University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES FEMALE HEAD TEACHERS FACE IN BASIC SCHOOLS AT KWABRE EAST MUNICIPALITY IN THE ASHANTI REGION



A Dissertation to 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 Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, MARY OWUSU ACHIAA, declare that this dissertation, 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.

either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.
SIGNATURE:
DATE:
SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION
I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the work was supervised in
accordance with guidelines and supervision of dissertation as laid down by the University
of Education, Winneba
NAME: DR. LYDIA OSEI AMANKWAH
SIGNATURE:
DATE:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank the Ebenezer God for is protection throughout this period of my education. I wish to acknowledge my supervisor, Dr. Lydia Osei Amankwah, for taking the pains to guide me throughout the research. Her guidance helped produce this work to this quality and I am very appreciative for her time and patience. I also wish to thank all the lecturers in the Department of Educational Leadership.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge my husband Mr. Bismark Adjei-Acheampong, my parents; Mr. Michael Owusu and Mrs. Mary Fokuo Brenya who in diverse ways supported me throughout this project. I say God bless us all.



DEDICATION

To my children; Tayden, Abena, Boakyewaa and Nana Afia.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE
TITLE PAGE	
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	V
LIST OF TABLES	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	4
1.3 Purpose of the Study	4
1.4 Objectives of the Study	4
1.5 Research Questions.	5
1.6 Significance of the Study	5
1.7 Limitations of the Study	6
1.8 Delimitation of the study	6
1.9 Definition of Terms	6
1.10 Organization of the study	7
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.0 Introduction	8
2.1 Concept of Leadership	9
2.2 Concept of Management	11

University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

2.3 Management and Gender	12
2.4. Expected Roles of the School Heads	17
2.5 Females' Participation in Educational Leadership/Management	21
2.6 The Distinctive Role of Females Leadership/management	23
2.7 Challenges Associated with Female Leaders Role	25
2.8 Female Leader/Administrators and Role Conflicts	39
2.9 Measures that Encourage Females to Leaders	40
2.10 Leadership Qualities	44
2.11 Strategies to Manage Female Heads Challenges in	46
2.12 Mentorship to Enhance Females Leadership and Management	47
2.13 Summary	49
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	50
3.0 Introduction	50
3.1 Research Design	50
3.2 Population	51
3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique	51
3.4 Data Collection Instrument	52
3.5. Validity Test	52
3.6 Pilot Test	53
3.7 Data Collection Procedure	54
3.9 Data Analysis Plan	54
3.10. Ethical Considerations	55

University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	56
4.0 Introduction	56
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	56
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS	67
5.1 Overview of the Study	67
5.2 Summary of Key Findings	68
5.3 Conclusions	68
5.4 Recommendations of the Study	69
5.5 Suggestion for Further Study	69
REFERENCES	70
APPENDIX A	80

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1: Age of Respondents	57
2: Educational Qualification of Respondents	57
3: Teaching Experience of Respondents	58
4: Female head teachers leadership roles	59
5: Challenges of Managing Basic Schools	62
6: Strategies to manage the Challenges	65



ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers' face in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region. The objectives of the study were to examine leadership roles female head teachers perform, find out the challenges female head teachers' face in managing basic schools and to identify strategies to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality. Descriptive survey design with quantitative approach was used for the study. The target population for the study was all head teachers. The accessible population was 36 female head teachers and assistants. Census sampling technique was used to select all 36 female head teachers and assistants for the study. Structured questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. The reliability test yielded cronbach alpha of 0.82. The data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. The study found among others that female heads supervised curriculum, instruction and appraisal in order to achieve the goals of the school and ensured the availability and adequacy of teaching and learning materials. Also, cultural beliefs on the role of females and differences in career path of females and males were challenges associated with female heads' leadership roles. Again, provision of continuous professional development, availability of sufficient teaching and learning resources, and institution of incentives and rewards systems were some strategies that could be adopted to manage the challenges. The Municipal Directorate of Education should encourage the use of the strategies that could be adopted to manage challenges as revealed by the study to minimize if not to avert the challenges to facilitate female leadership.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Universally, in spite of the golden age of females which was ushered in by the Berlin Conference of 1995, females continue to be disadvantaged when it comes to public participation both in the public and private sectors of society. Even when they are eminently qualified and in spite of the mainstreaming of more females into public life in the last 22 years (1995-2021), women remain discriminated against in terms of accessing top management/leadership positions. This is even though more females are getting educated and hold more jobs worldwide than ever before.

Sloan (1999) postulated that throughout history, leadership/management roles were held by men and this social injustice has led to females feeling reluctant to assume leadership/management positions in society. Day and Harris (2012) stated that females' capacity to assume the position as school leaders/ managers, hold the view that men and females have different leadership/management styles with different challenges.

Females continue to suffer from occupational segregation in the workplace and rarely break through the so-called glass ceiling in public life which separates them from top-level management and professional positions. Again, even the few that push through to occupy top management positions face serious challenges that can and do circumscribe their performance in these positions. This is a serious concern as it reinforces existing stereotypes of female's ability to perform at the top level of public life and thus perpetuates a vicious cycle of marginalization and disempowerment of females.

Females are capable of performing duties and functions, as men and have talents and competencies to contribute effectively to nation building. Grogan (2014) asserted that given equal opportunities and co-operation, females' leadership in management tends to be more transformative and inclusive than that of their male counterpart. This makes females more capable of adopting collaborative management approach than men.

It has been stated that the presence of females need to be in large numbers enough to make a visible impact on the style and content of decisions. There is the absence of unequivocal commitment to gender equity on the part of governments and resistance within the civil society in many countries (Marthur-Helm, 2007).

It is however surprising gratifying that the Government and other organizations are putting in every effort to ensure that females occupy leadership positions where they can influence decision and policies in Ghana. Even though there have been some progress, it is rather far from being enough as the ratio is still high in favor of their male counterparts. Female representation in high positions in the country as a whole and educational administration in particular, leaves much to be desired (Grogan, 2014).

Several studies (Fullan, 2007; Celikten, 2004; Nogay & Beebe, 1997) over the years have been conducted to investigate the challenges faced by female head teachers on the management of schools. Celikten (2005) conducted studies in Turkey on Principals' leadership and Gender. The studies revealed that female principals are often faced with societal demands and traditions that men do not face. These included housework, marriage, children and negative attitudes towards females who become principals. In the execution of their managerial duties, female head teachers are faced a

myriad of challenges ranging from gender discrimination, discipline issues amongst the staff and students among others (Grogan, 2014).

The majority of Ghanaian females are relegated to the background while their male counterparts occupy top educational management positions. Only few females are found at the top of the management ladder of Ghana Education Service (Ghana Education Service, 2007). Despite efforts at transforming both the country and the public service to embrace national priorities of development and economic growth, challenges persist for females across the public and private sectors. For example, while females have the potential and ability to be leaders/ managers, they often lack opportunities, resources and support for realizing their potential of which female heads in the study area are not an exception and this is not peculiar to the private sector where female in leadership and management are fewer. It also applies to the public sector where there are more females entering leadership and management positions in Ghana (Ghana Education Service, 2007).

Also in the study area there are more male heads than female heads which is attributed to perceived ineffective management styles as females heads have to combine office duties to household duties which is a challenge to females in management positions. It is upon this low female occupation of higher positions in the educational sector that this study is investigating the leadership challenges female heads face in Basic Schools of the Kwabre East Municipality.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Leadership is an important role that promotes efficiency in school management but this important role does not seem to be effectively performed by female head teachers. (Oduro & MacBeath, 2003).

Reports from some female heads seem to indicate that they are not having it smooth sailing in their leadership roles. Literature indicates that females continue to experience challenges in dispensing their management responsibilities (Oduro & MacBeath, 2003).

These issues have motivated the researcher to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers face in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers face in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

- examine leadership roles female head teachers perform in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.
- 2. find out the challenges female head teachers' face in managing Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.
- 3. identify strategies to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership roles in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.

1.5 Research Questions

- What leadership roles do female head teachers perform in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality?
- 2. What are challenges female head teachers' face in managing Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality?
- 3. What strategies could be adopted to manage the challenges female head teachers' face in leadership roles in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The recommendations and suggestions of the study could supplement efforts made to eliminate gender inequalities that exist in the occupation of high positions especially in the Ghana Educational Service. The outcome of the study will also be useful to the Ghana Education Service (GES) to be aware of the challenges females encounter. This will help the service put in the necessary intervention to manage the situation. The findings of the study will add to the existing knowledge on females' challenges of managing schools so that appropriate measures could be adopted to solve the issue. The findings of the study will also help to motivate and encourage other females who previously were feeling reluctant to assume higher leadership positions at the workplace and the Ghana Education Service in particular. The outcome of the study will serve as a guide to researchers who may conduct similar studies in future.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

Most of the respondents were initially reluctant to take part in the study since they felt it was waste of time. This may affect the findings of the study. Also, the use of questionnaire was not possible to probe further for detailed explanation. All these were likely to affect the validity of the findings. In spite of these limitations, the researcher was able to gather the necessary data for the study.

1.8 Delimitation of the study

This study was delimited to the challenges of managing public Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality of the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Only female head teacher and assistant female heads were used for the study. Areas such as how head teachers manage schools, challenges and strategies to manage the challenges were covered.

1.9 Definition of Terms

Leadership: The ability to inspire confidence and support among followers who are expected to achieve organizational goals.

Management: Ensuring that things are going on precisely according to the existing pattern of the school.

Educational Management: Practices concerned with the operations of educational organization with the use of school resources to attain specific objectives of the school.

Challenge: Issues that impede effective delivery of the school heads' activities for the success of the school.

Leadership role: The activities of school heads in managing the school to achieve set objectives

1.10 Organization of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction which comprised, background to the study, statement of problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitation of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study.

Chapter two looked at the review of literature related to the study. Chapter three comprised the description of methodology which includes the introduction, research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, research instrument, validity and pilot test of the instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis plan and ethical considerations.

Chapter four presents the results and discussions of the research findings with reference to the research questions and the literature. Chapter five presents overview, summary of findings of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The chapter reviewed the related literature on female leadership challenges of head teachers. It presents works done on leadership of females in general and in educational institutions in particular. In this study females and females was used interchangeably to mean the same person. This section has been organized into the following sub-headings;

- 1. Concept of Leadership
- 2. Gender Stereotype
- 3. Gender and Management
- 4. Expected Roles of the School Head by Ghana Education Service
- 5. Mentorship to Enhance Females Leadership and Management
- 6. Females' Participation in Educational Leadership/Management
- 7. The Distinctive Role of Females Leadership/management
- 8. Measures that Encourage Females to Leadership/Management Positions
- 9. Barriers to Females' Entry into Educational Leadership/Management
- 10. Challenges to Females in Leadership/Management
- 11. Female Administrators and Role Conflicts
- 12. Female Administrators and Support Services
- 13. Female Leaders / Administrator Leadership Qualities

2.1 Concept of Leadership

Various writers in the field of management have defined the concept of leadership in diverse ways. Some of these writers include Kouzes and Posner (2012) who defined leadership as interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process toward the attainment of a specific goals or goals. Mankoe (2007) conceived leadership from three perspectives. Leadership is envisaged as:

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

Musaazi (2006) conceives leadership as a process whereby everyone in the group and the prevailing circumstances need to be understood by the leaders. Some writers talk about the voluntary aspect of the response to leadership to differentiate between authority and power. People are influenced to act on their own volition. Neither is it required of them nor because of the fear of the consequences of non-compliance.

Gender Stereotypes

Differences in self-presentation between men and females are due to both descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotype, and denote differences in how females and men actually are and denote norms about how men and women should behave or should be (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Moreover, the descriptive and prescriptive stereotype for males and females overlap in that the behaviour that is prescribed for each gender is positively related to the attributes that are valued.

Females are supposed to be socially sensitive. Kindness, thoughtfulness, sensitivity and other stereotypically feminine behaviours that demonstrate a concern for others are referred to as communal. Males on the other hand are supposed to behave in self-assertive fashion. Behaviours such as competence and dominance are termed argentic behaviours and are stereotypically expected from men. Social role theory explains the emergence of these characteristics. According to social role theory, behavioural gender differences are caused by Socialisation where at a young age males are encouraged and rewarded for being outgoing, and achievement oriented. Conversely, females are taught to be emotionally oriented, and reserved in their interactions with others (Wade, 2001).

When either gender acts in a way inconsistent with these prescriptions they are met with disapproval and penalties. A study has verified that once females ratify agentic behaviours they are alleged to be expert (Rudman, 1998), but they are seen to be less socially skilled and less likable as compared to an identically presented. In the same way, collective males are analyzed as less skilled and hirable compared with argentic men. These things have been labeled backlash. Backlash is classified as social and economic

sanctions for counter stereotypical behavior. They symbolize a double-edged weapon where it emerges as though females can be punished economically and professionally for acting in ways consistent with successful males. At the same time females are less likely to achieve something and be analysed as skilled if they perform in a firmly collective fashion.

On the outside it appears to run counter to females' well-established propensity towards humility. Is there a possibility risk to likeability and significant predictor of selection and progression if females self-promote? Fortunately it is not as terrible as it appears. Rudman and Glick (2001) found a separation of argentic personality that elicits backlash. Women who are socially dominant, competitive and hostile are disliked because these qualities conflict with attributes of feminine amiability. Applicants that are observed as socially deficient and dislikable suffer hiring discrimination. Self- promotion enhances the attribution of competence. Rudman and Glick (2001) argue that despite of sex, "nice" applicants are rated quite poorly and lose out to more argentic applicants for a female or male type of job.

2.2 Concept of Management

The idea of management started with Frederick W. Taylor (Hatch, 2006). Taylor wrote about scientific management, explaining that scientific management is when rules, norms, regulations are set for people to follow. This helps to facilitate work in any organization. Management is the process of managing people or things. In the educational field, Van der Westhuizen (1991, p. 55) defines management as "a specific type of work which comprises those regulative tasks or actions executed by a person or body in a

position of authority in a specific field or area of regulation, so as to allow formative education to take place". Similarly, Bush (2008) defines management as an executive function for carrying out agreed policy.

Thus, the management of teaching and learning consists of management tasks to develop conducive circumstances in the school, such as: planning, which is used to develop planning schedules to integrate and co-ordinate activities; organizing, to bring order, removes conflicts, establishes an environment for teamwork; monitoring, to monitor school activities to ensure that they are being accomplished as planned and of correcting any significant deviations; leading and guiding, to assist teachers in attaining their targets and goals and to provide the necessary direction and support (Gous, 2006).

2.3 Management and Gender

Kincheloe and Steinberg (2007) assert that racial, gendered and class forms of oppression need to be understood in a structural context. There is sufficient evidence that demonstrates that females in leadership/ management positions who display equal education and experience do not earn as much as males in comparable tasks. Singh (2005) and Snipes et al (2008) assert that generally, two perspectives are often cited as explaining the above situation. The first, argues that females are not adapted to outside employment, are incapable of performing well and are therefore paid less. This position also justifies occupational segregation by asserting that females are naturally well suited to certain jobs. On the other hand, opponents offer the interpretation that females are widely discriminated against in a patriarchal and sexist society.

The ILO (2008) asserts that the nature of females' career paths that blocks their progress to top positions since at lower management levels females are typically placed in non-strategic sectors, and in personnel and administrative positions, rather in professional and line management jobs leading to the top. This is often than compounded by females' limited access to formal and informal networks essential for advancement. The ILO (2008) also notes that in large companies and organisations where female have achieved high level managerial positions, are usually restricted to areas considered less vital and strategic to the organisation such as human resources and administration. Females' career paths do not result in moving into strategic management areas such as productive development or corporate finance. There therefore exists a pyramid structure for females' presence in management and administrative positions. The ILO (1998) also refers to these barriers as glass walls. Wirth (2010) stated that the glass walls ensure that females are not being trained for and offered mid-level positions that prepare them for the top. She presents the case of the United Kingdom where a 2008 survey showed that females are more likely to be personnel managers (50%), actuarial, insurance and pension managers (44%) and marketing managers (38%). The survey indicates that there are very few research and development managers (3.4%) and manufacturing and production managers (3.5%) who are females.

Given the patriarchal nature of most societies and households, and the concomitant double workloads that most working women experience (being responsible for domestic responsibilities despite entering the workforce); management is bound to have an impact on females' social and personal lives that are different from that of males. In fact these pressures may be increased for female managers whose entrance into the

management domain is not viewed as being part of traditional, female occupations. Thus, as Larwood and Wood (2007) suggest, a female entering management must decide the extent and the types of demands she is willing to accept. Although the usual definition of a manager is masculine, the management tasks are not strongly associated with either sex. Larwood and Wood (2007) and Legge (2007) therefore suggest that it is conformity to sex and work roles, rather than specific tasks and preferences, which largely determine the androcentric nature of management. This is especially true today as increasingly management is viewed more as the building and sustaining of team spirit and group work.

A great deal of research has documented the difficulties females have experienced in advancing through the ranks of managers (Epstein, 2005). However, despite these challenges females are increasingly entering management positions in greater numbers. Three explanations, summarised below, have been forwarded that attempt to interpret this process. These are the glorified-secretary hypothesis, re-segregation hypothesis and title-inflation hypothesis (Jacobs, 2005).

Glorified-secretary hypothesis: Jacobs (2002) suggests that the Equal Employment Opportunity regulations have mandated a certain number of workers at certain levels in terms of gender, race and ethnic composition. Additionally, firms are expected to file reports in this regard. However, because the reporting categories are broad, employers are able to classify employees with little authority as managers. Miller (2008) noticed in the United States that the representation of females in management rose rapidly largely because there has been considerable retitling of positions in some large organisations under the impetus of affirmative action. Thus, the administrative secretary has become

the administrative assistant or the business administrator and is therefore now classified as a managerial worker.

Re-segregation hypothesis: This explanation is posited by Reskin and Ross (2000) who found that the entry of female into previously male-dominated fields neither represents true desegregation nor results in the gains in earnings and other rewards usually accorded to entry into management. It was found that generally the status of these occupations was declining before females started to enter management positions (males were already leaving or joining in diminishing numbers).

Bird's (2000) study of bank branch managers is worth recounting here. The findings indicated that the growth of employment in public sector during the 1970s, pressure from the Equal Employment Opportunity Council, and the availability of highly educated young females interested in the field led to a rapid influx of women into bank management. However, females gains were concentrated in lower management positions, generally as branch managers.

Title-inflation hypothesis: This view simply holds that the entry of females into management coincides with the dissemination of managerial titles, alluded to in the discussion on the glorified-secretary hypothesis, to positions without significant status or authority. A range of strategies outlined below may be utilised by females for entering and advancing in management. Brooks and Brooks (2007) derive strategies for advancement from the experience of successful female managers. Helgesen (2005) argues that these often result in altering the conditions surrounding the current

management masculine bias and creating opportunities for females. As David and Woodward (2008) illustrate, these strategies are critical for negotiating the glass ceiling.

Visibility: A female is better off in a highly visible position except when her achievements are threatening to others or of a relatively poor quality.

Ability: Females are in a better position to advance if they demonstrate their ability to do their job efficiently and effectively. The proof of ability is not easy for females who often have to demonstrate that they are better than their male counterparts and not only that they are able to do the job just as well as men. Some methods do exist for enhancing the demonstration of ability. females are better able to advance if they invest in acquiring the necessary qualifications to support their aspirations.

Fellowship: Females can seek assistance from other females or supportive men. This development of a support network can be crucial for recognition, information and references if needed.

Acceptance of opportunities: Female must find and take opportunities granted to them. This is particularly important as new equity and affirmative action laws often legislate that companies develop and create special opportunities for women and other previously disadvantaged groups.

The apprentice: Service as an apprentice is virtually required at some point to successfully move up in an organisation. The evolution of the gate-keeping role in most organisations is viewed as being natural. Also, the apprentice often is expected to be loyal to the gate-keeper. Within the apprentice strategy, however, the female finds someone to

learn from and to help. Often, the woman's position is solidified and she is assured of continuing to advance as rapidly as her patron advances ahead of her.

2.4. Expected Roles of the School Heads

In educational management, the school head is an administrator or leader. The school head determines the success or failure of the school as an organization. In keeping with the goals of the school, there are certain duties or administrative tasks (Campbell et al., 2007) the school head has to perform. The duties of the school head can be classified under the following headings:

School-community relationship

School-community relationship requires the school head to define the community in which the school is located. School heads should find out about the occupational practices, values aspirations and norms of the community (Afful-Broni, 2012). This will help in the formulation of educational policies, goals and strategies for the education of the pupils. Learning and teaching materials are derived from the community; therefore, school heads need a thorough knowledge about the community for future transformation as well. The school head should market the school to the community through the Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA). There are other agencies like the churches, home, public libraries, the mass media, and so on, in the community that the school head has to work with to shape students behavior. Asiedu Akrofi (1978) once declared that if our modern school is to fulfill the roles that Africans expect, our educational administrators, teachers, supervisors and all people concerned with running it should be made good students of our society.

Curriculum, instruction and appraisal

Curriculum, instruction and appraisal include all activities that are planned, implemented, supervised and evaluated by the school workers. The school head is obligated to secure the appropriate syllabuses for teachers. He or she is to ensure that timetables, course contents and textbooks are available for use. The head of school also has to ensure that the curriculum is developed through the appraisal of instruction. Teachers' knowledge has to be updated or upgraded, and their work supervised systematically. Pupil personnel service: this includes the keeping of registers and controlling pupil behavior. Education should be wholistic. Therefore, entertainments and sporting activities for pupils should be organized to meet their mental and physical health needs without neglecting the spiritual. Discipline in the school has to be maintained. The head is duty bound to seek students' cooperation through their leadership. Staff personnel service: this is the management of both teaching and nonteaching staffs. The school head has to attract, select, motivate, supervise and maintain all staff. It is imperative for the head to be conversant with the Terms and Conditions of Service for Teachers and the Code of Ethics as well. The congenial atmosphere of work should be created, and where promotion is due. The school head should develop his or her staff professionally. Staff should be involved in the decision-making process.

Physical facilities and educational materials

Physical facilities and educational materials have to do with the school plan, school grounds and equipment needed for teaching. The head of school is to expand for use the school plant and grounds as well as ensuring its safety, neatness, and

attractiveness and in readiness for use. Also, all teaching and learning materials should be procured and maintained by the school head.

Financial and business management

Financial and business management entails the provision and disbursement of funds for the attainment of educational goals. He or she has to ensure that the school estimates and expenditures are well organized--that all monetary activities proceed according to fiscal policies. In view of this, it is imperative to emphasize that heads are duty bound to keep proper financial records on quarterly basis.

General tasks

The school head performs other duties as organizing and attending conferences; responding to correspondence, preparing reports for local and district school boards, publicizing the work of the school, and scheduling school programs. What is important to note is that the school head does not have to perform all these tasks alone. Responsible staff members should be delegated to assist.

Mentorship to Enhance Females Leadership and Management

There is a growing argument that in order for females to thrive in obtaining leadership positions in a workplace mentoring must occur.

Mentoring can considerably increase income and promotion potential for individuals experiencing these relationships; Mentoring can convene the needs of both women and the work environment, and it can also help in attracting and maintaining women and minority professionals in the work environment; Mentoring of younger workers

increases turnover, assists mentees in dealing with organizational issues, and hastens their absorption into the culture; The mentees (those females being mentored) benefit because someone cares enough to support them, recommend them and assist them construe inside information.

The advantages of mentoring are felt not only by mentees and their organization but by the mentors themselves. The familiarity the fulfillment of passing along hard earned wisdom, influencing the next generation of upper leadership and receiving gratitude from younger workers (Cullen & Luna, 1993, Hagevik, 1998, Whitaker & Lane, 1990). It is not uncommon for women to have men mentors, but the best mentors for women are other women because interacting and sharing experiences and knowledge are important. While male mentors eagerly encouraged women to become leaders, they did not excitedly support them when seeking a position at the secondary level.

The mentoring experience must help females to develop self-esteem, aggressive leadership personalities and non-traditional attitudes about women and employment. The nurturing of attitudes and uniqueness would allow for success in their organizations, whereas their male counterparts displayed qualities that made it easier to advance. The use of mentors to help present and future leaders is a powerful tool that may be used to bring about more effective labour practice (Freeman, 2000; Cullen & Luna, 1993; Daresh & Playko, 1990; Whitaker & Lane, 1990)

2.5 Females' Participation in Educational Leadership/Management

International research indicates that in educational leadership females are a minority, both in countries that are developing and those that are at advanced levels of development (Celikten, 2005). Studies done in various countries, like California (Wickham 2007), the Solomon Islands (Akao, 2008), Turkey (Celikten, 2005), Uganda (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010) and Papua New Guinea (Vali 2010) reveal an underrepresentation of females in leadership at all levels of the education system, including primary schools, secondary schools, universities and other educational institutions. The researchers documented numerous factors that make it difficult for females to attain leadership positions in education, such as gender discrimination, pressures of family responsibilities, and social-cultural factors, amongst others.

This study not only focused on the challenges of female head teacher's leadership, but also on leadership qualities and management support for female heads. In addition, the study focused on primary and secondary schools in Uganda, Papua New Guinea, Turkey, California and Solomon Islands which has different climate and culture as far as Ghana is concerned. This therefore necessitated a study to focus on public basic schools in the Kwabre East Municipality in Ashanti Region. Hence the need to design a study specifically to investigate head teachers challenges of managing Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.

Participation of Females in Leadership Promotes Gender Equity

The attainment of gender equity and equality in leadership should be a core development issue and a goal in its own right. Females should have the same access to power and resources as men but, as Syed and Murray (2008) indicated, despite a plethora

of laws and organizational policies on gender equality, females in general remain disempowered in the workplace. "We will all be better off if females' life experiences, needs and values are fully reflected in decision-making positions stated by O'Connor, as cited in Kellerman and Rhode, (2007, p. 14).

It is important to create opportunities that will enable head teachers to occupy positions of influence, both politically and economically, in order to enhance decision-making. This is because females on the leadership track have unique opportunities and corresponding obligations to promote changes that will make leadership accessible to others: as citizens, females can support policies, politicians and practices that will advance gender equity; as professionals and community activists, females can make equalizing leadership opportunities a priority; as parents, females can model effective leadership, and challenge the child-rearing patterns that work against it (Kellerman & Rhode 2007).

When females achieve positions of influence and participate in policy decisions, they have the opportunities to open up access to knowledge and resources to those with less power. Females from all levels of the social hierarchy, not only those occupying official status positions, work to alter the undemocratic culture and structure of institutions and society, improving the lives of those who have been marginalized or oppressed (Normore & Gaetane 2008). Educated females who enter the labour market earn an income by engaging in productive economic activities. Participation in productive economic activities enables them to attain financial independence, to reduce poverty, and to enhance gender equity and equality (Republic of Kenya, 2007).

Besides enhancing equity, females bring into institutions different ways of leading. If more females are given the opportunity to participate in leadership, society and institutions would benefit from their talented and distinctive ways of handling leadership.

2.6 The Distinctive Role of Females Leadership/management

It is argued that females lead differently to men. Females in general have specific attributes, characteristics and skills that are beneficial to organizations and teams (Syed & Murray 2008). Female heads tend to be more supportive, approachable, sensitive, understanding, nurturing, organized, creative, and receptive than their male counterparts (Adams & Hambright 2004). Wickham (2007) observed that females are perceived as being more likely to be collaborative in their working relationships, and tend to use democratic leadership styles and power which, in turn, contribute to achieving high levels of job satisfaction among staff members. Wickham added that females are viewed as change agents who are deeply involved in reform, and who work toward creating common visions of schooling for children, as well as climates conducive to learning. They are regarded as being relational, community sensitive and politically knowledgeable.

According to Jones (2006), the language used by female leaders is more likely to express courtesy, gratitude, respect and appreciation. Females show respect for their audience by listening, echoing and summarizing, by using polite speech, electing non-antagonistic responses. They remember more of what is said by all the participants.

Females also pick up on emotional and personal issues in conversation. This kind of reaction is likely to encourage community-building.

From a cultural feminist perspective, females value intimacy, and develop an ethic of care for those with whom they are connected (Syed & Murray, 2008). Kelly (2008) describes an ethic of caring as an internal commitment to learn about other people in an effort to promote their well-being. An ethic of care, Kelly says, may be characterized by acknowledging multiple perspectives, being open to hearing other's perspectives and valuing collaboration. This view agrees with the leadership style demonstrated by females school leaders in Normore and Gaetane's (2008) study of female secondary school leaders who practiced an ethic of care towards those who worked for and with them. As leaders, the females demonstrated a self-less desire to both serve and prepare others, and simultaneously created an organizational system that was committed to sharing and developing relationships that drove to goodness.

In a study by Kelly, Ammon, Chermack and Moen (2010), it was found that females heads expressed concern about knowing where and when employees were working, in a way they called 'monitoring by mothering'. The females heads often asserted that it was common courtesy to tell others when they were working off-site. Females' unique traits and abilities can especially be observed and experienced from a woman's perspective. Hence there exists a need for aspiring females to observe those who reflect their leadership styles, in order to demystify negative myths on females and leadership, and to encourage more females to desire to attain educational leadership.

2.7 Challenges Associated with Female Leaders Role

The lack of female leaders in top positions is the result of both internal and external barriers females encounter and have to overcome on their journey to become educational leaders (Jones 2006). Some of the challenges females face includes the masculine nature of institutions, females' reluctance to apply for promotion, home-work conflict, stereotypes associated with gender, fear of geographical mobility, lack of role models and mentors, and lack of self-efficacy. Each of these challenges will be examined in detail. It should, however, be noted that although these barriers have been separated for the purpose of this study, they may have been experienced independently or interdependently with others.

The reasons why females do not move into the higher echelons of leadership may be related to pressures inherent in the job situation (Celikten, 2005). Existing work structures and organizational routines are predominantly male-oriented, which tend to impede females' participation in decision-making roles in organizations (Syed & Murray, 2008). Cultures that exclude or alienate females can possibly be based on masculine activities that are less appealing to females, and a work environment that might strike females as 'cut-throat' and macho (Eagly, Carli & Sampson, 2009).

Kelly, et al. (2010) found that the employees believed that long working hours were an indicator of dedication and productivity. Working long hours was seen as a sign that the employees were readily available and eager to meet other's needs. It further reinforced the perception of the ideal worker- most often a man- who does not have or attend to other pressing commitments outside of work.

Females' under-representation in leadership positions may be attributed to their own decisions not to apply for promotion (Oplatka, 2006). Although it is assumed that teachers are eager to participate in decision-making processes and serve on governance structures, research suggests that they do not jump at the opportunity. Forty percent of the female teachers interviewed in Adams and Hambright's (2004) survey, conducted on the reasons why females teachers seem to lack interest in applying for administrative positions, said that nothing would encourage them to become school administrators.

Eddy's study (2008) of community college presidents revealed that they did not have a 'presidential' position in mind when they started working in higher education. They got the position by either being encouraged by search committees to seek promotion, by being appointed by their chancellors, by seeking the position for fear of the alternative, or simply by following the hierarchy, which naturally left presidency as the next logical step in their career (Lange, 2006).

Females' productive activities are often hampered by the unofficial and private domestic responsibilities that compete for females' labour in terms of time and energy, not to mention the increase in workload and long working hours (Chege & Sifuna, 2006). The issue of children and/or family is one that deters many females when they have to make the decision to take up a leadership position. The responsibility that comes with a family is a significant barrier to females attaining top jobs. Many mothers feel exhausted and overwhelmed trying to balance paid work commitments with the commitments of being a parent, thus they feel psychologically, intellectually and emotionally drained (Knowles, Nieuwenhuis & Smit, 2009).

Females often reduce their hours at work when they have children. Some females even quit work and spend one or more years devoting their efforts to their families (Eagly, Carli & Sampson, 2009). Derrington and Sharratt (2009) observed that females with children aged between one and nineteen, represented the smallest percentage of superintendents, compared to females with no or grown children. In their investigation of gendered division of household labour, Cornwall and Legerski (2010) noted that females' gender identities were embedded in responsibilities for care that extended beyond mothering young children, and included the care of husbands, adult children and grandchildren. In some cases, females intentionally avoided work outside the home to have time to maintain family relationships. Some of the females in the study who had started college did not finish, usually dropping out on getting married, or with the birth of their first child.

The result of Derrington and Sharratt's (2009, p. 18) study maintained that these are 'self-imposed barriers' to leadership. They define self-imposed barriers as "...the failure to attain the superintendence or the decision to avoid it because of family responsibilities". Thus, these females made a conscious choice to put family considerations and responsibilities before those that come with assuming the job of superintendent.

Seelinger (2000) studied Central Appalachian females in school leadership, where the majority of the females interviewed acknowledged that choosing to become administrators necessitated difficult personal accommodations along the way. She reported that they spoke eloquently and sometimes regretfully of the borders they had to negotiate to maintain their primary personal relationships, while doing what was necessary for career advancement. Among the females in her study, three were divorced and had no intent to remarry, and two had not borne any children, and did not regret the decision. Some females have, however, achieved harmony in the home-work conflict.

Derrington and Sharratt (2009) identified them as those who have an unwavering resolve to stick to their career goals; have a network of family support, including spouse, mother and siblings; negotiate flexi-time; and set clear boundaries for personal time, and make part of the weekend off-limits to outside commitments. Some of the females in Seelinger's (2000) study also did not view the integration of family and career as overly problematic, and they maintained that educational leadership was a workable career. The females had willingly timed their careers around the needs of their husbands and children, becoming administrators when their families were grown-up.

Female socialization practices inhibit females from attaining leadership positions because females are historically encouraged to develop personality traits and behavior that prevent them from participating in leadership (Kelly, 2008). Societal values and traditional roles combine to have a detrimental effect on how females are valued as leaders (Vali, 2010). In many societies females are still assigned a secondary position by the prevailing customs and culture (Kiamba, 2008). As a result, role incongruence occurs when a woman exhibits the behaviour expected of leaders (Wickham, 2007).

The Role Congruity Theory can help explain how this incongruence occurs and how it affects females' choices of whether to participate in leadership or not. According to the Role Congruity Theory, the perceived incongruity between the female gender role

and the leadership role leads to two forms of prejudice against females leaders (Eagly & Karau, as cited in Hoyt 2005).

First, the descriptive aspect of the gender stereotype leads people to perceive females as more communal and less argentic, thus perceiving them as less qualified for leadership positions. Second, the prescriptive component of the stereotype suggests that when females leaders successfully demonstrate favourable leadership characteristics, they are perceived less favourable, because it is inconsistent with expectations of appropriate (or desired) female behaviour. Together these two forms of prejudice can account for research findings that indicate less favourable attitudes toward female than male leaders, and for the greater difficulty for females to attain top leadership roles, and to be viewed as effective in these roles.

Knowles, et al.'s (2009) study of four female mother-educators found that it was difficult for them to balance their multiple roles of mother, wife and educator. The goal of the females interviewed was to become better educators and better mothers. They had convinced themselves that they needed to reshape their desires and actions. They held on to the culturally entrenched idea that expected patterns of behavior existed, and that they had to live up to them. Such stereotyping affects the females' self-esteem and confidence because they may come to see themselves as unfit for leadership roles, or unable to perform outside their domestic roles (Vali, 2010).

Jones (2006) indicated that social stereotypes associated with females at the workplace showed that females are too emotional, not task oriented, talk too much, are unable to gain control and discipline, or to handle conflict and community issues. Females are often perceived as lacking confidence, as having low aspirations, and a negative selfimage. These attributes are viewed as contradictory to the role of headship, and thus may hinder females from being considered as potential school heads.

Due to the fact that schools are found everywhere in a country, teaching is seen to "...provide many opportunities for females to be employed without it adversely affecting the family situation" (Mitroussi & Mitroussi, 2009 p.156). Equally, Wickham (2007, p. 29) identified a lack of the willingness to relocate as one of the barriers to the attainment of leadership positions for females, as it involves separating them from their families, or sometimes relocating the entire family. Relocation was considered by 88% of female superintendents in Wickham's study as one of the major barriers for females aspiring to be a superintendent.

A respondent in Eddy's (2008, p. 56) study reported that she loved her job but that her priority would always be her family. She continued by stating categorically that if someone offered her a job that would take her away from her family, she "...would not even think about it in a heartbeat". In her study of factors influencing gender mobility to the top levels of education management in Kenya, Wanyama (2002) found that most females preferred staying at their middle ranks for fear of seeking promotion and being transferred up-country to work at district or provincial headquarters, as this would affect their families.

Females' self-determination to progress and succeed is fundamental to their career progression (Priola & Brannan 2009), but as Sherman (2005) noted, few females perceived themselves as capable of holding leadership positions in schools. One of the

respondents in Normore and Gaetane's (2008) study revealed that she had never envisioned herself becoming an administrator, and that she was perfectly comfortable in the classroom. Oplatka (2006) identified a variety of reasons that caused females not apply for promotion, such as the lack of the necessary aspiration, a lack of confidence that they will succeed, fear of failure, and a lack of competitiveness. The think-leader-think-male stereotype can also have deleterious effects on females leaders' self-perceptions, as it is associated with decreased performance and a most menacing outcome of stereotype activation on the targets of the stereotype, in that it may have the potential to contribute to females' disengagement from leadership roles (Hoyt, 2005).

Nealy (2009) postulated that research shows that females in higher education typically have a low self-worth, often being perceived as timid, and preferring to maintain a low profile. No matter how skilled females leaders are, a lack of confidence is a deal-breaker (Santovec 2010). Santovec continued to say that confidence spreads to those one is leading, and that if a leader does not have confidence, the followers will not have confidence in the leader. Hoyt (2005) also noted that while cultural stereotypes are likely to impact on females leaders, the level of the leader's self-efficacy for leadership will likely play a role in determining the responses to stereotype activation.

Eddy (2008) observed that mentors have a critical role to play in the advancement of females in leadership. Support by means of advice, opportunities to acquire diverse experiences and access to leadership development, all provide critical career skills. She added that some females may not consider upper level positions on their own, adding on to the increased importance of well-placed suggestions by mentors. Fifty-six percent of the females leaders Eddy interviewed had had a mentor, and they recounted how their

strong mentoring relationships provided them with resources to draw upon in their first year of leadership. Sperandio and Kagonda (2010) decried the lack of role-models and mentors in education leadership. They asserted that females in leadership positions may be breaking new ground, and are unable to offer the mentoring and encouragement to other females who may find it necessary to overcome their lack of confidence and self-esteem. They added that others may be so beset with problems created by resentful teachers, both male and female who are unwilling to accept a woman 'boss', that the example they provide does not encourage other females to undertake the same trial by ordeal. Such kinds of leaders are likely not to be effective role models to aspiring females leaders.

Same-sex role-models are crucial for females but unfortunately there are not enough to go round for all of the aspiring female leaders (Jones 2006). When females work in isolated environments (dominated by men), they need those 'who look like them' to reinforce their feelings of self-worth and excellence (Nealy, 2009). It is important then that more females participate in school leadership in order for others to feel encouraged and confident. Even as there are challenges that are unique to females aspiring to school leadership, school leadership comes with its own challenges, whether the leader is a man or a woman. Some of these challenges are explored in the next session.

A range of issues arise in restraining females' potential to aspire to positions of leadership. Sadie (2005) maintained that at the bottom of the restrictions that females face is the patriarchal system where decision-making powers are in the hands of men. In this context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes concerning the role and status of women in society are still common and many women who are part of this

system are finding it difficult to diverge from this culture and tradition they be ostracized. Regardless of females education and access to the job market the female's role is considered to be the typical one of homemaker. The man on the other hand is the breadwinner, head of household, and has the right to public life.

Confining females' identity to the domestic sphere is one of the barriers to females' entry into politics, and politics by its nature catapults one into public life. Commonly cultural attitudes are antagonistic to females' involvement in politics. Some females were capable of transcending cultural barriers and climbing to positions of leadership whether in politics or other spheres of public life, but more often than not it meant having to cope with cultural expectations with their leadership roles.

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

According to Tripp (2003), in the 1996 presidential elections in Uganda there were a lot of instances of threats and pestering of females by males, even husbands,

who had contradictory political views. Politically energetic females in that country were threatened with withdrawal of family support, some were thrown out of their homes, and others were murdered. Emmett (2001) states that life passages of females are not notable or even acknowledged. This is clarifying of the situation attributed to females, starting right from the birth of the girl child in similarity to the boy child, and the chance of females succeeding in society.

In various African cultures the customs and rites of passage pertaining to the boy child nurture them for leadership positions, whether at local or national levels of governance in business, politics or public running. Religion is likely to strengthen these cultural norms. Emmett (2001) indicated that the majority religions have stereotypical functions for males and females where females are professed as less equal than males, often being kept apart in the way functions are assigned. In her account of females experience of religion, Emmett examined the ceremonies executed for and by males in diverse religions such as Hinduism, Islam and Christianity. Her judgment was that males are usually empowered by religion in various ways. Females do not benefit from such dispensation, being disempowered by religious structures and practices.

Females' admission to leadership positions has been hindered by favouritism and stereotyping. Females are more or less victimized for being in search of a management position. This is basically due to society's stance toward appropriate male and female functions. In their argument on challenges women face in seeking leadership positions, Growe and Montgomery (2000) argue that compared to males, females receive little or no encouragement to search for such positions. There are also a few social networks, formal

and informal, for females such as membership in clubs consequential in a lack of acknowledgment that leads to progress.

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

For many females the time demands of such positions clash with the demands of the family, and this itself is an obstacle. There are also other structural obstacles beyond culture and religion. Facts from the Danish sample of the Comparative Leadership Study indicate that certain admission situations and conditions of gender positioning appear to encode admittance to top leadership positions, in business, and in political and public leadership. Hojgaard (2002) argues that the social milieu of males and females leaders as an admittance stipulation played a particular task in political leadership. The sample of politicians demonstrated that both parents of females' leaders had better education and more highly placed jobs than the parents of male politicians. A major finding was that in order for females to obtain top jobs in politics they have to come from a more fortunate social milieu than males.

In addition there were differences in career paths between males and females leaders with males being recruited from a wider spectrum of jobs than females. Males also achieve top leadership jobs faster than females. With regard to conditions of gender positioning, Hojgaard (2002) looked at marital status, presence of children and allocation of work at home. The male leaders were more likely to be married, while a higher proportion of female leaders were divorced or independently living together. Furthermore, a higher proportion of females had no children. The partners of female leaders were also more likely to be full-time workers, while among the partners of male leaders, especially business leaders there was a high proportion of part-time workers and full-time housewives.

Two thirds of male leaders did little or no housework, demonstrating that most male leaders unlike female leaders, are relieved of the weight of with family life, and can dedicate all their energy to their jobs. These findings were very clarifying of the social cost of leadership for females and gender positioning conditions showed in the Danish study could be applied to African females and in the context of this study, Ghana as an African country. It is a little wonder that many females are hesitant to take up positions of leadership because of the pressure involved, complementary work, family and domestic violence (Cole, 2006).

In Africa, the work and family dichotomy is filled with many inconsistencies for females that incite pressure. African females have certain conventional roles to play. They are expected to tolerate and look after children as well as manage the home. At the same time today's African woman is likely to earn a living and contribute to the management of society (BBC News, 2005). In short, McLagan and Nel (1995) referred to

current African women as walking a political/gender tightrope, but it is also a leadership and gender tightrope. Tsitsi Dangarembga from Zimbabwe in her interview with BBC News (BBC News, 2005), said that one of the reasons there are few females in positions of power is a lack of unity among women themselves. She said that since females were vying for limited resources they have a tendency to see other females as a threat and are envious of one another. She further went on to say that females have the potential to bring about transformation, but they lack organization due to lack of time, given their multiple roles as bread winners, wives and mothers. African females also fear to raise their voices and speak out for fear of victimization, allegedly by fellow females, but also by males, given the cultural expectations of what a female should or should not do.

Females fear to excel because it makes them look intimidating. Females who wish to get married have to present themselves as good marriage material by being humble and submissive. One more cause for the complexity African females have experience in obtaining national and international acknowledgment is their day-by-day struggle for endurance. Tripp (2003) also found that regardless of the political progress made by females in the 1990s their efforts did not pay off in terms of women being allotted to public office. Females lack the essential financial support or resources often mobilized individually, and publicly and this is another strategic measure applied to exclude females from politics. In addition they are said to lack too much political familiarity, coolness, education and connections to run for office (Tripp, 2001; BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to females' reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to females' involvement in leadership/ management (Shayo, 2005). These obstacles are not

distinctive to African females. Analogous matters have been raised concerning educated Chinese females.

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

Expert females in managerial positions face many challenges and those in institutions of higher learning are no exception. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) argue that the socialization of females in the work place arises within a system of power and inequality and such systems tend to repeat a variety of forms of inequality. Leadership for females is not a simple task and so, as observed by Morna and Nyakujarah (2010), moving up and staying at the top is not necessarily filled with joy. Other literature on females' leadership in higher education discloses that females are less likely than males to take part in upper levels of leadership.

Acker (2000) advances the theory that there is some sort of achievement prevention by females that influences their leadership aptitude or curiosity in leadership positions. Advocacy in the higher education arena has tended to rely upon and react to government legislation on equity rather than being something that women in the sector

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

2.8 Female Leader/Administrators and Role Conflicts

It is the belief in many Ghanaian societies that females are never independent, and that it is the man who has to protect the woman. Administration is also considered to be a masculine field (Schein, 1994). In this modern era, the structuring of the schools as an organization, the top-down hierarchy favours men. Authorization of leadership is most often the pattern for school administration. Even the public strongly agrees that men are better able to handle discipline than females. In fact, an ancient and pervasive belief in Western thought is that females' lack reason and is governed by emotions.

Kottis (1996) asserted that the need for females to participate in the management of schools is very crucial to the effective development of educational institutions. The situation has not changed that much in the modern world, but it has seen considerable improvement over the years. Yet, inside and outside the family females are viewed as subordinates. At the workplaces they are expected to fill subordinate occupational roles, which are defined as an extension of females' domestic roles. This rationale has been used to justify and determine the payment of workers, females are being paid less than

the men for doing comparable work (Rebore, 2001). The natural male dominance also depicts how females are rarely hired in positions of authority (Wolf & Fligstein, 1979).

2.9 Measures that Encourage Females to Leaders

There are some factors that do or would encourage females to take up education leadership positions. These include policies, organizational motivators, and also females' own motivators.

Policies on Equal Opportunities

Economic and legal developments have benefited females into managerial positions (Priola & Brannan 2009). Norris, cited in Kiamba (2008) outlines three policies, amongst others, that are used worldwide to enhance females' participation in decision-making positions. Kiamba indicates the following:

Rhetorical strategies - an informal means of getting females to participate in decision-making structures articulated through political and other public speeches. An example is a 2006 presidential decree in Kenya that aimed at a target of 30% representation of females in the public service.

Affirmative action - Norris, cited in Kiamba (2008) describes as meritocratic policies that aims to achieve fairness in recruitment by removing practical barriers that disadvantage females. Affirmative action programmes provide training (on public speaking, for example), advisory group goals, financial assistance, and the monitoring of outcomes.

Positive discrimination strategies - This set mandatory quotas for the selection of candidates from certain social or political groups. Quotas can be set at different levels (to indicate proportion of representation), or at different stages of the selection process. Kiamba (2008) observed that when quotas are legally specified as part of the constitution, they are more likely to be implemented, and guarantee females' inclusion in leadership.

Academic Credentials

In exploring females' route into leadership, Priola and Brannan (2009) noted that education and self-determination are perceived to be at the core of a career in leadership. Priola and Brannan mentioned that the increased education attainment and the enhancement of academic credentials of females have subsequently accompanied an increased commitment to professional and managerial careers. A respondent in Normore and Gaetane's (2008, p. 192) study on the leadership experiences of four female secondary school heads, cited "...a strong knowledge base and value on having attained a doctorate" as a motivator for joining education leadership.

Wickham (2007) studied perceived barriers and successful strategies used to attain the superintendence in California, and discovered that obtaining a doctorate degree was considered one of the successful strategies. Fifty-two percent of the respondents in the study held a doctoral degree. Mitroussi and Mitroussi (2009) indicated that the academic attainment could be attributed to the fact that females need to feel well-prepared before they apply for a leadership position. They choose to become heads when they feel adequate, that is, when they have become competent teachers, and they have their own agenda for headship.

Access to Preparation and Leadership Programmes

The availability of preparation and leadership programmes for aspiring head teachers is also a motivator for females to venture into educational leadership. Preparation for school leadership is concerned with developing the capacity of individuals by means of initial or pre-service preparation, socialization and induction, and opportunities for in-service professional learning development (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010). Formal mentoring and leadership development is one way of promoting and uniting females in education administration, namely by offering them the chance to engage in mentoring relationships and to network with other practicing leaders and aspirants (Sherman, 2005).

Cowie and Crawford (2008) asserted that preparation for headship can help to develop the professional identity of aspiring head teachers, to broaden their outlook, and to develop confidence and self-belief. In their study of school principals in Scotland and England, they noted that working with one another in preparation programmes, helped develop the identity of the principals. Through collaborative activity and networking with colleagues, a sense of trust was developed, allowing the principals to share and to learn from each other's experiences.

Females, who participate in aspiring leadership programmes and more formalized types of mentoring, advance to administrative positions more readily than females who do not (Sherman 2005). Nealy (2009 p. 15) stated that leadership institute which provides "...through a cultural prism, intensive training, tools for self-analysis and other skills to navigate the academy", and where females leaders go, wanting "...to sharpen their leadership skills, connect with other sisters and to celebrate their successes together".

Nealy (2009, p. 9) reported that when these females leave the leadership institute "...they know who they are; they understand what they bring to the table and understand that there is a seat for them at the table".

Females' own Motivators

Some females may be attracted to management by the promise of status and power to influence others, and also themselves. Others may be seduced by the wish to prove themselves and others that they can do better, and can achieve success in environments which are traditionally male-dominated and highly competitive, or that may represent difficult challenges (Priola & Brannan 2009).

Some of the reasons cited by females that would or did encourage them to join educational leadership include: knowing that they could initiate change, and provide the necessary leadership skills to implement those changes; support, encouragement and sponsorship; having a supportive staff (Adams & Hambright, 2004); an intrinsic need and a moral responsibility to make a difference in the lives of students and others; a need to empower teachers to make positive decisions about teaching and learning (Normore & Gaetane, 2008); to be role models; to improve the schools in terms of their academic performance and student outcomes; having the skills and interest to be successful school leaders; to utilize their talents that have not been exploited as a teacher; to be more useful in the community (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2010).

In Kelly's (2008) study of conceptualizations of leadership among five female counselor educators, the participants reported that they had sought out leadership initiatives as they were compelled to do so by an inherent passion for leadership. As they advanced in their careers, their interest to participate in leadership intensified. Through

their leadership contributions, they were able to model leadership to others, in the hope of motivating them to become interested in leadership. The participants, however, emphasized that interest alone is not sufficient, and that leadership is earned by means of the hard work, commitment and dedication of the individual.

Females may be motivated to participate in leadership, but they encounter challenges on their path there. The next section examines some of the perceived hindrances.

2.10 Leadership Qualities

According to Afful-Broni (2012) High moral standards and exemplary characters should be the hallmark of an effective leader. Afful-Broni further asserted that school leadership preparation should include moral and ethical formation. Every leader needs to possess personal and professional qualities as well. Moore (2007) revealed there have been times when the search for school leader placed great emphasis on character as a required ingredient. Leadership should be able to foster the process of growth, renewal and progress within the community or organization (Deal & Peterson, 2009). To do this, unique qualities are needed on the part of the leaders. Every community or organization needs to grow from one level to another; and be renewed from strength to strength.

In the words of Starrat (2003), a leader needs the eyes to see, the ears to hear and the mind to know what is. This depicts that every leader should have determined by the nature vision or be a forecaster; be a good listener; and a good thinker. Another writer or scholar talks about how formal education or training or knowledge should be part of the leader. A leader would need to integrate his or her knowledge of what is, with what he [or

she] believes to be the essentials of what ought to be (Sergiovanni, 2009). Leaders must necessarily be creative, flexible and open to the changing times and needs of the organization. Each leader should be conversant with the dynamics of the society or organization he or she governs. Possible adjustments or changes have to be made when and where necessary.

Modern scholars of the study of administration have revealed that effective administration is best done in a collective, co-operative, collaborative manner (Covey, 1990; Starrrat, 2003). Schools are not shops or offices that require clever and ingenious bits of engineering and scientific inputs to increase productivity and morale, but major social institutions where wisdom and courage are required to infuse practice with our highest hopes. Leaders need to understand group dynamics and have the ability to go through unpleasant times in the life of the organization. Effective leaders are constantly finding new and more meaningful ways of saying, "I hear you" to their membership. Communication needs to be sound and solid; and tolerance has to exist within organizational climate. The absence of this builds needless tensions, which would be counter-productive to the establishment of the community or school (Blasé & Blasé, 2000). By this leaders would make their attitude clear to their staff; maintain definite standards of performance; work out plans with them; let staff know what is expected of them, and so forth.

It is generally admitted that organizations exist to provide valuable services for the people. The otherwise makes it superficial. Since leadership occurs in a cultural context, leaders can help shape the culture of an organization by what they pay attention to and reward. Leaders infuse a common set of values, ideals, and principles in their schools (Hoyt, 2005). It is therefore obvious that leadership is more than the technical and interpersonal aspects of efficient management. It has a symbolic side. It rests upon meanings as well as actions. Therefore, every school or organization has a culture that has to be built, which involves the leadership directly.

2.11 Strategies to Manage Female Heads Challenges in

Every organization is expected to make a little investment into the professional development of the individuals, which is in their best interest as human resource is the bedrock of every organization (Heller, 2002). Hence, the emphasis on training staff or developing their abilities at all organizational levels is vital. In-service training programmes should be an administrative policy. Training affects the quality of productivity and performance. Ukeje, Akabogu, and Ndu (1992) warned that professionals who cease to study cease to be effective professionally.

It has been recognized that managers as well as their subordinates need management and support. The world is dynamic, and so, there is a need to be abreast with time through periodic in-service training. The issue of accommodation is another proper investment which can enhance performance more. Leaders who live not too far from their workplaces are able to sacrifice time and energy to perform beyond the required. Supervision of work coupled with regularity and punctuality will be evident. Dedication which every organization desires will be visible.

Another issue that matters most is motivation at workplaces. Heads of institutions or organizations need to be stimulated or influenced to come out with their best in meeting desired goals. Certo (2006) was critical about the motivational process or the

steps to be taken. The working conditions, human relations and pay are some critical issues that need to be satisfied. Like teachers, headmistresses and headmasters morale become low when the environment for learning and working conditions are not conducive. Bennell (2004) reiterated that job satisfaction has a positive relationship to the degree of commitment to work.

Incentives, rewards and credit facilities should be made available as motivating factors. The respect of any manager or worker in a society goes with the condition of service and provision of incentives they have in place for them. The welfare of workers, whether head or not, should be prioritized by in recent times. The availability and accessibility of equipment and relevant teaching and learning materials need not be low as in the case of Ghana Education Service (GES). The presence of up-to-date textbooks and syllabuses, constant supply of stationery, and a well-equipment office space are the little improvement headmistresses and headmasters are yearning for (Afful-Broni, 2012).

Strong, quality and cordial interpersonal relationships can bring about high performance in any organization, and the school is not left out. Spouses, subordinates, associations and friends of female administrators of Senior High Schools need to extend both professional and moral support. The benevolence of relatives, individuals and associations can boost performance.

2.12 Mentorship to Enhance Females Leadership and Management

There is a growing argument that in order for females to thrive in obtaining leadership positions in a workplace mentoring must occur.

Mentoring can considerably increase income and promotion potential for individuals experiencing these relationships; Mentoring can convene the needs of both women and the work environment, and it can also help in attracting and maintaining women and minority professionals in the work environment; Mentoring of younger workers increases turnover, assists mentees in dealing with organizational issues, and hastens their absorption into the culture; The mentees (those females being mentored) benefit because someone cares enough to support them, recommend them and assist them construe inside information.

The advantages of mentoring are felt not only by mentees and their organization but by the mentors themselves. The familiarity the fulfillment of passing along hard earned wisdom, influencing the next generation of upper leadership and receiving gratitude from younger workers (Cullen & Luna, 1993, Hagevik, 1998, Whitaker & Lane, 1990). It is not uncommon for women to have men mentors, but the best mentors for women are other women because interacting and sharing experiences and knowledge are important. While male mentors eagerly encouraged women to become leaders, they did not excitedly support them when seeking a position at the secondary level.

The mentoring experience must help females to develop self-esteem, aggressive leadership personalities and non-traditional attitudes about women and employment. The nurturing of attitudes and uniqueness would allow for success in their organizations, whereas their male counterparts displayed qualities that made it easier to advance. The use of mentors to help present and future leaders is a powerful tool

that may be used to bring about more effective labour practice (Freeman, 2000; Cullen & Luna, 1993; Daresh & Playko, 1990; Whitaker & Lane, 1990)

2.13 Summary

From the literature it is clear that the issue of females and leadership is complex. The inclusion of females in educational leadership/management cannot be taken lightly by stakeholders, as it has been seen to promote equity, create role-models for other females aspiring to leadership. Various theories have impacted on the inclusion of females in leadership/management, either by enhancing their exclusion, or by affecting their willingness to seek leadership/management positions. Females still face certain challenges on their journey to leadership/management positions. It was also reveald that there are measures to facilitate females aspiring to leadership and management positions. Although these challenges may affect some females who shy away from leadership, it is encouraging to note that there are many who feel encouraged to lead, with the aim of improving themselves and the school systems which they head. Most importantly, when dealing with the issue of females and educational leadership/management, is the consideration of context, as this differs in different settings.

Fitzgerald (2006) reported that gender and ethnicity do matter in educational leadership/management, and that walking between the two worlds is a complicated, contested and difficult terrain.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the methodology used for the study. These included the research design, target population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instrument, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis plan and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

Descriptive survey design was used for the study. According to Creswell (2009), descriptive survey design is administering a survey to a sample or to the entire population of people to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviours or characteristics of the population. It is preferred because it is economical in data collection. It is easy to identify attributes of a large population from a small group of individuals. Since the study involved individual people as units of analysis; descriptive research design was appropriate for the study. Descriptive research design provides more information from a large number of individuals (White, 2005).

3.2 Population

The study was conducted to investigate female head teachers' challenges of managing basic schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region..

Creswell (2009) defines study population as a group of individuals or people with the same characteristics and in whom the researcher is interested. Population is also the complete set of subjects that can be studied: people, objects, animals, plants, organizations from which a sample may be obtained (Kusi, 2012).

The targeted population for this study was all head teachers in basic schools at Kwabre East Municipality. The accessible population was 36 female head teachers and assistant female head teachers in 36 Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique

According to Gall and Borg (2007), sampling is a technique used for selecting a given number of subjects from a target population as a representative of the population in research.

Census technique was used to select all basic schools and all female head teachers and assistants at Kwabre East Municipality. Census technique was considered appropriate because the researcher collected and analyzed from every female head and assistants. Creswell (2009) posited that census sampling is used in schools to find out respondents opinions on possible issues. Census technique is unbiased and is totally representative. All the 36 female heads and assistants were selected for the study.

3.4 Data Collection Instrument

Structured questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. According to Kusi (2012), questionnaire is a data collection instrument which is often used in quantitative studies. It contains predetermined standardized questions or items meant to collect numerical data that can be subjected to statistical analysis. Most participants feel more comfortable responding to predetermined responses than items that require them to express their views and feelings.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections. Section A demanded responses on background information of respondents, section B dealt with female head teachers leadership roles, and section C sought respondent's views on the challenges associated with female head teachers' management. Section D covered strategies to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' management. The questionnaire was mostly likert-type scale. According to Sarantakos (2005), likert scale allows responses to be ranked, and it is easy to construct.

The researcher preferred structured questionnaire since it is easy to administer on a large population. Questionnaires also require less time and money as compared to other methods, like, focus group discussions (Creswell, 2009). One of the weaknesses of using questionnaire is how to retrieve the entire questionnaire administered.

3.5. Validity Test

According to Bell (2008), validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The researcher tested both face and content validity of the questionnaire. Face validity referred to the likelihood that a question may be

misunderstood or misinterpreted. To achieve faced validity, the questionnaire was given to the supervisor to find out whether the items measured the intended purpose. Content validity referred to whether an instrument provides adequate coverage of the research questions. The supervisor found out whether the items measured specific constructs. The validity test enable the researcher to redesign and deleted those items which were found to be unclear and ambiguous.

3.6 Pilot Test

The purpose for pilot test is to get the bugs out of the instrument so that the respondents in the study area will experience no difficulties in completing the questionnaire and also enable one to have preliminary analysis to see whether the wording and format of questions is appropriate (Bell, 2008).

According to Bell (2008), reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent result or data after repeated trials. Reliability is the extent to which the measuring instruments produce consistent scores when the same groups of individuals are repeatedly measured under the same conditions.

The questionnaire was administered to 30 respondents randomly selected from basic schools in the Tafo Municipality. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire items used to collect data for the study. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990) opined that "Cronbach's alpha is used when items have multiple scores" (p. 235). In this study, almost all the items that were designed were multiple scores and therefore, Cronbach's alpha was considered appropriate to use. The reliability test yielded

cronbach alpha of 0.82. The pilot test enabled the researcher to make necessary changes to items which were inappropriate, and determined the percentage of responses.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher sought permission from the Kwabre East Municipal Director of Education for to carry out the study with an introductory letter from the department of Educational Leadership of the University of Education, Winneba, Kumasi Campus. The Metro Director of Education gave permission to the researcher to carry out the study. The researcher then visited the schools to establish rapport with the respondents to make them feel at home in responding to the items on the questionnaire. The questionnaire was thereafter administered to the respondents with the approval of the management of the various schools. The questionnaire was collected from the respondents after two weeks. The researcher achieved a response rate of 100%.

3.9 Data Analysis Plan

The data were cleaned with the aim of identifying mistakes and errors which might have been made and blank spaces which have not been filled. The data from the questionnaire were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social and Sciences (SPSS) version 21 and analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages and presented in tables and answer all the research questions.

3.10. Ethical Considerations

The thoughtfulness of ethical issues was necessary for the purpose of ensuring the privacy as well as the security of the participants (Creswell, 2009). The respondents were given the enough time to complete the questionnaire administered to avoid errors and inaccuracies in their answers. The respondents were given assurance regarding the confidentiality of their

identity and the information provided. The cooperation of the respondents was sought after. The respondents were assured that the information that they would give would be treated with the utmost confidentiality and that the information would be used for academic purposes only.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents results and discussions on field data on leadership challenges of female head teachers in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region. The data were gathered from 36 female head teachers and assistant female heads through the administration of questionnaire. Results were analysed using descriptive statistics. Results were presented according to the research questions. This chapter is presented under four headings. These include:

- 1. Demographic characteristics of respondents
- 2. Leadership roles female head teachers perform in schools,
- 3. Challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership
- 4. Strategies to manage the challenges of female head teachers' leadership

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents include age, educational qualification and work experience. Tables 1,2 and 3 presents the results.

Age of Respondents

Age of respondents was analyzed to find out the age range of heads. Table 1 provides the information.

Table 1: Age of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
31-40 years	12	33
41-50 years	14	39
51-60 years	10	28
Total	36	100

Field Data, 2021

Table 1 depicted that 33% of the respondents were between the ages of 31-40. Over 39% of the respondents were between the ages of 41-50 while 28% of the respondents were between the ages of 51-60 years. The result implies that majority of the respondents fall within the age range of 41-50 years.

Educational Qualification of Respondents

The educational qualification of respondents was also analyzed. This was to find out the educational level of respondents. Table 2 presents the result.

Table 2: Educational Qualification of Respondents

Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Diploma in Education	8	22
Bachelor's Degree	17	47
Master's Degree	11	31
Total	36	100

Field Data, 2021

Table 2 showed that 22% of the respondents were holders of the Diploma in Education, 47% of the respondents were holders of the Bachelor's Degree. About 31% of the respondents were holders of the Master's Degree. The results mean that majority of

the respondent have Bachelor's Degree. The result is consistent with Ghana Education Service (GES) policy that every head teacher in basic school should have a minimum qualification of bachelor's degree.

Years of Teaching Experience

The number of years respondents have been in the teaching service was analyzed.

This was to find out the teaching experience of respondents. Table 3 presents the result.

Table 3: Teaching Experience of Respondents

Frequency	Percentage		
6	17		
12	33		
10	28		
8	22		
(n n) 36	100		
	6 12 10 8		

Table 3 discovered that, 17% of the respondents had been in the teaching service for between 1 and 5 years, 33% of the respondents had been in the teaching service for between 6 and 10 years, 28% of the respondents had been in the teaching service for between 11 and 15 years while 22% of the respondents had been in the teaching service for 16 years and above. The result implies that majority of the respondents have been in the teaching service for between 11 and 15 years.

Analysis of Main Data

Research Question 1: What leadership roles do female head teachers perform Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality?

Opinions on how female head teachers perform leadership roles in Basic Schools were elicited from respondents. The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the statements. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Female head teachers leadership roles

Statements	Strongly Agree		Agree Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total		
	N	%	N %	N	%	N	%	N	%
Encourage school-community	11	31	17 47	8	22	-		36	100
relations									
Delegates responsibilities to other								36	100
teachers	12	33	14 39	10	0 28	-			
Supervise instruction	16	44	14 39	6	17	-		36	100
Ensure the availability of teaching and learning materials	10	28 V FOR SERVICE	16 44	6	17	4	11	36	100
Manage financial resources	22	61	14 39	-		-		36	100
Ensures continuous professional development of teachers	10	28	12 33	8	22	6	17	36	100
Prepare reports	9	25	15 42	7	19	5	14	36	100

Field Data, 2021

Table 4 showed that 47% majority of the respondents agreed that head teacher managed schools by encouraging school-community relations. About 31% of the respondents strongly agreed while 22% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that head teacher manage schools by encouraging school-community relations for the success of the school. The result is in line with Afful-Broni's (2012) assertion that

School-community relationship task requires the school head to define the community in which the school is located. School heads should find out about the occupational practices, values aspirations and norms of the community. This will help in the formulation of educational policies, goals and strategies for the education of the pupils.

Over 39% of the respondents agreed that head teacher managed schools by delegating responsibilities to other teachers. About 33% of the respondents strongly agreed while 28% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that heads manage schools by delegating responsibilities to other teachers when the need arise for the success of the school. The result is in tandem with Oplatka's (2006) statement that school head does not have to perform all the tasks alone. Responsible staff members should be delegated to assist.

About 44% majority of the respondents strongly agreed that head teacher managed schools by supervising instruction. Also, 39% of the respondents agreed while 17% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that head teacher manage schools by supervising curriculum, instruction and appraisal in order to achieve the goals of the school. The result agrees with Mankoe's (2007) statement that curriculum, instruction and appraisal include all activities that are planned, implemented, supervised and evaluated by the school workers. The school head is obligated to secure the appropriate syllabuses for teachers. He or she is to ensure that timetables, course contents and textbooks are available for use.

Over 44% majority of the respondents agreed that head teacher managed schools by ensuring the availability and adequacy of teaching and learning materials. About 28%

of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement, 17% of the respondents disagreed while 11% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result implies that head teacher manage schools by ensuring the availability and adequacy of teaching and learning materials in improve instruction in the school. The result is in line with Afful-Broni's (2012) viewpoint that the head of school should provide all teaching and learning materials and maintained.

About 61% majority of the respondents strongly agreed that head teacher managed schools by managing financial resources of the school judiciously for the success of the school while 39% of the respondents agreed. The result implies that head teacher manage schools by managing financial resources of the school judiciously for the success of the school. The result is in tandem with Kelly's (2008) view that heads has to ensure that the school estimates and expenditures are well organized--that all monetary activities proceed according to fiscal policies.

Over 33% majority of the respondents agreed that head teachers ensured continuous professional development of teachers. About 28% of the respondents strongly agreed and 22% of the respondents disagreed. Only 17% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result implies that head teacher ensure continuous professional development of teachers to boost their morale in the teaching and learning process. The result is in support with Heller's (2002) statement that every organization is expected to make a little investment into the professional development of the individuals.

About 42% majority of the respondents agreed that head teachers prepared reports for the betterment of the school. Over 25% of the respondents strongly agreed and 19%

of the respondents disagreed while 14% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that head teacher manage schools by attending conferences and preparing reports for the betterment of the school. The result is consistent with Wickham's (2007) statement that school head performs other duties such as preparing reports for local and district school boards, publicizing the work of the school, and scheduling school programs.

Research Question 2: What challenges are associated with female head teachers' management of Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality?

The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the following statements on challenges of Managing Basic Schools. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Challenges of Managing Basic Schools

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	36 100
	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Complexity of managerial roles	14 39	14 39	8 22	-	36 100
Unsuitable location of the school	9 25	17 47	10 28	-	36 100
Inadequate teaching staff					
	8 22	18 50	6 17	4 11	36 100
Inadequate teaching and learning	11 31	17 47	8 22	-	36 100
materials					
Inadequate funds to manage the school	9 25	15 42	12 33	-	36 100
Lack of cooperation from teachers	16 44	14 39	6 17		36 100

Field Data, 2021

Table 5 showed that 39% majority of the respondents agreed that complexity of managerial roles was a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools, 39% of the respondents strongly agreed while 22% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that complexity of managerial roles is a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools. The result is in line with Oduro's (2012) statement that a number of studies have highlighted certain problems facing head teachers in many countries, including Ghana. These problems include complexity of managerial roles.

About 44% majority of the respondents agreed that unsuitable location of the school was a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools. Also, 22% of the respondents strongly agreed, 17% of the respondents disagreed while 11% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result implies that unsuitable location of the school is a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools.

Over 47% majority of the respondents agreed that inadequate teaching staff was a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools, 31% of the respondents strongly agreed while 22% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that inadequate teaching staff is a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools.

About 42% majority of the respondents agreed that inadequate teaching and learning materials was another challenge female heads face in managing basic schools, 33% of the respondents disagreed while 25% of the respondents strongly agreed. The result implies that inadequate teaching and learning materials is a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools. The result is in line with Oduro's (2012) assertion that inadequate teaching and learning materials is among the challenges in managing basic schools.

Over 44% majority of the respondents agreed that inadequate funds to manage the school was a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools, 28% of the respondents strongly agreed, 31% of the respondents disagreed while 25% of the respondents strongly disagreed. The result implies that inadequate funds to manage the school are a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools. The result is in tandem Harber and Mncube's (2011) statement that the inability of head teachers to manage school effectively is as a result of insufficient budgetary allocations to the education sector.

Over 44% majority of the respondents strongly agreed that lack of cooperation from teachers was another challenge female heads face in managing basic schools, 39% of the respondents agreed while 17% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that lack of cooperation from teachers is a challenge female heads face in managing basic schools. The result is in line with A Oduro's (2012) assertion that teachers engage in many forms of misbehaviour, such as absenteeism, lateness and alcoholism which affect their output negatively.

Research Question 3: What strategies could be adopted to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership roles in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality?

The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the following statements on strategies that could be adopted to manage the challenges female head teachers face. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Strategies to manage the Challenges

	Strongly	Agree	Disagree	Strongly	Total	
Statements	Agree			Disagree		
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	
Provision of continuous professional						
development	10 28	14 39	12 33	-	36 100	
Availability of sufficient teaching and	14.20	15 42	7.10			
learning resources	14 39	15 42	7 19	_	36 100	
Provision of adequate financial support	17 47	13 36	6 17	-	36 100	
Provision of incentives and rewards						
1 Tovision of meentives and rewards	19 53	17 47	-	-	36 100	
systems		\			20100	
Organize regular workshops for heads	17 47	15 42	4 11	-	36 100	
Field Data, 2021		/				

Table 6 showed that 39% majority of the respondents agreed that provision of continuous professional development was a strategy that could be adopted to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership, 33% of the respondents disagreed while 28% of the respondents agreed. The result indicates that provision of continuous professional development is a strategy that can be adopted to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership.

Over 42% majority of the respondents agreed that availability of sufficient teaching and learning resources was a strategy that could be adopted to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership, 39% of the respondents strongly agreed while 19% of the respondents disagreed. The result implies that indicates

that availability of sufficient teaching and learning resources is a strategy that can be adopted to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership roles.

About 47% majority of the respondents strongly agreed that provision of adequate financial support was a strategy that could be adopted to manage the challenges female head teachers' face, 36% of the respondents agreed while 17% of the respondents disagreed. The result means that provision of adequate financial support could be used to manage the challenges female head teachers' face.

Also, 53% majority of the respondents agreed that provision of incentives and rewards systems was a major strategy that could be adopted to manage the challenges of performing female head teachers' leadership roles while 47% of the respondents agreed. The result shows that institution of incentives and rewards systems could be used to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership challenges.

Over 47% majority of the respondents strongly agreed that organizing regular workshops for heads was a strategy that could be adopted to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership, 42% of the respondents agreed while 11% of the respondents disagreed. The result means that organizing regular workshops for female head teachers on how to cope with challenges in schools could help them perform their roles effectively.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The chapter comprised overview of the study the summary of the findings, conclusions drawn, recommendations of the study and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers' face in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region. The objectives of the study were to examine leadership roles female head teachers perform in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality, find out the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality and to identify strategies to manage the challenges associated with female head teachers' leadership in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.

Descriptive survey design was used for the study. The target population for this study was all head teachers in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality. The accessible population was 36 female head teachers and assistant female head teachers in 36 Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality. Census sampling technique was used to select all 36 female head teachers and assistants for the study. Structured questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. Cronbach alpha was used for the pilot test. The reliability test yielded cronbach alpha of 0.82. The data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

On leadership roles female heads performed encouraging school-community relations, delegating responsibilities to other teachers, supervising instruction, ensuring the availability of teaching and learning materials, managing financial resources, ensuring continuous professional development of teachers and preparing reports were found to be leadership roles heads perform in the school.

The study also revealed that complexity of managerial roles, unsuitable location of the school, inadequate teaching staff, inadequate teaching and learning materials, inadequate funds to manage the school, and lack of cooperation from teachers were challenges of female heads face in managing basic schools.

The study finally found that provision of continuous professional development, availability of sufficient teaching and learning resources, provision of adequate financial support, provision of incentives and rewards systems, and organizing regular workshops for females were strategies that could be adopted to manage the challenges female face when performing leadership roles in schools.

5.3 Conclusions

It is concluded based on the findings that female head teachers performed their leadership roles in basic schools of the study area, therefore it would improve teaching and learning for the success of the school.

It is also concluded that because of the numerous challenges female head teachers face in their managerial roles, heads leadership roles would not be effective as expected.

It could be concluded that the strategies that could be used to manage the challenges head teachers face in their leadership roles if adopted would go a long way in addressing the challenges for effective management of basic schools.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The study recommend based on the findings that;

- The Municipal Directorate of Education should organize regular professional development workshops to upgrade the knowledge of heads to enable them manage the school with less challenges.
- 2. The Municipal Directorate of Education should encourage the use of incentives and rewards systems to manage challenges to minimize if not to avert the challenges to facilitate female leadership.
- 3. The Municipal Directorate of Education should provide heads with sufficient teaching and learning materials for effective management of basic schools to improve performance.

5.5 Suggestion for Further Study

The study was conducted to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers' face in Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality in the Ashanti Region. Therefore, further study should be conducted to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers' face in basic schools in the other municipal and districts of the Ashanti Region.

Further studies should also be conducted to investigate leadership challenges female head teachers face in private Basic Schools at Kwabre East Municipality.

REFERENCES

- Adams, K., & Hambright, G. (2004). Encouraged or discouraged: Females teacher leaders becoming principals. *The Clearing House*, 77(5), 209-211.
- Afful-Broni, A. (2012). *Theory and practice of educational leadership in Ghana*. Accra: Yamens Press Limited.
- Akao, M. A. (2008). Seen but not heard: Females' experiences of educational leadership in Solomon Islands secondary schools. Unpublished M.Ed. dissertation. New Zealand, University of Waikato.
- Armstrong, M. (2004). *Human resource management practice*, (8th ed.). London:
- Asiedu-Akrofi, K. (1978). School administration in modern Africa. Tema: Ghana Publishing Corporation.
- Bame, K. N. (1995). Teacher motivation and retention in Ghana: The professional teacher in Africa. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- Bennell, P. (2004). *Teacher motivation and incentive in Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia*.

 Brighton: Knowledge and Skills for Development.
- Bird's (2000). Preserving the status quo or renegotiating leadership: femen' experiences with a district-based aspiring leaders' programme. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(5), 707-740.
- Blasé, J., & Blasé, J. (2000). Effective instructional leadership: Teachers' perspectives on how principals promote teaching and learning in schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2), 130-141.

- Brooks & Brooks (2007). Theory and practice of educational leadership in Ghana.

 Accra: Yamens Press Limited.
- Bush (2008). Females and elective office: Past, present and future (2nd ed.). London: Oxford University Press.
- Celikten, M. (2005). A perspective on females principals in Turkey. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 8(3), 207-221.
- Certo, S. C. (2006). *Principles of modern management: Functions and systems*. Dubuque: William C. Brown Company.
- Chege, F. N., & Sifuna, D. N. (2006). Girls' and females' education in Kenya: gender perspectives and trends. Nairobi: UNESCO.
- Cornwall, M., & Legerski, E. (2010). Working class, job loss, gender and the negotiation of household labour. *Gender and Society*, 24(4), 447-474.
- Covey, S. R. (1989). *The seven habits of highly effective people*. New York: Simon and Schuster Inc.
- Cowie, M., & Crawford, M, (2008). Being a new principal in Scotland. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(6), 676 89.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches, (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publication.
- Day, C., & Harris, A. (2012, December 25). Effective school leadership. Retrieved June 14, 2014, from National College for School Leadership: http://wikieducator.org/images/e/ef/Chris_Day_Effective_School_Leadership.pdf

- Deal, T. & Peterson, K. (2009). Shaping school culture: Pitfalls, paradoxes, and promises. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 92
- Derrington, M. L., & Sharratt, G. C. (2009). Female superintendents: Breaking barriers and challenging life styles. *International Journal for Professional Educators*, 2(75), 8-12.
- Eagly, A. H., Carli, L. L., & Sampson, P. M. (2009). Navigating the labyrinth. *School Administrator*, 66(8), 10-17.
- Eddy, P. L. (2008). Reflections of females leading community colleges. *The Community College Enterprise*, *14*(1), 49-67.
- Fisher, A. G. (1999). Assessment of motor and process skills (3rd.ed.), Ft. Collins, CO: Three Star Press.
- Fitzgerald, T. (2006). Walking between two worlds: Indigenous females and education. Educational Management, Administration and Leadership, 34(2), 201-213.
- Fullan, M. (2007). *The new meaning of educational change* (4th ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Ghana Education Service (G.E.S) *Source Book* (2007). Management for development foundation, training and consultancy (2009). Retrieved on September 25, 2020 from http://www.mdf.n//page/MDF-Service/Education-services.
- Gous, (2006). Challenges of A successful first-year principal in Mexico. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(6), 702-714.

- Gray, P., & Ross, J. A. (2006). Transformational leadership and teacher commitment to organizational values: The mediating effects of collective teacher efficacy," School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 17(2), 179-199.
- Grogan, M. (2014). *Voices of females aspiring to the superintendency*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Heller, D. A. (2002). The power of gentleness. *Educational leadership*, 59(8), 76-79.
- Higgs, J. (2006). Realising critical practice epistemology across health professional practice, education and research. Paper presented at the Fill the gaps conference, Gold Coast, QLD, Australia.
- Hoyt, C. L. (2005). The role of leadership efficacy and stereotype activation in femen' identification with leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 11(4), 2-15.
- ILO (2008). International labour organization.
- Jones, C. A. (2006). The other leadership: The nature of the leadership experience of Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1978). *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Kellerman, B., & Rhode, D. L. (2007). Females and leadership: The state of play and strategies for change. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.
- Kelly, E., Ammon, S., Chermack, K., & Moen, P. (2010). Gendered challenge, gendered response: Confronting the ideal worker norm in a white collar organization. *Gender and Society*, 24(3), 281-303.

- Kelly, L. B. (2008). Conceptualizations of leadership among five female counselor educators. Unpublished D.Ed. thesis, Kent State University.
- Khanka, S. S. (2007). *Organizational behavior: Text and cases*. New Delhi: Chand and company.
- Kiamba, J. (2008). Females and leadership positions: social and cultural barriers to success. *Wadagu*, 6, 7-26.
- Kincheloe, D., & Steinberg, W. (2007). Self-efficacy is a critical attribute for females leaders. *Females in Higher Education*, 19(4), 8-9.
- Knowles, M., Nieuwenhuis, J., & Smit, B. (2009). A narrative analysis of educators lived experiences of motherhood and teaching. *South African Journal of Education*, 29, 333-343.

Kogan Page Ltd.

- Kottis, A. P. (1996). Females in management: The 'glass ceiling' and how to break it. Females in Management Review, 8(4), 9-16.
- Lange, C. (2006). Attributes of notable females leaders. *Social Studies Review*, 46(1), 17-20.
- Lockwood, P. (2006). Someone like me can be successful: Do college students need same sex role models? *Psychology of Females Quarterly*, *30*(1), 36-46.
- Mankoe, J. O. (2007). Educational administration and management in Ghana (2nd ed.).

 Amakom-Kumasi: Payless Publications Ltd.

- Marthur-Helm, B. (2007). Equal opportunity for South African Women: A Benefit or Barrier? *Women in Management Review Journal* 20 (1): 31-43.
- Miller, Y. (2008). Preserving the status quo or renegotiating leadership: femen' experiences with a district-based aspiring leaders' programme. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(5), 707-740.
- Mitroussi, A., & Mitroussi, K. (2009). Female educational leadership in the UK and Greece. Gender in Management: *An International Journal*, 24 (7), 505-522.
- Musaazi, J. C. S. (2006). *The theory and practice of educational administration*. London: Macmillan.
- Nealy, M. J. (2009). Sharpening leadership skills: connecting with the sisters. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education*, 26(2), 7-10.
- Nogay, K., & Beebe, R. J. (1997). Gender and perceptions: Females as secondary principals. *Journal of School Leadership*, 7, 246-265.
- Normore, A. H., & Gaetane, J. M. (2008). Female secondary school leaders: at the helm of social justice, democratic schooling and equity. *Leadership and Organizational Development Journal*, 29(2), 182-205.
- Oduro, G. K. T., & MacBeath, J. (2003). Traditions and tensions in leadership: The Ghana experience. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3), 441-455.
- Oplatka, I. (2006). The principalship in developing countries: Context, characteristics and reality. *Comparative Education*, 40(3), 427-48.

- Owens, R. F., & Heuser, D. (2009). Planting seeds, preparing teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 56 (8), 53-56.
- Petzko, V. (2008). The perceptions of new principals regarding the knowledge and skills important to their initial success. *NASSP Bulletin*, *92*(3), 224-225.
- Pont, B., Nusche, D. & Moorman, H. (2008). *Improving school leadership: Policy and practice*. Paris: OECD.
- Priola, V. & Brannan, M. J. (2009). Between a rock and a hard place; Exploring femen's experiences of participation and progress in managerial careers. *Equal Opportunities International*, 28(5), 378-397.
- Rebore, R. W. (2001). Human resources administration and education: A management approach. Needham Heights: Ally & Bacon.
- Republic of Kenya. (2007). Gender issues in education. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Reskin & Ross (2000). Walking between two worlds: Indigenous females and education.

 Educational Management, Administration and Leadership, 34(2), 201-213.
- Santovec, M. L. (2010). Self-efficacy is a critical attribute for females leaders. *Females in Higher Education*, 19(4), 8-9.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). Social research. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Schein, V. E. (1994). Managerial sex-typing: A persistent and pervasive barrier to females' opportunities. In Davidson, M. and Burke, R.J. (Eds.) (1994). *Females in management: Current research issues* (pp. 41-52). London: Paul Chapman.

- Seelinger, K. L. (2000). I'm right here: Central Appalachian females in public school leadership. Unpublished D.Ed. thesis, West Virginia, West Virginia University.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (2009). *The principalalship: A reflective practice perspective* (6th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Baacon.
- Shayo, R. (2005). Women participation in party politics during the multiparty Era in Africa: The Case of Tanzania, *EISA Occasional Paper 34*, 29-32.
- Sherman, H. W. (2005). Preserving the status quo or renegotiating leadership: femen' experiences with a district-based aspiring leaders' programme. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(5), 707-740.
- Singh, W. (2005). Female superintendents: perceived barriers and successful strategies used to attain the superintendency in California. Unpublished DEd. -thesis. California: University of the Pacific.
- Slater, C. L., Garcia, J. M., & Gorosave, G. L. (2008). Challenges of A successful first-year principal in Mexico. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(6), 702-714.
- Sloan, R. G. (1999). Females in leadership roles. Paper Presented as Sam. Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas.
- Snipes, et al. (2008). The disciplinary, interdisciplinary and global dimensions of African Studies. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies*, *I*(2), 195-220.
- Sperandio, J., & Kagoda, M. A. (2010). Females teachers' aspirations to school leadership in Uganda. *The International Journal of Education Management*, 24(1), 22-36.

- Starratt, R. J. (2003). Centering educational administration: Cultivating meaning, community, responsibility. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Syed, J., & Murray, P. A. (2008). A cultural feminist approach towards managing diversity in top management teams. *Journal of Equal Opportunities International*, 27(5), 413-432.
- Teffo, L. J. (2006). African Humanism in a globalizing world In Teffo L. J. and Cloete,

 N., Indigenization in a globalizing world: An African perspective. Sovenga:

 University of Limpopo Press
- Thomas, S., & Wilcox, C. (2005). Females and elective office: Past, present and future (2nd ed.). London: Oxford University Press.
- Ukeje, B. O., Akabogu, G. C., & Ndu, A. (1992). *Educational administration*. Enugu, Nigeria: Fourth Dimension Publication Co., Ltd.
- USAID (2002). USAID Girls' Education Initiatives in Guatemala, Guinea, Mali,

 Morocco, and Peru: A Performance Review. GEMS: Girls' Education Monitoring

 System. Washington D.C.: Juarez and Associates, Inc.
- Vali, K. S. (2010). Females leading in silence in Papua New Guinea higher education.

 Unpublished MEd.-dissertation. New Zealand, University of Waikato.
- Van der Westhuizen (1991, p. 55). A cultural feminist approach towards managing diversity in top management teams. *Journal of Equal Opportunities International*, 27(5), 413-432.

- Wanyama, L. N. (2002) Factors influencing gender mobility to top levels of education management in Kenya. Unpublished PhD. thesis. Nairobi: Kenyatta University.
- Wickham, D. M. (2007). Female superintendents: perceived barriers and successful strategies used to attain the superintendency in California. Unpublished DEd. thesis. California: University of the Pacific.
- Wirth, (2010). Preserving the status quo or renegotiating leadership: femen' experiences with a district-based aspiring leaders' programme. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(5), 707-740.
- Wolf, W. C., & Fligstein, N. D. (1979). Sex and authority in the workplace. *American Sociological Review*, 44, 235-52.
- Zeleza, P. T. (2006). The disciplinary, interdisciplinary and global dimensions of African Studies. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies*, *I*(2), 195-220.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FEMALE HEADS AND ASSISTANT FEMALE HEADS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please respond to all the questions as frankly as possible. Tick $[\sqrt{\ }]$ the appropriate box for your answer.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1	What	10	VOUL	200
1.	vv Hat	19	your	age:

(a)
$$31 - 40$$
 ()

(b)
$$41 - 50$$
 ()

(c)
$$51 - 60$$
 ()

2. What is your highest academic qualification?

- (a) Diploma ()
- (b) Bachelor's Degree ()
- (c) Master's Degree ()
- 3. How many years have you been in the teaching service?
- (a) 0-5 years
- (b) 6-10 years
- (c) 11-15 years

(d) Above 16 years

SECTION B: HOW HEAD TEACHERS PERFORM LEADERSHIP ROLES

The following are the statements on leadership roles perform by female heads in basic schools. Read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement. Tick $[\sqrt]$ as appropriate on a 4-point likert scale of 4-Strongly Agree (SA), 3-Agree (A), 2-Disagree (D), 1-Strongly Disagree (SD).

No.	Statements		A	D	SD
4	Encourage school-community relations				
5	Delegates responsibilities to other teachers				
6	Supervise curriculum, instruction and appraisal				
7	Ensure the availability and adequacy of teaching and learning materials				
8	Manage financial resources of the school judiciously for the success of the school				
9	Ensures continuous professional development of teachers				
10	Prepare reports for the betterment of the school				

SECTION C: LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES

The following are the statements on the leadership challenges associated with female heads' leadership roles in basic schools. Read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement. Tick $[\sqrt]$ as appropriate on a 4-point likert scale of 4-Strongly Agree (SA), 3-Agree (A), 2-Disagree (D), 1-Strongly Disagree (SD).

No.	Statements	4	3	2	1
11	Complexity of managerial roles				
12	Unsuitable location of the school				
13	Inadequate teaching staff				
14	Inadequate teaching and learning materials				
15	Inadequate funds to manage the school				
16	Lack of cooperation from teachers				

SECTION D: STRATEGIES TO MANAGE CHALLENGES

The following are the statements on the strategies to manage the challenges associated with female heads' leadership roles in basic schools. Read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement. Tick $[\sqrt]$ as appropriate on a 4-point likert scale of 4-Strongly Agree (SA), 3-Agree (A), 2-Disagree (D), 1-Strongly Disagree (SD).

	AMON FOR SERV				
No.	Statements	4	3	2	1
17	Provision of continuous professional development				
18	Availability of sufficient teaching and learning resources				
19	Provision of adequate financial support				
20	Institution of incentives and rewards systems				
21	Organize regular workshops and public education on the need for females to cooperate with each other				

THANK YOU