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**WOMEN'S EDUCATION AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN
THE TAMALE METROPOLITAN AREA, GHANA**

REBECCA TWUMWAA

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THE TAMALE METROPOLITAN AREA, GHANA**

BY:

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UDS/MDS/0248/12

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UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



DECLARATION

STUDENT

I, declare that this thesis is my own research work and contains no material that has been submitted in my name or another person's name in the name of this University or any other institution.

Name: Rebecca Twumwaa

(Student)

Signature

Date

CERTIFIED BY

SUPERVISOR

As the supervisor of the candidate's thesis, I followed the guidelines of thesis writing of the University, and hereby certify that the above statements are true to the best of our knowledge.

Name: Professor Agnes Atia Apusigah

.....

(Supervisor)

Signature

Date



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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my husband, Osei Anakwa Timothy and my lovely children, Papa Joe, Timothy and Akos. You all are always at the bottom of my heart.



ABSTRACT

Women's education is a subject of growing national and international interest due to its role in social and economic development. The main aim of this study has been to examine how women's education aids in the development of their career. Using a descriptive study design, data was gathered from both primary and secondary sources. A total of 140 women were interviewed for the main analyses while 316 women and men were also profiled from five (5) selected institutions/employment sectors for a comparison of the status of women. Five (5) different occupational sectors (teaching, administration, nursing, banking and the judicial service) were purposively because these sectors necessarily require formal education for recruiting employees, and at times for promotions. Also, the study employed a non-probability (convenience) sampling approach to select the professional women because they usually have busy work schedules and less time. The study identified that the educational level of the participating women of the Tamale Metropolis was generally low and this translated into lower career advancement in their employment sectors. Thus most of the women held lower to middle level positions in their workplace. The study further found that women were largely more focused on executing domestic and marital responsibilities than their responsibilities in the work place. It was also observed that most women would advance their education for two reasons: to secure a good job and earn a higher salary in the chosen occupation. Financial difficulties and marital challenges were some of the factors said to hinder women's educational advancement in the Tamale Metropolis. It was also found that Distance Learning had become common among women in terms of advancing their education for progression in their chosen career. It was thus concluded that women were underrepresented in paid employment though most of them with lower and middle level qualifications were able to progress faster in their established professions as their educational advancement enhanced their career progression. Women tended to advance better in lower jobs due mainly to home demands that divided their attention. It is therefore recommended that government and development partners should design scholarship programs for them to aid their educational advancement. Policy-makers should also be flexible in designing employment policies that take into consideration time required for women to be promoted to higher positions.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SDGs	-	Sustainable Development Goals
GSBN	-	Global School of Business Network
ILO	-	International Labour Organisation
WCEFA	-	World Conference on Education for All
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations
NGOs	-	Non-Government Organizations
TaMA	-	Tamale Metropolitan Assembly
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Herr and Cramer (1992) have asserted that education, especially primary, secondary and tertiary education, facilitates career development in a person's life time because it equips them with the requisite knowledge and skills to become effective in entering the job market and to progress in their jobs. Smith and Rojewski (1993) and Wothington and Juntunen (1997), drawing examples from the United States and from the School-to-Work Transition Movement Opportunity Act, 1994, have stated that education plays an important role in enabling students to develop the requisite skills that are relevant to their future role as workers and to progress in their work. Thus, education, especially quality higher education leads to not just the acquisition of jobs but also for development of their careers in those jobs.

Studies on women such as those by Anugwon (2009), Sator (1992), Ekejiuba (1991) and Okonjo (1991) have noted that it is unquestionable that women are the subjects of a growing national and international interest and this interest stems from the acute recognition that women are crucial to social and economic development. Women's education has currently become a burning issue globally because of its perceived and acknowledged contribution to socio-economic growth and development.



Black, Gregerson, Mendenhall and Stroh (1999) and Caligiuri and Tung (1999) have underscored this by noting that in recent years, women's issues, especially on education and empowerment have turned into major areas of concern. Seminars, workshops, conferences, conventions and colloquia are held the world over to discuss women's issues and women's progression in all walks of life.

Due to significant changes in the global labour market from the twentieth century till date, which is increasing the participation of women in paid employment, women's education is also drawing attention. For instance, a major ground breaking effort, the SDGs, specifically the third Sustainable Development Goal (SDG3), sought to promote gender equality and women's empowerment through elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education. This was seen as a way to empower women through education so that that they can become competitive in public and private sector employment.

According to a Report by the Global School of Business Network (GSBN) (2013), education, and for that matter women's education, can help improve the efficiency of women's productivity and contribution to the quality of the workforce. Education is said to provide women with the requisite skills of the employment market so as to make them relevant in an economy (Anugwom, 2009). Anugwom (2009) point to recent data indicates that globally, over the last five decades, women's labour force participation has increased and women today make up over 45% of the world's



workforce with more women than ever before participating in the labour force or actively seeking jobs (ILO, 2007).

Day and Newburger (2002) also add that women's earnings in paid employment are determined by their level of education and number of years employed. Shaheed (1995) argues in line with Anugwom (2009) that formal education ideally enhances the labour force participation of women since education is a critical variable in modern work situations.

What is more interesting is that education broadens the experience of women and gives them access to new resources and skills for challenging paid employment. Anugwom (2009), Grint (1991) and Rees (1990) have all acknowledged that global changes due to the industrial restructuring have given rise to the increment of women in paid employment. Women, now than before, have acquired better skills and education in Africa and elsewhere. Domenico and Jones (2007) agree with Anugwom (2009), Grant (1991) and Rees (1990) that women have increasingly become more involved in the workforce following World War II. Paid employment of women has shifted from primarily traditional female-oriented jobs to more nontraditional and previously male-oriented careers.

Lee (2007) also asserts in line with the above that after the 1990s, as the number of females with high school or better educational background increased, the gender segregation of occupations gradually faded and the scope of female participation



widened. Female labor participation entered a new phase, resulting from the increase in skilled female workforce with higher educational attainments and the femalefriendly change in industry structure caused by the rapid growth of information technology and the service industry. Răcene (2014) has opined that there is no denying fact that after the Second World War a “quiet revolution” of women took place in the labour market resulting in an increase in the role of women in careers.

Bombuwela and Chamuru (2013) even go to the extent of stating that during the last two decades there has been an increase in the proportion of women at entry and middle-level management positions, resulting largely from the activities of women’s movements, policies of the political system, and corporate equal opportunity initiatives, which are hinged on the increasing number of women with higher education. Specifically, the UK Institute of Management (1998) and Statistics Canada (1997) argue that over the last 30 years the number of women pursuing managerial and professional careers has greatly increased.

Some studies further the analyses by showing a correlation between women’s education, paid employment and their career choice/aspiration and development. Răcene (2014) captures this succinctly when she asserts that women’s education leads to improvement in their employment opportunities. Higher education and professional or specialist education are particularly associated with their professional career progression through the change of their qualification and status/rank.



A research by the World Bank and other organizations indicates that educated women tend to develop their careers in a field that has higher wages and which boosts economic growth (Ashford, 2012). Troumpoucis (2004) also found that women themselves have tended to associate a post-secondary degree with success and increased salary, thus perceiving a greater payoff to pursuing post-secondary education. Also, studies by Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin and Frame (2005); Bronstein, Black, Pfenning and White (1987); Nieva and Gutek (1981) and Schiffler (1975), all suggest that the more education a woman receives, the more likely she is to engage in paid employment and that increases in post-secondary enrollment among females have been the result of changing roles and expectations of women in society and their growing interest in professional careers. Domenico and Jones (2006) have acknowledged that women's career development is influenced by their educational level. Lathi (2013) agrees with Ashford (2012) and Domenico and Jones (2006) that education is a key to women's career development. Undoubtedly, education has a role in women's career development.

1.2 Problem Statement

In developing countries, the dire conditions of entrenched gender inequalities continue to propel ongoing efforts to use education to bridge gaps and leverage women's opportunities and choices. In Africa, there has been a groundswell of agreement that women's lot and the general socio-economic improvement of nations can be achieved through the acquisition of education and the broad empowerment of



women (Stephen, 1992; Palmer and Almaz, 1991; Caldwell, 1979; Anugwom, 2009). Educated women are able to compete and gain employment in all sectors, especially the formal sector which open to the highly educated, of the economy. By virtue of their education, such women are able to break boundaries and progress in the formal sector.

Loutfi (2001) has stated that since 1900, women have entered paid employment and developed their careers along those lines in enormous numbers as a result of the movement of many economies from agriculture dependent to industry and commerce, and now to a predominance of services as a result of the increasing number of educated women. Also, the role of qualifications in career success has been part of the debate surrounding the career progression of women.

In the case of Ghana, Agyarkwa, Agyekum and Acheampong (2012) have stated that women have not only increased in their pursuit of professional careers but have even dared developing careers in the construction industry. Although women are now more educated and involved in paid work in the Ghanaian economy leading to their development of a career path, Domenico and Jones (2006) have argued that despite their increasing numbers, women have tended to enter the workforce in lower-status, lower-paying jobs, and remain clustered in a limited number of conventional careers (Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin, and Frame, 2005) because of their limited education and experience which impedes their career development.



Low-paying traditionally female careers, including administrative support, sales, service, nursing, teaching, social work, and clerical jobs, reflect the limited education of women in entering into high level positions in their career thereby impeding their career development (Watson, Quatman and Elder, 2002). This situation can be compared to the Center for Creative Leadership (1987) contention that the scarcity of female leaders is linked to ongoing prejudice and discrimination against women in the workplace although women are now capable of moving to upper levels.

At some point they are halted by invisible barriers impeding their career development. These barriers, according to Powell (2000), fall into two main categories: barriers

that are 'person centred', including personality traits, skills and behaviours that are contrary to the demands of managerial roles, and those that are 'situation-centred'; that is barriers located within the work and socio-cultural environment. Personcentred explanations suggest, for example, that women may lack certain key skills or have inappropriate education backgrounds.

Alternatively, they may prioritize work-life balance and job satisfaction over traditionally 'male' notions of career success. The analyses above are revealing of the extent to which education can contribute to women's career development. However, in Ghana, apart from studies by Agyarkwa, Agyekum and Acheampong (2012), no specific studies offer anecdotal evidence on the relationship between women's education and career development in the Tamale city to the best of the researcher's



knowledge. Hence, this study seeks to examine the gaps in studies relating women's education and their career development using the Tamale Metropolis as a case study.

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 Main Research Question

To what extent does education aid women's career development in the Tamale Metropolis?

1.3.2 Specific Questions

This research seeks to answer the following questions:

- i. What are the educational dynamics of women in established professions?
- ii. How do women compared to men fare in established professions in the Tamale Metropolis?
- iii. What are expected of women to deliver in their work places, home and the society in the course of developing their careers?
- iv. What forces and factors have motivated or demotivated professional women regarding the development in their professions?
- v. What experiences and strategies have successful educated professional women encountered or employed in their career development?



1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 Main Objective

To determine the extent to which education aids in women career development.

1.5.2 Specific Objectives

Specifically, this research seeks to address the following objectives:

- i. Determine educational dynamics of women in established professions.
- ii. Examine how women compared to men fare in established professions in the Tamale Metropolis.
- iii. Determine the various obligations women are expected to deliver in their work places, home and the society in the course of developing their careers.
- iv. Identify the forces and factors that motivated or demotivated professional women regarding the development in their professions.
- v. Examine the experiences and strategies successful educated professional women encountered or employed in their career advancement.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The Northern Region is one of the poorest regions in Ghana (GSS, 2014). Poverty in the region is severe among women because they have less education and are therefore not gainfully employed and predominantly in the agricultural sector, an area that has



lower returns for women (GSS, 2014). Women are noted for their high contribution to household up-keep and national development. Hence, their career choice is of primary importance.

The study will identify the factors that hindered women's education and career development and the correlation between their education and career development. This will help development partners in the area of education to devise strategies to counsel young girls/women as they go through the ladder of education.

Furthermore, the research will bring to the fore, the difficulties that women face as they go higher in their educational pursuit. It will come out with the main barriers to women's education in the Tamale Metropolis and how they influence their career development in major professions for civic education on career choices for women by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection and other stakeholders interested in improving the living standards of women.

Finally, the study can serve as a baseline for other researchers who would like to conduct further studies in the area of women's education and career development, especially in the north of Ghana.

1.6 Organization of Chapters

Chapter one of the study, gives the introduction to the research topic which entails the background of the study, the problem statement and research questions



formulated by the study. It also outlines the main objective and specific objectives to be achieved and the research justification. Chapter two provides a comprehensive review of relevant literature based on the study objectives.

Chapter three contains the materials and methods employed by the study. It contains the description of the study area, research design which specifically, identifies the source and type of data, sampling procedure adopted for the study and sample size, the methods and instruments used to collect data as well as the analytical tools employed to achieve each study objective.

Chapter four encompasses the results and discussion. It gives a comprehensive descriptive report of the sampled respondents' characteristics in the study as well as the analysis and presentation of both descriptive and quantitative results of the various research objectives. The presentation of the results is accompanied by detailed discussions and policy implications of relevant variables. Chapter five provides a summary of key findings based on which conclusions are drawn and policy recommendations of the study is formulated.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

For the Academic Center and the University of Houston-Victoria (2003), a review of the literature in a discipline is not the same as an annotated bibliography of sources - though an annotated bibliography can be a type of literature review. They posit that the purpose of a literature review is not only to tell your reader the state of scholarship about a given topic, but also to organize and evaluate the major points, parts, or arguments of each source. The Academic Center and the University of Houston-Victoria (2003) continue that literature review is a piece of discursive prose, not a list describing or summarizing one piece of literature after another. A literature review should be organized into sections that present themes or identify trends, including relevant theory. In this study, literature review is part of a larger research thesis.

This study, which focuses on the relationship between women's education and career development, explores conceptual and theoretical issues on women's education and career development. The conceptual framework involves a review of career and career development while the theoretical framework explores existing models and theories on women's career development bringing out the continuities and discontinuities in the literature so as to fill the lacunae in the literature reviewed.



2.2 Conceptual Issues

Here, I discuss the various explanations of career and career development, in the context of women.

2.2.1 Career

Some earliest researchers such as Sears (1982) and Gysbers and More (1981) have provided a series of definitions that focus on the main characteristics of the term, career. The term 'career' has been used in economic literature by different authors and for different meanings. Whereas some authors look at it as the totality of work and leisure, others have looked at it in terms of various roles, circumstances and place. Sears (1982) for instance, sees a career as the totality of work and leisure in which a person is involved in his or her whole life. Gysbers and More (1981) suggest that the term 'career' encompasses various roles, circumstances and places that one encounters in a lifetime.

On the other hand, argues that career means a lifestyle consisting of a sequence of work or leisure activities throughout one's lifetime. Others have looked at career in terms of sequence of position held, job types, occupation, pay, rank and thematic relationship in the entire lifespan of the individual. Career involves moving from one occupational level to another with increase in pay, authority and power. According to Lee (2007), literature on a working definition of career seems to have originated from Super (1990, 1957).



Here, career is defined as “the sequence of positions, jobs, and occupations that a person occupies and pursues during the course of a life of preparing to work, working, and retiring from work” (Super, 1990 quoted in Lee, 2007). Elucidating further on the meaning of career, Lee (2007) asserted that career is a subset of work characterized by volition, pay, and hierarchical and thematic relationships among various jobs over the course of the lifespan. Yet others have looked at career in terms of progression; upward movement to a better role, status, skills, or even occupying managerial positions.

For instance, Arnold and Randall (2010) indicate that, literature on the definition of career has tended to suggest that career is a progression to something better, and/or working in an occupation with high skills and status. Agalga (2013) adds that Arnold and Randall’s (2010) opinion is in line with the traditional notion of career which refers to those occupying managerial and professional positions. According to Torrington, Hall and Taylor (2005) career means an upward movement and advancement in work role. From a sociological perspective, Garavan and Colahan (1996) defined career along the lines of structural terms as a succession of related jobs arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered sequence.

Arnold and Randall (2010) further argue that in contemporary times, social scientists have tended to define career as the sequence of employment-related positions, roles, activities and experiences encountered by a person. Agalga (2013) has stated that



another way to examine a career is to concentrate on the subjective experience of the employee as an experience practical tool for career development. To examine career, one has to pay attention to the personal feelings or beliefs of employees as useful tools for career development.

Agalga (2013) further asserts that in examining career anchor, Arnold and Randall (2010) have defined it as an area of such paramount importance to a person that he or she would not give up. This implies that one element in a person's self-concept becomes so important to him or her that he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices. The person comes to define his or her basic self-image in terms of that concern and it becomes the over-riding issue at every stage of the career. Agnold and Randall (2010) have identified eight (8) areas of career anchor to consist of managerial competence, technical/functional competence, security, autonomy and independence, entrepreneurial creativity, pure challenge, service/dedication and lifestyle integration that are associated with individuals in an organization.

The managerial competence is the capabilities and skills of people in supervisory positions; the technical competence exhibits the specialized skills one possess that enables efficient delivery of services. People, who are anchored to their career by this, do prefer to be in managerial positions. More so, people are anchored to their career due to stability and security at their job and do not like to take risk. They prefer to hook on to what they hold and not migrate.



Autonomy and independence dislikes being bound by rules and regulations; such as dress codes. They seek for dominance and always want to be independent. They always work for themselves and not others. People in an organization can also be associated with entrepreneurial creativity. Such group likes creating new products and services. They love to work where success is closely linked to their own efforts as creators. They are usually profit oriented or work for money. Another group is associated with pure challenges. This group is interested in overcoming, conquering, looking for solutions and winning. Their interest and motivation do not lay in the job itself but the process of succeeding and overcoming.

Service or dedication to a cause, this type wants to undertake works which embody values which are central to them. In reviewing the diverse explanations on the term career, Herr and Cramer (1992) have stated that careers are (a) unique to each individual, (b) created by the person's choice and decision, (c) dynamic and unfold throughout one's life journey, (d) integrated entities of pre-vocational and post-vocational considerations, and (e) interrelated with one's other life roles in family, community and leisure. This is to say that careers are exclusive to each individual and are shaped or molded by one's personal judgment. Careers are not stationary and may evolve based on the individual's perceptions of the circumstances prior to or after a career choice as well as how it complements or disrupts daily routines and responsibilities.



From the above sea-sawing of the definitions and explanations of career, Patton and McMahon (2014) assert that the meaning and definition of *career* is still understood differentially. This lack of conceptual clarity maintains ambiguity and continues to prevent a common ground in thinking and researching in this area. However, a common thread among all the definitions above is that career involves work and progression throughout a person's working life which is perceived by the person to be very important for a successful life.

2.2.2 Career Development

Career development process starts with an individual getting to know himself or herself and matching interests, aspirations and skills with options for study and work. Implying that, it extends beyond ones first job. This development of skills and career opportunities could be through paid work, unpaid work experience or volunteering, education, caring for family members, hobbies, and cultural activities. Patton and McMahon (2014) are of the view that the concept of career development was first advanced by Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad and Herma (1951) who proposed that occupational choice is a developmental process that occurs over a number of years. Selecting a career is one of the many processes involved in career development and it is upon this career choice that one builds a career which is a lifelong process.

Contributing to the discourse on career development, Tolbert (1974) has asserted that career development can generally be defined as a life-long process of developing



believes and values, skills and aptitudes, interests, personality characteristics and knowledge of the world of work. Career development in the view of Sears (1982) is the total constellation of psychological, sociological, educational, physical, economic and chance factors that combine to shape the career of an individual over the life span. Thus, career development is the combined functioning and development of the mind, emotion, the social setting, studying and work. In effect, the career development of an individual deals with the development of skills, and career opportunities which could be through paid or unpaid work experience.

Career development process significantly determines the nature and quality of individuals' lives, the kind of people they become, their sense of purpose and disposable income. It also determines the social and economic contribution they make to the communities and societies of which they are part or volunteering, education, caring for family members, hobbies, and cultural activities. Lee (2007) quoted Dawis (1996) to have defined career development as “the unfolding of capabilities and requirements in the course of a person’s interaction with environments of various kinds (home, school, play, work) across the life span.”

As the individual interacts with the social setting (family, school, recreation and work) the values, believes and attitude become visible throughout the person’s life span. Obviously career is developed when the individual associates with both the physical and social environment. Career cannot be developed in isolation; it has to do with factors such as home, school, play and work. A number of authors (Amundson,



2005; Savickas, 2000; Storey, 2000) associate career development to the social and cultural shift which has impacted work life. As such the notion of career development is also undergoing a significant paradigm shift (Jarvis, 2003; Hartung, 2002) from talking about career development to development through work and other life roles.

The earlier discussions about career had emphasized increasing focused more on life roles other than work. As such more recent discussions of career development incorporate broader notions of career development to connote a continuous stream of career-relevant events that are not necessarily linear or positive in impact and that may or may not be subject to personal agency (e.g., being born into poverty, losing a job due to the bankruptcy of one's company (Patton and McMahon, 2014). Career development should therefore, be seen in the context of an organization ensuring that people with the right qualifications and experience are available when needed (Cummings and Worley, 2009). Thus, upgrading oneself makes one functions effectively at all times in an organization.

Cummings and Worley (2009) further argue that it helps organizations to avoid the dangers of obsolete and unaccepted workforce. Armstrong (2006) perceives career development as an experience of the individual and therefore, not necessarily bound by one organization, which implies that the individual has the responsibility of developing his or her career within the organization; although the organization also has a role to play in the form of granting study leave or granting financial support to the individual. It is worth mentioning that, there has been some improvement over the



last two decades, such that, more women can now be found in senior-level executive jobs, women in “influential jobs”, more women being Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), as well as women as boards of directors (Burke and Vinnecombe, 2006). However, the researchers further stated that, although there is some increment in certain fields, real progress is insignificant and therefore leading to some negative effects on women’s views on management and their professions as a career.

2.2.3 Gender and Education

Gender and socio-economic issues are imperative when discussing distribution of education (Maanu, 2008). Gender and educational achievement have been expressed by Pekkarinen (2012) and Maanu (2008). In recent years, there is even a documented trend of women prematurely leaving higher education and academia in developing countries compared to developed countries (Gasser and Shaffer, 2014). For instance, in the US, in terms of educational attainment, Abdous and Yen (2010) reported that women as at 2010 surpassed that of men in undergraduate degrees by 1.2 million. Also, Craig, Tait, Boers and McAndrew (2010) reported that in 2010 women earned 60% of all master’s degrees awarded and 50.4% of doctoral degrees in the 2008-9 academic years in the US.

In 1990, about one-quarter of women aged 25 to 54 had not earned a high school diploma and only 14% of them had a university degree (Turcotte, 2011). In 2009, thus, barely 2 decades, the proportion of women aged 25 to 54 with a bachelor or



postgraduate university degree had more than doubled, reaching 28% in 2009. Among low-income and minority students, young women are 25 percent more likely than young men to enroll in some form of postsecondary education.

In Ghana, enrollment in primary school more than doubled between 1960/1 and 1964/5 (Lambert, Perrino, Barreras, 2012). The gender gap decreased in primary school years, changing from 36.16% of primary students being female in 1960 to 44.4% in 1968. The gender gap remained large in secondary schools, with 22.0% of secondary students being female in 1960 to 25.9% of secondary students being female in 1968 (Lambert, Perrino, Barreras, 2012).

2.2.4 Women's Education

It is argued that right from the inception of western formal education, women have always been disadvantaged and that their educational prospects have not changed dramatically with the changes of political power. In post-independence Ghana, women continue to be underrepresented in the educational system and particularly at the higher levels. Consequently, their participation in professional careers is marginal. The underrepresentation of women, particularly at the higher levels of the academic and occupational ladder, has been a well-documented, persistent phenomenon for many years (Morley, 2005; Bagihole, 2002).

The core objective of achieving gender equality is the education of girls and women and the eradication of barriers to education and opportunities for their advancement.



The lack of education and cultural perceptions of women's roles in the society are the major contributory factors to women's low participation in national decision making. Illiteracy among women is the result of the tacit belief that men are superior and should be given the first option in the allocation of limited family resources. The economic benefits of addressing and reducing barriers to women's education and engagement in the workforce can be substantial.

In solving the problem of global poverty and extremism, a growing number of organizations and governments are focusing on women and girl's education as the most effective way (Jackson, 2009). Education is important for more than just the knowledge and skills gained by individuals but Personal development and growth of people are also important aspects of education. Higher education is recognized for this emphasis on the personal growth and development of its students. Developing confidence, broadening one's perspective, expanding analytical skills, encouraging creative problem solving and developing communication and leadership skills are all important benefits of higher education (Koch, Thorp, Bravo, Gatica, Romero, Aguilera and Ahlers, 2012).

Anamuah-Mensah (1995) identified education as an important leverage for pushing women into public office. According to him, several attitudes in society tend to discourage higher educational attainment among females. As women climb the academic ladder, their participation continues to dwindle. People behave according to societal expectations about their gender role and the expectation that women will be



more caring and relationship-oriented than men largely accounts for different approaches to leadership based on gender. AnamuahMensah (1995) echoed from a female standpoint that, the downside of this process is that the view of women as nurturing may lead to a rationalization of women holding supportive roles, leaving men typically to play leadership roles. This situation is compounded by the cultural and traditional setting of the people that relegates women into subservient positions in society.

Education is a significant indicator of women's status in a given society. The mission of the Ministry of Education is to provide relevant education to all Ghanaians at all levels to enable them to acquire skills that will assist them to develop their potential, to be productive, to facilitate poverty reduction and to promote socioeconomic growth and national development (Kwapong, 2010). Education has been perceived as a panacea for solving the social ills in the Third World countries. Currently, the World Bank and other developmental agencies have on their priority agenda the education of Third World women. This is noted in the final report of the Inter-Agency Commission on the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA, 1990).

Academic education was expected to open doors to prestigious white collar jobs (Wamahiu, 1992). However, lack of both vocational skills and possession of "weak" academic training, lead to the exclusion and marginalization of women in the labour force. The most urgent priority is to ensure access to, and improve the quality of



education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their active participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated (WCEFA, 1990).

The underrepresentation of women, particularly at the higher levels of the academic and occupational ladder, has been a well-documented, persistent phenomenon for many years (Morley, 2005; Bagihole, 2002; DeGeorgio-Lutz, 2002; Luke, 2001). DiGeorgio-Lutz (2002) asserts that despite the fact that women constitute the majority in a numerical sense, women in higher education still remain relatively voiceless minority populations when it comes to defining values, goals, and ever evolving mission statements. This case is not different in developing countries. In fact, the situation is aggravated in Africa where most societies are patriarchal and women are expected to bear demanding domestic responsibilities, with little or no help from their husbands.

Thus, it is very difficult for women to leave their families to further their studies in higher education for career advancement. The task of combining motherhood with the demands of an academic life is a challenging one for most women and militates against their career development, in the higher education context which defines relevant experience and merit in way that favors male career trajectories (Bagihole, 2002). Simone (1987) noted that compared with men, academic women are significantly more likely to never marry, to be divorced, to report less-stable marriages, to have fewer children, and to see their families as detriments to their



careers. Those academic women who are married are more likely to be working or studying part-time, to hold lower-level positions, to be unemployed, or to be in a job unrelated to their training.

Luke (2001) indicates that the initial appointment of women to lower classification levels puts them at a structural disadvantage by increasing the time needed to ascend academic ladders and by reducing their access to influential committees, to senior researchers with whom they might network and collaborate, and to other women who could serve as role models or support and mentor them. A study conducted by UNESCO and the Commonwealth Secretariat, revealed that critical barriers to women participating in the decision-making arena are lack of access to higher education, the stress of dual family and professional roles, family attitudes, and cultural stereotyping. Research demonstrates that investment in women, and more specifically women's education, has numerous positive effects on not only the women but also her children and family. These outcomes including: 1) reduction in female fertility rates; 2) lower infant and child mortality rates; 3) lower maternal mortality rates; 4) increase in women's labor force participation; 5) fosters educational investment in children (Jackson, 2009).

Results from international studies show that higher rates of female enrolments in education equate with higher levels of economic productivity, lower infant mortality, lower fertility and longer life expectancies (World Bank, 2009). President Obama in his June 4, 2009, address at Cairo University underscored the wisdom of investing



in women's education and acknowledged the importance of the advancement of women as a global issue. As United Nations Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali said, without progress in the situation of women, there can be no true social development. Human rights are not worthy of the name if they exclude the female which constitute half of humanity.

The struggle for women's equality is part of the struggle of a better world for all human beings, and all societies (Klasen 2002). In the mid-1980s, Burke and Vinnecombe (2006), referred to the term "glass ceiling" as an invisible yet impermeable barrier that restricts the career advancement of women. The term has then been used by different authors as "sticky floors" and "concrete walls" referring to similar and related difficulties talented women go through in pursuing their careers in medium and large organizations. Klasen(2002) estimates the effect of the gender gap in years of total schooling in the adult population on per capita income growth, using cross-country and panel regressions for the 1960–92 period for 109 industrial and developing countries. He finds that the direct and indirect effects of gender inequality in educational attainment account for 0.95 percentage points of the 2.5 percentage point gap in growth rates between South Asia and East Asia; 0.56 percentage points of the 3.3 percentage point gap between Sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia; and 0.85 percentage points of the 1.9 percentage point gap between the Middle East and North Africa and East Asia.



2.2.5 Women's Career Development

Even though more women are entering the business world, once again, a problem rises where few of them are represented in top management positions, while those who are fortunate to hold senior positions find it difficult to advance their careers. Research has documented barriers that prevent women from advancing in their careers. The existence of male stereotyping around the executive role, lack of support, and exclusion from networks are reported by Tharenou (1999).

Other identified barriers for women include the absence of effective management training programs, access to training and development opportunities, inadequate compensation systems, inflexibility of work schedules, and absence of programs to balance work-life demands (Mattis, 1994). Women career development is determined by individuals' personal agency, including one's preferences, values, interests and aspirations, their environmental constraints and opportunities, and their life context. Poindexter (1993) suggested that women's perspectives, goals, and needs must be addressed and understood if organizations, governments and NGOs want to serve women employees better. At the heart of achieving gender equality is the education of girls and women and the removal of barriers to education and opportunities for their advancement.

Access to higher education and a high status career leads to many social and personal gains. There is direct relationship between education and career development; women



who have had access to formal education have greater opportunity to gain employment and develop their careers. Research supports the idea that the more education a woman receives, the more likely she is to engage in paid employment (Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Schiffler, 1975). Women themselves have tended to associate a postsecondary degree with success and increased salary, thus perceiving a greater payoff to pursuing postsecondary education than men (Troupoucis, 2004). It is through education that women are able to develop their critical thinking to unearth their potential and develop their careers along those lines. These very gains cause social and personal pain. Most women experience marital strain, denial of affinitive needs, socio-cultural strain and excessive demands from their relatives on account of being thought to be overeducated, independent and uncontrollable.

In pursuit of higher education to develop their careers, women are confronted with various setbacks as such financial difficulties, lack of mentors and sponsors, family and societal problems. To add up, a study of women's educational participation and attainment by King and Hill (1993) shows that there are several family, socioeconomic and school factors militating against equal education for equal results for both males and females. Training and development initiatives provide women with the skills, credentials, and knowledge they need to succeed in their jobs. However, Tharenou (2001) found that training and development, along with education and challenging assignments, predict advancement only into middle management. As stated earlier, in a study



conducted by Bae (2002), it was found that women in the USA are less likely to be trained than men. Training and development opportunities are believed to enhance employee overall achievement and performance. A major factor contributing to women's development and participation in managerial work is access to education, training and development initiatives (Wirth, 2001).

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This study dwells on two broad theoretical orientations: Women's Career Development Theories and Women's Education Theories. Under the women's career development theoretical tradition, the following theories or models were found to be relevant: Hackett and Bentz's Self-efficacy Model; Gottfredson's Circumscription Theory; Farmer's Multidimensional Model; and Astin's SocioPsychological Model. First, the Women's Career Development Theories are presented which are then followed by the Women's Education Theories.

2.3.1 Women's Career Development Theories

Though, many approaches, theories and paradigms exist within the career field, it is important that they are recognized as necessary ways to organize, shape or even reform our thinking about career and career intervention (Young and Popadiuk, 2012; Patton and McMahon, 2014). Leung and Yuen (2012) have proposed four limitations of career development theories to include (a) personal variables rather than contextual and cultural variable, (b) self-actualization and job satisfaction as goals of



career choice, (c) high levels of free choice and opportunities to make several decisions over time, and (d) developing practices and resources that are culture based and cannot easily be transported to other contexts.

Traditional career development theories are theories that tend to concentrate more on personal variables such as individual's values, beliefs, aspirations and experiences. More importantly, traditional career development theories have been criticized for their inability to recognize the gender differentials in career development between men and women. For instance, Patton and McMahon (2014) have argued that "much of the existing theory has been criticized for not adequately taking into account issues of socio-economic status, women and racial and ethnic groups and people with disabilities." Hoi (1998) criticized these theories as having emanated from the experiences of white and middle-class males.

Many researchers (Okocha, 1994, Fouad and Arbona, 1994, Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987, Perun and Bielby, 1981 and Betz and Crites, 1980) have questioned the relevance of these theories to other groups such as women, minority and ethnic groups and also persons with disabilities (Hoi, 1998). Huang (2006) has argued that traditional career theories have tended to be based on stable working environment and focused on only men and on single work roles. However, after the industrial revolution, women's careers have been constantly characterized by negotiations for multiple roles and frequent job changes which led to frequent women career changes.



For the post-industrial era, Huang (2006) asserted that women have been engaged in paid employment than any other era conceivable. Alongside their paid employment, women still take up their homemaking responsibilities which make it considerably difficult for women to strike a balance between their work and home responsibilities. As a result of these multiple roles of women, they are often found at the low level occupations such messengers, general nursing and are always discouraged from developing their careers to the detriment of their reproductive roles.

O'Neil and Bilimoroa (2005) have also recognized that much of the literature (Bateson, 1990; Gallos, 1989) suggest that women's career progresses differently from men as a result of developmental differences between men and women as well as organizational and societal factors. There is therefore, the need for gender distinct theories to take into account the expanded occupational opportunities now faced by women and to explicitly address the lives, experiences and issues of women in the workforce.

From the early 1980s, theories related to women's career development began to emerge (Hoi and Hiebert, 2005; Hoi, 1998) and these comprise Astin's (1984) Socio-psychological Model, Farmer's (1985) Multidimensional Model Gottfredson's, (1981) Circumscription Theory and Hackett and Betz's (1981) Self efficacy Model. These theories improved on earlier theories by taking into account variables which influence women's career choices, aspirations, and work behaviors (Hoi and Hiebert, 2005). These theories are examined below.



Hackett and Betz's Self-efficacy Model

Hackett and Betz (1981) formulated a career development model which was based on Bandura's (1977) notion of self-efficacy, and attempted to explain some of the processes involved in men's and women's career pursuits and their beliefs about achievement (Hoi and Hiebert, 2005 and Hoi, 1998). Thus, self-efficacy tends to explain the processes by which traditional gender role socialization influences men's and women's self-referent evaluations in relation to career choices. Hoi and Hiebert (2005), but also Hoi (1998) further argue that women in general lack strong efficacy expectations in relation to career-related behaviors because they are less likely than men to be encouraged to develop their own career paths and have fewer female role models who are successful. They believe that self-efficacy can explain why some women do not fully develop their capabilities and talents in their career pursuit. Elucidating the Self-efficacy Theory, Patton (2013), attempted to explain the process of influence between socialization and career behavior using the four sources of self-efficacy developed by Bandura (1977). These sources included performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences (e.g., through role models), verbal persuasion, or the support and encouragement of others, and emotional arousal with reference to a behavior or domain of behavior (the higher the arousal or anxiety, the reduction in self-efficacy).

As an example, specifically related to women's educational and career behavior, if a woman had a level of success in Mathematics, was aware of other women successful



in Mathematics related fields, received support and encouragement from others and had a low level of Mathematics anxiety, she would be expected to develop high self-efficacy expectations in relation to Mathematics. In formulating their theory, Hackett and Betz (1981 cited in Patton, 2013) reviewed evidence which showed the differences in relation to the efficacy of information received by women and men. This information difference resulted in a broader variety of career options exposed to men than to women.

Despite the considerable land mark of achievements of this model on its concentration on women's career development, it has been criticized for its potential of being generalized to explain the career development of members of minority ethnic groups and so in a manner of speaking, this model of career development cannot be used among minority groups (Hoi, 1998). Hackett and Betz's (1981) self-efficacy model also lacks specificity. It turns to incorporate men's career development in its focus instead of examining into detail the continuities and discontinuities in women's career development.

Gottfredson's Circumscription Theory

Gottfredson (1981) developed a model which incorporated several elements from earlier theories, namely: self-concept, developmental stages, and match between individuals and occupation (Hoi and Hiebert, 2005). According to them, Gottfredson (1981) expanded on Super's (1963, 1953, 1951) idea that individuals seek jobs that



33 are compatible with their self-concept. Gottfredson (1981; cited in Hoi and Hiebert, 2005) suggested that a multi-faceted self-concept, influenced by variables such as gender, social class, and intelligence, plays a significant role in predicting occupational aspirations and career choices. Hoi and Hiebert (2005) explained that Gottfredson's (1981) model addresses women's career development in two different ways. First, it discusses the process of how individuals reach a compromise when they face conflicting goals.

Second, those individuals' perceptions of career and training opportunities play a significant role in determining their occupational aspirations and choices (Gutek and Larwood, 1987). Gottfredson (1981) postulates, in the view of Hoi and Hiebert (2005), that when career choice compromises are necessary, individuals are more ready to sacrifice their interests than to be in an occupation that is not "appropriate" for their gender, such as not compatible with a gender-stereotypic self-concept. The compromise process is particularly useful for understanding why women attempt to juggle priorities such as societal expectations, family obligations, and career aspirations. It also somewhat explains why women are concentrated in lower-pay and lower-status occupations despite their interests and aspirations.

Women's career development is still limited by restricted occupational choices, unequal pay, stereotypes, and lack of role models who have broken the mold (US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1991; Brooks, 1990; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987 cited in Hoi and Hiebert (2005). Patton (2013) agrees with Hoi and



Hiebert (2005) that Gottfredson (1981) focused on processes of circumscription and compromise relevant to women and men. Patton (2013) adds that Gottfredson (1981) developed the Self-Concept Theory further, and also extended the integration between psychological and environmental variables, by proposing that self-concept is a merger between the psychological variables and environmental variables involved in career choice. Gottfredson (1981) further proposed that self-concept (being derived from and related to gender, social class, intelligence, interests and values) interacts with occupational images (sex type, prestige, and field of work) to determine an individual's occupational preferences.

Together with perceptions of job accessibility which incorporate perceptions of opportunities and barriers, a range of acceptable alternatives is formulated. Her model highlights the relevance of sex role in the socialization of women and men, whereby individuals make decisions based on sex type of occupations and perceptions of opportunities and barriers. Gender type, for example, influences career choice because individuals narrow their perceived appropriate occupational alternatives based on societal notions of gender appropriate careers. In addition, Gottfredson (1981), cited in Patton (2013), asserted that the age at which individuals will narrow their occupational alternatives is between six (6) and eight (8), and that once this circumscription (narrowing) is set, individuals will rarely consider outside it. Gottfredson (1981) also maintains that individuals make compromises between preferences and employment realities and that when these compromises are made,



individuals sacrifice first their interests (field of work), and then their desired prestige levels, and last their preferred sex type.

This proposition reinforces the perceived importance of gender role stereotypes in career choice (Patton, 2013). Although Gottfredson's (1981) circumscription theory appeared to have explained how women remained on low-paying jobs, this theory is similar to traditional career development theories like those of Super (1986, 1953 and 1951). Gottfredson's (1981) attempt therefore, lacks the theoretical ability to clearly examine issues of women's career development.

Farmer's Multidimensional Model

Farmer (1985) presented a multidimensional model of career and achievement motivation for women and men. This model was influenced by Bandura's (1978) Social Learning Theory, which maintained that psychological functioning involves a continuous reciprocal interaction between behavioral, cognitive, and environmental influence (Bandura, 1978). In her model, Farmer (1985) proposed that three sets of variables (background, environment, and personal) interact to influence the aspiration, mastery, and career commitment of men and women.

Background variables such as age, gender, and ethnicity influence a person's developing self-concept, aspiration, achievement motivation, and the way the environment is perceived. The developing self-concept is further influenced by interaction with the environment, including experiences at school and support from



family and teachers. Personal variables such as academic self-esteem and achievement styles in turn set limit to the influences of environment and have been found to influence career and achievement motivation.

It is Farmer's (1985) contention that changes in society's attitude towards women working may influence changes in men's and women's achievement in the future (Hoi and Hiebert, 2005). In the view of Patton (2013), Farmer (1985) proposed that background characteristics and personal variables interact to foster achievement and career motivation. Background variables (e.g. gender, race, social class, school location, age), interact with personal psychological variables (e.g., self-esteem, values, homemaking attitude and commitment, success attributions), and environmental variables (e.g. societal attitude to women working, support from teachers and parents). These variables in turn are hypothesised to influence three motivational factors: level of aspirations, mastery strivings, and career commitment.

Research testing this model has generally supported the salience of background factors such as gender-based attitudes, support, and commitment to career and family in career aspirations and choices (Patton, 2013). Like Gottfredson's (1981) theory, Farmer's (1985) multidimensional model is also hinged on traditional career development theories like Bandura's (1978). Its name even suggests its theoretical inability to clearly examine issues of women's career development more specifically. Hoi (1998) also criticized Farmer's (1985) multidimensional model on the ground



that the age range of her sample may limit the generalization of her model to other groups.

Astin's Socio-Psychological Model

During the 1980s there were a number of attempts to develop career development theories applicable to both men and women (Patton, 2013). Efforts by Astin (1984), for instance, also reflected early attempts to integrate individual and environmental influences in explaining career behaviour. Astin's (1984) model in the view of Hoi and Hiebert (2005), attempted to incorporate sociological as well as psychological factors, emphasizing that both psychological factors and cultural environmental factors interact to influence career choice and work behavior. Astin's (1984 cited in Patton, 2013 and Hoi and Hiebert, 2005) model includes four inter-related factors: motivation, work expectations, socialization, and structure of opportunity. Patton (2013) also found four factors in relation to Astin's (1984) model: motivation, work expectations, sex role socialization, and the structure of opportunity.

Patton (2013) argues that Astin (1984) proposed that an individual's motivation for work behaviour is related to the need for survival, pleasure and the making of a societal contribution. Career choices therefore are related to accessibility of various occupations, and the expectation of the individual that these three needs will be met. She acknowledges that these expectations are related to early gendered socialization, and the structure of opportunity, each of which interacts with the other. Factors



incorporated within the structure of opportunity include distribution of jobs, sex typing of jobs, discrimination, job requirements, the economy, and reproductive technology.

Astin (1984), emphasised that changes in the structure of opportunity (for example in reproductive technology) can lead to considerable change in women's career expectations (Patton, 2013). Figure 2.1 shows the Astin (1984) Socio-Psychological Model of women's career development.

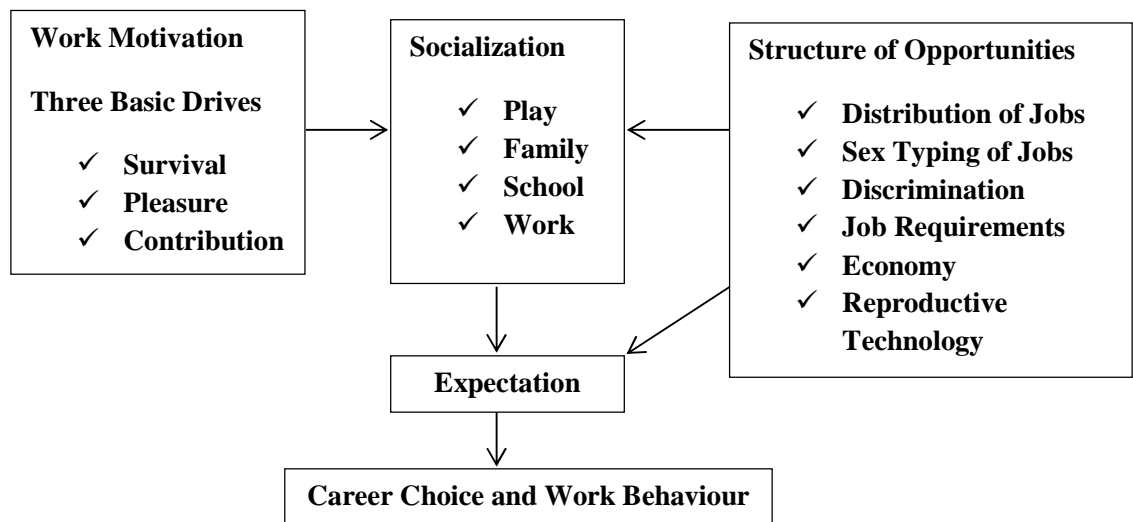


Figure 2.1: Astin's (1984) Socio-Psychological Model of Women's Career Development

Source: Adopted and modified from Hoi (1998)



Although Astin's (1984) theory has been criticized by Hoi (1998) for little research on it by other researchers which in itself is contestable, this theory by far seems to delve much into women's career development and other related issues in four ways: (1) Astin's (1984) model was based on an invitation to prepare a comprehensive yet parsimonious theoretical statement on women's career development (Patton, 2013); (2) Astin's (1984) inclusion of cultural-environmental factors in her model enhances its efficacy in understanding career choice and work behavior in today's world; (3.)It also has the potential to address the career development of ethnic minorities who are faced with internal and external barriers (Coleman and Barker, 1992); and (4) With the rapid development of the world's economic and sociopolitical climate, Astin's (1984) model could be used to understand such career related issues as life/career transition and career adjustment in people's lives.

Implied in the conceptualization of the opportunity structure for instance, is the significance of individuals' perception and/or awareness of available options in the world of work. As such, opportunity structure could also help explain the differential career expectations and choices of men and women (Hoi and Hiebert, 2005). Other researchers have regarded Astin's (1984) model as having potential in both research and practice (Brooks, 1990; Gilbert, 1984) for examining women's specific issues.

Using Astin's (1984) four inter-related factors: motivation, work expectations, socialization, and structure of opportunity, this study will examine (1) how women are motivated or otherwise to develop their careers along certain lines; (2) how



women are expected to deliver in their work places at the course of developing their careers; (3) how the socialization of women affect their career development; and (4) the opportunities that exist for the career development of women in workplaces in the Tamale Metropolis. Furthermore, the structure of opportunity constructs in Astin's (1984) model is an important determining factor in the decision to use it as a theoretical framework in Hoi and Hebert's (2005) study and also in my study.

2.3.2 Women's Education Theories

Theories on women's education have their roots in the writings of scholars such as, Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-1797), John Stuart Mill (1806-1873), and Harriet Taylor Mill (1807-1858). Writers such Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778), had explicitly argued that men and women were by nature not merely different in kind but different in "natural rank", with women being weaker physically, intellectually, and emotionally. Men were said to be more rational, women more emotional and therefore their respective education should reflect these differences. According to Rosseau girls should not be given equal opportunities when it comes to education. He asserts that female education ought to be directed to one point: to render them pleasing. Rosseau further demonstrates that men and women are not, nor ought to, constituted alike in temperament and character. Girls and for that matter women should be educated separately if the need be for women to be educated.



By implication women's education should be tailored toward home managing and care given. Women should be taught anatomy and medicine to make them rational nurses of their husbands, infants and parents. On the other hand, few philosophers, such as Locke (1632-1704) and Wollstonecraft (1759-1797) had argued that the sexes should receive the same education and that they shared equal rights and responsibilities with respect to their children. In vindication of the rights of woman, Wollstonecraft wrote that many of the supposed differences between the sexes were either fabricated or exaggerated and therefore could not be used as the basis for differential rights and roles. Imposing different educational expectations on men and women was not only unjust but also counterproductive, tending to create less productive female citizens with "artificial weak characters".

Both sexes, Wollstonecraft (1759-1797) argued, have the capacity to reason; hence both should be educated as to enhance their rationality, which she defined as the ability to act as fully responsible moral agents. The realization of this ability would provide self-fulfillment for the moral agent and benefit society. On this account, women needed to become more rational, but there was no reason for men to cultivate their emotions. The main reasons for women's state are their lack of education, faulty education and societal position. For women to acquire sufficient education to enable them earn their own subsistence which is the true definition of independence, then Wollstonecraft radical notion that women and men should be educated together must be applied.



The modern liberal feminist theoretical framework argues in line with the theory of Vindication of the Right of Women. The liberal feminism advocates for equal opportunities and right in society for women (Stromquit, 1990; Acker 1987). Discrimination and stereotyping against women in the workplace and the society have created a situation where women have fewer chances of higher education and hence career development. Even methods of teaching are most often discriminatory in nature. Right from the classroom women and girls are not given the opportunity to express themselves, they are voiceless and are not encouraged to be seen as active participant in the educational process. Freire (1970/2000) uses the term dialogical education in arguing for an all process where individual thought is expressed, valued, and negotiated through Communication.

By valuing dialogue, education fosters conversations between people instead of insisting on a one way flow of information from teacher to student (Freire, 1970/2000; Shor and Freire, 1987). Further, within dialogue, educators must also recognize the knowledge and experience that students bring as legitimate knowing (Freire, 1970/ 2000; Hooks, 1994). Post development theory advocates a recognition and respect for local and indigenous knowledge (Elabor-Idemudia, 2002; Nzomo, 1995), a need for Majority of the World women to become participants in instead of recipients of development (Elabor-Idemudia, 2002; Chowdhry, 1995), and an understanding that people have knowledge and abilities to collaborates, to construct new knowing and to participate in problem solving (Parpart, 1995).



2.3.3 Towards an Analytical Framework

This study adopts the modern liberal feminist theoretical framework which argues in line with the model of Wollstonecraft (1759-1797). The liberal feminism advocates for equal opportunities and right in society for women (Stromquit, 1990 and Acker, 1987). These equal opportunities and rights include equal opportunities in higher education, employment, career progression, promotion and household division of labour. This study examines how the liberal feminist model influences the four interrelated factors of Astin's (1984) model. Hence, this study will examine (1) how women are motivated or otherwise to develop their careers along certain lines; (2) how women are expected to deliver in their work places in the course of developing their careers; (3) how the socialization of women affects their career development; and (4) the opportunities that exist for the career development of women in workplaces in the Tamale Metropolis.

2.4 Factors Motivating Women's Education Advancement

There is a current development policy emphasizes on human resource development, in general, and women's education, in particular because of the impact women's education has on economic efficiency and social welfare. Shah (2015) stated that with the increase in women's education, the economic efficiency and the social welfare of a country increases. On a similar ground, Mujahid-Mukhtar (2008) mentioned that investment in education is an important economic investment with



long-term benefits. Thus, its impact on rates of return and efficient allocation of resources.

Quite a number of studies show that increasing women's education boosts women's wages, which frequently results in women having a larger return on education than men (Schultz, 2002). Empirical evidence also shows that an increase in women's education improves human development outcomes such as child survival, health, and schooling (Morssion, Raju, & Sinha, 2007). Arguably, education is the most important instrument for human resource development (Chaudhry, 2009).

2.5 Factors Demotivating Women's Educational Advancement

Women's access to education has been recognized as a fundamental right because at all levels, educating women results in improved productivity, economic development and a better quality of life, notably a healthier and better nourished population. It is important to identify all kinds of demographic, cultural, religious, economic, political and job factors that influence women's educational advancement. This is in line with the findings of Shah, (2015) who revealed that distance from educational institutions, sacrifices by the family, support from family, narrators as the first generation of women to attend school, early memories of school including severe winters and corporal punishment, and feminist touchstones affect women's education.



2.5.1 Geographical Factors

Education in general differs in terms of geography. Brock & Cammish (1997) argued that geographical differences in education among sexes relates directly to factors such as physical access to educational opportunities. There is also an overall and profound urban/rural dichotomy which favours towns and cities, especially in respect to patterns of transportation and migration affect educational provision, disadvantaging females the most. Shan (2015) observed that distance between homes and the educational institutions they attend is one of the barriers that females as students in the developing world face. For example, Marks and Fleming (1999) observed that students living in non-metropolitan areas are more likely to leave school before completing Year 12, and less likely to participate in higher education (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Htun and Jones, 2002).

Chudgar & Shafiq (2010) maintained that in South Asia, one of the main reasons for a low rate of females enrolled in school can be credited to the distance from educational institutions. They further argued that distance is a problem not only in terms of walking for long periods of time, but also other “social evils” associated with the distance from school. It is generally reported that education progression has been found to be important determinant of regional economic growth and vice versa. Prussia, Becker and Woessmann (2009) show that educational differences is causally explained regional by income differences, and Becker, Cinnirella and Woessmann (2011) found that pre-industrial regional differences in basic education explain a



significant part of regional differences in industrialization. Andersson, Duvander, and Hank (2004, 2009) find that higher education increases with regional innovation and productivity growth. So females, especially in developing countries may be more disadvantaged in terms of education because economic differences. Also, male-dominated societies such as Asia and Africa do not readily pay attention to women's education (Shah, 2015).

2.5.2 Family-related Issues

The socio-economic status of families, especially in developing countries to be a key factor determining educational outcomes (Buchmann & Hannum, 2001, 2005). Family background of the female defers her education. This is in support of Emohua (2006) and Dala (2008) who found that uneven socio-economic status of family is a barrier to female education. Their investigation also revealed that marriage institution and cultural beliefs have negligible influence on girl child education. Fassinger (1990) pointed out, past research has supported a negative relationship between being both a wife and mother and developing one's career. The findings of Jazairy, Alamgir and Panuccio (1992) cited in Wokem (2002) also revealed that pregnancy hinder women employment. However, having liberal gender role attitudes helps women engage more fully in their own career development as opposed to more traditional attitudes (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Fassinger, 1990; Flores & O'Brien, 2002).



Coleman (1988) report some important factors influencing a family's decision to educate females is family characteristics, including income, parents' level of education, family structure, religion, ethnicity, caste, and parental engagement; each directly influences the time and resources dedicated to children's educational outcomes. This was confirmed in the research work carried out by Morrison, Rudd, and Nerad in 2011 when it was found that parenting young children was a barrier at all levels of the pipeline for women, and that married men advanced faster through the tenure process than married women. In other words, the educational advantage that children enjoy from the relationships with their families is sometimes considered family-level social capital.

2.5.3 Socio-Cultural Factors

Traditional societies' development is often affected by cultural beliefs. A major deterrent to female take up and follow through of educational opportunities is a near universal fundamental cultural bias in favour of males. The widespread operation of patriarchal systems of social organization; of customary early marriage; of the incidence of early pregnancy of heavier domestic and subsistence duties of females; a generally lower regard for the value of female life, all combine though differentially in each case, to adversely affect the participation of girls and women in formal education (Brock & Cammish, 1997). Oyitso & Olomukoro (2012) say the education of women has made ineffective the traditional belief that the place of the woman is the home. In the view of Chudgar and Shafiq (2010), social and cultural beliefs are



important in influencing female education. Khattak, Habib and Khan (2008) stated that cultural beliefs have been found to encourage negative attitudes, which limit family and community support for girls' education.

2.5.4 Economic Factors

Igube (2004) stated that financial difficulties and poverty are factors preventing the majority of women from obtaining the higher education. In traditional societies, fundamental resources are in favour or possession of men, and for that matter the economic factor, especially in terms of grinding poverty is probably the most influential in adversely affecting female participation in education, especially in rural areas (Brock & Cammish, 1997). In most cases the contribution of females is unpaid and they may have little or no experience of the handling of money which further reduces their status and power, but increases their vulnerability.

Also, family income facilitates household ability to pay for food, water, shelter, clothing, transportation, health care, and the direct costs of education, such as tuition, fees, supplies, transportation, and private tutoring (Shan, 2015). Therefore, a family with low economic status typically affects female education more negatively than male education (Chudgar & Shafiq, 2010). According to Mujahid-Mukhtar (2008), in most areas investment in male's education is more important as males can get goodpaying jobs based on the level of their education and in return will be able to take better care of their aging parents.



2.5.5 Religion

Brock & Cammish (1997) elaborated that although in general acting indirectly, the religious factor act directly and indirectly to overcome the fundamental sociocultural bias in favour of males. It has been found that more traditional societies and families are usually more hesitant to support females' education, thus depriving families and communities of the benefits of educated women (Schultz, 2002). Shan (2015) concurs, stating that religion, thus, the more conservative religious beliefs do not allow women to leave the boundaries of their homes. The fact that most religious practitioners and leaders are male makes for a powerful image in favour of that sex, and it would be a very helpful move if religious leaders of all faiths and denominations were to speak out strongly in support of the female cause (Brock & Cammish (1997).

Brock & Cammish (1997) support these notions about religious supports in women's education, stating that Christian missions have, in various areas, had a most positive effect on female education and literacy levels, though some have a legacy of harsh sanctions in respect of early pregnancy. In Islamic are as the situation is generally not so supportive but a number of positive trends were apparent. The religious significance of sons in the Hindu family, while still operative, no longer seems in itself to disadvantage daughters. Chudgar & Safiq (2010), in line with many authors note that women's education is opposed as it is often believed that highly-educated women would present a threat to deep-rooted tribal and religious traditions.



2.5.6 Legal Factors

Brock & Cammish (1997) explained that legal factors act indirect to affect women's education. In many countries, legislated for equal status in respect of sex, but this is usually a recent innovation and traditional sanctions often still operate unchallenged. Nwankwo (1980) examined the legal provision for employment as it affects women and found that a woman shall not be permitted to work for six weeks and should be allowed half an hour twice a week if she is nursing a baby. The encouragement and support for more females to seek and develop careers in various areas of this profession could be a very significant development in respect of female participation in education.

2.5.7 Political Factors

It is generally argued that in spite of the discomfort this might have on educationists, there is always in existence some form of relationship between education and politics. In this sense, all or at least a significant number of educational issues are also political issues (Amin, 2005). Brock & Cammish (1997) maintained that although political influence exist in most cases for such developments as equal educational opportunities in terms of gender, the political will to carry these through seems to be weak in the face of severe economic constraint.



2.6 Tools and strategies for Educational advancement and Career advancement

While a number of opportunities exist for women to advance their education and career, Binti and others (2014) reported that, women's commitment to family, limited access to professional training and development opportunities, and lack of informal networks, mentoring systems, and organizational support, along with gender bias and male employees' failure to take women seriously are important factors hindering women's career advancement. Ezzedeen and Ritchey (2009) suggest multiple career advancement and career-family balance strategies as important solutions for women's education and career development, including professional and personal support, value systems, and life-course strategies, such as ordering of career and family, negotiating spousal support and deciding whether to have children. Many organizations and companies proactively seek to empower women to scale the corporate ladder by offering more opportunities for female leaders, allowing flexible work schedules, creating leadership development programs, organizing mentoring programs, and forming corporate women's networks (McDonagh and Paris, 2012).

Kemp and Madsen (2014) also recommended a range of flexible working arrangements, such as part-time employment, flexible working hours, and teleworking, and facilitation of promotional opportunities to help women advance their education and career development. Harris et al. (2011) found that for women to



advance in their education and careers, mentoring were strongly recommended because mentors and networking may help women access significant information and opportunities for career advancement. The importance of mentoring was also confirmed by Peters (2011) in the study of African American women achieving tenure in the field of educational leadership. Support from family is also one of the tools employed by professional career women for educational and career advancement.

Cheung and Halpern (2010) reported that women leaders in various studies all mentioned the importance of family support in achieving their top positions. While the extended family provided great help with housework and childcare, the husbands could also take on a substantial share of household chores or take the role of the trailing spouse, being willing to move to a new location with uncertain career prospects for the advancement of their wife's career. Family and partner support were also recognized as playing an important role in women's education and career development (Turner 2007). Senior academic women seem to demonstrate very strong personalities such as being self-motivated, independent and hardworking.

Twombly (1998) found that to rise to the top of their professions these women were determined not to be left behind by trying their best to survive many battles through their own excellence, tenacity, and political skill. They also worked twice as hard as their male colleagues to succeed. In a study of narratives drawn from women aspiring



to leadership and management in nine different educational contexts, from very different parts of the world, Cubillo and Brown (2003) similarly found that although they had to face hostile male-dominated cultures, these women appeared to be extremely independent, confident and self-motivated. In studying pathways to leadership Blackwood and Brown-Welty (2011) also found that these women always tried to be the best in their position. Working hard and working smart were also the strategies employed by a number of other female leaders and managers (Cheung and Halpern, 2010).

2.7 Work, Home and Societal Expectations of Professional Women

Research has shown that women, particularly those in traditional societies, are expected to take more family responsibilities than men, such as solely caregiving for their children, husband, and extended family. They are also required to do more domestic work and such role expectations have been found to be an important obstacle in academic career progression for women (Neale and Ozkanli 2010). Binti et al. (2014) find that Saudi Muslim women's commitment to family, limited access to professional training and development opportunities, and lack of informal networks, mentoring systems, and organizational support, along with gender bias and male employees' failure to take women seriously, are important factors hindering women's career advancement.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The effectiveness of any research work depends largely on the methodology and the tools adopted for the study. The choice of a research methodology is guided by the theoretical underpinnings of the research scope, its goal and objectives, research problem and data analysis, interpretation and presentation (Yin, 1993). In this Chapter, I present the research methodology employed for the study. It covers profile of the study area, research design, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations.

3.2 Profile of the Study Area

This section presents the profile of the Tamale Metropolis which is one of 20 local government administrative areas in the Northern Region. Tamale, the capital city is also the capital of the Region, where people of required professional backgrounds are found. It begins with the establishment of the Metropolis, the structure of the Assembly, economic activities and population issues.



3.2.1 Establishment of the Metropolitan

The Tamale Metropolitan Assembly (TaMA) was established under Legislative Instrument (L.I) 1801 of 2004. It is one of six Metropolitan Assemblies in the country and the only Metropolis in the northern part of Ghana. TaMA has three sub metros comprising Tamale Central, Tamale North and Tamale South (Tamale Metropolitan Assembly, 2012).

3.2.2 Location and Size

TaMA shares boundaries with six other districts namely the Savelugu Municipality and Nanton District to the north, Yendi Municipality to the east, Sagnerigu to the west, and Central Gonja and East Gonja, to the south. The Metropolis has an estimated total land size of 750 km² which is about 13% of the total land area of the Northern Region. Geographically, the Metropolis lies between latitude 9°16 and 9° 34 North and longitudes 0° 36 and 0° 57 West (Tamale Metropolitan Assembly, 2012).

3.2.3 Structure of the Assembly

The Assembly has a total membership of 97 of which 64 are elected, 29 Government appointees, three (3) Members of Parliament and the Metropolitan Chief Executive. There are a total of 197 communities in the Metropolis of which 33 are urban communities. Most of the rural communities still lack basic social and economic



infrastructure such as good road network, school blocks, hospitals, markets and recreational centres (Tamale Metropolitan Assembly, 2012).

3.2.4 Population Structure

The population of the Metropolis is growing rapid in recent years. Over the last few years, Tamale has been noted as the fastest growing city in Ghana, and one of the few in West Africa. Below is the population estimates for the Metropolis in 2010 and 2012.

Table 3 2: Estimated Population of Tamale Metropolis

Year	2010	2012	Percentage
Male	207,328	222,095	50.01
Female	207,220	221,979	49.99
Total	418,608	444,074	100

Source: Tamale Metropolitan Assembly Composite Budget (2012).

3.2.5 Literacy and Education

Of the population of 11 years and above, 60.1 percent are literates and 39.9 percent are illiterates (GSS, 2014). The proportion of literate males (69.2%) is higher than



that of females (51.1%). Of the population aged 3 years and older (84,897) currently attending school in the Metropolis 52.9 percent are males and the remaining 45.1 percent are females. Among those who have attended school in the past, males constitute 58.6 percent and the females represent 41.4 percent. It indicates that among those who attended school in the past and those who are currently attending school, males have higher proportions. Among those currently attending school, 15.1 percent are in nursery, 18.2 percent in JSS/JHS, 12.5 percent in SSS/SHS and the largest proportion (40.0%) are in primary. Only 5.7 percent of the total population in the Metropolis is currently attending tertiary institutions (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010).

3.2.6 Metropolitan Economic Activities

Generally, there has been an increase in growth in the local economy with the expansion of Small and Medium Scale Enterprise development that has led to a reduction in the high unemployment rates. About 42% of the working class are engaged in agriculture and related activities. Majority of the workforce representing 58% are engaged in Sales, Services, Transport and Production. This is as a result of the increase in Marketing, Banking and other Non-Governmental activities in the Metropolis (Tamale Metropolitan Assembly, 2012).



3.2.7 Job Status of Women

A higher proportion (70.5%) of females is self-employed without employees, compared to 51.3 percent for males. The proportion of females who are employed (11.3%) is however comparatively smaller than that of male employees (28.2%). The private informal sector is the largest employer in the Metropolis, employing 83.2 58 percent of the employed population. Public sector is the next highest employer, engaging 11.3 percent of the employed population.

3.3 Research Design

The study employed the mixed research method, including a cross-sectional survey as the methodological framework. Based on the overall objective of this study, which was to investigate and find out the extent to which education aids in women career advancement, taking a strictly passive position would not be useful, the study employed, both quantitative and qualitative methods in the analysis of the data. The use of both quantitative and qualitative **approaches** is a good way of approaching research as it enables you to counteract the weaknesses in both qualitative and quantitative research (Dawson, 2002). The survey was conducted to gather primary data from professional women in the Tamale Metropolis. In the collection of the primary data; a face-to-face interview was conducted for the respondents using a semi-structured questionnaire. Also the study designed a profiling survey to obtain secondary data from the various professions on male and female employees in the



Tamale Metropolis in order to ascertain the differences in educational advancement and career progression among the sexes. The sampling technique employed to select the respondents was the simple random sampling, precisely the lottery method.

3.4 Target Population and Sampling Techniques

According to Kumar (1999), the population is the class/city/electorates from which you select a few students/families/electors, to sample. The targeted groups were the major paid professions within the Metropolis. The choice was justified by the reason that in these professions academic pursuance is necessary for career development. The research population was made up of both male and female professionals in Banking (Staff of Agricultural Development Bank), Judiciary (Tamale High Court), Health (Nurses; staff of Central Hospital), Education (Teachers in Northern School of Business), and Administration (Staff of Metropolitan Education Office) in the Tamale Metropolis. Women in the selected professions were interviewed. Also, for comparison purposes, men were included in the profiling survey.

According to Yin (1993) and Kumepkor (2003) the purpose of research is to be able to draw inferences or make generalizations based on samples of the parameters of the population from which the samples are taken. Sampling is thus a process of selecting a few from a bigger group to become the basis for predicting a fact, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group. Millar (2003) argues that researchers need to



select only a few units from the universe for the purpose of their study in order to generalize for the population as this is often better than the whole population.

The purposive sampling approach was used to select five institutions Tamale Metropolis. This was based on the characteristics that these institutions necessarily require formal education for the recruitment of employees and at times, for job promotions. The convenience sampling was used to select the individual respondents because professional women are mostly busy with their work schedules. A Total of 316 women and men were profiled in five institutional categories namely; Education (81), Administration (17), Health (96), Banking (35) Judiciary (87). For each institutional category, one (1) institution was selected for the profiling making a total of five (institutions). The profiling was done to determine educational dynamics and how women compared to men fare in established professions in the Tamale Metropolis. Also 140 women were interviewed from the five institutions selected. This was to help solicit information on how women are expected to deliver in their work places, home and the society in the course of developing their careers, to find out factors that motivated or demotivated professional women regarding their advancement, examine the tools, strategies and lessons that successful educated professional women employed in their career advancement.



3.5 Data and Data Collection

The study collected and used both primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained from a total of 140 women in five (5) established professions in the Tamale Metropolis. The primary data included information on women's demographic characteristics and years of work, educational dynamics, career progression and ranks/positions, how women fare in their established professions, strategies adopted by women in their educational advancement, factors that motivate or demotivate women in their educational progression, how women are expected to deliver in the home, at the work place and in the society and the lessons and experiences of women in their established professions. The number of employees obtained in the profiling survey varied according to the various established professions. Secondary data were generated from textbooks, journals and reports. These were reviewed as background **literature** and used to frame and inform the analysis. In addition, employee statistics were collected from the five participating institutions and profiled for comparative purposes.

Data were collected through interviews, according to the institutions selected for the sample. Teachers, Administrators, Nurses, Bankers and Judicial Officers who were women employees were interviewed one-on-one. This required a face to face contact with the respondents by using questions to get information from the respondents. The researcher prepared an interview schedule of several specific questions with a prior notice to the different institutions to be able to know the appropriate day and time for



the interview (**Appendix A**). The interview was conducted in the English language since all the respondents could read, write and speak it. The interview lasted for 15 - 25 minutes. In all, 140 women were interviewed by the researcher. And also Profiling guides were sent to the selected institutions to profile the number, ranks and academic qualifications of female and male professionals in the selected institution.

3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods in the analysis. The qualitative statistics such as frequencies and percentages to describe the characteristics of respondents and the various variables in the study. The data were coded, processed and analyzed in the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The analysis of the data was presented into tables and figures while descriptive explanations were done by the researcher. The justification for this choice is founded on the fact that it ensured a vivid impression of the data using pictorial forms such as tables and graphs while at the same time give the author the opportunity to explain the tables and figures generated from the profile, interview and observations of the women in their various professions.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

The researcher adopted appropriate methodological procedures to avoid bias in the sampling procedure and reporting the findings of the study. Thus, findings were reported as they were, not as the researcher thought they should be, regarding



women's education and their career development. Additionally, the researcher took steps to acquaint her with adequate methodological procedures that ensured professionalism in the implementation of the research process. This ensured orderly and systematic execution of the study, and also accuracy and reliability of the findings. The reporting approach involved frantic efforts to ensure that they were correct; by this, the researcher made no attempt to change or slant primary information to suit her personal interest. The information from the field was presented in such a way that any direct or indirect possible adverse effects on the respondents were avoided. An Informed Consent Form was administered to the respondents seeking their consent and explaining the rationale of the study and the confidentiality of the responses that they gave. Each respondent was assured that any information given would only be for the purpose of academic work and that their names would not be attached to the responses they give.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This Chapter presents the results and discussion of the empirical aspects of the study. It reports the analyses of data on the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the various objectives of the study and relevant literature. It highlights key issues of the results with respect to their implications for women's education and career development using the Tamale Metropolis as a case. Descriptive techniques such as frequency distribution, percentages, and graphs were mainly used to analyze, discuss and present the data to form the basis of the analysis and discussion.

4.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The socio-demographic characteristics presented in this study include age, marital status, job description and years of service of women.

4.1.1 Age

Age is a critical variable that influences one's education and professional aspirations. This is because as an individual **advances** in age, the likelihood to pursue further education decreases, and so is the strength to execute challenging jobs and



obligations. From the results, the mean age of the respondents was approximately 38 years. This observation implies a young and active productive and reproductive age group. However, significant proportion (25%) of the respondents were in the age range of 36-40 years (Figure 4.1). Similar study on women career development conducted by Patwardhan, Mayya and Joshi (2015) reported that majority (71.2%) of the women sampled for study were in the age bracket of 26-36 years. The least number of respondents in the study were in the age range of 56-60 years. This further supports the fact that majority of the women in the metropolis were in the active productive and reproductive age group.

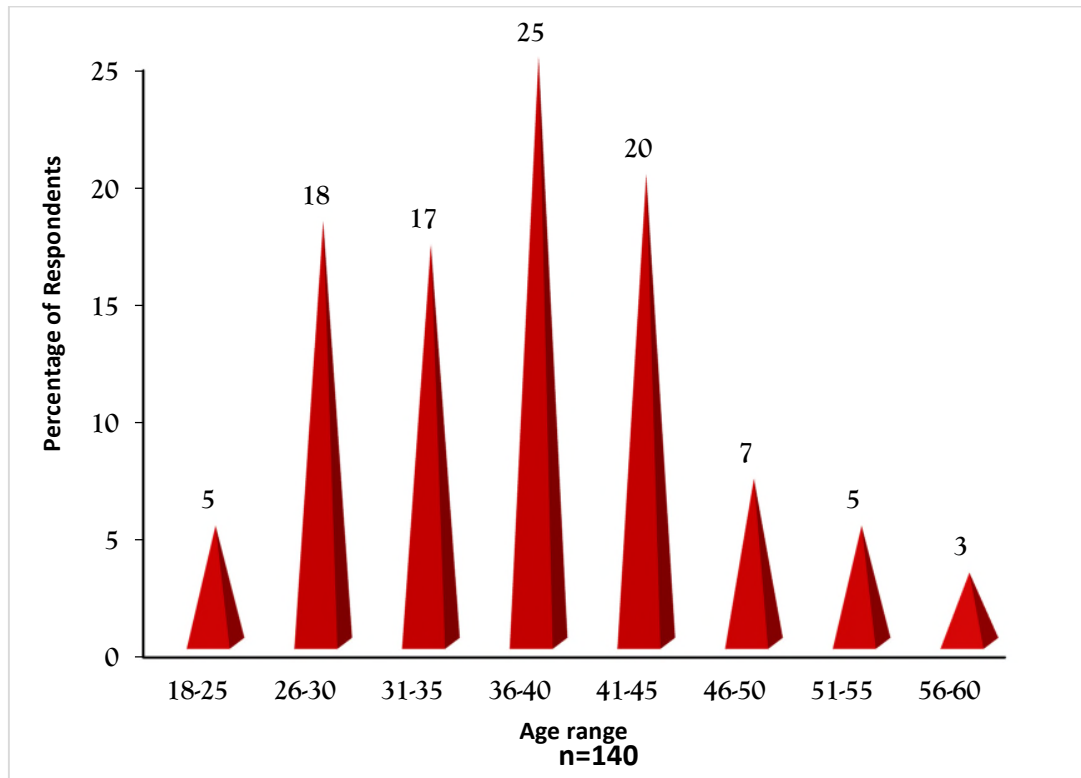


Figure 4. 1: Age Distribution of Women

Source: Field Data, 2016

4.1.2 Marital Status

Marital status is also an important indicator to the development of many women's educational aspirations and professional progression. For example, in the interest of marriage, some women may experience feelings of guilt or selfishness if they put their educational aspirations and career interests first, and this can impact negatively on their educational aspirations and career development (Heins, Hendricks and Martindale, 1982). Marriage is also tied to society, and for that matter women may perceive forgoing marriage obligations as not socially friendly.

The results of the study on marital status were classified into: married, single, separated and widowed. The study found that a large proportion (82%) of the respondent, were married, 15% were single and about 1% and 2% of them were separated and widowed respectively (Table 4.1). The high percentage of married women identified in the study agrees with Posholi (2013) who found that majority of career women in Parastatals were married. This variable is vital in the light of the fact that it is entered in the assurance of the social or family standards that credit the parts, duties and desires of ladies and all things considered may act to impact their educational and career advancement.



Table 4 1: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency (Percent)
Married	114 (81.7)
Single	21 (15.3%)
Divorced	2 (1.0%)
Separated	3 (2.0%)
Total	140 (100%)

Source: Field Data 2016

4.1.3 Occupational Distribution

Sellers, Satcher, and Comas (1999) and Watson, Quatman, and Elder (2002) have uncovered that most women, especially in developing countries end up in low-paying traditional occupations as administrative assistants, sale agents, teachers, nurses, and clerks. In Africa and Ghana, the situation is similar as indicated in Figure 4.2. The results demonstrate that 24 (17%) of the respondents were teachers, 31 (22%) were administrators, 25 (18%) were Judiciary workers, and 25 (19%) were bankers and the remaining 35 (26%) nursing practitioners (Figure 4.2).



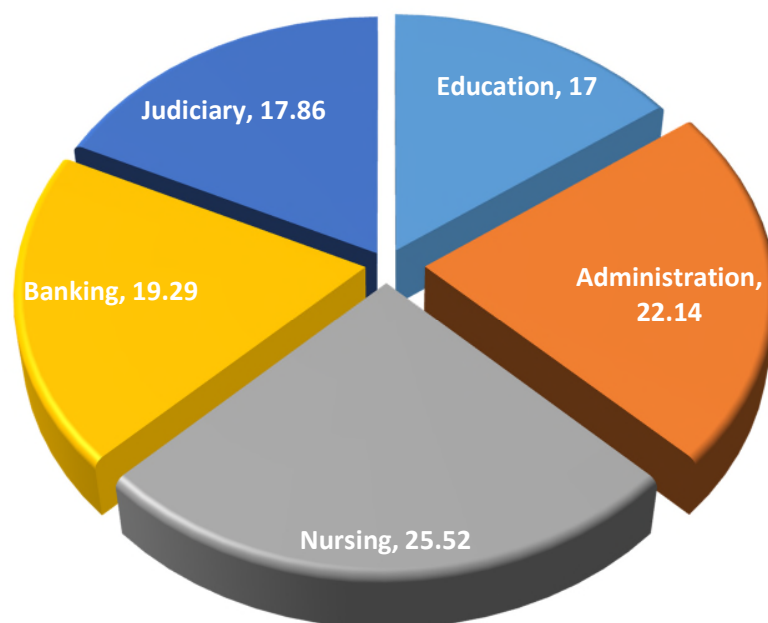


Figure 4. 2: Figure 4.2 Occupational dispersion of respondents

Source: Field Data, 2016

4.1.4 Work/Service Experience

The study revealed that on the average, most (51.4%) of the women in the various job categories had over 10 years of working/service experience. This is critical because in the developing world, particularly Ghana, career progression especially in the public services have to do with work experience and at certain instances work output irrespective of one's educational advancement. Tharenou (1999) reported that



women's successes in career development are tied to work experience. Longer years of service by women can be an important opportunity for career promotion and progression and crucially salary increment. This study revealed that the majority (61.5 %) of the respondents in the teaching category had spent more than 10 years in service (Table 4.2). The study also found that about 62% of the women in the judicial service had more than 10 years of job experience. This result also agrees with the observation by Afande (2015), who reported that a significant proportion of women sampled from the banking industry had 11 to 15 years of working experience. Also, almost half (48.3%) of the women in the nursing category and 48.2% of women in banking category had spent more than 10 years in their work. It was also revealed majority (50%) of the women employed in the administrative sector had spent less than 5 years in the job. About 9 observations were unanswered, which reduce the sample size for this analyses to 131.



Table 4 2: Distribution of Work Experience

Occupation	Work Experience (in years)			
	Less than 5 years	6-10 years	More than 10 years	Total
	Frequency (Percent)	Frequency (Percent)	Frequency (Percent)	Frequency (Percent)
Teaching	7 (33.3%)	1 (4.8%)	16 (61.9%)	24 (100%)
Nursing	6 (20.7%)	9 (31.0%)	14 (48.3%)	29 (100%)
Banking	12 (44.4%)	2 (7.4%)	13 (48.2%)	27 (100%)
Judiciary	3 (14.3%)	5 (23.8%)	13 (61.9%)	21 (100%)
Administration	15 (50.0%)	4 (13.3%)	11 (36.7%)	30 (100%)
Total	43 (32.8%)	21 (16.0%)	67 (51.2%)	131 (100)

Source: Field Data 2016

4.1.5 Educational Qualifications

The United Nations Women Report (2015) asserted that critical gender gaps exist in education in most developing countries. However, the choices in connection to education depends on perceived advantages as well as external variables such as family and societal influence, which are indicated in this study as factors or forces motivating or demotivating career women in educational advancement. Various educational theories by writers such as Rousseau (1712-1778) had explicitly argued that the differences in education between men and women will perpetually exist



because certain forces are established by nature and not merely different in kind but women being weaker physically, intellectually and emotionally. Men were said to be more rational and women more emotional and therefore their respective education should reflect these differences. The study made a comparison between men and women educational attainment using a profiling study of different sectors to assess the educational qualifications of employees by sex. Nonetheless, the most pertinent issue of this study, noteworthy, is the distinction in educational advancement between career men and women of the Tamale Metropolis. In light of the results, at higher levels of education such as First Degree, Master's Degree and PhD, men dominated while at the lower levels of education such as Certificate, Diploma and Higher National Diploma, women dominated. This demonstrates that the variation or gender gap in education exists at the different work places in the Tamale Metropolis. Likewise, it can be deduced that women at their respective professions are not able to progress their education and career development compared to men. This indicates that the educational qualifications of women is still low in their established professions. The results show that significant proportions (24%) of the respondent in the profiling study with first degree were men contrasted with 19% of women (Figure 4.3). Discrimination and stereotyping against women in the workplace and the society have created a situation where women have fewer chances of advancing their education and hence career development.



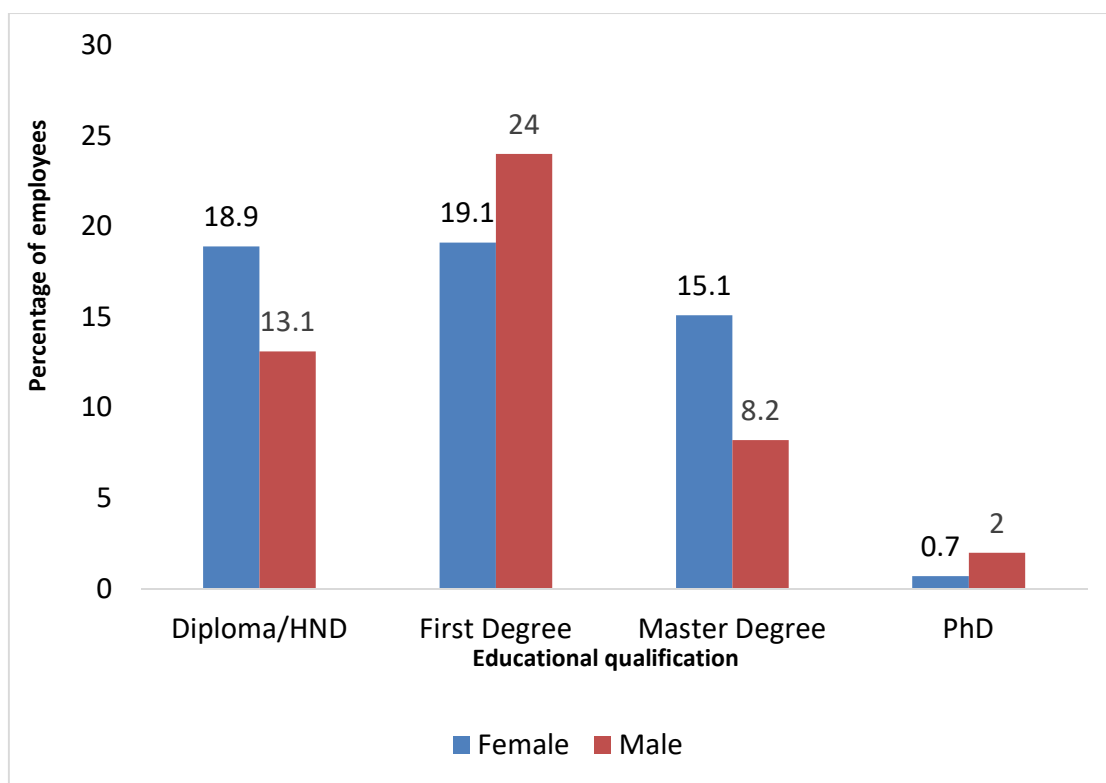


Figure 4. 3: Current educational qualifications by gender in career development

Source: Field Data, 2016

4.2 Job Profile of Men and Women Employees

To dig further into issues with respect to educational status of employees and issues of job positions in the different sectors, a cross-tabulation of occupational positions and educational qualifications of employees from the profiling survey was conducted so that the potential issues raised in relation to educational disparities among men and women employees in the various sectors might generate another interesting gender



gap for positions of personnel. In view of the data acquired from the profiling study, the vast majority of the middle or lower level positions in every one of the sectors were held by women and the top positions were held by men (Table 4.3). For example, in the banking industry of the Tamale Metropolis, with the exception of a Manager's position which was held by a woman, the rest of the high to middle positions or titles such as Operations Manager, Team Leaders, Business Development Officer and Customer Service Officer were dominated by men. Mostly in the banking industry, majority of the women were either Back Officers (26%) or Tellers (63%) as against 12.5% Back Officers and 37.5% tellers for men. In the health sector, the situation was the same since the highest positions were dominated by majority men. From the results, 20% and 59% of men held the positions of the Principal and Senior Nursing Officers respectively, compared to 9% and 36% of women obtained from the health sector holding the same positions as the men. Meanwhile, in the lower positions such as Nursing Officer, women dominated with 55% compared to men 21%. At the courts, majority of women held middle level positions such as the Circuit Court Registrar and District Court Registrar and majority of men held lower level positions such as Ushers of the Court, Cleaners and Watchmen. Yet, the highest position in the court as the Chief Registrar was held by a man.

Also, all the top positions in the various sectors were held by Master's degree holders and the middle level positions were held by First degree holders. The rest of the



lower level positions were held by certificate, diploma, and HND or SSCE/WASSCE holders. This suggests that the career advancement of women in their respective professions might be limited since decision-making and job promotion may turn out to favor men more than women. This is supported by Luke (2001), who confirmed that the initial appointment of women to lower classification levels puts them at a structural disadvantage by increasing the time needed to ascend academic ladders and by reducing their access to influential committees, to senior researchers with whom they might network and collaborate, and to other women who could serve as role models or support and mentor them.



Table 4 3: Personnel Profile of Men and Women in the Five Identified Sectors

Rank/Position	Male	Female	Highest Level Of Education
Health Sector			
Principal Nursing officers	10 (20.0%)	4 (9.0%)	Masters
Senior Nursing Officers	30 (59.0%)	16 (36.0%)	First degree
Nursing Officers	11 (21.0%)	25 (55.0%)	Certificate
Banking Sector			
Managers	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.5%)	Masters
Operations	2 (12.5%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Team Leaders	2 (12.5%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Business Development Officers	2 (12.5%)	1 (5.5%)	First degree
Customer Service Officers	2 (12.5%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Back Officers	2 (12.5%)	5 (26.0%)	HND
Teller	6 (37.5%)	12 (63.0%)	HND
Judicial Sector			
Chief Registrar	1 (2.0%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Deputy Chief Registrar	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.0%)	Masters
Seni or High Court Registrar	5 (9.0%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
High Court Registrar	6 (11.0%)	5 (15.0%)	First degree
Circuit Court Registrar	4 (7.0%)	8 (24.0%)	Masters
District Court Registrar	12 (22.0%)	13 (39.0%)	HND
Assistant Registrar	5 (9.0%)	2 (6.0%)	HND
Usher	6 (11.0%)	2 (6.0%)	HND
Cleaner	6 (11.0%)	2 (6.0%)	SSSCE/WASSCE
Watchmen	9 (17.0%)	0 (0.0%)	Non-formal education

Source: Field data 2016



Table 4.3 continued

Education Sector			
Headmaster/mistress	1 (1.67%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Assistant Headmaster/mistress (Administration)	1 (1.67%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Assistant Headmaster/mistress (Academic)	1 (1.67%)	0 (0%)	Masters
Assistant Headmaster (Domestic)	1 (1.67%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Senior Housemaster/mistress	(0.0%)	1(4.76%)	Masters
Deputy Senior Housemaster/mistress	1(1.67%)	1 (4.76%)	Masters
Housemasters/mistresses	6(10%)	4(10%)	Masters
Deputy Housemasters/mistresses	6(10%)	4(10%)	Masters
Teachers/mistresses	10(16.67%)	2(3.33%)	Masters
Teachers/mistresses	33(55%)	9(42.86%)	First Degree
Administration (Tamale Metro Education Office)			
Chief Administrative Director	1 (7.0%)	0(0.0%)	Masters
Administrative Assistant	1 (7.0%)	1 (50.0%)	First Degree
Finance Officer	1 (7.00%)	0 (0.0%)	MBA
Deputy Finance Officer	1 (7.0%)	0 (0.0%)	First Degree
Senior Accountant	3 (20.0%)	1 (50.0%)	Masters
Accountant	4 (27.0%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Procurement Officer	3 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	Masters
Assistant procurement Officer	1 (7.0%)	0 (0.0%)	First Degree

Source: Field data 2016

4.3 Educational Status of Women by Sectors

Their highest qualifications ranged from Master's degree, first degree, HND degree, to Diploma, while a few of them held SSCE/WASSCE certificates. This is consistent with a study conducted by Posholi (2013). This observation is critical for women to



fit into a changing worldwide work. This is on the grounds that the job market is continually evolving through information, changes in professions and imbalances in the work environment and additionally individual decisions such as the increasing decision not to marry and not to have children. For women, educational progression can empower them to meet the demands of work and close the presence of gender imbalances, particularly in developing nations like Ghana. Generally, from the study, there was a decline in the lower levels of education by women with regards to their entry qualifications and current qualifications, and a rise in educational advancement.

From the study, it was observed that 20.7% of the respondents initially possessed entry qualification of SSCE/WASSCE had dropped to 2.9% approximately at current qualification (Figure 4.4). Observing this situation there has been a reduction in secondary qualification holders by 18%, by implication about 18% had graduated to attain higher qualifications). With regards to educational advancement, 46% of women possessed entry qualification requirement of first degree but currently, has increased to 61. On the other hand, those with master's degree at entry qualification had also increased by 1.43% to 23%. This results in 22% increment in the number of women with master qualification. Currently, majority of the women in the respective sectors hold First degree. This result agrees with a study carried out by Afande (2015) who found that majority of women selected from the banking industry were graduates (First degree holders).



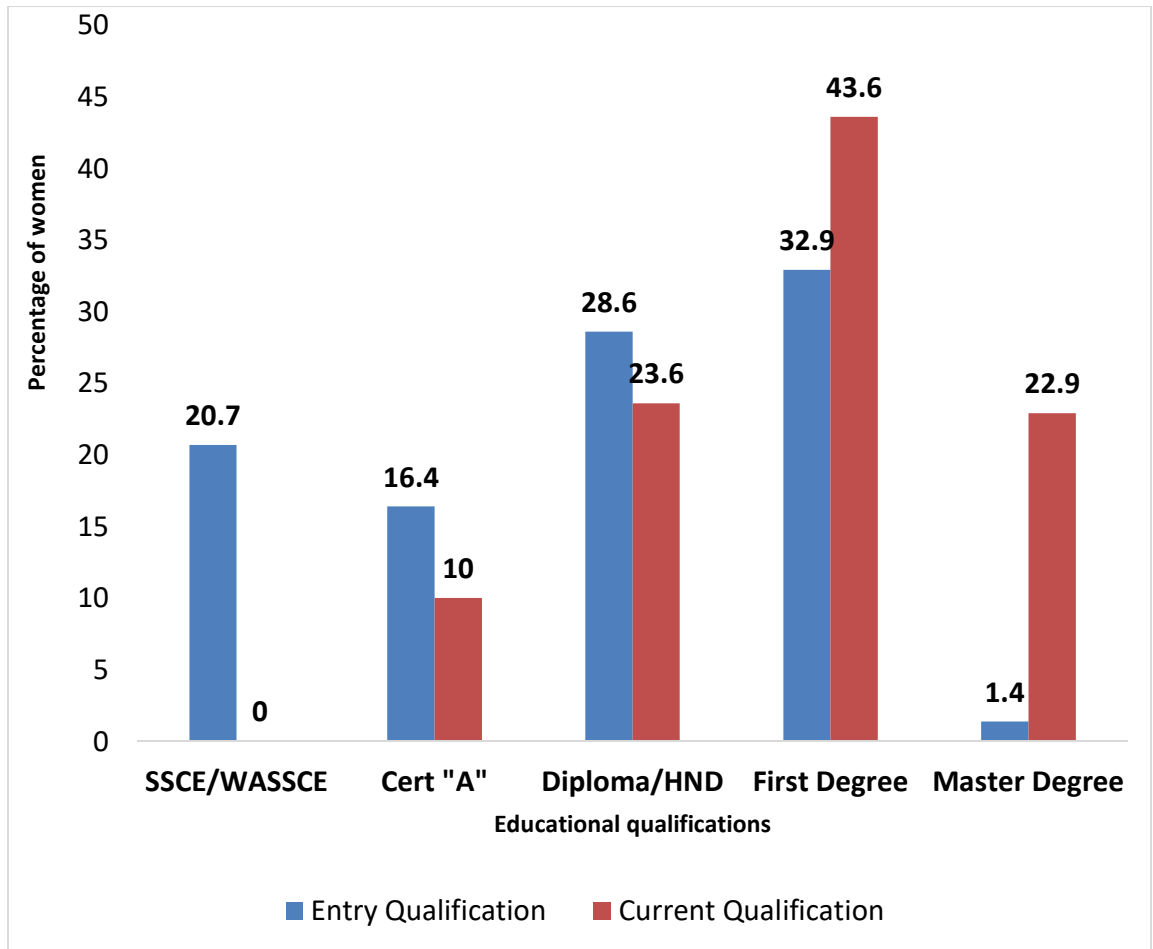


Figure 4. 4: Educational Dynamics

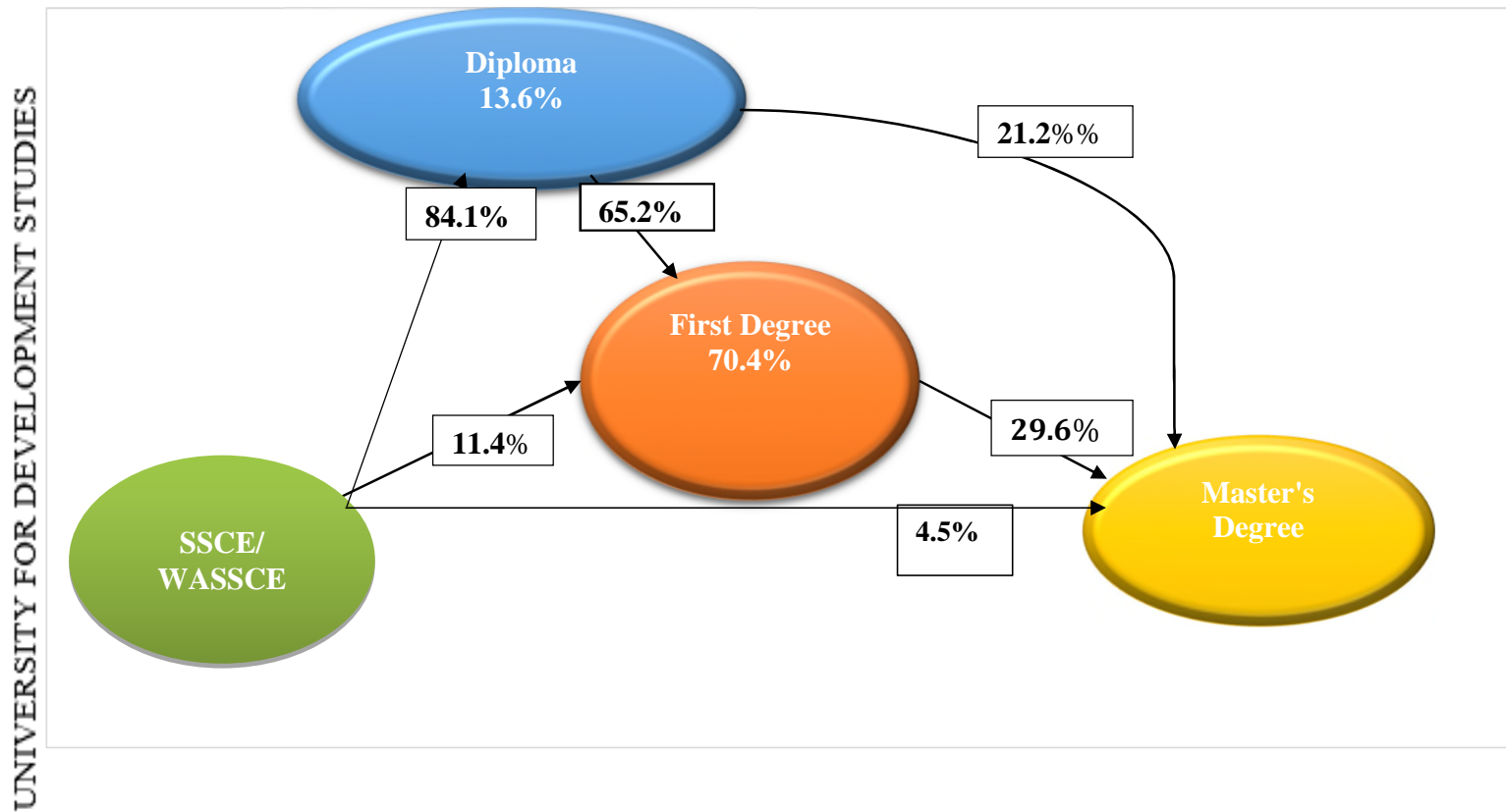
Source: Field Data, 2016

Also, massive changes were recorded at lower levels of education. From Figure 4.5, even though some women still possessed the same educational qualifications as that of their entry qualifications, majority of them had progressed to advance levels. For example, about 84% of women with SSCE/WASSCE certificates as entry



qualifications had progressed to attain diploma and HND qualifications, 11% into first degree and 2.3% into master's degree. The remaining 2.3% had remained with their SSCE/WASSCE certificates, which is not so significant. Also, 65% of diploma and HND holders as entry qualifications were now first degree holders and 30% of first degree holders as entry qualification were now master's degree holders, even though the majority (66%) still possessed first degree. Unfortunately, the situation of those (0%) with the master's degree as entry qualifications had not yet proceeded to do PhD. This is not surprising because in most developing countries, fewer women possess PhD qualification (Agyarkwa, Agyekum and Acheampong, 2012).





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Figure 4. 5: Trends in education advancement



Source: Field Data, 2016

4.4 Work Status of Women in Established Professions and Education

The study also used cross-tabulation to show the relationships between educational advancement and professional progression. It was revealed that highly educated women had higher ranks that could make them progress in their career development. It was evident from the results that high qualifications tended to be associated with higher-level and middle-level ranks. It must be noted that aside education, professional progression could be as a result of long years of service. Also, some other external, other than educational advancement and years of service tended to affect women's career progression.

The study computed most occurring ranks of the respondents' professions at the different levels of education (Table 4.4). In the educational sector, the terminal points were: non-graduate professionals (Cert "A") ending at Assistant Director I, Diploma/HND professionals ending at Deputy Director, Non-professional graduate/diplomate ending at Deputy Director and graduate professionals can progress as far as to Director-General. For example, a number of the women 3 (12%) of the women with SSCE/WASSCE qualifications were pupil teachers in their respective schools. But currently there is none working in the with SSCE/WASSCE degree and with the rank of pupil teacher .

Administrators with SSCE/WASSCE qualifications were stenographers were 5.6 % (1) of the women selected from the administration sector but currently there are none



working as a stenographer. Further, women who attained SSCE/WASSCE degree only occupied the rank as typists.

Table 4 4: Entry Educational Qualification and Ranks of women

Sectors	Entry Ranks	Frequency (Percent)	Entry Education
Education	Principal Superintendent	10 (41.7%)	First Degree
	Superintendent I	5 (20.8%)	Diploma
	Superintendent II	7 (29.2%)	Cert "A"
	Pupil Teacher	2 (8.3%)	SSCE/WASSCE
	Total	24 (100%)	
Administration	Senior Administrative Officer	6 (19.4%)	Master's Degree
	Administrative Officer	13 (41.9%)	Diploma
	Typist	9 (29.0%)	Professional
	Stenographer	3 (9.7%)	Professional
	Total	31 (100%)	
Banking	Senior Staff	8 (29.6%)	Master's Degree
	Junior Staff	19 (70.4%)	First Degree
	Total	27 (100%)	
Health	Senior Nursing Officer	3 (8.6%)	Master's Degree
	Staff Midwife	13 (34.3%)	First Degree
	Nursing Officer	12 (37.1%)	Diploma
	Enrolled Nurse	7 (20.0%)	Certificate
	Total	35 (100%)	
Judiciary	Senior High Court Registrar	7 (28.0%)	Master's Degree
	High Court Registrar	15 (60.0%)	First Degree
	Usher	3 (12%)	SSCE/WASSCE
	Total	25 (100%)	

Source: Field Data 2016



Table 4 5: Current Educational Qualification and Ranks of women

Sectors	Ranks	Frequency (Percent)	Current Education
Education	Deputy Director	2 (8.3%)	Master Degree
	Assistant Director I	9 (37.5%)	Master Degree
	Assistant Director II	9 (37.5%)	Master Degree
	Principal Superintendent	4 (16.7%)	First Degree
	Total	24 (100%)	
Administration	Deputy Director	6 (19.4%)	Master Degree
	Assistant Director II	9 (29.0%)	First Degree
	Senior Administrative Officer	14 (45.2%)	Certificate
	Typist	2 (6.5%)	Diploma
	Total	31 (100%)	
Banking	Senior Staff	12 (44.4%)	Master Degree
	Junior Staff	15 (55.6%)	First Degree
	Total	27 (100%)	
Health	Senior Nurse Officer	6 (17.1%)	Master Degree
	Nursing Officer	10 (28.6%)	First Degree
	Nursing Officer	12 (34.3%)	Diploma
	Staff Midwife	7 (20.0%)	First Degree
	Total	35 (100%)	
Judiciary	Deputy Chief Registrar	6 (24.0%)	Masters
	Senior High Court Registrar	5 (20.0%)	First degree
	High Court Registrar	12 (48.0%)	
	Usher	2 (8.0%)	Diploma
	Total	25 (100%)	

Source: Field Data 2016



4.5. Obligations that Women are Expected to Deliver in the Home, Workplace and Society

The study also addressed the objective on how women are expected to deliver in the home, work place and the society. This objective was built on Astins' (1984) perspectives on work expectations. The study sought to find out how women were expected to deliver at home, work place and the society as they develop their career. The most important factors identified for how women were expected to deliver at work place were to take up organizational responsibilities seriously; in the home by taking up domestic responsibilities seriously and in the society by seeking home support first. This is based on the fact that the three factors appeared to have the highest percentages. At the work place, most women appeared to have taken organizational responsibilities seriously in order to deliver well while developing their career. Thus, Table 4.5 shows that about 48% of the women indicated that taking up organizational responsibilities, as an expectation to deliver at the work place is their priority. This observation was followed by no absenteeism 26%, and organizational commitment 12%, as a measure of how they are expected to deliver at the work place. Also, only a few based their expectations on organizational ethics (12.1%) such as observing general discipline at work place and relating well with the social environment (4.3%). It was revealed that approximately 9% and 4% of the women respectively, suggested that general discipline and social environment were some of the measures of how well women were expected to deliver at the work place.



This can be deduced to mean that professional women are largely keen in satisfying organizational obligations compared to their social relations and general discipline.

In the aspect of their expectations in the home, most of the women also suggested to take up domestic responsibilities seriously as an expectation to deliver well in the home. This assertion is supported by about 51% of the women that their expectation to deliver at home was centered particularly on taking up domestic responsibilities seriously (Table 4.6). It can be inferred that women are always prepared to sacrifice to satisfy what job and home requires from them. Also, in order of importance according to their expectations, 11.4% suggested they would hire house help to assist in domestic affairs, 10.0% said that they would contribute to household financial needs and rather share domestic responsibilities with their husbands. It was interesting to find out, especially in our social structure that some women would seek external family support to assist them manage home affairs whiles developing their career. Some (7.9%) even recalled that at certain times when they delivered, they were assisted by external family members. However, only a few, about 3% and 1% approximately were certain that they would turn down promotion or quit their job in order to deliver in their homes. In the society, a significant number 64 (45.7%) of women still need home support and social support in order to deliver well in their respective communities. Most women reported that the success of a woman lies in the home, and society also acknowledges this fact. Also, a significant number 35 (25%) of women said that they require social support to be able to deliver well in



their societies. Also, some women were particular about the search for available option 27 (17.9%) or develop their strength 16 (11.4%) in order to meet their expectation at the society.

Table 4 6: Women’s expectations in the home, work place and society

Women’s Expectations		
Statements	Frequency (Percent)	
Work place	Take up organizational responsibilities	67 (47.9%)
	No Absenteeism	37 (26.4%)
	General discipline	13 (9.3%)
	Organizational commitment	17 (12.1%)
	Social environment	6 (4.3%)
Home	Take up domestic responsibility	71 (50.7%)
	Seek external family support	11 (7.9%)
	Contribute financially	15 (10.7%)
	Take a leave	9 (6.4%)
	Turn down a promotion	4 (2.9%)
	Look for a house help	16 (11.4%)
	Reduce working hours	7 (5.0%)
	Individual Initiatives	6 (4.3%)
	Intention to quit job	1 (0.7%)
Society	Home	64 (45.7%)
	Social support	35 (25.0%)
	Options available	27 (17.9%)
	Strength	16 (11.4%)

Source: Field Data, 2016



4.6 Factors and Forces Motivating Career Women's Educational Advancement

There are many social, economic and cultural-related factors that determine women's educational advancement. Swanson and Woitke (1997) simplified these factors into ability of women, women's achievements and career aspirations. That is, for women to attain higher education in career development, first of all, they must have the ability to pursue it, rely on certain past achievements or be driven by certain unfulfilled career aspirations and motivations.

Secondly, the factors that motivate women's educational advancement depend on the type or specific factors and the individual's personality (Figure 4.6). The analysis of women motivation for higher education in career development, according to the study was driven mainly by personal, economic and social issues considering the responses by the women.

From this study, motivation for educational progression concentrated more on personal variables such as individual's values, beliefs, aspirations and experiences. It was revealed that quest to secure good job (30.7%), salary increment (17.9%), desire to acquire more knowledge and skills (7.9%), and desire to improve on one's own experience (6.4%) were, the four most important motives for pursuit of educational advancement among career women. To a lesser extent, mentorship (5.7%) and work expectation (5.7%) were both considered important criteria for women's educational advancement. With regards to mentorship, Tierney and Bensimon (1996) confirm



that the role of mentors in higher education has shown that female academics benefit from mentors or role models to help them advance their careers. Beck (2003) corroborates this by emphasizing that mentors not only help women adjust to the career development and educational advancement but also open opportunities for wider social networking (See Figure. 4. 6).

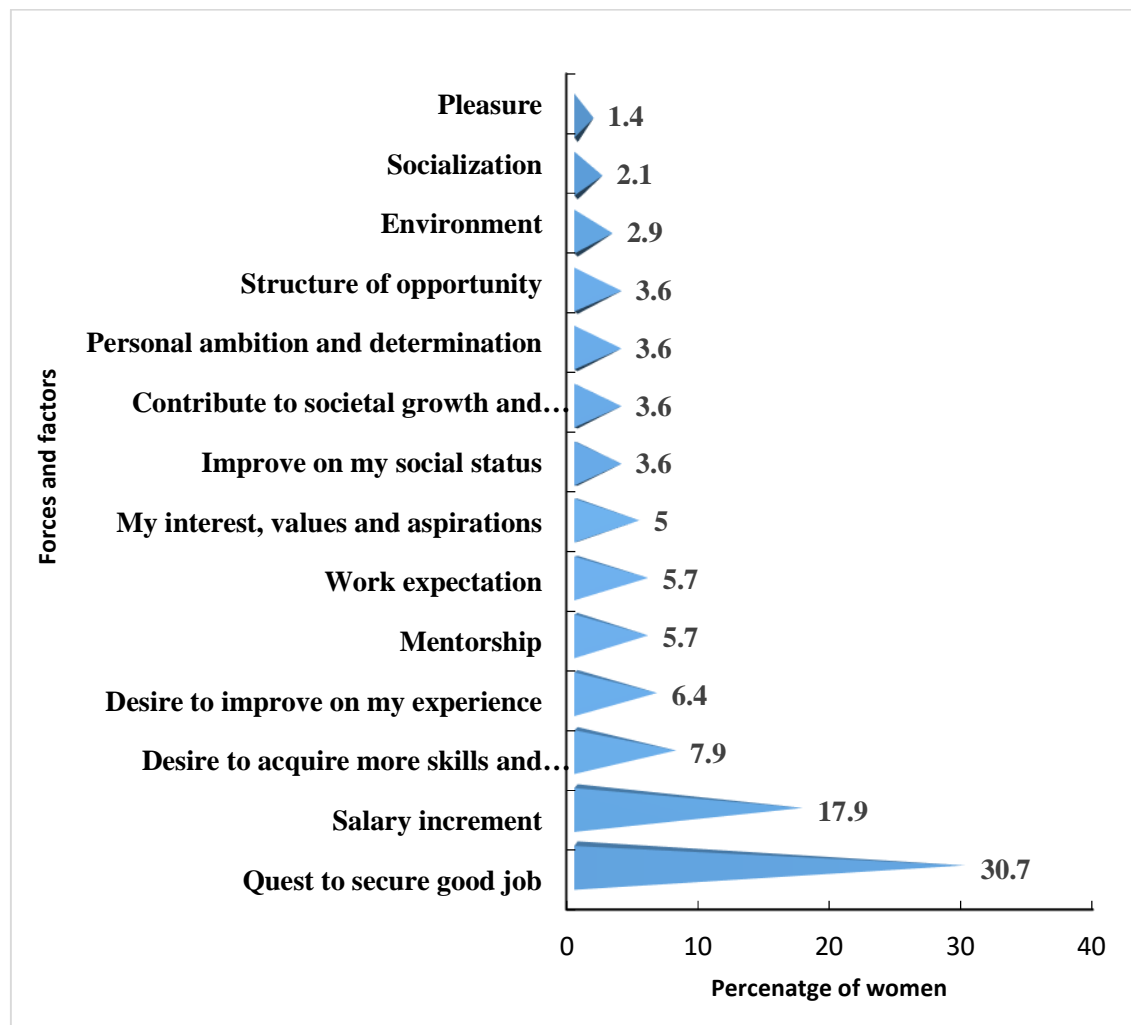


Figure 4. 6: Factors and Forces Motivating Career Women’s Educational Advancement

Source: Field Data 2016

4.7 Factors and Forces Demotivating Career Women's Educational Advancement

The study revealed that domestic responsibility, marriage, financial constraints, environmental constraints, cultural background or beliefs, child bearing, lack of opportunities for career development, lack of sponsorship, lack of respect from management, lack of mentorship and career guidance and long duration for promotion are factors that demotivate career women’s education and career development in the Tamale Metropolis (Figure 4.7).

From the study, a significant percentage 37 (26.4%) of the respondents indicated that financial constraints were a major hindrance to their advancement of education and career development. Lack of financial resource to pursue educational aspirations is regarded as an internal barrier to women’s career development. This result was in line with the study by Atuahene and Owusu-Ansah (2013) which revealed that most often financial constraint militates against women’s ability to pursue further education. The next factor demotivating career women’s educational advancement was domestic responsibility 28 (20%).



This agrees with the assertion made by Jones (2007) that women may view themselves or even from society as immoral and unfeminine objects of pity if they neglect motherhood roles. Also, consistent with the findings of Heins, Hendricks and Martindale (1982), that in the interest of domestic and social responsibilities, some women may experience feelings of guilt or selfishness if they put their career interests including educational aspirations first. The next critical factor which militate against women's education and career development was child bearing 14 (10%). In line with this, Brown and Barbosa (2001) found that childbearing and care are major reasons women failed to succeed in their career aspirations including educational advancement.

Adusah-Karikari (2008) study in Ghana also confirms that many women do not advance in career development with regards to education because of motherhood and other domestic responsibilities. In Ghana, these roles are practically inevitable in most societies. That is to say a woman once married is expected to bear children, and execute other domestic responsibilities. The implications are that in nurturing children and taking domestic responsibilities consume a lot of time and also require a lot of sacrifices that cannot be forgone, and this adversely impact on women's educational advancement. Other studies are also consistent with the results that lack of mentorship and career guidance, and long duration for promotion, lack of opportunities for career development, inequalities in educational systems, discrimination at work, lack of sponsorship, lack of respect from management and



society for working women, cultural issues negatively affect women’s career success and educational progressions (Nieva and Gutek, 1981; Daddieh, 2003).

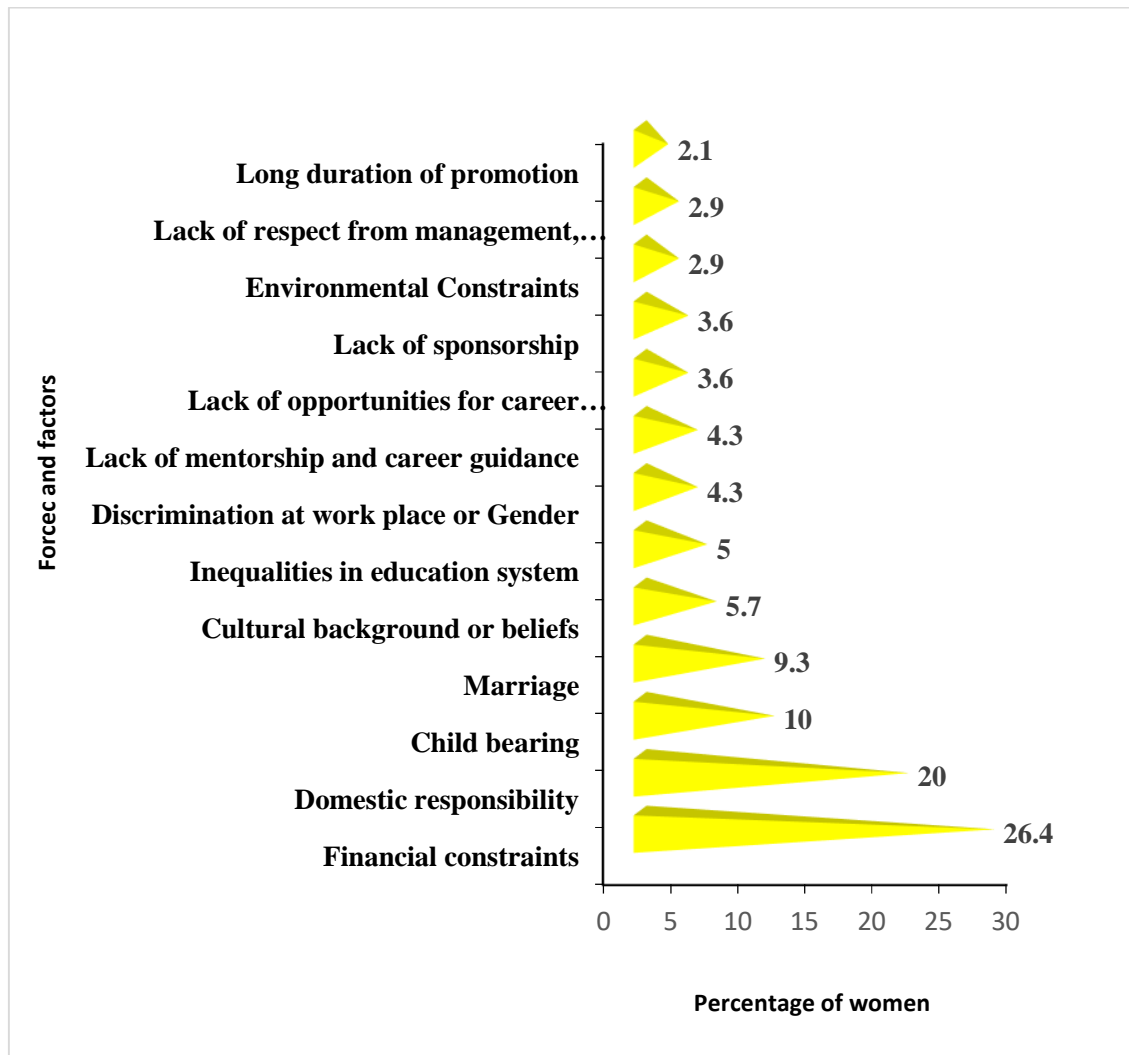


Figure 4. 7: Factors and Forces Demotivating Career Women’s Educational Advancement

Source: Field Data 2016



4.8 Strategies of successful educated professional women in their career advancement

All information sought in interviews have been used in this study; particularly aspects like distance education, conferences, workshop and seminars, enroll sandwich courses, study leave and weekly classes. This information is important as it shows the opportunities available to women to pursue higher education and also influences policies, and decision-making. These are important models to enhance women education especially those that are engaged with domestic responsibilities, and the general under-utilization of women at decision-making will continue to widen gender disparities in higher education. Although the study does not go down to elicit whether the sample women are utilizing the models specified above, it was seen as essential to try and find out strategies aimed at supplementing main sources of educational opportunities. The study found that significant 39 (28%) of the women were aware of distance education as a strategy to pursue higher education, 12 (9%) also said conferences, workshops and seminars, 24% indicated sandwich courses, 33 (14%) study leave and 37 (26%) weekend classes (Table 4.6). It has been demonstrated that majority of women, are enrolled or **engage in** these strategies but originally, the intention to take up one of the following strategies and program remain hidden.



Table 4 7: Strategies of successful educated professional women in their career advancement

Strategies	No. of Respondents	%
Distance Education	39	27.9
Sandwich courses	33	23.6
Weekend classes	37	26.4
Conferences, workshops and seminars	12	8.6
Study leave	19	13.6
Total	140	100.0

Source: Field data, 2016

4.9 Rationale for Women on Educational Advancement as Career Development Aid

In spite of the fact that there might be different views of women involvement in further education and career development, Burke and Nelson (2002) reported that educational advancement is one of the most visible positions of women that cannot be underestimated. Lathi (2013) also agreed that education is a key to women's career development. The provision of opportunities for promotion at work place, increase in salary, prestige and unearthing of innate potentials were statements made by the women as important motives for the attainment of higher education in their career development. The finding of the study revealed that the advancement of



women's education is mostly accentuated on opportunities for job promotion (Figure 4.8). Thus, the majority 80% of the women advanced their education because of promotion at the work place while 3.6% stated that further education in career development assisted to unearth innate potentials. Ten per cent (10%) indicated that further education aided them to enjoy their increment in job salary thereby helping to pursue further education to enhance their career development and only about 6% agreed that women's advancement in education and career development was a source of social prestige. This is consistent with the study by Day and Newburger (2002) who reported that higher income earning jobs are usually associated with increased levels of education and years employed, hence many people, according these authors women may pursue higher education to get higher incomes. But according to these authors, the incomes received by women generally are roughly two-thirds of the income of their male counterparts, which are partly due to lower educational qualification by women.



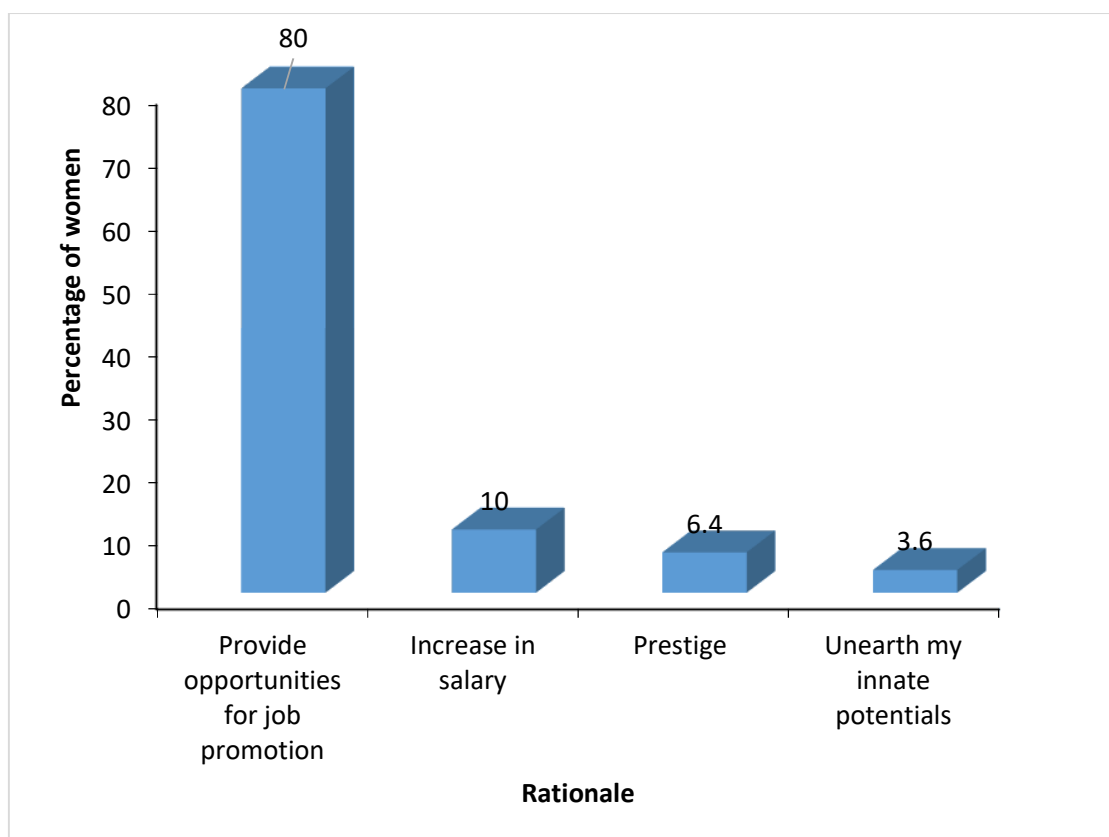


Figure 4. 8: Perceived benefits of Education

Source: Field Data, 2016

4.10 Structure of Opportunities for Women's Education and Career Development

The study revealed that major impetus for women's education and career development should be equal promotions and opportunities. Thus, a significant (32.7%) of the women stated that men and women should have equal promotions and opportunities and followed closely were flexible working hours (21.4%), legal and



policy framework (15.7%), indicated that there should be special scholarships for women to further their education, 8.6% stated that there should be equal occupation mobility of labour and about 6.4% of the respondents agreed that there should be active involvement of women in decision-making (Figure 4.9).

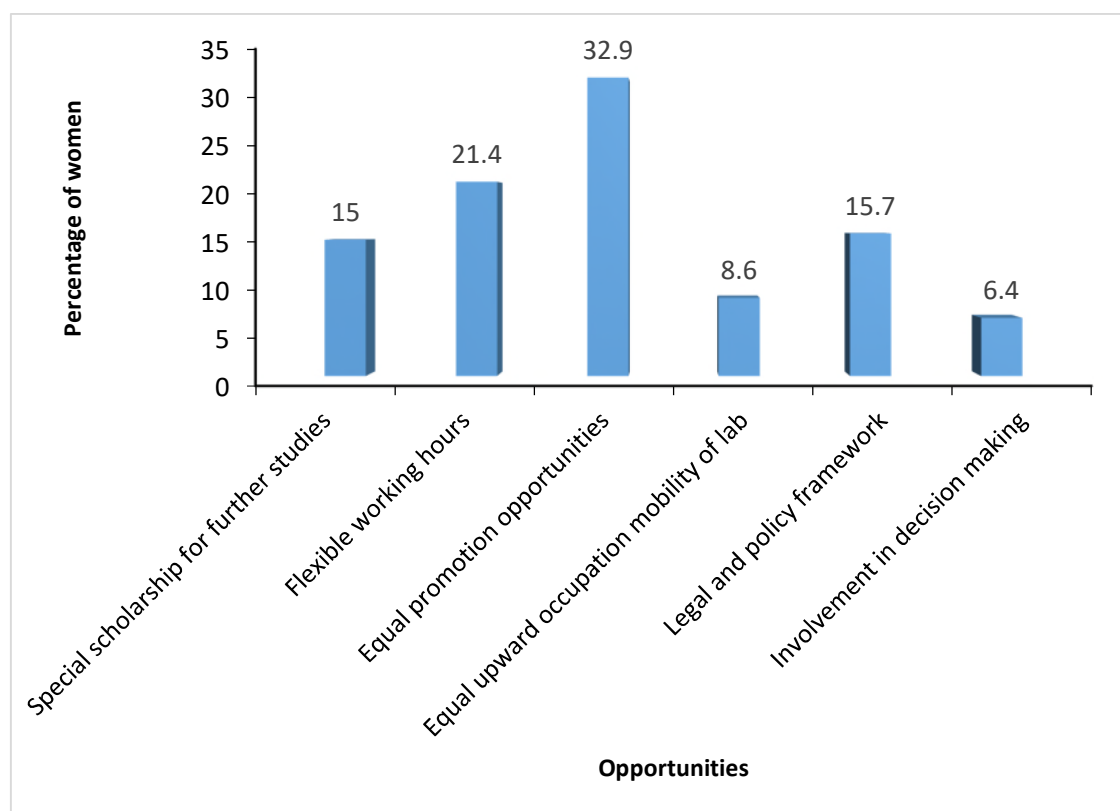


Figure 4. 9: Structure of opportunities for women's education and career development

Source: Field Data 2016



4.11 Lessons and Experiences of Women in Established Professions Offer for the Education and Career Advancement of Women

From the study, it is clear that women's career development and educational progression are affected by many challenges; they had also encountered lessons and experiences that might help them in addressing issues at work. The two most important lessons and experiences that women had passed through in their education and career development, according to the study, were financial constraints and negative effect of marriage on their education. Moreover, the two factors were the most pressing challenges of women in educational advancement in their pursuit of career development.

According to the study, twenty percent (20%) of the respondents, their marriage threatens their educational advancement. They mentioned issues of marriage some explained that "if I knew I wouldn't have entered". Seventeen percent (17%) of the women indicated that the bottom line of their inability to advance in education and progress at work place is due to the fact that, they had encountered different kinds of financial difficulties, even at the household level (Figure 4.10). Also, 14% stated that they have suffered a lot from child bearing, as it always conflicts with their education and career development. Ten percent (10%) of the respondents pronounced that education in deed helps women to make judicious use of resources. Another group of respondents, representing 10% of the sample mentioned that they have passed through situations where their male superiors feel reluctant to grant them study leave.



According to the study, 6% said that busy schedules negatively affect their education advancement, and followed most women in higher positions are not respected in the society (6%), hectic bureaucratic offices for women to rise to higher positions, distance learning (3%) and only 2% had no experiences to share. The implications of marital problems as stated by some women is that marital problems would not allow them have the peace of mind and comfort to learn or work effectively. Childbearing was identified to be a major lesson and experience of career women.



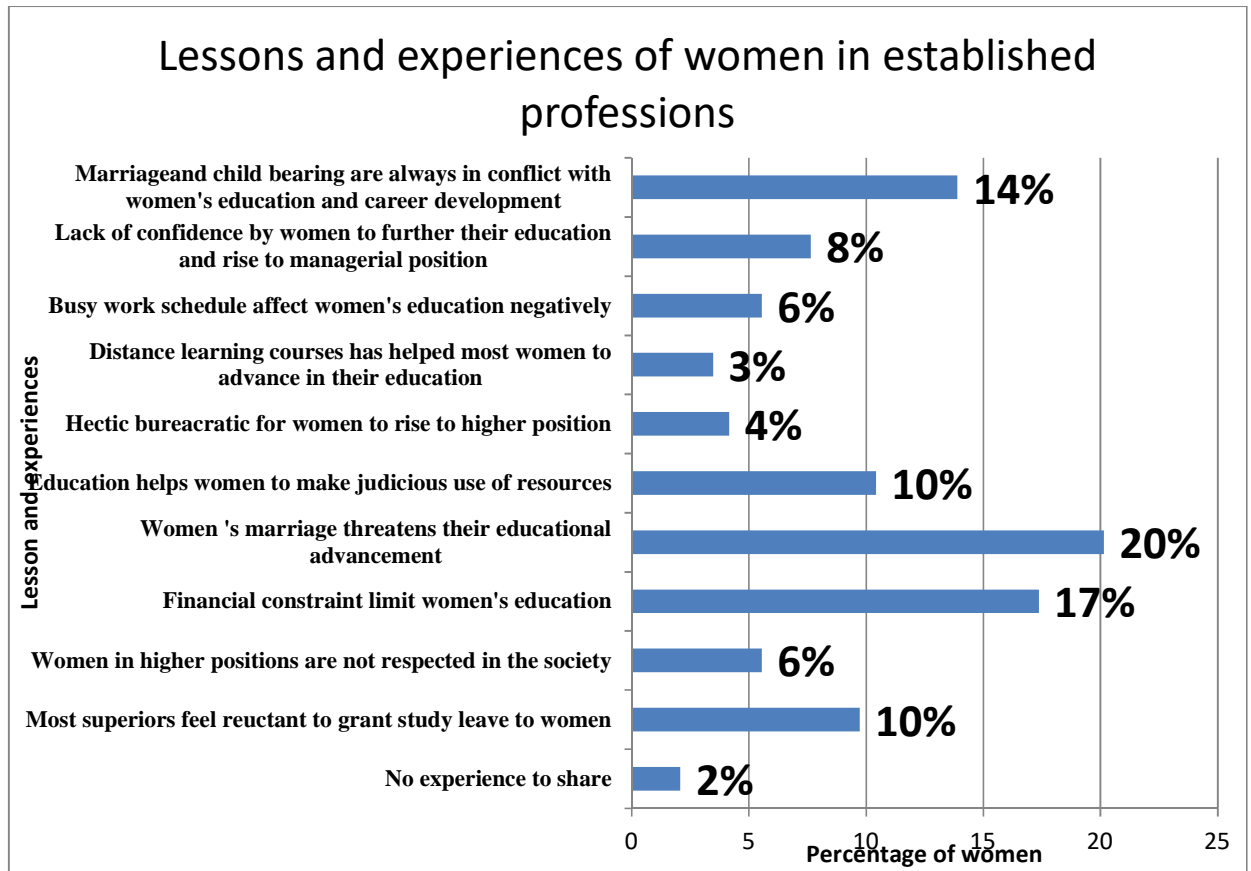


Figure 4. 10: Lessons and experiences of women in established professions offer for the education and career advancement of women

Source: Field Data, 2016



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This Chapter revisits the results and discussions, and draws out important findings and conclusions from them based on the study objectives and through which recommendations were made.

5.1 Summary

The main objective of the study was to examine women's education and career development. Both primary and secondary data were used for the study. The primary data was collected from women in five (5) different **occupations**, namely; teaching, administration, nursing, banking and the judicial service. The secondary data was obtained from the profiling survey. In totality, 140 women from five different occupations participate in the study. However, to be able to determine how women were faring it became necessary to compare them to men. This was done through a profiling of women and men within the same sector and overall.

According to the profiling survey, educational progression was high for men than women. Thus, a greater number of men have attained higher levels of education such as First Degree, Master's Degree and PhD Degree while most women have only attained middle to lower levels of education such as HND, Diploma and



SSCE/WASSCE certificates. This suggests that women's educational advancement is limited in the Tamale Metropolis. Similarly, most men in the respective professions held higher level positions and most women held middle to lower level positions. This implies that women career progression in the Tamale Metropolis is still low.

The study found that in all the institutions profiled, men were more than women. This implies that even though women are found in all the selected professions, they are not many as compared to men. Most women might not have the needed qualification to be employed in the paid employment. With regards to educational dynamics, most women turned to progress faster with middle to lower level qualification than if they attained higher a level of education. For example, more than 90 percent of women who possessed SSCE/WASSCE qualifications when they were initially employed in the respective professions had progress to higher levels of education such as Diploma and First Degree.

Similarly, with regards to how women are faring in their respective professions, women who had advance in their education turn to progress into middle and higher level ranks/positions, and most women who had not progress in their educational qualifications still remained in the original ranks/positions.

In reference to how women are expected to deliver in the home, most women chose to deliver in their homes by taking domestic responsibility seriously. In the work



place, most women said they would satisfy the expectations of management by taking their job prescriptions seriously.

With regards to how they were expected to deliver in the society, most women gave preference to domestic responsibilities in the home. This suggests that women would naturally forgo other responsibilities to take care of their homes.

According to the study, most women advance their education for two most important reasons, the quest to secure a good job and high salary motivated them to pursue education to develop their career. The few women were part of managerial positions in their workplace due to their ability to progress in education. Only a few of them advance their education for the pleasure of it.

Alternatively, most of them complained about financial constraints, the task of domestic responsibilities, childbearing and marriage the four most important factors that hinder women in their educational advancement and career development.

The study also revealed most women prefer to take distance courses, and followed closely were weekend classes, study leave, and sandwich courses, workshops, conferences and seminars as strategies for successful educated women in their pursuit for their educational and career development.



According to the study, most women had encountered lessons and experiences that might help them in addressing issues at work; financial constraints, marriage and childbearing were all identified to be major lessons and experiences of career women.

5.2 Conclusions

The study concludes that women were **under-represented** in paid employment as compared to men. The educational advancement of women was still low, even though most women with lower and middle level qualifications were able to progress faster in their established professions than those who possessed higher level qualifications. That is to say educational advancement helped women in lower and middle levels than those in the higher echelons of their professions. In spite that unfortunate trend, there was no doubt, on the whole, that women's educational advancement had contributed to enhancing their career progression. Generally, educational advancements enabled the women to rise in ranks and promotions although those at the bottom and middle levels benefited more than those at the top. As revealed in the study, women tend to advance better in lower and middle level jobs due mainly to home demands that divided their attention. The home demands compelled them to forgo most responsibilities at the work place and in the society, at a time that their attention was needed the most. By implication, at the middle and top levels, where managerial opportunities exist, job demands are higher and require time and effort concentrations that working family women, can barely meet due to domestic pressures. Meanwhile in such competitive contexts, women like men are



expected to satisfy management by taking up challenging job prescriptions in order to progress. Inability to demonstrate such abilities can only reduce one's chance of rising even if one had the educational qualifications. In spite of the challenges, the women were generally highly passionate about the quest to secure good jobs and salary increment as important reasons for pursuing education. For those women who lacked the requisite educational qualifications and wanted to advance their career progression, distance learning has become popular.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that ;

- There should be scholarship programs specially designed for women by government to eliminate financial barriers to education.
- Policy-makers should also be flexible in designing employment policies that take into consideration the workplace needs of family women so that they can also aspire for promotion to higher positions.
- The management of various institutions should have special opportunities including quotas for women to advance their education and to enable them take higher positions at the work place.
- Women should be self-motivated towards their educational and career development. From the study, some women opted for the idea of personal



ambition and determination. At times one needs to be ambitious and determined to be able to take certain decisions and opportunities.

- Use of support groups among women in middle and higher levels can serve as motivation and mentorship space for learning to balance their work and homes and especially deal with the keen competition at those levels.
- Women, especially nursing mothers can patronize distance and sandwich courses to lessen their burdens with domestic work.



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APPENDIX: Survey Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, GHANA

GRADUATE SCHOOL, TAMALE

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

INTERVIEW GUIDE

These questions seek to obtain information on women's education and career development in the Tamale Metropolis. This exercise is purely for academic purposes and any information provided will be accorded the outmost confidentiality. I therefore appeal to you to answer the questions below as honest as possible. Thank you.

1. Occupation-----.

2. Position/Rank-----

3. Marital status a) Married b) Single c) Divorced d) Separated

4. Age of respondent. a) 18 – 25 b) 26 - 30 c) 31 -35 d) 36 – 40 e)
41–45 f) 46 – 50 g) 51 – 55 h) 56- 60

5. What was your of level of education when you entered your present occupation?



- a) Ph.D b) Masters (2nd degree) c) Bachelor (1st degree) d) HND
f) Diploma
g) SSS/SHS/Voc. Tech h) JSS/JHS i) No formal education.

6. What is your current level of education?

- a) Ph.D b) Masters (2nd degree) c) Bachelor (1st degree) d) HND
f) Diploma
g) SSS/SHS/Voc. Tech h) JSS/JHS i) No formal educati

7. In your opinion, how does education aid your career development? (Tick as many as applicable)

- a) Provides opportunity for promotion
b) Increase in salary
c) Prestige
d) Unearth my innate potential

8. What are the forces and factors that motivated you in your career advancement? (Please tick all that is applicable to you).

- a) Quest to secure my job



- b) Desire to acquire more skills and knowledge
- c) Desire to improve on my experience
- d) Improve on my social status and general wellbeing
- e) My interest, values and aspirations
- f) Salary increment
- g) Environment
- i) Mentorship
- j) Pleasure
- k) Contribute to societal growth and development
- l) Work expectation
- m) Socialization
- n) Structure of opportunity
- o) Personal ambition and determination

9. What are the structure of opportunities for women's education and career development in our workplaces and higher educational institutions?



a) Special scholarship for further studies.

b) Flexible working hours

c) Equal promotion opportunities

d) Equal upward occupation mobility of labour

e) Legal and policy framework

10. What are the forces and factors that have demotivated you in your career advancement?

a) Domestic responsibility

b) Marriage

c) Financial constraints

d) Environmental Constraints

e) Cultural background or beliefs

f) Child bearing

g) Lack of opportunity for career advancement

h) Lack of respect



- i) Lack of mentorship and career guidance
- j) Lack of sponsorship
- k) Discrimination at the work place / gender discrimination
- m) Educational system

11. What are some of the strategies that you have employed in your career advancement that made you successful?

- a) Distant education
- b) Enroll in sandwich courses
- c) Weekend classes
- d) Study Leave

12. How are you expected to deliver in you work places, home and the society in the course of developing your career?

13. If you have some experiences related to women’s education and their career development in this Metropolis, kindly share them with me.

.....

.....



.....
.....
.....
.....

14. What recommendations would you make personally for the improvement of women's education and their career development in this Metropolis?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....



UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

GRADUATE SCHOOL

**PROFILING OF WORKERS AT INSTITUTIONS IN TAMALE
MUNICIPALITY**

These questions seek to obtain information on women's education and career development in the Tamale Metropolis. This exercise is purely for academic purposes and any information provided will be accorded the outmost confidentiality. I therefore appeal to you to answer the questions below as honest as possible. Thank you.

NAME OF INSTITUTION:

.....

TYPE OF INSTITUTION:

.....

TOTAL NUMBER OF STAFF:

.....



NO OF MALES: NO. OF

FEMALES:.....

Please kindly provide the ranks/ positions in your institution with their respective numbers in terms of males and females

S/No.	*RANK/POSITION	SEX	**HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION OBTAINED	REMARKS
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				



15				
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Note:

*Rank/Position: E.g. Director/Manager, Deputy, Section head, etc

**Educational Status: Ph.D, Masters, Bachelors, HND, Diploma, SSS/SHS/VocTec,
JSS, No Education



UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, GHANA

GRADUATE SCHOOL, TAMALE

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**TOPIC: WOMEN’S EDUCATION AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN THE
TAMALE METROPOLIS**

CONSENT FORM

This research investigates women’s education and career development in the Tamale Metropolis. This study is purely for academic purposes. You are therefore required to answer the questions as honest as possible. If for any reason, you are not interested in participating after knowing what this research is about, you are at liberty to opt out as a participant of the study.

Researcher

Respondent

.....

.....

Sign/Thumbprint

Sign/Thumbprint



UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, GHANA

GRADUATE SCHOOL, TAMALE

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**TOPIC: WOMEN’S EDUCATION AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN THE
TAMALE METROPOLIS**

SIGNATURE FORM

This research investigates women’s education and career development in the Tamale Metropolis. This study is purely for academic purposes. You are therefore required to pen your signature here indicating your willingness to participate freely in providing the information that is required in this study. The information you will give for the purposes of this study will be handled confidentially by the Researcher, Research Assistants and the University for Development Studies, Tamale., Ghana

Name:.....

Organisation:.....

Address:.....

Phone:.....

Email:.....

Signature of respondent.....

