mobility” (p. 118). This result also reaffirms the findings of Santee (2006), who in an interview with twelve senior-level women administrators, confirmed Moreton’s findings and reported that every participant interviewed indicated that a close member of the family or a spouse provided significant personal support.

4.6 Support Systems

This was the forth and also the last objective of the study. Under this domain, the researcher solicited for the opinions of participants to answer the research question: what support systems do female academicians want their organization to put in place to facilitate their career progression? The females therefore, prescribed the kind of supports they need on the campus. The women wanted the university to provide facilities that would reduce the burden of childcare, make them and their children feel comfortable at the workplace. They also wish their workloads to be reduced. For example one respondent; a long serving lecturer had these recommendations to offer;

The university should have a recreation centre, care centre where they can leave their children to play whilst at work. The university should have a good restaurant where lecturers too can buy food for themselves and family if they like it. Government should increase maternity leave for lecturers about one year so that they can use part of that period to do some publications (W5).

Another woman; a mother who had worked for about fifteen years at the University also said;

There should also be a special kindergarten or nursery and basic school for the wards of the university staff. Every lecturer should have her or his own office and a teaching assistant or secretary to help reduce the work load of the lecturers (W6).

Some of the respondents wanted the university to provide scholarships to female lecturers who do not have their PhDs to go abroad for further studies. They also wanted every lecturer to have his or her own office and a secretary who would assist them to reduce their workloads.

For instance, one participant suggested that;

Every lecturer should be entitled to her or his own office and a teaching assistant or secretary to help reduce the work load of the lecturers. The university should endeavour to provide scholarships for female lecturers who do not have their PhDs to go and study (W9)

Others were of the view that the university leadership should reduce the workloads of female lecturers and should desist from over burdening their favourites and hardworking staff with more responsibilities as that do not allow them ample time to develop their career. For example one experienced labour offered this opinion;

They should make sure that they do not over task their favourites because it is a drawback on their development, and we should know this person is slow, so we do not put a load on the slow person. The workplace should have good restaurants to reduce the demands for cooking, crèche, nursery and a good basic school to help women with kids, feeding place where nursing mothers could go and breastfeed. (W3)

The kind of supports described included; scholarships for PhD programmes, special programmes for only females to upgrade their knowledge and skills in research and publications, separate office complex with a secretary to help reduce their workloads, a special nursery/kindergarten/basic school and recreation center for children to help female staff with children, a good restaurant on campus where staff could buy food for themselves and families if they want to curtail having to go home and cook. These findings are in line with that of Currie et al. (2000) who conducted a study on the female career in Australian context. The interview within two Universities discovered that organisational culture affect career development of female academics. Some

organisational culture limits female progression through their policies and practices. Lack of policies that support childcare at work place also was found to affect career development of female employees. Interviews with the staff in two Australian Universities about the sacrifices they make to do their jobs, describe the institutions as greedy, making the women work long hours and away from their families.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the research findings, conclusions and recommendations. In addition, policy implications and areas for further studies would be demonstrated.

5.1 Summary of Findings

This section presents the major findings that emerged from the four research questions guiding the study. The findings are summarised below.

The first research objective or question sought to ascertain the factors which motivate females to nurture career in the University of Education, Winneba. It was discovered that both internal and external motivation affect career choice and progress with intrinsic motivation being the strongest driver. It emerged that factors such as; love for teaching or imparting knowledge, being self-driven or philosophy of life, acquisition of high academic qualifications and remuneration and prestige were the main motivation behind their entry into the academia and the progress made so far

The second objective was to examine the challenges that female academics in the University of Education, Winneba face in their career progression. The study revealed that sociocultural expectation of women to be wives mother and care givers create problems for women as marriage and childbearing bring more domestic responsibilities on the women making it difficult to balance work and family responsibilities. inadequate policies to ensure gender equity, discrimination against women in appointment into high positions, stereotyping, heavy workload, difficulty in

balancing work and family responsibilities, low self-confidence, lack of self-promotion, poor networking, lack of female mentors and role models, and lack of childcare arrangements. The women believe that the differences between male and the female with regards to career progression in their institution have got to do the home responsibilities and patriarchy system.

The third objective was to examine the strategies that female academicians attribute their successes to. The study found that proper time management, use of supportive devices to juggle some task at home, perseverance, mentoring, support from family, research and publications were the dominant strategies employed.

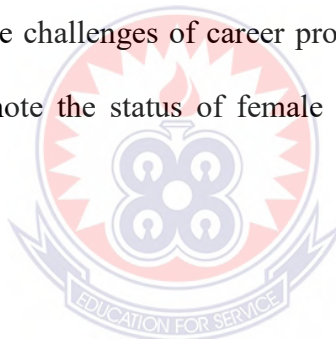
The fourth and also the last objective solicited the opinions of women faculty regarding the kind of support systems their organisation should put in place in order to facilitate their career progression. The women wanted the university to establish, special kindergarten, nursery and basic school. The university should have good restaurants, and laundry services to ease the burden of household chores. reduction of workload of female lecturers, special programmes for women, each lecturer should be entitled to an office complex and a secretary, the university should grant scholarships to female lecturers who hold only masters degrees to pursue PhD programmes abroad, the university should provide child care facilities such as recreational centers for children to play while their parents are working.

5.2 Conclusions

This study found that in spite of numerous policies introduced into tertiary institutions to level the grounds and facilitate the career progression of female academics, they were still heavily encumbered and impeded by culture and gender issues in climbing up the career ladder. The traditional gender roles as daughter, wife, and mother

imposes additional workload associated with childbearing, tedious domestic responsibilities and family commitments which adversely affect their career growth and progression. The career woman is always under stress as she is inundated with multiple workloads and she is compelled to juggle official duties with domestic responsibilities. Women who prioritise their family responsibilities over their jobs risk their promotions if there is no support from home. The socialization of the girl-child is the genesis of the challenges encountered by traditional and conventional career women.

Consequently, to accelerate the female career progression to higher ranks, they identified factors which impede their career progression and proposed possible remedies to counteract the challenges of career progression which ought to be given serious attention to promote the status of female academics in tertiary educational institutions.



5.3 Recommendations

Based on the above findings of this study, the researcher put forward the following recommendation to help facilitate the career progression of female academicians in Ghana. One major player alone cannot bring about the needed change unless all the major stakeholders; The University, Female Academics, Society and Government come on board.

The university management should institute reward systems and programmes that could sustain and engender both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in female academicians.

The government, educational institutions, traditional leaders and society in general should make deliberate effort to reconstruct sociocultural gender roles such that gender division of labour would not be detrimental to any sex, propagate gender equality and do away with patriarchy. This is because culture and religion shape the values and philosophies of individual through socialisation and societies greatly influences what goes on even in the academia, since the school is a microcosm of the larger society. Therefore, government, school management, traditional leaders, religious leaders, parents and all those who matter in society should make concerted effort to remove patriarchal system in daily life. Early socialisation should as much as possible be devoid of gender discriminations against females. Government can help by implementing deliberate policies like affirmative action laws to bring about gender equity so as to increase access to education and employment opportunities for female in certain key positions. Also, government should take appropriate measures such as legislation, education and campaigns to bring about changes in cultural and religious practice that subordinates and discriminate against women in society.

The female academics who are the direct beneficiaries of these recommendations should not remain passive and sit on the fence, rather, they should remain focused, persevere, work hard and implement the best strategies that could facilitate career progression. The female faculty must endeavour to take bold initiatives such as networking with other females, lobbying, team work and mentoring activities so as to provide support for one another other. The senior most women occupying the higher ranks like the senior lecturers, associate professors and full professors should sacrifice themselves and open up to new entrants so as to mentor them. Women faculty need to form support groups and share their experiences on pertinent issues such as research, publications strategies for balancing office work and family responsibilities, self-

promotion, lobbying skills among others, which affect their career growth and development..

The university management should create supportive working environment for female lecturers. This could be in a form of providing cooperant facilities like kindergarten, nursery and good basic school, recreational centres for children to play, good restaurants, laundry services among others to support female lecturers who are mothers. The university management should create specific training and development opportunities designed to meet needs of female academics. The university management should implement more effective career planning programs, mentoring and networking opportunities that respond to the needs of female academics. This can be accomplished through assessment and analysis of needs, listening to females' goals and aspirations and assisting employers with establishing goals, committing to specific plans, and holding management accountable for the changes implemented. Government should provide scholarships for academically brilliant female graduates to study masters and PhD programmes. Again, Maternity leaves should be increased for women in academia so that they could use this extended time to publish some works to increase their chances for promotions.

5.4 Suggestions for Future Research

The findings and the limitations of this study have pointed out some lacunas in literature on the issue under study which suggest some themes for further research. It would be worthwhile for future research to consider the suggested topics below. The perceptions of male faculty members on the career progression experiences of females in tertiary education as faculty and administrators. Also, a similar study can be done in private universities to ascertain if the situation would be the same or otherwise.

Finally, it would be more insightful to consider employing quantitative approach or survey method to conduct the same study so as to include more public tertiary educational institutions in Ghana in order to make the generalisation of findings possible.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Introductory Letter

	UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT
UEW/EAM/SAN/06	
26 th August, 2020	
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN	
Dear Sir/Madam,	
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION	
We write to introduce Robert Kwabena Adjet a student on the M.Phil Educational Administration and Management programme of the Department of Educational Administration and Management.	
Robert Kwabena Adjet is currently working on a research project titled: <i>"CAREER PROGRESSION EXPERIENCES OF FEMALE LECTURERS IN TERTIARY EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA"</i>	
Please, give him the necessary assistance and co-operation.	
Thank you.	
Yours sincerely,	
	
Salome O. Essuman (Prof.) Head of Department	
cc: Dean, School of Graduate Studies	
	
www.uew.edu.gh	

APPENDIX B

Informed Consent

Title: Career Progression Experiences of Female Lecturers in the University of Education, Winneba

Researcher: Robert Kwabena Adjei,

Master of Philosophy Student in Educational Administration and Management,
Department of Educational Administration and Management, Faculty of Educational
Studies, University of Education, Winneba.

Faculty of Educational Studies, University of Education, Winneba.

Purpose and Background: You are invited to participate in a research study to share your experiences about the career progression of female lecturers in University of Education, Winneba. Your eligibility and invitation stem from the fact that you are an accomplished woman in the research population, whose experiences are worth sharing to help the younger generation. This is a qualitative and phenomenological study which seeks to explore the lived experiences of female academics in their career progression in the University of Education, Winneba. You may oblige the researcher by participating in a face-to-face interview that will be digitally recorded and last no longer than 30 minutes. After the data have been compiled and analysed, you will have an opportunity to read the findings of the researcher and provide any corrections or feedback. The findings of this study shall be used as the investigator's masters thesis, which may be published.

Risks and Benefits: The benefits include contributing to the current research.

There are no anticipated risks associated with participating in the study.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation in this interview study is completely voluntary. There is no monetary compensation for participating.

Confidentiality: Your name and institution will not be recorded with your interview responses. The researcher will not identify your responses, nor mention your name or institution in the study. All information will be kept confidential to the extent of the law. Recordings and transcripts will be stored on a password-protected computer.

Right to Withdraw: You may refuse to participate in the research or withdraw from the study at any time. Your decision to withdraw will bring no penalty to you.

Informed Consent: I,....., have read all the items in the above including the purpose of the study, the procedures to be used, the potential risks and side effects, the confidentiality, as well as the option to withdraw from the study at any time. Each of these items has been explained to me by the investigator. The investigator has answered all of my questions regarding the study, and I believe I understand what is involved. My signature below indicates that I freely agree to participate in this study and that I have received a copy of this agreement from the investigator.

Signature of Study Participant

Date

APPENDIX C

Interview Guide

Dear Madam,

I am Robert Kwabena Adjei a final year student of University of Education, Winneba (UEW), at the Department of Educational Administration and Management. I am conducting a study on the topic –**Career Progression Experiences of Female Lecturers in University of Education, Winneba**”, in partial fulfillment of the award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational Administration and Management. The purpose of this study is to explore the motivation, challenges, and strategies to success from the lived experiences of female academicians in their career progression. I would be most grateful if you could participate in the study by serving as an interviewee. Your invitation to participate in this study stems from the fact that you are an accomplished female academician whose experiences are worth sharing.

This interview will take about 30 minutes and it is being digitally recorded but please, be assured that all information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and be used purely for academic purposes.

Thank you very much for accepting to share your experiences and making a time for this interview. Shall we start the interview?

SECTION A. (Demographics of participants)

1. Please, how old are you?
2. Take me through your education levels or qualifications
3. How many years have you been in this institution?
4. What is your present rank in academia?
5. Please, are you married?

6. How many children do you have?

SECTION B. (Items related to the research questions)

1. What was your career goal after your graduate programme?

2. What inspired you to join the academia as a woman? (probe; aside monetary incentives and prestige what other factors inspired you into academia as a woman?)

3. Do you have any career aspirations after joining the academia? (Probe; please, can you share with me the reasons why you want to rise through the ranks in academia)

3. How long did you search before getting the appointment as a lecturer after acquiring your postgraduate or highest degree? (Probe; what you think accounted for this lapse?)

4. Could you share with me any societal level factors which negatively influenced your promotions in academia?

5. Could you share any organisational level factors that impeded your progress to your current position? (Probe: how would you characterise the culture at your institution in accepting women into higher positions?)

6. Describe any personal or individual level factors that hindered your rise to your current rank.

7. Describe a person or network of people who provided you encouragement, support, or feedback in your career advancement.

8. Could you share any self-help strategies employed, that played a key role in your promotions?

9. What support systems do you believe the university should put in place to facilitate female career progression?

10. Share with me any other important thing that you think should be included in this study

Thank you for your participation in this study.

