

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

FACTORS INFLUENCING MENTORING AND SOCIALIZATION OF GIRLS IN
LEADERSHIP IN SOME SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN SEKYERE KUMAWU
DISTRICT



**A Dissertation in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of Education
and Communication Sciences, Submitted to the school of Graduate Studies,
University of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
award of the Masters of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree**

DECEMBER, 2020

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

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

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

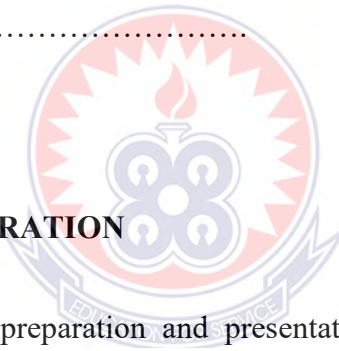
SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....



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My greatest appreciation goes to the Almighty God for giving me the direction, strength, wisdom and dedication to finish this work successfully. Immense gratitude also goes to my supervisor Rev. Fr. Dr. Francis K. Sam whose rich advice guided me through the thesis process.

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DEDICATION

To God and to my husband and the memory of my parents.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ESDP	Education Sector Development Program
GES	Ghana Education Service
SHS	Senior High School
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
UNESCO	United Nation's Education, Science and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USA	United States of America



ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate the factors influencing mentorship and socialization of girls in leadership in some selected Senior High Schools in Sekyere Kumawu District of Ashanti Region. Girls were seen to be weak and under-represented in the current practice of leadership in schools and the researcher was interested in examining the influence of mentorship, socialization and socio-demographic characteristics on girls' leadership qualities. The study employed quantitative study type and cross-sectional study design. The study used sample size of 338 out of 342 female students for the analysis. Structured questionnaire was the main data collection tool used in the study. Descriptive and inferential analyses were made in the data analysis. Data were analysed using SPSS version 20.0. The findings indicated mentorship supported girls' leadership qualities. It was also revealed that lack of mentorship demotivate girls for leadership. It was also realized that mentorship led to girls' empowerment in the schools. Again, majority of the respondent (52.4%) strongly agreed that cultural norms affected girls' leadership. The following variables had association with girls' leadership: age (p-value = 0.000), class (p-value = 0.001), parents' income level (p-value = 0.000), and guidance occupation (p-value = 0.000). The study concluded that improving the leadership qualities of girls through the girls' empowerment presents enormous potentials for wealth creation and reducing poverty. It is therefore an undeniable fact that local institutions serve as valuable actors for girl child education and promote leadership as a whole in the country. The study recommended that stakeholders like the Municipal Assemblies, Ghana Education Service, Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection should collaborate to empower girls in schools to increase their leadership qualities in the various Senior High Schools and even after completion of Senior High Schools and beyond.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, the objectives of the study, significance, limitation, delimitation and the organization of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Some headmasters/headmistresses have been performing the role of parents for the students some decades ago. However, this responsibility has been delegated to some members of the staff who are always accountable to the headmaster/mistress. The staff consequently mentors and socializes the students in their charge, guiding them in their development emotionally, socially, physically, intellectually and morally (Stevenson, 2002). Mentoring and socialization of students is responsible for keeping the students on their toes to take up leadership positions, especially among girls. Mentoring is responsible for keeping the girls informed about socialization on positive leadership attitude. Thus mentoring becomes the direct link between the students and the staff, and responsible for training them on all the relevant information regarding the leadership to manage efficiently the position they take.

A full three-quarters (76%) of women today wish they had mentored and socialized more about leadership and had more leadership opportunities while growing up given their sense of academic achievement and the predominance of female students in U.S. Colleges. We see that extending the leadership training and positive messaging that some received beginning in childhood throughout a woman's career could help continue the self-perception of one's ability to lead (Stevenson, 2002).

Gender inequality in leadership has received considerable attention worldwide and many developing countries, including Ghana have been struggling with the issues of achieving gender equality for several decades. At the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand, particular emphasis was placed on female education; not only as a fundamental right, but also as an important means for economic, social development and improvement in leadership qualities (UNESCO, 2003).

Leadership is central to the achievement of greater equality in society, including between men and women. Also, the Millennium Development Goals 2 and 3 underscore the importance of mentoring girls to ensure equal access to education as boys, and eliminating gender disparities in leadership positions (UNESCO, 2003).

The essence of leadership development, according to Avolio and Gardner (2005), is how the individual in a learning organization enhances awareness of the self and personal development, embedded in experience. Improving leadership capacity within a learning organization should include key activities, such as selecting individuals who have special competencies in leading the organization; aligning the vision with activities to achieve the goals; ensuring that the leader inspires others to work towards the goals and objectives (inspirational, empowering); and striving to solve problems and overcome challenges that may be faced (Risher & Stopper, 2002). Leadership qualities differ among leaders in diverse organizations (Clark, 2005). To improve these qualities require constant evolutions that trigger change in paradigm at organizational leadership levels in the various sectors of any national economy where males have monopolized for quite a long time.

In the case of this research, the evolution stems from the fact that there are growing concerns commonly expressed by parents, as well as the general public in Ghana, regarding the lack of girls' participation in leadership positions. Moreover, in our Senior High Schools boys have always been occupying virtually all the Students' Representative Council's positions. These concerns may be founded because the lack of effective leadership could be a serious recipe for poor performance of teachers and students as far as teaching and learning are concerned (Addae-Mensah, 2006). In view of such concerns, the researcher believed there was the need to research into the mentoring and socialization of girls in leadership in some Senior High Schools in Sekyere Kumawu District.

It is important to note that as the world becomes increasingly a better place to live in, a number of changes are occurring, which are necessary to human development and advancement. To be seen as part of the global village today, is a call to adapting to the changing practices and ways of doing things: we cannot afford to doing the same old things (or pretend not to be seeing the demand of the global village) the same way and be expecting to have different results— change is a necessary tool to development and advancement. Several surveys assessing girls' social networks and leadership have indicated that girls do not have the same social opportunities as boys do. For example, in the Kibera slum of Nairobi, Kenya, a survey of adolescents showed that while 70 percent of boys had many friends in their neighborhood, this was true for only 50 percent of girls (Coleman, 2001).

Furthermore, although more than two-thirds of boys had a place outside their own home, their friends' homes, or school to meet same-sex friends, only one third of girls did

(Erulkar, 2004). This social network of boys put them ahead of their female counterparts in the milieu of leadership. In Ethiopia's Addis Ababa slums, 60 percent of boys have "many friends" compared with only 24 percent of girls. Half of boys have a place to meet same-sex friends, while only 13 percent of girls do (Erulkar & Matheka, 2007).

In rural Amhara, Ethiopia, 68 percent of boys compared with 59 percent of girls had many friends. Almost half of the boys there have a place to meet same-sex friends, as compared with 16 percent of the girls (Salem et al, 2003). High-quality programs for vulnerable girls and young women in disadvantaged communities build leadership skills and provide opportunities. Girls and young women living in the communities in which the programs are taking place must be nurtured until they have adequate skills to lead and mentor other girls in their community (Hallman & Kelly, 2008).

Several projects supported by the British Council globally offer opportunities for women and girls to build their skills, confidence and capacity for leadership and active participation in public life. By working with different types of partners – from parliamentarians to universities – the British Council seeks to facilitate learning and advocacy for gender equality and to reduce discrimination (Hallman & Kelly, 2008).

Some of these opportunities are lacking in the developing countries like Ghana where girls are forced into early marriages to become housewives and most miss the opportunity to go to school. There is a growing awareness, which realizes that if the people of the country are to be the agent of development, then it is necessary to engage both males and females in conceiving new development models. Developmental organizations like schools highly require the participation of all citizens to bring

sustainable development through Education. For educational management, managerial skills of women and men are very important (Meena, 1992).

Surprisingly, some women are perceived as more democratic and participatory in decision-making that facilitates organization's goal achievements Hemphill, Griffith's and Frederickson cited in (Shakeshaft, 1989, p. 187). Different researchers have identified the causes of women's under representation and low participation in school leadership position (Hallman & Kelly, 2008; Mbilinyi & Omar, 1996: p. 10). "Unfavorable social and cultural environment, lack of necessary motivation and confidence, as well as lack women's participation in development and solidarity among women are constraints that affect their participation in leadership" (Omar, 1996: p. 10).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Mentoring and socializing girls in leadership and decision making sphere is a global phenomenon, as a result of not offering the young girls to realize their dreams of leadership (Kyriakosis, 2006). However, one obvious difference between developed and developing countries lies on girls' access to education. In most countries where feminism has the most impact, women account for no more than 10% managers and 3% of company directors and this issue has received the attention of international organizations (Owens, 2004). Several reports and research findings noted that there are women who have succeeded in their school leadership roles and initiated other women to be outstanding role models among teachers of adolescent girls that have contributed to the unpopularity of teacher as career choice. Rev Sr Katherine, an example of feminist

educational leadership has contributed a lot for advancing girls in school leadership by mentoring and socializing them (Thayer-Bacon, 2008).

In East Asia, the need for girls in school leadership position is regarded as important issue to ensure sensitivity within school for the wellbeing of adolescent girls to enable girls beginning to consider career choices with role models to stimulate women to participant in decision making and to address issue of social justices by providing gender equality between adults within educational system (Johnson, 2001). Girls hold 14 percent of school leadership position in Korea (Kyriakosis, 2006), 13 percent of Chinese leadership position and the majority of senior school management in Singapore. In the African context, lack of female role model among teachers of adolescent girls may have contributed to the unpopularity of teaching as career choices for girls in the past (Coleman, 2001).

Some African countries like Zambia have been implementing the policy of balancing leadership position in school following the rules of selection of school leadership in such a way that when there is a male school director, the deputy must be a female. Besides, when there is a female school director, the deputy must be male. This simple regulation has meant that school leadership is now less gender biased that balance leadership (Morrison, 2006). In practice, however, it had been observed that they are underrepresented in the leadership positions within the education system (Education Sector Development Program (ESDP)). Among the developing countries, there is a considerable variation of girls' participation in school leadership. In African countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa the gap is very wide. According to Gay (2006) current trends in sub-Saharan Africa reflect a predictable pattern previously emerging in some, a

widening of gender gaps, as participation increase from a very low base could be a temporary phenomenon.

The encouragement of positive role models and the presence of a strong professional network shape a woman's view of leadership in the workplace (Kyriakosis, 2006). Confidence is an attribute women themselves identify as the key to leadership success. Throughout their professional careers, women struggle with what they characterize as a lack of it. More than half (67%) of women said they need more support building confidence to feel like they can be leaders. The lack of confidence affects an array of other activities tied to ultimately becoming leaders: nine in 10 women said they do not feel confident asking for sponsors (92%), with large numbers also lacking confidence seeking mentors (79%). The results suggest that corporations would do well to ask themselves why confidence is such a struggle for so many women in corporate environments. Why do women, who identify with being "smart" and as leaders in school growing up, feel less confident to lead at work? Initiatives focused specifically on building confidence could help women to leverage rather than question their abilities (Addae-Mensah, 2006).

Furthermore, the Sekyere Kumawu District Educational office annual report (2006) reveals that among 97 students involvement in SRC positions in the Senior High Schools, there are only 12 (12.3%) girls in leadership position (Addae-Mensah, 2006). The lesser number of girls in the Senior High Schools leadership in the district motivated the researcher to conduct the study to investigate the factors that influenced mentoring and socialization of girls' in leadership.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to highlight the salient factors that influence mentoring and socialization of SHS girls in leadership in Sekyere Kumawu District of Ashanti Region.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To assess how mentorship affects SHS girls' quality leadership in Sekyere Kumawu District.
2. To assess the influence of socialization on SHS girls' leadership qualities in Sekyere Kumawu District.
3. To determine the socio-demographic factors of girls' that influence their leadership quality.

1.4 Research Questions

1. How does mentorship affect SHS girls' qualities of leadership in Sekyere Kumawu District?
2. How does socialization influence SHS girls' quality of leadership in Sekyere Kumawu District?
3. What socio-demographic factors influence SHS girls' leadership quality?

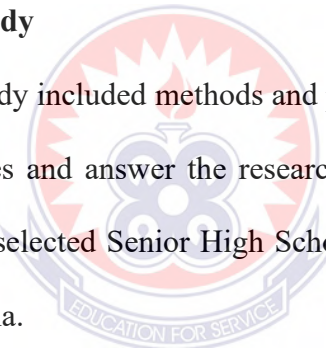
1.6 Significance of the Study

The outcome of this study has the potential to assist curriculum planners of the curriculum research and development division of the Ghana Education Service (GES) under the Ministry of Education in formulating policies and procedures for gender equity

in leadership and management of schools throughout the country. This will also provide information to all interest groups who may find it very relevant in their fields of work especially the women activists. Also, the result of the study will be helpful to researchers in their further contribution to the development of literature on girls' leadership qualities in various schools. Furthermore, the result of the study will be helpful for local, as well as national authorities, to provide the much-needed support for their girls to pick up leadership roles in their institutions. Finally, the study aims at championing the need for a paradigm shift in the whole leadership structure in our schools so as to help in gender fairness and open the schools to the globalization.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The scope of the study included methods and procedures outlined for this research to achieve set objectives and answer the research questions accordingly. The study was delimited to some selected Senior High Schools in Sekyere Kumawu District of Ashanti Region of Ghana.



1.8 Limitation of the Study

The research had certain shortcomings as identified by the researcher. The researcher admits that the findings of the research would have been enhanced should it included other private Senior High Schools in the district. Another comparison would have been to compare rural Senior High Schools with the urban Senior High Schools on girls' leadership qualities.

1.9 Operational definition of terms

Discrimination: the concept of silencing down and isolation of people regardless of sex, Color, language, religion, culture.

Feminine: is relating to women/girl. A gender that refers chiefly but not exclusively female or to objects classified as female.

Qualities: Good characteristics helping girls to become better leaders

Mentor: an effective tool that will allow others who are in school leadership and who aspire to obtain position to help one another.

Model: refers to one serving as an example to be imitate compared, refers to usually miniature representation of something.

Participation: the act of sharing in the activities of a group, the condition Share in common with others (followers or partner etc).

Position: a position involving performance of major duties, managing or supervising duties or other employees.

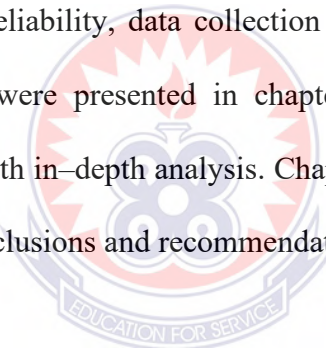
Senior High School Leadership: the type of school leadership in SHS 1-3 with influencing people to achieve the predetermined objectives and goals.

Socialization: process of learning roles and expected behavior in relation to one's family and society and developing satisfactory relationship other people.

Stereotype: convectional and over simplified conceptions, opinion or images which assume that some group of people will act in the some often formed because of cultural expectations.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This study was presented in five chapters: Chapter one was the introduction of the problem which covered; the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, the objectives of the study, significance, delimitation, limitation, operational definition of terms and organization of the study. Chapter two highlighted the relevant literatures on the subject matter, whilst research design, study population, sample and sampling technique, data reliability, data collection tools and instrument, data analysis and ethical consideration were presented in chapter three. In chapter four, the data collected were presented with in–depth analysis. Chapter five dealt with the discussion of findings, the summary, conclusions and recommendations.



CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section of the study provides a comprehensive overview of the relevant literature on the mentorship and socialization of SHS girls' on quality of leadership. The various viewpoints expressed by previous researchers on the subject matter would also be presented. The chapter would emphasize on relevant literature related to the factors that affect girls' participation in the SHS leadership. It would cover both theoretical and empirical reviews of the study area.

2.1 Concepts of leadership

According to Thayer and Bacon (2016) educational leadership is the continuous work of mobilizing people to believe and behave with regard to shared vision that result to in high achievement for every child. It is the ability to support people in doing inquiry about the result of their works honestly, without the fear of blame and judgment.

In other words educational leadership is primarily concerned with educational purpose of guiding and directing students to improve school leadership for all students (Lindsay, 2009). Besides, educational leadership influences and manages pedagogical goals and visions undermining instructional program to promote development for students (Lindsay, 2009).

Thayer and Bacon (2016) further argue that girls' educational leadership that enhances their outcomes through the creation of an environment where their talents are recognized. However, the balance changed drastically following World War II, as many

men returned from the armed services and sought employment in the school settings. From that point on, females steadily lost ground in the pursuit of administrative positions.

2.2 Theoretical review

Over the past two decades, several interrelated theories have been adapted from the social sciences and used to explain the underrepresentation of girls or women in educational leadership. These theories, the social theory, organizational theory, individual theory and international theory could be revealed one after the other.

2.2.1 Social Model

The social model looks for explanations neither in women as individuals nor in educational systems, but in society as a whole. Schmuck (1980) refers to this as the “social perspective” and Shakeshaft (1989) as the “social structure of society as the root cause of inequities” (p. 83). This model assumes girls and boys have been taught to identify their roles separately and those institutional and societal practices reinforcing these differences account for the lack of girls in leadership positions (Estler, 1975). In this model there are different socialization patterns for young boys and girls that are institutionally reinforced well into adulthood. As Schmuck explains, the folkways and norms of the society coincide with different socialization patterns and channel women and men into different areas of work, which are assigned differential pay and status. The assumption of this model is that the absence of women in leadership positions is due to the different socialization patterns of men and women (Grady, 1992). This model suggests that in order for girls to move into positions of administrative leadership, they must first deny societal norms and values.

2.2.2 Organizational Model

The second model, the organizational model, or “the organizational perspective,” explains boys and girls differential career aspirations and achievements not as a function of different psychological predispositions but as an effect of the limited opportunities for girls that accompany systemic gender bias (Burstyn & Tallerico, 2016). It turns attention away from the individual to the educational system itself, with its complex of institutional structures, policies, and practices. According to this argument, girls do not participate because boys are given special treatment in both promotional and administrative engagement practices that there are structural and systemic barriers that work against the participation of all candidates who are not females.

This model assumes that people adjust their aspirations to that which is possible and that girls in education do not aspire to leadership as a result of limited opportunities. The model was supported by an examination of the number of years it took girls to achieve the rank of principal or superintendent (Lyman & Seizer, as cited by Grady, 1992). Estler’s analysis showed that almost the same number of girls and boys held the credentials to become administrators. However, the median number of years in working before appointment to the elementary principal was 5 years for boys and 15 years for girls (Estler, 1975, pp. 363-385). This model helps us not only to identify overt discrimination, but also to reveal more subtle discriminatory practices against girls.

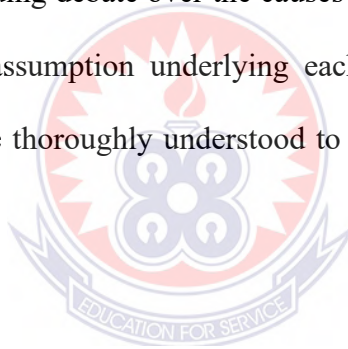
2.2.3 Individual Model

The third model, the individual model, assumes people are promoted according to their ability that is the basis for promotion and that boys occupy the most positions in educational administration because they hold the best qualifications. This model implies

that boys are more competent than girls because boys are chosen for administrative positions so often. In the literature, this model is also compared to Schmuck's, (1980) "individual perspective", Shakeshaft's "internal barriers", Ortiz and Marshall's (1988) "person-centered explanations". Despite these multiple labels, all see to explain the persistent and continuing gender segregation in leadership from a psychological orientation. That is, they look to girls themselves for "cause", exploring such things as personal traits, characteristics, abilities, or qualities. Individual attitudes such as motivation, self-image, confidence, and aspirations also fall into this area (Burstyn & Tallerico, 1996).

However, as Schmuck (1980) explains, when the focus is on person-centered causation, individuals are held responsible for their own problems, with the solutions to those problems found in terms of changing the defect or weakness in the individual. This belief is often reflected in statements such as "they are not assertive enough", "they don't want power", "they lack self-confidence", "and they don't apply for the jobs". Although these statements may be valid for some females, such emphasis on females so-called internal barriers lends itself to what Shakeshaft describes as "Blame the Victim Perspective" (1989, p. 82). The assumption of this model is emphasizing a number of variables influencing girls' aspiration and access to school leadership encompassing international variables for instance, the existence of international agreement about gender equality, National variables for instance, government responses to international gender equality, standards in employment and girls' access to the work place and organizational variables.

Household child care support result in gender equality in educational leadership. However, gender equality in educational leadership will be low if the variables from international to personal level could not encourage girls' aspirations to school and girls' access to educational leadership. Therefore, based on the strength and weakness of the models the researcher's analytical frame work for the study is organizational model and the international (ground theory) model that considers female students underrepresentation in school leadership as a result of limited opportunity" (Estler,1975, p. 379) and multiple factors as the root cause for girls underrepresentation in school leadership. These four ways of conceptualizing the under-representation of girls in school leadership reflect longstanding debate over the causes and meanings of inequalities in the school organization. An assumption underlying each model is that continued gender asymmetries must be more thoroughly understood to be remedied (Tallerico & Burstyn, 2016).



2.3 Mentorship

Female role models: Several studies also point to the importance of female role models outside of the family, including teachers, uneducated women with non-academic strengths and talents, and community leaders (Beaman, Duflo, Pande & Topalova, 2012). Sperandio's (2010) study of the role of Ugandan secondary schools in leadership among adolescent girls found students admired role models primarily for being well organized, disciplined and professional, and second for exhibiting qualities of thoughtfulness, caring and helpfulness. The survey dealt primarily with role models and leadership within schools, but the author concludes that, given the choice, many girl respondents would have named people outside the school context as those they 'most admired'.

A study of the effect of female political leadership on adolescent girls in India found presence of women on village councils, enabled by affirmative action, had a positive influence on girls' career aspirations and educational attainment (Beaman et al., 2012). Formal schooling is not only important for academic learning. Sperandio's (2010: 1) qualitative research found the 'provision of mentorship, motivation and opportunities to learn how to be a leader' to be an important part of the 'hidden curriculum' of effective education, including in ways that support girls' gender equality. For example, school can promote clearly articulated beliefs, values and expectations that equip students to take on leadership roles later in life or provide training by appointing students to positions of student leadership like prefects, monitors or sports captains.

Similarly, informal education and out-of-school activities can contribute to girls' leadership development. For example, internal reviews of DFID's ongoing Leadership for Change programme found that, after one year of its Women Win: Building Young Women's Leadership through Sport programme, beneficiaries reported increased confidence and self-esteem, with 75% reporting an increase in adolescent life skills relating to sexual and reproductive health rights, gender-based violence and economic empowerment; and nine out of eleven participants in the accompanying mentoring programme reporting new personal leadership skills (DFID, 2014).

Girls in CARE's (2012) leadership development projects learn and practice five essential leadership competencies – voice to express their own opinions, decision-making, self-confidence, organization and vision – through a series of extracurricular activities that they help to design. In a remote region of Yemen, for example, more than 50% of participants demonstrated positive change in all five of the essential leadership

competencies as measured by CARE's Girls' Leadership Index, after participating in a project that fostered community support for girls, offered extracurricular activities and ensured access to equitable education. Lessons learnt from the programme as a whole include the value of building leadership on a foundation of education (although schools should not be the sole partners in leadership projects) and of deliberately involving boys and men in such projects from the outset. CARE found that, while girls tend to 'make rapid gains in leadership skills, and participate avidly in leadership activities of their choice when introduced to leadership projects', changing social norms, attitudes and behaviour to support girls' rights represents a more complex, longer-term challenge.

National and transnational women's networks may also enhance the capabilities of individual women leaders through the sharing of expertise and resources. Several studies emphasise the importance of leadership fora that enable women to discuss achievements, challenges and brainstorm potential solutions (Ahern, 2000). However, again, the literature tends to be weak on the causal links between information-sharing and network-building, on the one hand, and enhanced leadership capabilities, on the other. Some go further to claim that open, collaborative forms of individual leadership may empower the wider community as well as the leaders themselves, but without providing evidence (Muzvidziwa, 2014).

2.4 Leadership theories

In review of the theories of leadership in economic and social development, Lyne de Ver (2008) notes the absence of agreed definitions of leadership, within or across different disciplines. Drawing on the work of Barrientos (2008), she reviews different concepts and theories of leadership. Some authors present leadership as individual

personality traits, such as vision, charisma or the ability to bring along a constituency. Others focus on leadership as the processes and behaviors that enable groups to manage relationships and goal achievement. While influence is central to most authors' understanding of leadership, some emphasize coercion and 'the art of inducing compliance', whereas others stress the ability of leaders to persuade and coordinate. Some discussions present leaders as holding and directing their followers in pursuit of a distinct objective. Others see leaders as emerging from the interaction of the group (Lyne de Ver, 2008: 7-12).

Chin (2004) points to the recent shift in the business and management literature from looking at individual traits to the 'dimensions of team and collaborative leadership' (p.2). At the same time, along with Wijnen and Wildschut (2015), she cautions that Western management theories and practices are not necessarily relevant to other cultural/social settings. Leftwich and Hogg (2007) highlight the more recent distinction between 'transactional leadership', where individuals and groups seek to obtain their objectives within the existing political order, and 'transformational leadership', which seeks to challenge it.

However, Wijnen and Wildschut (2015) also point out that transformational leadership, whereby leaders are 'seen as catalysts of constructive change' emerged from Western discourse and that research shows 'different countries have various cultural profiles that differ from this transformational leadership model' (p. 2). Lyne de Ver (2008) also points out that much of the general literature on leadership comes from the US and assumes a stable and liberal institutional order. Other distinctions can be made between 'ascribed' and 'achieved' leadership, with the former based on a defined role

(e.g. a chief) and the latter the ability to retain followers or between ‘attempted’ and ‘successful’ leadership, depending on whether attempts to change the behaviour of others is successful (Lyne de Ver, 2008, p. 8).

What does the empirical evidence tell us about the profile, attributes and attitudes of women leaders in practice? Examples from the review include the following: Based on case studies, including life histories, of women in different levels of government in eight countries, Tadros (2014) found the profile of women leaders to include the following common factors: women being married, professional backgrounds, ‘nurturing’ or community-facing occupations (e.g. teaching, social work) and education, with a correlation between level of education and level of government office. In-depth interviews with women leaders in the education sector in Zimbabwe found commonly observed characteristics to include creativity, flexibility, calmness and patience, as well as a tendency towards open and frank discussion and away from the forceful exertion of authority (Muzvidziwa, 2014).

A quantitative study of women’s self-help groups in India found that, compared with non-leaders in the groups, women leaders were from wealthier families, were younger and more educated, had higher media exposure and levels of participation in household decision-making, were more mobile and more confident communicators, and were more progressive thinkers with greater interest in social activities (Singh, 2014).

Interviews with 20 women leaders from around the world revealed a common emphasis on feminist leaders as risk-takers, strategists and negotiators, because they operate in environments hostile to their (gender equity and social justice) goals and where they face resistance and, often, hostility or reprisal (Batliwala & Rao, 2002, cited in

Batliwala, 2010). Women participants in a series of Community Women Leaders' Forums in rural Cambodia said they shared some qualities with men, particularly recognition of the value of their work and self-assurance in implementation of this work.

However, they also thought they had a more consultative style of leadership than men and were more willing to recognize their own limitations and to seek to develop their leadership capabilities (Choeun, 2008). Emerging work on women in executive office finds that formal institutional factors are important in enabling pathways to formal leadership roles, including in the degree to which, for instance, presence through quotas contributes to socialization and normalization of women in political office (Krook & O'Brien, 2012)

2.5 Factors that affect girls' leadership qualities

In this section, several studies confirm with the factors that affect girls' participation in school leadership. For instance, Gregory (2000) girls in educational leadership are underrepresented as gender inequality prevails. For their underrepresentation, they list several factors that are related to the organizational, and individual factors.

2.5.1 Organizational Factors as Barriers for girls' participation school leadership

Since the mid-1980s, studies have continued to report that girls believe that negative stereotypes of girls by superintendents and school board members are a barrier. Reportedly, some persistent stereotypical and inaccurate views held by gate-keepers about girls are their perceived inability to discipline their colleague students, supervise males, criticize constructively, manage finances, and function in a political frame. Young and McLeod (2001) stated, "many school board members, search consultants, search

committee members, practicing administrators, and private citizens continue to believe old myths that have prevented women from becoming educational leaders in the past” (p. 494).

Assumptions about appropriate activities relate to concerns about whether or not girls can do the job. For example, the school board may lack confidence in a female superintendent’s competency to oversee the construction of a new building, and when she completes the task successfully the board is surprised. Shepherd (2015) also found that females were still perceived as lacking the ability to handle discipline at school.

Schmuck (2000) reported that school boards and other administrators believe that girls are malleable. The authors described malleable personalities as referring to school authorities’ perception of women superintendents as easy to direct just because they are female. If women turn out not to be malleable, the reaction is much more negative for women than for men. Most research studies conclude that the biggest barriers to females’ leadership participation are beyond their personal control. The Glass Ceiling Commission indicts Organizational and structural barriers as the most predominant barriers toward females’ upward climb in the career ladder (Williams, 2015).

Bergmann (2000) opined that organizational structures especially job assignment are designed to prevent females from ascending to the top administrative level. Job assignment is considered to be the primary condition for participation of girls in the leadership position in schools as organization. Organizational structure “steer away” girls’ potential for upward mobility by confining them to work roles that are considered to be “Girls’ Occupation”. To this end, the quickest way to the top of management level is placement in functional areas or crucial job assignment that leads to the

accomplishment of critical organizational tasks. Girls are there to learn and boys are there to run or manage the schools. The term worker is associated with a female and the term principal or head with a man (Reynolds, 2008, p. 30).

Since men have traditionally dominated leadership positions in all spheres, it follows that research has been male-gendered (Enomoto, 2000, p. 377). In this way, organization research and theory became male-biased oriented to male ways of knowing things. Thus it is possible to see how the field of management itself could be seen as male gendered and imbued with the “culture of masculine” (Acker, 2014, p. 56).

2.5.2 Working Conditions and Sex Discrimination

The components of administrative work, as well as the perceived and real male defined environments in which many females’ administrators must work, shape females’ perceptions of the desirability of administration. The perceptions that females hold of what leaders Avolio and Gardner (2005) found that the job stress of females was higher than that of males when working in a predominantly or traditionally male environment. Coleman (2009) described organizational contexts in which males used intimidation and silence to discourage females. Intimidating tactics and behaviors of board and community members included name-calling, rumors, and overt lies. Additionally, male subordinates were intimidating, at times indicating directly that they did not want to work for a woman. Estler (1975) also supported this finding in a study of educational leadership.

Gay (2006) in his study revealed that girls or females had been sexually harassed by a higher status males was represented in personal silence about gender issues while in the superintendence and the feelings for administrative positions because of their understanding of the definition of leadership. They did not perceive this definition as

flexible or open for social construction. Gibson (2004) study of students with leadership skills determined that girls chose to stay in the classroom, rather than move into administration, partly because of their negative perception of the job of the leaders. They identified student discipline as one of the negative dimensions of the leadership.

2.5.3 Socialization and sex role stereotyping on girls participation in school leadership

The process of socialization and sex role stereotyping has been discussed by several researchers (Agenda 65, 2005) why people do not immediately relate girls with leadership and girls themselves under value their potential to be leaders. The concept of socialization process and sex role stereotyping, the bias of boys dominated culture and society as well as girls self-concepts and self-images to leadership will be discussed.

2.5.3.1 What is socialization processes?

From the beginning of his/her birth, each person confronted with expectations for his/her, behavior as defined by the society in which he/she is expected to adapt and confirm to those behaviors that designated appropriate to their gender (Adler, 2011). Jordan (1991) defines these expectations and adoptions of behaviors by each sex as sex role stereotyping and socialization. Studies reveal that sex differentiated treatment and socialization process begin at birth. The socialization process starts at early stage by parents. Surprisingly, the interesting observation is that parents tend to view their female new born as being small, delicate and fragile at birth.

The male by comparison is described as being more alert stringer, and better coordinated. Thus, this plays a great role on the achievement of both sexes in their future life (Adler, 2011). Burstyn (2016) also notes that parents' influence has a significant

impact on sex role particularly of girls. In the eyes of parents, the social expectation of girls is less than that of boys. The socialization process of a girl at home may interfere with her future achievement rather than in force it. In addition, Clark (2005) state that the socialization process of children at early stages as follows: children provided at their early stage different messages experience based solely up on their gender when parents alter magical words “it is a boy”, and “it is a girl”. Hence, our habit has developed overtime through our socialization process in the community we grown in. We learnt the values, norms and practices of our community and these appear to be “objective”, natural and God given.

Moreover, it is recognized that in the majority of societies women are viewed as less equal to men as the result of socialization process Agenda Issues 65 (2005, p.47). Adler (2011) further states that in each society certain tasks are deemed suitable for boys and girls. Tasks associated with boys usually have higher status and value than those associated with girls. What is surprising is that, in the socialization and sex-role stereotyping processes schools have a great share to determine girls’ future carrier and achievement.

Shakeshaft (2015) claims that treatment of girls in the classrooms as well as in the contents of the textbooks and materials used in schools contribute a lot to girls’ feelings of inferiority and lowered aspiration to receive positions in leadership. Williams (2015) realizes that, schools accommodate socialization and sex role stereotyping through systematic organization. The socialization employed in schools minimizes the innate intelligence and aptitude of children especially girls when schools most assuredly teach and reinforce behaviors considered to be gendered appropriate. For example, girls do

tasks like dust wash, paintbrush and do housekeeping chores while boys collect money, run errands, and operate equipment (Bergman, 2000).

At large societal desired behaviors, the temperaments between the two sexes formulate distinctive personalities for boys and girls bring stereotyped “masculinity” and “Femininity” in their personality and activities. Hence, boys considered intellectual and performs the role of dominating. On the other hand, girls are seen passive, docile, ignorant and ineffective. This socialization process oriented behavior makes girls to obey men’s dictation and follow the leadership of male (Seiwha, 2006). The existence of role-prejudice, which is developed and adopted through socialization in every country, has therefore, limited men and women to certain roles and life patterns.

As Seiwha (2006) shows, girls’ access to leadership positions has been hindered and limited by the socialization process and sex-role stereotyping. Salem et al (2003) also identify in their study the existence of continued sex role stereotyping as a major impediment to girls aspiring to leadership. Furthermore, girls themselves believe that the socialization and sex role stereotyping are the major barriers and hinder them from entering into managerial activities (Adler, 2011). Even strong sex-role stereotyping reinforced by the socialization processes has resulted in frustration and confusion among professional and managerial females (Adler, 2011). In general, absence of girls from leadership activities and positions is a result of the interaction of sex-role stereotyping, socialization process and occupational stereotyping (Avolio, 2005).

2.5.3.2 The Influence of Patriarchal Beliefs on Females Aspiration for Educational Leadership

Patriarchy has been defined as a system of social structures and practices in which males’ dominant oppress and exploits females (Afshar & Barrientos, 2012). In the same

way, Glover (2013) notes the patriarchal oppression, and the mobilization of bias effectively silences women's demands to leadership. In addition, endocentric patriarchal ideology denies the women leaders and neglects their placement in ranking positions.

2.5.3.3 Cultural Norms and Practices

Culturally, the Ethiopian society is patriarchal. It portrays girls as inferior to boys and the division of labor is stereotypical. Girls who do not perform domestic roles are viewed as deviants making it difficult to assert themselves when it comes to seeking positions outside the home. In addition, females carry out almost all the reproductive roles of the households as well as many of the productive roles. The average Ethiopian woman puts in 15-18 hours of work per day, which has never been valued in economic terms (United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF], 2003).

Women also participate in community management roles, which is usually voluntary and unpaid. In many cases, this is used as one of the reasons to justify that women do not have the time to participate in leadership outside of the home. These and many more are obstacles that limit women from developing their leadership potentials and take full advantage of the positive enabling environment created by the national women policy. Grady (1992) noted that few girls have been socialized to have a clear sense of a career track to improve their leadership skills. They have also been denied the support, opportunity and experience given to boys. The findings from Grady's study suggest that there remains a psychological barrier, a subconscious occupational ceiling that prevents girls from actively pursuing success in the non-traditional roles of school administration. Thus, proportionately fewer girls than boys seek administrative positions,

tending to disguise their ability and eliminate them from competition in a larger occupational sphere (Grady, 1992).

Socialization and gender stereotyping have also been regarded as additional internal barriers faced by girls. Girls are limited by social expectations, parental guidance and self-aspiration (Mahoney, 2014). Boys are more often socialized to persevere and seek professional success while girls are socialized to nurture and support others as they assume the traditional role of mother and caretaker of the home.

An abundance of literature indicates that the socialization process of females perpetuates notions of the inferiority of the female gender. Mahoney (2014) again contends that girls have been socialized not to pursue a higher education, since society tends to believe they do not require as high an education as boys. They continue that textbooks, the nature of student-teacher interaction and the different treatment that girls receive in comparison to boys, are some of the things that condition a woman to be cooperative, nurturing and dependent. Girls have typically been perceived as being weak, and generally not robust enough for the difficult, intensely political nature of school leadership. It is encouraging, if not ironic, to note that some of these very qualities once seen as deficiencies are now being espoused as qualities of girls for effective leadership.

In addition to socialization, society seems to use a double standard in describing girls' characteristics. Boys might be called absentminded, but girls are scatterbrained; boys might be described as intellectually curious, but girls are nosy; boys are planners, but girls are schemers; boys are sensitive, girls are emotional; boys are managerial but girls are manipulative. Faced with attitudes such as these, it is no wonder it has been difficult for girls to break through the glass ceiling into higher educational administrative

positions. It is of critical importance that girls be allowed to nurture the strengths they have. It is time to look at the strengths of both and determining how these strengths can help both boys and girls become the leaders our schools so desperately need (Mahoney, 2014).

In many literatures, the reason given for not representing girls as leaders has only to do with the fact that they were females. Women were not hired in many countries as managers because of custom that men do not want to take directions from women leaders (Shakeshaft 1989, p.96). Shakeshaft (1989, p.85) also states that, the societal and cultural barriers mainly by the beliefs of boys affect the aspiration of girls for leadership. In light of this, endocentric belief gives less consideration and looks down girls' work and their place in the society and in the home as well. Many researchers in (Glover, 2013) reveal that girls' access to paid work is constrained by both discrimination and sex segregation at the work place in the assumptions that females are naturally responsible for all or most of unpaid work of the household.

According to the study conducted in South Africa, the majority of the country believes that the person who can lead the school better is a male; they do not believe that a female can lead a school. Power in organization is associated mainly with males, based on a general cultural attitude that males make better decision-making and leadership roles (Agenda 65, 2005, p.47-48). Negative attitudes of society including that of females themselves and competence hamper females' participation in leadership issues. Females unequally integrated into new administrative mode because of the culturally exclusive practices and images arising from a new particularly persuasive and captive form of hegemonic masculinity (More & Ken, 2011). Furtherer more, different societies have

different sayings that affect the perception and attitude of females to be leaders in different sectors.

In many cases, the sayings reflected in proverbs show the weakness of women and their inappropriateness for leadership roles. For example, the proverbs in Turkana community those oppress females, stated by (Glover, 2013) as follows: ‘The body that holds milk cannot hold intelligence a woman’s work is to be pretty, not to think about serious matters’. ‘You are so stupid you can even be misled by a woman’. Women respondents who participated in the study of Glover (2013) replied that there was greater gender discrimination in their community. One of them states that: “Even the son we suffered for him grows up to look down on us; our problems will continue as our sons follow the examples of their fathers”.

Similarly, in Ethiopia there are sayings, which create psychological repercussions on females and affect their aspiration. For instance in Amharic there is a proverb, which says, "A death of death comes when female becomes a judge." In addition, in Afan Oromo a proverb directly degrades the leadership of female thus "The management of women makes the gate to be closed for the whole day". Organizational socialization is the process by which new leaders become integrated into the formal and informal norms, as well as the unspoken assumptions of a school or a district. Because traditional stereotypes cast women and minorities as socially incongruent as leaders, they face greater challenges becoming integrated into the organization (Hart, 2009) “Socialization and sex role stereotyping have been potent obstacles to increasing women’s participation in the management of schools” (Shakeshaft, 2015).

Braithwaite (2012) attributed girls' failure to advance to upper level leadership positions in schools to oversaturation with the "cultural message of girls' inferiority within boys". This marginalization results in females not only being expected to "behave like males," but also on being judged on how "feminine" they are. Hill and Ragland (2016) pointed out the perpetuation of gender bias in media images of females' leaders in which they are scheming, gold digging, seducing their way to the top, devious, immoral, and running over everyone in their way. Negative examples of female are leaders in books, television, and movies also influence society's expectations of appropriate female leader behavior. Another form of sex stereotyping reported by Irby and Brown (1995) related to societal perceptions that females work on an emotional level. Shakeshaft (2015) supported these findings, pointing out the existence of the myth that "females are too emotional and can't see things rationally and so that affects their decision making".

2.5.4 Admission Practices and Recruitment

Organizational admission practices at the Bottom entry-level jobs are critical in establishing career trajectories in organizations because promotional ladders, where they exist, are connected to specific points of entry into the organization (Stevenson, 2002). Job recruitment and hiring practices used by employers often result in females being placed in jobs that have short or nonexistent job ladders. This is an important barrier limiting females' participation beyond low paying jobs. Such practices, in conjunction with the difficulty of changing career paths once employed in an organization, perpetuate the existence of female job ghettos that are low-paying and cut off from mobility channels.

Stevenson (2002) theorizes that school authorities use admission and recruitment methods that have worked well in the past because they help to avoid costly hires of unsatisfactory workers. Statistical discrimination, as this is formally called, is based on stereotypes about appropriate work roles for females and males, which the public, employers, and most females readily accept. It results from the use of inexpensive and expedient “screens,” in place of more detailed information about individuals, to make admission decisions, and it is likely to reproduce the characteristics of the current work force in a given job (Stevenson, 2002).

Admission practices in entry level determine access to leadership ladders. Complex organizations contain many subsystems of career ladders to which different rules and procedures apply (Williams, 2015). The military services, trade schools, and high school shop classes provide a steady supply of young men for skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar trades, but very few females (O’Farrell & Harlan, 2001). Personal networks of friends and relatives are another common way that people find out about entry-level jobs (O’Farrell & Harlan, 2001).

In 1986, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission lost a major discrimination case against Sears, Roebuck and Company because the defense successfully argued that females chose low-paying clerk positions rather than higher-paying commission sales jobs held by men (Grant, 2012). The external barriers to career participation for females are pervasive. Additionally, many school boards and selection teams are male-dominated to differential rates of promotion on gender-typed job ladders, as well as difficulties (Johnson, 2001).

2.5.5 Barriers to Promotion

Girls experience barriers to participation that are related in “crossing over” to male-dominated ladders, or pipelines, that provide more promotion opportunities. Empirical analyses of private companies and government agencies have revealed a number of important characteristics of job ladders (O'Farrell & Harlan 2001). Promotion rates and access to the means of acquiring new skills systematically differ according to where one is located in the organization. Certain career lines are blocked while others afford ample upward movement. The barriers that prevent females and minorities from moving off the “sticky floor” often arise because the jobs in which these groups are concentrated either lead nowhere or have very short lines of progression.

Discrimination against females, minorities and working class people becomes institutional and systemic in large bureaucratic organizations, as opposed to intentional and personal, by organizing labor along job ladders in ways that segregate them according to the gender, race, and class of incumbents (Stevenson, 2002).

2.6. Demographic characteristics of girls and leadership qualities

Different researchers (Adler, 2011; Jordan, 1991; Hart 2009) state the reasons why girls do not succeed in ladder of leadership is that efficiency in self-confidence, fear of success, lack of personal autonomy, lack of clear professional goal setting, fear of rejection and competition, and lack of aspiration occupation of parents, personality trait and academic performance. As the result of their socialization process and sex role stereotyping, majority of women lack self-confidence to be school leadership (Hart, 2009).

Self-confidence affects the way girls are perceived as well as the ways they perceive themselves. The self-confidence has a substantial impact on individual chances for being perceived as a group emergent leader Andrews cited in (Shakeshaft, 2015). Similarly, by citing Maccoby and Jacklin Yalew (2007) reported that self-confidence is a key factor, which could create variation in achievement, related tasks between the two sexes. Because individuals make choices in the context of what they perceive as available opportunities, schools, employers' administrative procedures for recruitment, hiring, and job assignment that support gender, racial, and class stereotypes about appropriate work roles contribute to job segregation in entry-level jobs.

Thus, the extraordinarily high degree of sex segregation at the individual job title level within firms has critical ramifications for differences in the career advancement opportunities of girls and boys (Thayer & Bacon, 2016).

Shakeshaft (2015) refers to internal or psychological barriers as “those that can be overcome by individual change whereas external barriers require social and institutional change”. Some of the internal barriers ascribed to women include the following: lack of confidence, motivation, inferiority complex, aspirations; deficiencies in credentials and experience; and Socialization and gender stereotyping. Each one of these will be reviewed in greater depth.

According to Lerner and Spanier cited in Yalew (2008) reported by summarizing the assumption of others that discuss the self-concept and self-esteem of boys which agitate them to strive to do high status tasks where assertiveness dominance, high level of competence and activity demanded. Whereas girls are pressured to search those tasks that are labeled as low status and where interpersonal relationships are highly involved. On

the other hand, Shakeshaft (1989) argues that lack of confidence; aspiration and lack of personal autonomy are something, which measured by male lenses of definitions. She pointed out that low socio-economic, personality traits and occupation of parents contribute to their low leadership qualities.

In addition, she elaborates that girls' lack of confidence as a product of lack of experience in the sphere of administration and it should also viewed then, as a product of a system that keeps girls separated from experience that would help to develop confidence in the public sphere. Thus, which has often seen as a personal failing of girls' lack of self-confidence may be more accurately seen because of sex-structured society that generates a belief reinforced by the organizational system that prevents girls from developing confidence in public sphere activities through male dominated world of professional administration. The other problem of girls to seek leadership position is fear of success, which jeopardizes the girls' personal lives. Working with high achievement women and men, she worries about the anticipation of negative consequence for example, social rejection, disapproval, not being liked and loss of femininity (Jordan, 1991).

As Heilman cited in Yalew, (2008, p.14) states, it seems that women choose careers of low status even when there is the possibility of getting high status because of fear of success. In relation to this Bandura cited in (Yalew 1997, p.14) elaborates that a sense of competence develops by observing others' success or failure that we think as similar to ourselves. Then women who fail to get managerial position may develop fear of success. Female tend to change their sex role identity to reflect male roles while they seek to involve in educational management. In addition, many women underestimate their ability. Women themselves recognize that the world is masculine overall; those who

fashioned it, ruled it and still dominate it today are men. As far as their perception they don't consider that they are responsible for it.

Moreover study reveals (Owens, 2010) women tended to anxiety than men when confronted with situations of achievements. The anticipation in the competitive achievement activity of women especially against men produces anticipation of certain negative consequence for instance the threat of social rejection, and loss of femininity. Competition is a troublesome area for women compared to men. It is be competitive for women because, if she is openly competitive, for women because she frequently experiences herself as aggressive and distractive. Furthermore, as study shows even women managers own career strategies and ambivalent attitude towards a "masculine" type career orientation characterized by competition for power, can be seen as an obstacle for their aspiration to leadership.

Finally, lack of clear professional goal setting frequently affects the aspiration of girls to leadership positions. Many girls have not carefully planned their ascent to the top management (Owen, 2010). Some would suggest that these psychological, internal or intrinsic barriers, however, are seldom more prevalent for women than for men, and it is not usually the woman's psyche at fault, but the social structure of society that is the root cause of the inequities (Shakeshaft, 1989). Or perhaps it is the reality that for a woman to be considered equal, she must be better prepared than the man with whom she is competing for a job.

2.6.1 Family and Home Responsibilities

It was frequently observed that extensive family responsibilities especially those involving marriage, childcare and household activities can affect girls' career achievements (Fagenson, 2011). The traditional expectations of women's major roles in life are those of wife, mother and homemakers. Women workers still tend more than men to bear the main burden of family responsibilities as well as paid and unpaid work; these double work burdens hampers their upward movement to management positions (Almaz, 2012). Adler (2011) states that societal expectations of women are greater interims-of family responsibilities; such as care for elderly of children, and husband are exclusively that of she has to participate fully in funeral/mourning, no one raises eyebrows if a male who is also a manager just stays an hour and leaves the mourning house or does not attend a funeral because of "meetings".

They also note that, it is in the family realm that women pay the highest price. Today it is generally believed that marriage constitute an advantage for men who want to make career, but a real handicapped for women who have the same ambitions. Not only does marriage provide with logistic support, housework and emotional security. In relation to this family role, involvement can have a negative impact on achievement even when the women themselves may not choose to their career involvement based on long held stereotypes often assume that married women especially those with n will and should play a primary care taker role within their families (Fagenson, 2011).

In addition to this Fagenson (2011) reports the extent of women subordinate career aspiration depend up on women's own values, systems and priorities ,the degree of support provided by their husbands, the age based needs of their children , as well as the

availability of organizational support in the form of flexible work schedules and assistance for children care. Wife-hood and motherhood computed for resource (time and energy), which must be allocated between both the occupational and domestic roles. These multiple demands, thus inhabited the single mindedness continuous participation and commitment required for managerial success, responsibilities, place bound circumstances, moves with spouses, or misalignment of personal and organizational goals were early contributors to women's lack of administrative success, either because the demands of family on women aspirants restricted them or because those who hired believed that women would be hindered by family commitments.

2.7. Improving girls' leadership qualities

To this point, this literature review has been focused quite extensively on both internal and external barriers that influence the representation of girls in educational administration. Some of these barriers, while not completely removed, are beginning to crumble. A number of ways to overcome those barriers have been noted and one of these ways is for girls' aspirants to have a mentor. Holt (2000) suggests that mentors, both boys and girls, may be the single most important factor in an administrator's career development. Mentor can suggest strategies for career mobility, open doors, initiate contact and make recommendations. Despite the benefits of mentoring, research indicated that there seems to be a lack of available male or female mentors for women. When males do act as mentors, they tend to sponsor boys or someone who is most like them (Erich, as cited by Coleman, 2009).

One reason why mentoring may not be readily accessible to girls may be that girls don't "fit" into the comfort zone of male mentors (Coleman, 2009). Another reason may

be that girls are still the unknown quantity and are not perceived by some boys as loyal or trustworthy and, therefore, may be seen as a great risk factor for the mentor. Coleman points out another problem of men choosing girls as protégés is the sexual connotation that is attached to this relationship or the threat of actual sexual harassment in the form of sexual bribery. Clearly, mentoring when it does happen is one way to break down the barriers that girls face, but it is not such a simple matter.

Another way of overcoming barriers that is suggested in the literature is through networking. Networks provide a widening circle of personal and professional references that can assist in the promotion of girls as candidates for positions. Networks can provide information through newsletters or word of mouth on systems that have job openings and contacts, offer advice on benefits of positions, salary, history and background of school boards (Rees, 2001). Girls need to actively seek out networks with boys and other girls to gain visibility, information, advice and receive moral support as they pursue their careers (Rees, 2001).

Various American networks such as Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (SEEL) and girls in School Administration (WISA) have been established. In Canada, the Federation of Women Teachers' Association (FWTA) provides different types of networking opportunities ranging from courses to prepare for the different leadership positions, to conferences, resource booklets, and a regular newsletter for girls. As Acker and Barrientos (2014) stated in their study of women's support organizations, "women need time to grow together professionally and to learn from other women".

Irby and Barrientos (2014) suggest that there is something special and celebratory for same sex members of all races and ethnic groups to come together. Perhaps one of the

most compelling and powerful experiences that women have in the conferences and workshops for women is the camaraderie, the shared unspoken assumptions, and the revelation of one's experience which is understood Irby (2014). Gaining academic credentials is another way for women to overcome barriers to moving up the administrative ladder. Evidence suggests that women are attending graduate school in record numbers. Preparing for the role of principal, especially in higher institution, has been identified as a key in breaking down the barriers facing women.

Hopefully, the trend of increased enrollment in graduate programs by women will begin to have an effect on the serious underrepresentation of women in leadership. It is important to remember, however, that to date the results have not been that encouraging (Holt, 2000). A more formal way to decrease the barriers facing women seeking advancement in educational administration is through employment equity programs or affirmative action initiatives. Employment equity programs involve the systematic monitoring of who holds what jobs so that areas of concern, such as fair and representative work force and equality of treatment and outcome, become public (Holt, 2000). It is important to note that although hiring can be mandated by institutions, acceptance cannot. Promoting gender equity in the classroom is another way to help remove barriers for women. Girls are under-represented in compensatory educational programs and extracurricular programs. They are misrepresented and under-represented in co-curricular activities such as school club head, texts, department head, unit-leader, vice-principal and school Principal (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Moreover, educators must be cognizant of the "hidden curriculum" and the devastating effects that gender inequality in school can have on girls. Afshar and

Barrientos (2012) outline various steps to a bias-free classroom. Some of them include: set and enforce rules so boys do not monopolize attention and dominate all co-curricular activities. To obtain leadership positions in the 21st century, girls can use some career-enhancing techniques. Techniques include availing themselves to mentors, utilizing sponsors, role models, and networking, which allows girls a means for getting advice, moral support and contacts for information and providing constructive ways of dealing with frustration, sharing feelings about their work, and providing encouragement (Clark, 2005). Morrison (2012) suggested the following four “core components of success” –

Be able: Girls should make sure that they know what the position entails. They should develop good speaking and writing skills plus any skill that will help compete against everyone else at a particular level.

Never stop learning: whether it is formally, in a classroom or informally, on the job. Put in extra time and effort on every job.

Be seen as able: No one should ever allow his/her abilities to be discouraged or ignored. Display competencies in jobs that are visible and valued, especially for jobs that form stepping-stones to the top.

Be willing to balance, prioritize, sacrifice, and relax. The first skill is taking the time to plan for a successful career path, which requires hard work, dedication, and long hours on the job. The second skill is to recognize the fact that competition does exist and women must learn to exhibit the appropriate skills and behaviors needed to compete. The third skill is to keep going and to develop confidence. In order to be recognized for the work well done, performing an exceptional job, doing a job important to the organization,

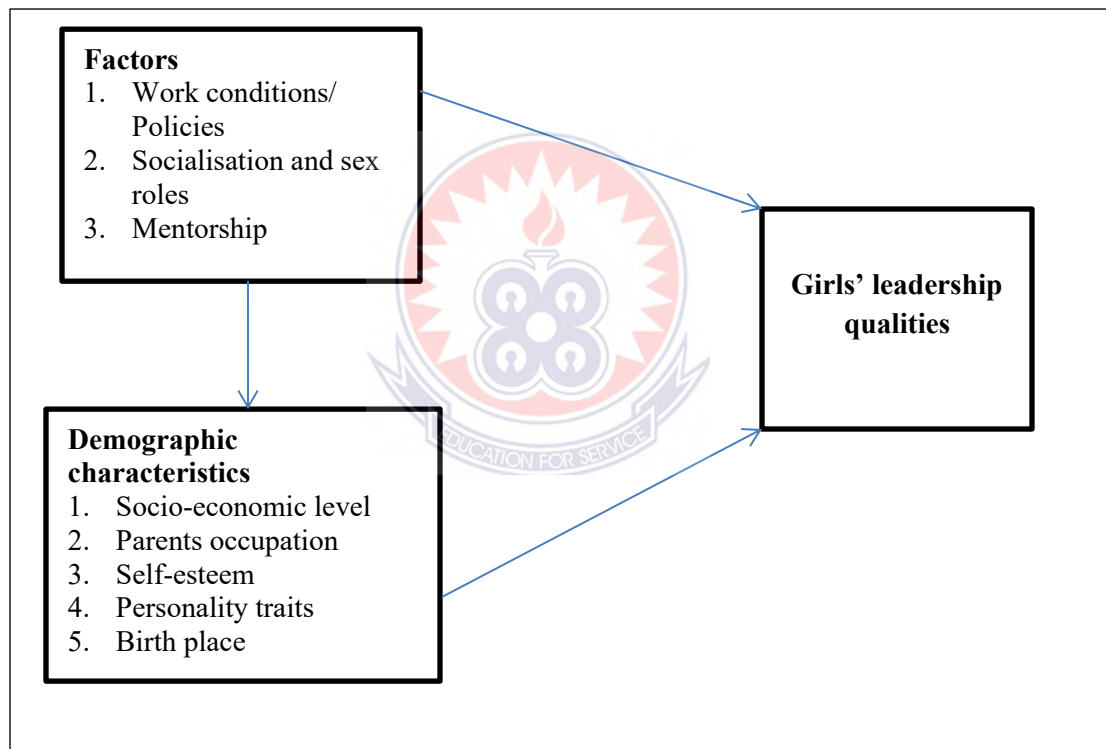
becoming visible so others know who it was who succeeded are essential. The fourth skill is courage and determination to battle the male-dominated establishment. The fifth skill is demonstrating a commitment to work in order to stay ahead of the competition, and to learn to delegate effectively. A good delegator is able to (a) analyze the job, (b) decide what needs to be delegated, (c) plan the delegation, (d) select the person or persons to delegate to, (e) delegate, and (f) follow up on the delegated activity. The sixth skill that should be developed is to meet deadlines. Having the ability to complete tasks in a timely manner will improve others perceptions of one's performance during the evaluation process. The seventh and final skill is to develop and exercise the managerial role. The leader's aim is to gain respect; not love. In order to gain a leadership role, girls must act the role and utilize the power she has in that position. The use the term "gender flex" to refer to temporarily using communication behaviors typical of the other gender to increase potential for influence that means one considers a situation from someone else's point of view.

Finally, there continues to be inequities in the workplace concerning women in leadership positions. Research has provided much needed information concerning the gender gap, but how can it be bridged? Will the 21st century really bring about a change? Will time erase the gender gap in leadership that is like a brick wall for so many women, probably not? Time will help, but more is needed. Yes, we need to recognize that women leadership styles are different from men, but we all must embrace that difference and make room for it in the educational leadership arena. Women leaders and future leaders must not be intimidated by what society may consider as the norm, male leadership behaviors. Women can no longer remain on the side lines hoping for recognition for a job

well done. Women must be adamant in spreading the word, sharing the research, and expecting to be treated equitably. The message that must be echoed is there are not just women leaders, but simply leaders-leaders who are willing to do effectively whatever the position entails.

2.8 The conceptual framework of the study

Figure 2.1: The study constructs



Source: Adapted from Holt (2000)

The conceptual framework above shows the factors that influence girls' leadership qualities. These factors include organizational policies that place both girls and boy at the same level for leadership positions. Some organizational policies favor boys more than girls in their quest for leadership positions. Working conditions, socialization,

sex role and patriarchal beliefs in a society or organizations most of the time put girls at very disadvantage than boys. The framework also depicts the relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics of the girls and their leadership qualities. Socio-demographic characteristic like economic level, parents' occupation, self-esteem, personality traits and place of birth may influence girls' leadership qualities. Factors to improve girls' leadership qualities include mentorship, education, empowerment, policies and communication.



CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter dealt with the methods and techniques that were used in gathering data for the study. It discussed the research design, the population, sample and sampling technique, data collection instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

The researcher used descriptive cross-sectional study design using a quantitative study type. According to Gay and Airasian, (2003) descriptive survey is concerned with conditions that exist, practices that prevail, beliefs, effects and attitude that are held, processes that are on-going and trends that are developing. The descriptive survey design method deals with questions concerning what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation (Ary, & Jacobs, 1990). Fraenkel and Wallen, (1993) describe descriptive survey design as that method that involves asking a large group of people questions about a particular issue. Information is obtained from a sample rather than the entire population at one point in time which may range from one day to a few weeks. According to Amin (2005), this is one of the most commonly used research methods in social sciences, and it is used to gather data from a sample of a population at a particular time.

According to Fraenkel and Wallen, (1993), quantitative research is the systematic scientific investigation of quantitative properties and phenomena and their relationships.

The objective of this type of research is to develop and use mathematical models, theories and/or hypotheses pertaining to natural phenomena.

3.3 Population of the Study

Sekaran, (1981) postulates that, population of a research study is any group of individuals that have characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher. There were four Senior High Schools in the District thus, Dadease SHS, Effiduasi Commercial SHS, Tweneboa Kodua SHS and Bankoman SHS. They were all mixed schools. Each school met the inclusion criteria hence simple random sampling method was used to select two schools, that is Dadease Agric SHS and Effiduasi Commercial SHS to represent the District. The two selected schools were appropriate because of their proximity to each other and Effiduasi Commercial SHS had a rich culture with their school system as compared to the others. According to Sekaran (1981) sample size of 30% and above can be used for the generalization of the entire population. Hence 50% of the population was used. The target population for the study was girls from the two SHS (Dadease = 1308 and Effiduasi Secondary Commercial School = 1983) in Sekyere Kumawu District.

Only girls were used for the study because the researcher was interested in finding out the factors that influence mentoring and socialization of girls in leadership in SHS in the District. The total target population for the two schools is 3291 while the actual population of both two schools is 5,081 (Dadease Agric SHS is 2123 and Effiduasi Commercial SHS is 2958) Respondents were selected from these two schools. Respondents were selected from form two and three because of the number of years spent and experience in the schools.

Table 3.1: School population and sample size

School	Population size	Sample size
Dadease SHS	1308	$1308/3291 * 342 = 136$
Effiduasi SCS	1983	$1983/3291 * 342 = 206$
Total	3291	342

Source: Author's field work, 2020

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

Stratified sampling technique was used to determine the number of respondents from each school according to their population size. Stratified sampling because, it helped the researcher to be free from being biased and it ensured that each subgroup within the population received proper representation within the sample. The number of respondents from each stratum (school) was proportionately calculated using the formula: $A/B * C$, where A' is the total number of girls in the school, B'= the total number of girls in the two (2) selected schools and C'= the determined sample size. For example, the sample size for Dadease SHS was calculated using the above formula where A=1308, B=3291, C=342 thus, $1308/3291 * 342 = 136$. The same procedure was used for the other stratum as shown in Table 3.1 above. Howit and Cramer (2011) stated that the quality of a piece of research does not only stands or falls by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted. To get an appropriate sample size for the study, Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size was used for the determination of this study's sample size. With a target population of 3291, the minimum sample size was 342.

According to Creswell (2005) a sample is the set of actual participants that are drawn from a larger population of potential data sources. It is a basic principle of statistical sampling that a conclusion may be drawn from a large population of data based on a relatively small sample taken from that data, with a certain degree of statistical confidence. To select samples, updated lists of all form two and three girls were obtained from the school's administration. The researcher used simple random sampling method to select all the respondents after stratification of the population. Numbers were assigned to the students (girls) according the arrangement of their names on the list. The numbers were written on slips of paper, folded and put in a bowl. Samples were then picked at random till the sample size was exhausted.

3.5 Data Collection Instrument

The researcher used questionnaire as the data collection instrument. White (2005) opined that, questionnaire is instrument designed to collect data for decision making in research. A questionnaire is a printed self-report form designed to elicit information that can be obtained through the written responses of the subjects. The information obtained through a questionnaire is similar to that obtained by an interview, but the questions tend to have less depth. Closed and opened ended questionnaires were used to collect data for the study. The questionnaire was self-administered tool designed by the researcher. It had a 4-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3= Agree and 4 = Strongly Agree) in which higher score indicated more perceived negative responses.

The questionnaire was structured into three sections in accordance with three research objectives of the study. Section A dealt with the demographic characteristic of the respondents. Section B looked at the factors that influence girls' quality of leadership.

Section C focused on improving girls' leadership qualities. The use of the questionnaire gave flexibility to respondents to answer the questions at their own time and convenience. The questionnaire included a paragraph explaining the purpose of the study. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire to all the 342 respondents however 338 were able to return their questionnaires duly filled.

3.6 Pilot-Testing

A pilot-testing was conducted to make sure the research instruments were valid and reliable. The purpose for piloting instrument helps to get the errors out of the instrument so that the respondents in the study area will experience no difficulties in completing the questionnaire and also enable one to have preliminary analysis to see whether the wording and format of questions is appropriate (Bell, 2008). The questionnaire was piloted on 60 SHS girls in Oyoko SHS which was outside the study area. The purpose of the pilot-testing was to allow the researcher to make the necessary changes to items which were inappropriate and also determined the level of ambiguity of the questions for the necessary corrections to be made.

3.6 Validity and Reliability

3.6.1 Validity

The validity of an instrument is the degree to which it measures what it is intended to measure (Polit & Hungler, 1993). Content validity refers to the extent to which an instrument represents the factors under study. The relevance of the questionnaire items was established by giving the instrument to the supervisor of this work and other experts in research to scrutinize the items for proper construction.

3.6.2 Reliability

Reliability is the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure (Polit & Hungler, 1993). To determine the reliability of the instrument, the questionnaire was administered on the same group of respondents twice in the pilot study and given two weeks grace period between the first and second test and the coefficient of reliability from the two tests correlated.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher sought permission from the Sekyere Kumawu District Director of Education to carry out the study after the University Education, Winneba had approved of the research topic. The researcher was given the permission to conduct the study after which the researcher paid a working visit to the sampled population. The questionnaires were then administered to the respondents upon their approval on the school campus where students were found in the classrooms. While the respondents were answering the questionnaires, some asked questions and the researcher answered them. The researcher personally administered the questionnaire to solicit information from the respondents. The respondents were given maximum of 2 days to respond to the questions.

3.8 Data Analysis Procedure

The data were cleaned with the aim of identifying mistakes and errors which may occur and blank spaces which may not be filled. A codebook for the questionnaire was prepared to record the responses. The data were computed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software package version 20. The data were analyzed with

descriptive statistics and regression analysis using Pearson Chi-square by setting the significance level to 0.05 was done.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were addressed by first explaining the essence of the study to the respondents. The anonymity of the respondents was considered by ensuring that their names and other information that could bring out their identities not disclosed in the data collected. Respondents were further assured of their personal protection as they were given the liberty to opt out if not interested in the study. The respondents were further assured of confidentiality of the information provided and that the study findings were for academic purposes only. These ethical issues were ensured in the introductory note of the questionnaire.



CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This section offers the results of the study. With a total sample size of 342, almost all the respondents (338) were able to answer and submit their questionnaires, making 98.8% response rate for the analysis.

4.2 Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

Table 4.1: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 15 yrs	13	3.8
15-20 yrs	320	94.7
21-25 yrs	5	1.5
Total	338	100

The table 4.1 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. An overwhelming majority 320 (94.7%) of the respondents were within the age range of 15–20 years whilst 5 (1.5%) were 21-25 years.

Table: 4.1.2 Form/class

Form/class	Frequency	Percentage
Form two	153	45.3
Form Three	185	54.7
Total	338	100

Again, most of the respondents 185 (54.7%) were in Form three (3) as against 153 (45.3%) who were in Form two (2).

Table 4.1.3 Marital status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	336	99
Married	2	1.0
Total	338	100

Also, almost all the respondents 336 (99.0%) were single as against 2 (1.0%) who were married.

Table 4.1.4: Guardian/ Parent educational level

Guardian/ Parent educational level	Frequency	Percentage
No formal education	35	10.4
Primary	8	2.4
JHS	62	18.3
SHS	190	56.2
Tertiary	43	12.7
Total	338	100

More than half of the respondents 190 (56.2%) of the guidance had SHS as their highest educational background whilst 8 (2.4%) had primary education.

Table 4.1.5: Parents income level

Parents income level	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	44	13.0
High	217	64.2
Low	53	15.7
Very low	24	7.1
Total	338	100

Table 4.1.6: Guardian occupation

Guardian occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Farmer	91	26.9
Salary worker	84	24.9
Business	129	38.2
Artisan	34	10.1
Total	338	100

The majority of the respondents 217 (64.2%) stated that their parents were within the high income level whilst 24 (7.1%) said their parents belonged to the very low income level group. Furthermore, about half of the respondents 129 (38.2%) guardians had business as their occupation whilst 34 (10.1%) were artisans.

Table 4.1.7: Programme of respondents

Programme of respondents	Frequency	Percentage
General Arts	204	60.4
General Science	10	3.0
Agric	10	3.0
Visual Arts	5	1.5
Home Science	109	32.2
Total	338	100

Source: Author's field work, 2021

Lastly, more than half of the respondents 204 (60.4%) had General Arts as their programme of study whilst 5 (1.5%) were offering Visual Arts as detailed in table 4.1

4.3 How does mentorship affect girls' quality leadership?

Table 4.2 depicts the how mentorship affect girls' quality leadership. Majority of the respondents 232 (68.6%) strongly agreed that mentorship supports girls leadership whilst 9 (2.7%) disagreed to the statement. Also, most of the respondents 175 (51.8%) strongly agreed that lack of mentorship demotivates girls for leadership positions whilst 25 (7.4%) strongly disagreed. Again, more than half of the respondents 194 (57.4%) strongly agreed that mentorship leads to girls empowerment in the institutions whilst 14 (4.1%) strongly disagreed. Furthermore, majority of the respondents 194 (57.4%) strongly agreed that female leaders encourage girls whilst 19 (5.6%) disagreed to the assertion. It was also seen that most of the respondents 195 (57.7%) strongly agreed that mentorship provided more female leaders as against 4 (1.2%) who disagreed to the statement. Again, almost half of the respondents 145 (42.9%) strongly agreed that mentorship in the school had contributed to the eradication of culture that impede girls leadership whilst 42 (12.4%) strongly disagreed. About half of the respondents 121 (35.8%) strongly agreed that mentorship made school prefects to be selected fairly as against 35 (10.4%) who opposed the statement. Mentorship reduced girls who were always abuse when contesting for positions was strongly agreed by 153 (45.3%) respondents whilst 28 (8.3%) strongly disagreed. Finally, an overwhelming majority of the respondents 257 (76.0%) strongly agreed that mentorship provided good girls leadership whilst 19 (5.6%) disagreed to the assertion as shown in table 4.1.

Table 4.2: Effects of mentorship on girls' quality of leadership

Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Mentorship supports girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	232	68.6
Agree	97	28.7
Disagree	9	2.7
Total	338	100
Lack of mentorship demotivates girls for leadership positions		
Strongly agree	175	51.8
Agree	98	29.0
Disagree	40	11.8
Strongly disagree	25	7.4
Total	338	100
Mentorship leads to girls' empowerment in the institutions		
Strongly agree	194	57.4
Agree	97	28.7
Disagree	33	9.8
Strongly disagree	14	4.1
Total	338	100
Female leaders tends to encourage girls		
Strongly agree	210	62.1
Agree	89	26.3
Disagree	19	5.6
Strongly disagree	20	5.9
Total	338	100
Mentorship provides more female leaders		
Strongly agree	195	57.7
Agree	134	39.6
Disagree	4	1.2
Strongly disagree	5	1.5
Total	338	100
Mentorship in the school has contributed to the eradication of culture that impede girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	145	42.9
Agree	90	26.6
Disagree	61	18.0
Disagree	42	12.4

Strongly disagree	338	100
Total		
Mentorship helps school prefects to be selected fairly		
Strongly agree	121	35.8
Agree	68	20.1
Disagree	114	33.7
Strongly disagree	35	10.4
Total	338	100
Mentorship reduces the fear in girls who were abused to also contest for positions		
Strongly agree	153	45.3
Agree	103	30.5
Disagree	54	16.0
Strongly disagree	28	8.3
Total	338	100
Mentorship provides girls with good leadership qualities		
Strongly agree	257	76.0
Agree	38	11.2
Disagree	19	5.6
Strongly disagree	24	7.1
Total	338	100

Source: Author's field work, 2021

4.4 How does socialization influence SHS girls' quality of leadership?

Table 4.3 presents how socialization influences SHS girls' quality of leadership. Majority of the respondents 177 (52.4%) strongly agreed that cultural norms affected girls leadership whilst 23 (6.8%) strongly disagreed. Also, almost half of the respondents 154 (45.6%) strongly agreed that existence of gender discrimination reduced socialization in schools as against 44 (13.0%). Furthermore, about half of the respondents 111 (32.8%) agreed that their cultural belief did not prevent them to contest for leadership positions. Also, 146 (43.2%) strongly disagreed that more boys than girls were admitted into the school putting boys at advantage over girls whilst 37 (10.9%) agreed to the statement.

Almost half of the respondent 142 (42.0%) agreed that their home responsibilities did not permit them to contest for position whilst 61 (18.0%) disagreed to the statement. Lastly, 111 (32.8%) of the respondents disagreed that they were weak for leadership position due to lack of socialization whilst 68 (20.1%) strongly agreed to the statement as detailed in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: How socialization influence SHS girls' quality leadership

Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Cultural norms affect girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	177	52.4
Agree	94	27.8
Disagree	44	13.0
Strongly disagree	23	6.8
Total	338	100
Existence of gender discrimination reduces socialization in school		
Strongly agree	71	21.0
Agree	69	20.4
Disagree	44	13.0
Strongly disagree	338	100
Total		
My cultural beliefs do not permit me to contest for leadership positions		
Strongly agree	62	18.3
Agree	111	32.8
Disagree	86	25.4
Strongly disagree	79	23.4
Total	338	100
More boys than girls are admitted into the school putting boys at advantage over girls		
Strongly agree	63	18.6
Agree	37	10.9
Disagree	92	27.2
Strongly disagree	146	43.2
Total	338	100

My home responsibilities do not permit me to contest for position

Strongly agree	63	18.6
Agree	142	42.0
Disagree	61	18.0
Strongly disagree	72	21.3
Total	338	100

I am at a disadvantage for leadership position due to lack of socialization

Strongly agree	68	20.1
Agree	100	29.6
Disagree	111	32.8
Strongly disagree	59	17.5
Total	338	100

Source: Author's field work, 2021

4.5 What socio-demographic factors influence SHS girls' leadership quality?

From table 4.4, it can be deduced that 97 (28.7%) disagreed that age influenced girls' leadership whilst 92 (27.2%) agreed that age influenced girls' leadership. About half of the respondents 106 (31.4%) agreed that marital status influence girls' leaders whilst 73 (21.6%) strongly disagreed. Also, 126 (37.3%) disagreed that guidance educational level influenced girls' leadership whilst 86 (25.4%) strongly agreed to the statement. Again, parents' income level influenced girls' leadership, 142 (42.0%) agreed whilst 68 (20.1%) disagreed. Furthermore, 122 (36.1%) agreed that guardian occupation influenced girls' leadership as against 56 (16.6%) who strongly disagreed. Finally, 121 (35.8%) agreed that programme of study influenced girls' leadership whilst 71 (21.0%) strongly disagreed.

Table 4.4: Socio-demographic factors influencing SHS girls' leadership quality

Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)
Age influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	70	20.7
Agree	92	27.2
Disagree	97	28.1
Strongly disagree	79	29.0
Total	338	100
Class influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	45	13.3
Agree	100	29.6
Disagree	95	28.1
Strongly disagree	98	29.0
Total	338	100
Early marriage influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	99	29.3
Agree	106	31.4
Disagree	60	17.8
Strongly disagree	73	21.6
Total	338	100
Guardian/parent education influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	86	25.4
Agree	74	21.9
Disagree	126	37.3
Strongly disagree	52	15.4
Total	338	100
Parents income level influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	67	19.8
Agree	142	42.0
Disagree	68	20.1
Strongly disagree	61	18.0
Total	338	100
Guardian/parent occupation influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	105	31.1
Agree	122	36.1
Disagree	55	16.3
Strongly disagree	56	16.6
Total	338	100

Total		
Programme of study influences girls' leadership		
Strongly agree	78	23.1
Agree	121	35.8
Disagree	68	20.1
Strongly disagree	71	21.1
Total	338	100

Source: Author's field work, 2021

4.6 Bivariate analysis of association between socio-demographic factors and SHS girls' leadership quality

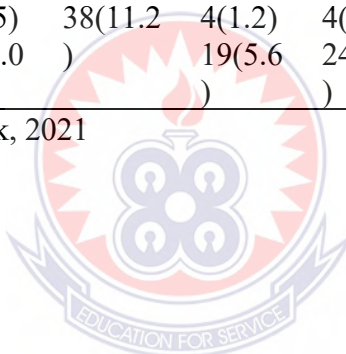
An overwhelming majority of the respondents aged 15-20 years (74.9%) strongly agreed that age had association with girls' quality leadership with very high statistical significance ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$). Form/class of the respondent also had association with girls' leadership quality which was statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.001$) as detailed in table 4.5. Also, majority of the respondents 225 (75.4%) unmarried respondents strongly agreed that marital status had association with girls' quality leadership which was not statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.889$). Again, guardian/parent educational level had significant association with girls' quality leadership ($p\text{-value} = 0.002$). There was also statistical association between parents' income level and their girls' quality leadership ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$). With statistical significance ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$), majority of the respondents strongly agreed that guidance occupation had association with girls' leadership quality. There was also association between respondents programme offered in school and girls quality leadership ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) as shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Association between demographic features and girls' quality leadership

Variables	Quality girls leadership				Total f(%)	X ² (p-value)
	SA f(%)	A f(%)	D f(%)	SD f(%)		
Age						
Less than 15yrs	4(1.2)	5(1.5)	4(1.2)	0(0.0)	13(3.8)	115.817(0.000)
15-20 yrs.	253(74.9)	33(9.8)	10(3.0)	24(7.1)	320(94.7)	
21-25 yrs.)	0(0.0)))	5(1.5)	
Total	0(0.0)	38(11.2)	5(1.5)	0(0.0)	338(100)	
	257(76.0))	19(5.6)	24(7.1)		
)))		
Form/class						
Form two	122(36.1)	8(2.4)	14(4.1)	9(2.7)	153(45.3)	16.274(0.001)
Form three)	30(8.9))	15(4.4)	185(54.7)	
Total	135(39.9)	38(11.2)	5(1.5))	338(100)	
))	19(5.6)	24(7.1)		
	257(76.0))))		
)))		
Married						
Yes	2(0.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(0.6)	0.634(0.889)
No	255(75.4)	38(11.2)	19(5.6)	24(7.1)	336(99.4)	
Total))))	338(100)	
	257(76.0)	38(11.2)	19(5.6)	24(7.1)		
))))		
Guardian/parent education						
Level	30(8.9)	5(1.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	35(10.4)	31.148(0.002)
No formal education.	8(2.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	8(2.4)	
Primary	52(15.4)	5(1.5)	5(1.5)	0(0.0)	62(18.6)	
JHS	129(38.2)	23(6.8)	14(4.1)	24(7.1)	190(56.2)	
SHS)	5(1.5)))	43(12.7)	
Tertiary	38(11.2)	38(11.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	338(100)	
Total	257(76.0))	19(5.6)	24(7.1)		
)))		
Parents income level						
Very high	35(10.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	9(2.7)	44(13.0)	85.633(0.000)
High	172(50.9)	25(7.4)	5(1.5)	15(4.4)	217(64.2)	
Low)	13(3.8)	5(1.5))	53(15.7)	
Very low	35(10.4)	0(0.0)	9(2.7)	0(0.0)	24(7.1)	

Total	15(4.4)	38(11.2)	19(5.6)	0(0.0)	338(1200)	
	257(76.0)))	24(7.1))	
))		
Guardian occupation						
Farmer	59(17.5)	18(5.3)	9(2.7)	5(1.5)	91(26.9)	
Salary worker	55(16.3)	10(3.0)	5(1.5)	14(4.1)	84(24.9)	47.521(0.000)
Business	114(33.7)	10(3.0)	0(0.0))	129(38.2)	
Artisan)	0(0.0)	5(1.5)	5(1.5)	34(10.1)	
Total	29(8.6)	38(11.2)	19(5.6)	0(0.0)	338(100)	
	257(76.0)))	24(7.1))	
))		
Programme						
General Arts	149(44.1)	25(7.4)	15(4.4)	15(4.4)	204(60.4)	
G. Science)	5(1.5)))	10(3.0)	
Agric	5(5.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(3.0)	52.389(0.000)
Visual Arts	5(1.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(1.5)	5(1.5)	
Home science	5(1.5)	8(2.4)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	109(32.2)	
Total	93(27.5)	38(11.2)	4(1.2)	4(1.2)	338(100)	
	257(76.0))	19(5.6)	24(7.1))	
)))		

Source: Author's field work, 2021



CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The discussion of results that were found on the factors influencing mentoring and socialization of girls in leadership in some selected Senior High Schools in Sekyere Kumawu District of Ashanti Region is presented in this chapter. The study was conducted on a sample size of 342 students. Almost all the respondents (338) were able to complete and return the questionnaires duly filled for analysis making a response rate of 99%.

5.2 Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

More than half of the respondents were within the age range of 15–20 years whilst 1.5% were within 21-25 years as shown in table 4.1. This might explain why majority of the respondents were not married since in Ghana the minimum age for marriage is 18 years. The higher number of respondents within the age group 15-20 might suggest why all respondents were all students in the SHS since most Senior High School students are in this age bracket in Ghana. Also, 56.2% respondents' guardians had SHS as their highest educational level and this might explain why majority of the guardians were business men and women. The possibility of finding salary or government work most at times goes beyond SHS education. However, most of the respondents described their parents' income as high. This could be due to the kind of business the parents were engaged in and the ability to meet the needs of their wards in school. An overwhelming bulk of the respondents had General Arts as their programme of study and this may

suggest that General Arts students form the majority in most of the Senior High Schools in this country (Glover, 2013).

5.3 How does mentorship affect girls' quality leadership?

Majority of the respondents strongly agreed that mentorship supports girls' leadership. Also, most of the respondents strongly agreed that lack of mentorship demotivates girls for leadership positions. This might as a result of girls always looking after female role models in positions to gain confidence for their self-leadership qualities. These findings corroborate with several studies that point to the importance of female mentorship outside of the family including teachers, uneducated women with non-academic strengths and talents and community leaders (Beaman, Duflo, Pande & Topalova, 2012). The similarities in the existing and the current studies could be due to the fact that adolescent girls are found admiring role models primarily for being well organized, disciplined and professional and second for exhibiting qualities of thoughtfulness, caring and helpfulness.

Again, more than half of the respondents strongly agreed that mentorship leads to girls' empowerment in the institutions. Furthermore, majority of the respondents strongly agreed that female leaders encourage girls. It was also seen that most of the respondents strongly agreed that mentorship provided more female leaders. Again, almost half of the respondents strongly agreed that mentorship in the school had contributed to the eradication of culture that impedes girls' leadership. About half of the respondents strongly agreed that mentorship made school prefects to be selected fairly. Mentorship reduced girls who were always abuse when contesting for positions was strongly agreed by most of the respondents. An overwhelming majority of the respondents strongly

agreed that mentorship provided good girls leadership as shown in table 4.2. This implies that empowerment of girls to hold leadership positions depend on the encouragement they receive from their female mentors. This is in line with a study conducted on the effects of female political leadership on adolescent girls in India found presence of women on village councils, enabled by affirmative action, had a positive influence on girls' career aspirations and educational attainment (Beaman et al., 2012).

This finding in the study shows that formal schooling is not only important for academic learning only however, provision of mentorship, motivation and opportunities to learn how to be a leader should be an important part of the 'hidden curriculum' of effective education, including the ways that support girls' gender equality. For example, school can promote clearly articulated beliefs, values and expectations that equip students to take on leadership roles later in life or provide training by appointing pupils to positions of student leadership, for example as prefects, monitors or sports captains. Similarly, informal education and out-of-school activities can empower girls' leadership development.

The finding is also similar to Girls in CARE's (2012) leadership development projects which learnt and practiced five essential leadership competencies – voice to express their own opinions, decision-making, self-confidence, organisation and vision – through a series of extracurricular activities that they help to design. In a remote region of Yemen, for example, more than 50% of participants demonstrated positive change in all five of the essential leadership competencies as measured by CARE's Girls' Leadership Index, after participating in a project that fostered community support for girls, offered extracurricular activities and ensured access to equitable education. Lessons learnt from

the programme as a whole include the value of building leadership on a foundation of mentorship.

National and transnational women's networks may also enhance the capabilities of individual women leaders through the sharing of expertise and resources. Several studies emphasize the importance of leadership fora that enable women to discuss achievements, challenges and brainstorm potential solutions (Ahern, 2000). However, again, the literature tends to be weak on the causal links between information-sharing and network-building, on the one hand, and enhanced leadership capabilities, on the other. Some go further to claim that open, collaborative forms of individual leadership may empower the wider community as well as the leaders themselves, but without providing evidence (Muzvidziwa, 2014). Findings seem to be similar irrespective of the methodology, study site or study design this may suggest the importance of mentorship in girls' leadership globally.

5.4 How does socialization influence SHS girls' quality of leadership?

Majority of the respondents strongly agreed that cultural norms affected girls' leadership. Some cultural norms prevent girls from contesting for positions in the communities which put their male counterparts at an advantage. Culture also serves as an agent of socialization that affect girls' leadership quality. The process of socialization and sex role stereotyping has been discussed by several researchers (Agenda 65, 2005) why people do not immediately relate girls with leadership and girls themselves under-value their potential to be leaders. The concept of socialization process and sex role stereotyping, the bias of boys dominated culture and society as well as girls' self-concepts and self-images to leadership corroborate with the current study. From the

beginning of birth, each person is confronted with expectations for his/her behavior as defined by the society in which he/she is expected to adapt and conform to those behaviors that designated appropriate to their gender. Other studies reveal that gender differentiated treatment and socialization process begin at birth where males are made to take up leadership positions even in childhood. The socialization process starts at early stage by parents. Surprisingly, the interesting observation is that parents tend to view their female new born as being small, delicate and fragile at birth who cannot handle positions in future.

Also, almost half of the respondents strongly agreed that existence of sex discrimination reduced socialization in schools. Gender discrimination in schools in Ghana is not phenomenal. However the females see themselves as being weak and unable to be leaders. This was seen in the analysis where most of the respondents strongly disagreed that more boys than girls were admitted into the school putting boys at advantage over girls (Table 4.3). This is supported by a study conducted by Adler (2011). The study concluded that male by comparison is described as being more alert stringer and better coordinated. Thus, this plays a great role on the achievement of both sexes in their future life. Adler (2011) further states that in each society certain tasks are deemed suitable for boys and girls. Tasks associated with boys usually have higher status and value than those associated with girls. What is surprising is that, in the socialization and sex-role stereotyping processes schools have a great share to determine girls' future carrier and achievement.

It was also stated by Burstyn (2016) that parents' influence has a significant impact on sex role particularly of girls. In the eyes of parents, the social expectation of

girls is less than that of boys. The socialization process of a girl at home may interfere with her future achievement rather than enforce it. Moreover, it is recognized that in the majority of societies women are viewed as less equal to men as the result of socialization process.

Almost half of the respondent agreed that their home responsibilities did not permit them to contest for position. Majority of the respondents disagreed that they were weak for leadership position due to lack of socialization. Girls are responsible for most of the household chores that affect their time and other activities outside homes hence their inability to hold positions. The socialization employed in schools and homes minimizes the innate intelligence and aptitude of children especially girls when schools most assuredly teach and reinforce behaviors considered to be gendered appropriate. For example, girls do tasks like dusting, washing, paintbrush and do housekeeping chores while boys collect money, run errands and operate equipment.

The finding agrees with Bergman (2000) with indication that societal desired behaviors, the temperaments between the two sexes formulate distinctive personalities for boys and girls bring stereotyped “masculinity” and “Femininity” in their personality and activities. Hence, boys considered intellectual and performs the role of dominating. On the other hand, girls are seen passive, docile, ignorant and ineffective. This socialization process oriented behavior makes girls to obey men’s dictation and follow the leadership of male.

Girls’ access to leadership positions generally has been hindered and limited by the socialization process and sex-role stereotyping. The existence of continued sex role stereotyping serves as a major impediment to girls aspiring to leadership. Furthermore,

girls themselves believe that the socialization and sex role stereotyping are the major barriers and hinder them from entering into managerial activities. Even strong sex-role stereotyping reinforced by the socialization processes has resulted in frustration and confusion among professional and managerial females as stated by Adler (2011). In general, absence of girls from leadership activities and positions is a result of the interaction of sex-role stereotyping, socialization process and occupational stereotyping.

5.4 What socio-demographic factors influence SHS girls' leadership quality?

An overwhelming majority of the respondents aged 15-20 years strongly agreed that age had association with girls' quality leadership with very high statistical significance. Form/class of the respondent also had association with girls' leadership quality which was statistically significant as detailed in table 4.5. Again, guidance educational level had significant association with girls' leadership qualities. With statistical significance, majority of the respondents strongly agreed that guidance occupation had association with girls' leadership quality. There was also association between respondents programme offered in school and girls quality leadership.

This suggests that the environment in which a girl finds herself has influence on whether or not she will become a leader. For example, girl born to a politician is likely to take after the parent in leadership position. These findings support of different researchers including Adler, 2011; Jordan, 1991; Hart 2009 that state the reasons why girls do not succeed in ladder of leadership is that efficiency in self-confidence, fear of success, lack of personal autonomy, lack of clear professional goal setting, fear of rejection and competition, and lack of aspiration occupation of parents, personality trait

and academic performance. As the result of their socialization process and sex role stereotyping, majority of women lack self-confidence to be school leadership.

Demographic features affect the way girls are perceived as well as the ways they perceive themselves. The demographic features have a substantial impact on individual chances for being perceived as a group emergent leader. Similarly, by citing Maccoby and Jacklinsky (2007) reported that demographic is a key factor, which could create variation in achievement, related tasks between the two sexes. Because individuals make choices in the context of what they perceive as available opportunities, schools, employers' administrative procedures for recruitment, hiring, and job assignment that support gender, racial, and class stereotypes about appropriate work roles contribute to job segregation in entry-level jobs as determined by some demographic factors.

Some of the internal barriers ascribed to women include the following: lack of confidence, motivation, inferiority complex, aspirations; deficiencies in credentials and experience; and Socialization and gender stereotyping. Contesting for position in schools many at times demands money, for example printing of posters and other campaign materials. If a girl does not have good financial background at home, would fail to vie for positions in school.

5.5 Summary

This thesis set out to study factors influencing mentoring and socialization of girls in leadership in some Senior High Schools in Sekyere Kumawu. The idea of the thesis was based on the observation that girls are still underrepresented in leadership, even though they are well-educated and equality is considered to be good in the Senior High Schools. The objectives of the thesis were to assess how mentorship affects SHS girls'

quality leadership, to assess the influence of socialization on SHS girls' leadership qualities and to determine the socio-demographic factors that influence girls' leadership qualities.

The reasons behind girls' low number in leadership and also the factors which influence girls' leadership were divided into three main factors: mentorship, socialization and demographic factors. By identifying these, more specific factors were found and it was seen that girls' leadership is not affected only by one thing, but all these factors play a part in girls' possibilities to take up leadership positions. In the conclusions, the research questions were answered and the main influencing factors described shortly.

There are many ways to promote girls' leadership, of which some are more time consuming and complex and others are more easily conducted. If mentorship and socialisation factors are considered, attention should be paid on the raising of children by giving boys and girls more possibilities to get to know different fields and professions in order to balance the gender division in the Senior High Schools. Also, changing traditional gender roles and norms by emphasizing equality in all matters would change attitudes towards girls' leadership and girls' own doubts about their abilities.

All in all, leadership is changing; likewise institutions will have to change accordingly. Girls' leaders can bring something new to organizations when, for example, social skills are becoming more important. The question should not concentrate on the differences between girls and boys' leadership, but on what can be done collectively.

The topic of the dissertation is complex and broad and thus further research is recommended. This thesis only concentrates on the main issues which can be researched

in more detail to find more ways to improve girls' possibilities to become leaders. By studying other countries and comparing those, a broader theory could be formed.

5.6 Conclusion

Leadership is an essential tool to institutional development. Improving the leadership qualities of girls through the girls' empowerment presents enormous potentials for wealth creation and reducing poverty. It is therefore an undeniable fact that local institutions serve as valuable actors for girl child education, thus promoting leadership as a whole in the country. Local institutions in their bid to improve upon the girl leadership encounter challenges which hamper their efforts. Thus, the recommendations made in this study should be taken into consideration by policy makers in order to spearhead the activities of these local actors in girl child leadership abilities. Policies should be geared towards reducing challenges hindering local institutions which are into girl child education through enhancing accessibility and promoting effective means of transportation and providing a pooling mechanism for resource mobilization. Girl child leadership should be the course for all Ghanaians.

5.7 Recommendations

In the light of the major findings of the research, the following policy recommendations should be formulated for the improvement and sustainability of girls' leadership in SHS in the municipality and the nation as a whole.

1. The Municipal Assembly in conjunction with traditional authorities should enact by-laws to sanction parents who deny school going age girls the opportunity to enroll or further their education in order for them to become leaders in future

2. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection in collaboration with the Municipal Assembly and the GES should do mobilization/sensitization on the importance of girls' education and leadership to encourage girls pick up leadership positions.
3. Cultural practices and entrenched beliefs that continue to be barriers to girls' education should be addressed through sensitization programmes, education and community involvement in larger scale to address the situation and to empower girls in leadership.
4. Government through the ministry of education, Information, civil society organizations, NGOs, the media and community leaders must collectively initiate outreach and orientation activities to highlight the importance of mentorship, socialization and girls' leadership and subsequently dispel the myth some people have about girls' leadership.
5. The ministry of Gender, Children and social protection should liaise with government and other agencies to empower parents economically through the LEAP programme and other credit facilities to help alleviate their poverty situation.
6. Parents and guidance should be encourage to form smaller groups in order to have easy access to credit facilities to enable them provide for their wards needs especially their female children.
7. More female teachers should be posted to the SHS by the GES to serve as role models to young females in the communities.

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APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI

FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Title of Research: Mentoring and socialization of girls in leadership at Dadease Agric Senior High School in Sekyere Kumawu District, Ashanti Region. The study is being conducted by Miss Rita Adjeley Sowah, a student being supervised by Rev Fr. Dr. Francis K. Sam University of Education, Winneba Department of Educational Leadership – Kumasi. You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Ask the researcher if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Your anonymity and confidentiality are assured. Thank you for reading this.

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please write in the spaces provided or tick when applicable

1. What is your age? Less than 15yrs [] 15-20yrs [] 21-25 [] 26 and above []

2. What is your class or form? Form 2 [] Form 3 []

3. Are you married? Yes [] No []

4. What is your guardian/parent educational level

Non formal education [] Primary [] JHS [] SHS [] Tertiary []

5. What is your parents' income level? Very high [] High [] Low [] very low []

6. What is your guardian/parent occupation?

Farmer [] Politician [] Salary worker [] Business [] Artisan []

7. What is your programme?

General Arts [] Elective Science [] Agric [] Visual Arts [] Home science []

SECTION B: EFFECTS OF MENTORSHIP ON GIRLS' QUALITY LEADERSHIP

Likert scale (tick the appropriate response once)

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
8. Mentorship supports girls' leadership				
9. Lack of mentorship in the school demotivate girls for leadership positions				
10. Mentorship leads to girls' empowerment in the institution				
11. Female leaders tends to encourage girls				
12. Mentorship provides more female leaders				
13. Mentorship in the school has contributed to the eradication of culture that impede girls' leadership				
14. Mentorship helps school prefects to be selected fairly				
15. Mentorship reduces the fear in girls who were abused to also contest for positions.				
16. Mentorship provides girls with good leadership qualities				

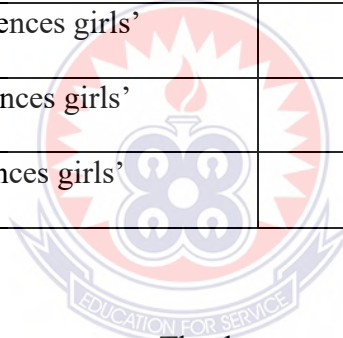
SECTION C: INFLUENCE OF SOCIALISATION ON GIRLS' LEADERSHIP

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17. Cultural norms affect girls' leadership				
18. Existence gender discrimination reduces socialization in schools				
19. My cultural belief does not permit me to contest for leadership positions				
20. More boys than girls are admitted into the school putting boys at advantage over girls				
I am at disadvantage for leadership position due to lack of socialization				
21. My home responsibilities do not permit me to contest for post				



**SECTION D: INFLUENCE OF SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS
AFFECTING GIRLS' LEADERSHIP**

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22. Age affects girls' leadership				
23. Class affects girls' leadership				
24. Early marriage influences girls' leadership				
25. Guardian educational level affects girls' leadership				
26. I am at a disadvantage for leadership position due to lack of socialization				
27. Parents' income level influences girls' leadership				
28. Guardian occupation influences girls' leadership				
29. Programme of study influences girls' leadership				



Thank you