WOMEN AND THE MANAGEMENT OF TERTIARY EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS
IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES.

BY:

NTIM MARY

A THESIS SUBMITTED

TO THE

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT, FACULTY OF PLANNING
AND LAND MANAGEMENT, UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF A
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT.

August, 2013
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this is my own work and that to the best of my knowledge it contains neither material previously published by another person nor material which has not been accepted for the award of any degree without due acknowledgement.

NTIM MARY (UDS/MDM/0184/11)  signature  10-08-14
Student name and ID  date

Certified by

PROF. ATIA A. APUSIGAH  signature  22-08-14
Supervisor’s name  date
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am most grateful to God Almighty for the love He showed me throughout my studies. Who would have believed that I will ever come this far in education? Indeed, had it not been for His Grace, the success story will not be told and with Him the sky is my limit.

I wish to thank all who have helped me in this project. Special thanks to my supervisor Prof. Agnes Atia Apusigah, Dean of the Faculty of Education, for her time, careful guidance and support from the beginning to the end of this study. Indeed the success of this project was due to your meticulous and passionate reading. I pray that the good Lord will replenish the strength, time and efforts spent on this study.

To my family, friends and colleagues who have been helpful in diverse ways, I say thank you. My mum Margaret Ntim and Uncle Mr. Gabriel Nyamekye, what would I have done without you? God bless you for all your prayers, support and encouragement.

Sister Ama, Kofi, Gloria, Joe, are all not left out; God bless you all.
DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my family, most especially you Mr. Gabriel Nyamekye, my uncle.

You single-handedly sponsored my education and I will forever be thankful to you. God bless.
TABLE OF CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENT</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title page</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgement</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of Contents</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>xi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of figures</td>
<td>xii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of abbreviations and acronyms</td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHAPTER ONE

Background of the Study 1
1.2 Statement of Problem 11
1.3 Broad Research Objectives 16
1.3.1 Specific Research Objectives 16
1.4 Broad Research Questions 17
1.4.1 Specific Research Questions 17
1.5 Scope of the study 18
1.6 Research Limitations 18
1.7 Operational Terms 19
1.8 Significance of the Study 21
1.9 Organization of Work 22

CHAPTER TWO:

Literature Review 24
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Introduction</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 The Conceptual/Theoretical Framework</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 Diversification in Management</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 Glass Ceiling</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Theories of Sex and Gender Differences</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1 Personality Trait Theory</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2 Segregation Theory</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2.1 Vertical Segregation</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2.2 Horizontal Segregation</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Management Styles of Women</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.1 Autocratic/Authoritarian</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.2 Paternalistic Style</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.3 Democratic Style</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.4 Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Women and Management</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.1 Gendered Notions of Women as Managers</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.2 Accounting for Women’s Low Representation in Management</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.3 Stereotypes and Prejudices as Barriers</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.4 The Cost of Under Representation of Women in Management</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Conclusions</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHAPTER THREE
Methodology                                                          50
3.1 Introduction                                                     50
3.2 Research Design                                                  50
3.3 Research Procedure                                               51
3.4 Sources of Data Collection                                        54
3.4.1 Primary Source of Data 54
3.4.2 Secondary Source of Data 54
3.5 Sampling Techniques 56
3.6 The Study Population 57
3.7 Profile of the study community 59
3.7.1 Campuses and Faculties 61
3.7.2 Graduate School 62
3.7.3 Student Population 62
3.7.4 The Third Trimester Field Practical Programme 63
3.8 Methods of Data Collection 66
3.8.1 Participant Observation 66
3.8.2 Document Review 67
3.8.3 Interviews 68
3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation 71
3.10 Site Selection 72
3.11 Validation 72
3.12 Ethical Consideration 73

CHAPTER FOUR
Data Analysis 75
4.1 Introduction 75
4.2 Socio-Demographic Background of Respondents 75
4.2.1 Gender Composition of Management 76
4.2.2 Age of Respondents 76
4.2.3 Marital Status of Respondents 77
4.2.4 Educational Background of Respondents 79
4.3 Ranks/statues of Respondents 80
4.3.1 Administrative category 81
4.7 Statues of Women in UDS Management

4.8 Peculiar Challenges of Women Managers

4.8.1 Family Life

4.8.2 Stress involved in the work

4.8.3 Lack of Confidence

4.8.4 Male Network Alliance

4.8.5 Unclear job Description

4.8.6 Socio-cultural Perception of women

4.9 Opportunities for Women in Management Positions

4.9.1 Training and Development

4.9.2 Recruitment

4.9.3 Mentorship

4.9.4 Role Models

4.10 Interventions to address Gendered Women’s Representation in Management

4.11 Conclusion

CHAPTER FIVE
Summary of findings, Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Summary of Findings

5.3 Conclusion

5.4 Recommendations

References

Appendix I

Appendix II

Appendix III

Appendix IV

viii
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: List of respondents by category and sex 58
Table 3.2: List of Interviewees by Category and Gender 69
Table 4.1: Gender Distribution of Respondents 74
Table 4.2: Marital Statues of Respondents 76
Table 4.3: Educational Background of Respondent 76
Table 4.4: Academic Category of Respondents 78
Table 4.5: Ranking of Respondents of Administrative Category 78
Table 4.6: Management Position of Respondents by Sex 79
Table 4.7: Respondents within Academic Units 79
Table 4.8: Respondents who are Principal Officers 80
Table 4.9: Respondents from University Council 80
Table 4.10: Principal Officers 81
Table 4.11: University Council 83
Table 4.12: Academic Board 83
Table 4.13: Dean/Directorate 84
Table 4.14: Vice Deans/Deputy Director 85
Table 4.15: HoDs/HoUs of Academic Section 86
Table 4.16: Faculty Officers/Assistant Registrars 87
Table 4.17: Administrative Deputies 88
Table 4.18: Heads of Administrative Units by Sections and Sex 88
Table 4.19: Appointed members of University Council by sex 90
Table 4.20: Academic Qualification and Rank 90
Table 4.21: Desire for further Education 91
LIST OF FIGURES

Fig.1.1: The management structure of the UDS 62
Fig.4.1: Age Distribution of respondents 75
Fig.4.2: Educational Background of respondents 77
Fig.4.3: Ranks of Academic Position 91
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACU: Association of Commonwealth Universities
CHE: Council of Tertiary Education
CCEIR: Centre for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research
FAS: Faculty of Applied Science
FOA: Faculty of Agriculture
FIDS: Faculty of Integrated Development Studies
FMS: Faculty of Mathematical Science
FELBS: Faculty of Education Law and Business Studies
FAWE: Forum for African Women Educationalist
FRNR: Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources
FPLM: Faculty of Planning and Land Management
GS: Graduate School
IFCAT: Institute for Field Communication and Agricultural Training
ISSER: Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research
MSC: Master of Social Sciences
MPHIL: Master of Philosophy
NCCE: National Commission for Civic Education
SMHS: School of Medical and Health Sciences
TTFPP: Third Trimester Field Practical Programme
UCC: University of Cape Coast
UDS: University for Development Studies
UDS INT: University for Development Studies-Internal
WISE: Women into Science and Engineering
WD: Works and Physical Development Department
ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to investigate and offer an understanding of the involvement of women in the management of tertiary education institution with specific reference to the University for Development Studies. This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

An interview guide was prepared and sent across the four campuses and centers: Wa, Nyankpala, Navrongo, Tamale and Centre for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research (CCEIR), Graduate School and Central Administration of the University. The original quantitative data was transferred unto an SPSS spreadsheet for analysis whiles the qualitative date from the interviews conducted was content analyzed.

The study revealed that the 80 sampled participants had attained varied degrees of education. Out of the total, 43 hold Master’s degrees with a research base; this is a major requirement for recruitment. Also, 33 hold Doctorate degree which is a major requirement for a senior management position, especially for the academic category, of the UDS. There were also, 4 professors and 4 others who held professional degrees from other fields. The educational levels of the sampled population showed that men outnumbered women at all levels. Again, the study concerned itself with finding out the factors that shape and define entry into management positions by women in the UDS. It was found that, relevant qualification, number of publications, work experience in the University system, hard work and long service were all considered for entry into management positions. However, the survey revealed that majority of the women within the sampled participants did not meet many of these criteria. This had contributed to their low participation in the management system of the UDS.

Further, the findings revealed that women in management encounter challenges among which include socio-cultural perceptions of women, conflicting family and work responsibilities, male alliances and networks, stress involved in the work among others.

As a result of the above, the study has made a number of recommendations which when carefully implemented will improve the involvement of women and the management of tertiary education institutions in Ghana.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of the Study

Over the years there has been an increasing debate regarding gender gaps and related issues of the management categories of corporate and public service entities. Management as defined by Fayol (1916) and cited in (Cole 2004), is said to entail how to forecast and plan, organize and command, coordinate and control. In the 21st century, managers are expected to drive new businesses and new strategies of working. A manager is one who takes care of the day to day responsibilities of an organisation. These tasks include activities such as reporting, giving direction to employees and handling the day to day planning. A leader on the other hand creates and changes things, defines strategy and is responsible for outcomes. A leader is not necessarily a manager, in many firms a leader with his or her team draws on specialized knowledge or motivation to complete the set tasks (tresero.hhpages.com/hub/management and leadership, Date assessed: 31st October, 2012). Cole (2004) affirms that leadership at work is a dynamic process whereby one individual in a group is not only responsible for the group’s results, but seeks the collaboration and commitment of all the group members in achieving group goals in a particular context and against the background of a particular natural culture.

However, the bottom line is that both the manager and leader wield power and have the responsibility of making decisions that affect the organisations they serve (Bennis, 1989; guides.wsj.com/management/developing-a-leadership-style/, Date assessed: 31st October, 2012). Once the leader or manager is positioned to take directive stance as well as control the efficient and effective use of resources, they exert a certain level of power or influence. As a result they
are obliged to make decisions that would in the long run result in achieving the set objectives and goals of their organisation. As noted by Butcher and Clarke (2001) the principled use of power calls for a reflection on the nature of politics in an organisation. Managers and leaders should endeavor to subscribe to a set of values that drive their work. Of course these values are built around making a difference to the lives of their employees and communities as well.

Conversely, the unprincipled use of power in organisations and societies is evident in corporate breakdowns and governmental scandals. According to Wheatley (1999), considering the legitimate use of power, managers and leaders should ask themselves whether their big ideas conform to the ethical standards of their professions. Again they should ask whether their big ideas advance the goals of the organization in which they have the vested the power. By this, leaders and managers are cautioned to carefully guide their decision making process by the ethical standards of their profession and the vision and mission of the organisations they serve.

To be able to influence decision making in an organisation, one needs to move beyond the hierarchical model of management. It is critical for every organisation to possess a comprehensive strategic plan, line up all the resources and then focus on implementing the plan to achieve set goals. Managers and leaders of organisations therefore wield enormous power and authority in driving organisations stretching from control of resources, decision making, goal setting and motivating their teams and subordinates. In the area of practice, management and leadership positions have and continue to elude women. Women, the world over, continue to hold managerial positions in management and leadership. This has been attributed in part to women’s low participation in politics and public life (Allah-Mensah, 2005; ISSER, 1998). It is in view of this fact that the Platform of Action of the 1995 Beijing World Conference on women drew attention among others, to the unequal representation of women in leadership positions, as
a situation which cuts across political and public life. The persistent exclusion of women undermines the very tenants of the democracy sought by nations. It is important to underscore the fact that women’s unequal participation in decision making processes raises concern on their human rights. Allah-Mensah, (2005) asserts that, equality in political decision-making performs a leverage function without which it is highly unlikely that a real integration of the equality dimension in government policy-making is feasible. In this respect, women’s equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. By this, ensuring equal participation of women in decision-making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but should be seen as a necessary condition for the interest of women to be taken into account. It is important to note that without the active participation of women and of course the incorporation of their perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.

Nevertheless, the skewed gender gaps often against women has propelled nations the world over to initiate attempts to improve the status of women in their societies. For instance, the September 1995 Beijing Conference of the Fourth World Conference on Women required that states and their governments should narrow the gaps between men and women and to give equal opportunity to women like men. In spite of such efforts and other international meetings, the Association of Commonwealth Universities (2004) notes that women are still largely excluded from policy making and senior management in all sectors of the economy and, more typically, in the field of higher education. Globally, only very small percentages of women hold managerial positions in business and public administration (Crompton and Mishra, 1999).

An important element in national policies is the improvement of women’s access to a wider range of jobs including those at the managerial level. Many nations including the Great Britain,
have introduced legislation such as those outlawing sex discrimination at work and, in public services, among others, with the view to prevent unfair discrimination against women in the workplace (www.equalityhumanrights.com, Date assessed: 15th October, 2012). Unfortunately, such legislation by itself cannot bring the changes sort by governments, but it can only serve as panacea to influence women’s participation in management and leadership at the workplace.

According to Davidson and Cooper (1993) in the UK, women hold 5% of senior management posts, and perhaps some 26% of all managerial-type roles. This is in a situation where they make up more than 40% of the total work force. The proportion of women reaching top positions is still very low in most countries, though it has been increasing in for instance the US and some European countries.

Attitudes towards women as homemakers or better still career people vary from one society to another. Some societies emphasize women’s roles as homemakers, wives, and mothers. In such societies, attitudes are often biased against women taking on anything other than relatively low-level, part-time work. Their education in such circumstances tends to be geared towards these basic assumptions about a woman’s role. In such a situation, by comparison, the expectations of men as breadwinners are high and thus social action is geared to the education, training and support of men in employment. According to Cole (2004), under such circumstances, the chances of women being able to gain management positions are poor except in occupations such as social work, nursing and infant teaching among others where they are employed in a professional capacity.

Major efforts have been made over the years to remove obstacles to women’s career development especially in the UK. As explained by Cole (2004), in the UK legislation such as
the Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 and the Equal Pay Act of 1970 have been aimed at encouraging greater fairness towards women at work. Other efforts to improve the lot of women employees include such development as WISE (Women into Science and Engineering) and Opportunity 2000—a programme launched in 1991 with the purpose of “increasing the quality and quantity of women’s participation by the year 2000.” Since these various developments but not necessarily because of them, women have begun to take active role in management. An official survey in 1993 showed that women held about 33% of positions described as managerial or administrative, but that many of these positions were in traditionally female occupations (Cole, 2004). This notwithstanding, in the most senior roles as already mentioned women lag far behind men and well out of proportion even in their presence in middle management.

Giving an overview of the status of women in higher education in the Commonwealth with a focus on African countries in 2004, the Association of Commonwealth Universities, (ACU), highlighted the poor representation of women at senior management levels. The data showed that in the year 2000, at the senior lecturer level, there were 28,310 women from a total of 125,212, representing a 22.6% of all the academic staff employed at this level. Top management positions continued to be a domain of men with 9% women vice-chancellors, 14.9% heads of administration, 12.0% finance officers and 14.3% deans in the Commonwealth Universities. The same data showed that, African countries performed extremely poorly with Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe having no woman vice-chancellor, Cameroon 14.3% (one out of seven) and Nigeria 2.9% (1 out of 34) women vice-chancellors. Ghana has had one in recent time. Also, although across the Commonwealth universities, 14.9% heads of administration were women, in the African situation; ten countries had only male administrators in all their universities while Kenya had one
out of nine; Lesotho one out of one; Sierra Leone one out of two and Zambia one out of two. In Nigeria, three out of thirty one administrators were women and in South Africa all thirteen administrators were male. In the area of financial management, Ghana had one out of four finance officers; Mozambique (one out of one), Nigeria (three out of sixteen) and South Africa (one out of twelve). Again, Botswana, Malawi, Namibia and Uganda had no women in the senior management teams of Universities. Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe had one woman each in their senior teams. South Africa had eight women among 49 (16.3%) senior managers. Deanships continued to be held largely by men. Three countries in Africa reported no woman deans: Lesotho, Mozambique and Sierra Leone. Botswana had two out of seven deans; Uganda four out of twenty one and Swaziland two out of eight representing around 20% women in deanship positions. Nigeria had only 6.5% or ten out of one hundred and fifty five deans and South Africa only 3.2% or three out of ninety three women deans (Singh, 2004; 8-9).

Furthermore, in the academic leadership positions women have shown greater advancement than in the administrative positions (Singh, 2004). The appointment of women as heads of academic departments and directors of academic centers was somewhat more encouraging than the appointment of deans. However, women in Africa had done poorly in attaining professorial status. Five countries reported no women professors: Lesotho, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. Other African countries had less than 10% women professors. At the level of associate professor, African women have done somewhat better. Namibia (100.0%; 8/8), Zimbabwe (63.6%; seven out of eleven), South Africa (33.4%; 667 out of 1999), Sierra Leone (33.3%; five out of fifteen), Botswana (23.9%; 33 out of 138) and Uganda (20.4%; 30 out of 147) had good representation at this level. Women have done much better in taking up positions of chief librarian. In African countries, there were still many countries where no women had
been appointed as chief librarians: Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Uganda and Tanzania. In Lesotho, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe the chief librarians were all women (usually only per country). In Nigeria 27.8% (five out of eighteen) and South Africa 27.2 % (three out of eleven) chief librarians were women (Singh, 2004).

The above statistics depicts a grave and persistent inequality in higher education in Africa and the commonwealth. Commenting on the above, Apusigah (2004) identified policy, circular, situational, structural and financial factors that threaten progress toward gender parity in leadership in higher education in Africa. In her words,

Policies are non-existent, unimplemented or under-resourced and located in highly marginalized offices that have limited influence on mainstream decisions. There is need for policies that empower women in higher education to achieve optimum performance, such as Equal Opportunities Acts which cover recruitment, staff development, job descriptions, monitoring and evaluation (ACU, 2004: 10).

Women face lots of challenges in their career development. One of such barriers women experience in the work place has to do with organizational stereotyping. Holmes and associates (2003) state that, gender stereotypes are categorical beliefs regarding the traits and behavioral characteristics ascribed to individuals on the basis of their gender. Dovidio and Helb (2005) further explain that gender stereotyping derives from expectations about the attributes and behaviors of individual group members considered one of the direct antecedents of discrimination at work.

Other barriers that militate against women can be marginalization, glass ceiling, glass walls, socio culturally ascribed roles, occupational segregation, lack of expertise and inadequate career
opportunities, physiological differences which suggest that physiologically men are more inclined to want top jobs and positions of authority in society than women (Owusu, 2009). However, this does not mean that men are more suitable for jobs but they seem to be more inclined to seek such positions. Given the male dominance at the work place, women face difficulties attempting to break into what has been, and still is a "male" world. As Ellison (2001) cited by Owusu (2009), rightly puts it, that most establishment structures such as labour market, legislative policies, politics and mainstream culture are run by men and they perpetrate these situation by appointing men to come after them particularly into positions of power.

Ghana is no exception to these as it was only recently that a good number of women were appointed to head critical state institutions. The appointment of the Government Statistician, Chief Justice, the Speaker of Parliament and the Inspector General of Police, who was shortly replaced by a man and non-confirmation of others such as an acting commissioner of CHRAJ, Anna Bossman, who recently left that establishment are but a few examples. Women also face glass ceiling and glass walls mostly in professions which have difficulties accepting women as equal with sub-groups (Greed, 1991). Flanders (1994) uses the phrase glass ceiling to sum up the frustration of working women at every level who can see where they want to advance to but find themselves blocked by invisible barriers.

West and Zimmerman (1987) argue that gender relations and identities are not natural outcomes of biology or products of appropriate sex role socialization but institutionalized practices that all of us do. It can be said that, this type of socialization places women into positions of inferiority and as such, they usually bargain from a weaker position during negotiation.
According to Loderstedt (2003) the perception of management as a masculine domain, with the associated gender roles and stereotypes also account for women’s inability to aspire higher. To this end it is important to ask whether a woman should be man before she can become a manager. Women therefore appear to be disproportionately placed in areas purported to reflect their physiological traits and duties and for that matter match the stereotyping of women roles as caring and nurturing.

A study conducted by US Bureau of the Census (2001) indicated that, in the last few decades, the number of women in paid employment and their rate of participation in the workforce have speedily increased. Women are projected to comprise 48% of the work force by the year 2008 (US Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2001). Regardless of the far-reaching effort to extend the number of women in organizational management positions, recent research on the participation rate of women in management show modest results (Nesbit and Seege, 2007).

Beyond doubt, it is evident that, though extensive work and studies on women in management have been done, the representation of women in leadership and management position is still marginal. According to EOWA (2006), women enter the work force in similar number to men, so at the lower entry levels in organisations, there is a strong gender balance. Even though women may enter the work force with same qualifications as men and in the same number as men, it is important to note that women seem to get lost along the carrier path. This may be further due to a number of problems. Audet and Miller (2005) have stated in their work that, further along the carrier path, the trend of equality in organizational roles between the genders changes significantly. It is also important to recognize other factors that influence discrimination against women and women’s career development. For instance, career interruptions, unavailability of mentors and perspective stereotypes among other tend to dictate how women should be.
Women continue to face discrimination at work places. Shinew and Arnold (1968) studied female gender discrimination in public service and reported that female managers were discriminated against male managers in promotional opportunities. One of the aims of the Millennium Development Goals is removing gender disparities (Millennium Development Goals September, 2000). For this to be achieved all forms of discrimination against women must be removed.

According to Fagerson and Jackson (1994) organizational barriers include failure to recruit, develop and support women for upper level management positions, prejudices against women in performance evaluations and hostile environments. Ellison (2001) adds that women lack mentors because organizational structures perpetuate the situation where men appoint their fellow men to come after them particularly into positions of power. According to Wentling (2003) the supply of women qualified for management jobs has continued to increase as more women accumulate work experience and complete management and professional education programmes.

Again women are equally talented and can bring improvements to the workplace. Ng and Burke (2005) confirm this by stating that perhaps the most compelling reason for more attention to the issues of women in leadership relates to the need to attract talented managers in the face of declining workforce numbers. A recent research at the organizational level has shown that management jobs are still dominated by men, and that given the option many organizations prefer to hire or promote men to administrative and management positions.

Women’s representation is important for perpetuating succession plans and encouraging mentorship in order to achieve and maintain equality of opportunity for women in management. This should be an ongoing process for keeping up the pace of parity and enhancing women’s
opportunity to progress to positions of power and influence in organizations. The African Business Leaders Forum (2008) has stated that there have been significant developments regarding women’s empowerment in Africa, both on the political front and the corporate scene. In the last couple of years several companies from the length and breadth of the continent have appointed a notable number of women to leadership positions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Even though global data show that women continue to increase their share of managerial positions, the rate of progress is slow and uneven. In 2007, the Council on Higher Education (CHE) based in South Africa, conducted a study on women employed in higher educational institutions which revealed that until 2005, public higher education employed more men than women. This changed in 2006 when women outnumbered men for the first time. By 2007, women constituted 51% of the total staff at public higher education institutions. At universities and comprehensive universities, 52% of staff was women while at universities of technology 46% of staff was women. But within job categories the gender equality is less evident. Men hold majority of management, academic, technical, trade and services posts while women are in the majority in the specialized support professional and non-professional administration posts (CHE, 2007: www.che.ac.za/heinsa/whe; date assessed; 11th September, 2012).

Further, the CHE (2007) research revealed that women continue to be under-represented in senior management positions (defined as management of the institutions or one of its major divisions). At the comprehensive universities 31% of senior management comprised women. At the time of the research, only four out of 23 public institutions in South Africa had women vice-chancellors. They were the Cape Peninsula University of Technology headed by Prof Valise
Mazwi-Tanga, the Vaal University of Technology headed by Prof Mount Lana, the University of Pretoria headed by Prof. De La Ray and the University of Zululand headed by Prof. Rachel Gumbi. The greatest inequality was at the levels of professor and associated professor as depicted below:

Professor, Associate Professor: 24% (women), 76% (men)

Senior Lectures: 40% (women), 60% (men)

Lecturers: 48% (women), 52% (men)

Junior Lecturers, undesignated: 47% (women), 53% (men) (CHE, 2007).

In the case of women in higher education in Ghana, Dr. J. K. Aggrey once declared that, if you educate a man, you educate an individual but if you educate a woman and you educate a nation. Education is thought of as a project in which women have a crucial stake, as women are generally those on whom the responsibility of educating falls, whether in the home or in the school. Though, this statement is widely used in Ghana since independence, it does not reflect women’s actual involvement in higher education (Adusah-Karikari, 2008).

A study conducted on gender issues at the University of Cape Coast in Ghana revealed that women academics have low statistical and political visibility and, their concerns and needs within the workplace are not discussed (Prah, 2002: 41). With regard to female university students, Prah (2002:41) concluded that “there is anecdotal evidence about women students who were intimidated by their peers, particularly (but not exclusively) men, when they decided to stand for political office at the university”. Additionally, the university itself has no gender equity unit or special department to handle gender discrimination issues, reflecting some of the
challenges that Ghanaian women face at the university. In recent time however the University of Cape Coast has had its first woman Vice Chancellor, Pro. Naana J. Opoku-Agyemang, who left office after serving a term.

The status of the Ghanaian women is shaped by cultural/societal norms and the legacies of colonialism and its educational system which has been biased in favor of boys, as part of the need to train African men to help them run their colonial government’s machinery (Adusah-Karikari, 2008). Bartels (1965) reveals that when the first school for girls was opened in Ghana, the aim of the missionaries who ran the school was to groom young women to become fit wives for the men they were training. Van Allen (1976) traces the sex differentials in education in Africa to colonialism. He writes:

When they needed literate Africans to form a supportive mediating structure for colonial governments, they sought young boys for schooling. Even when girls were sent to mission schools, they often were not taught the same subjects. Girls’ “training homes” taught some “domestic science” and the Bible in vernacular (p. 35).

Thus, inequality in education is rooted in colonialism and today we see the ripple effects. It has been argued by Prah (2002) as cited in Adusah-Karikari (2008) that if women should excel in any profession, then it should be teaching at the universities because teaching is supposedly women’s forte and universities are assumed to be meritocratic institutions. She further asserts that Ghanaian universities are male-dominated institutions and the women within them — academics, administrators, support staff and, students — face major obstacles because of lack of attention to their specific needs and problems. According to Leney (2003), in the first year of the University College in Ghana in 1946, women accounted for just 2% of the student population,
while in the year 1957, they still amounted for less than 5%. At the first phase of development of the University of Ghana, there were four residence halls for men and one for women (Leney, 2003).

Leney (2003) contends that women have suffered disproportionately from the lack of a sound secondary education and even if they managed to gain places as undergraduates, their prospects for professional employment remain poor. At Ghana’s independence in 1957, according to Leney (2003) “there were 120 students of Arts (5 of whom were women), 76 of Science (3 of whom were women), 26 studying for a Social Studies Certificate (2 of whom were women), 45 studying at the Institute of Education (7 of whom were women)” (p. 163). Thus the problem of the “wastage of womanpower” was one of the concerns of the (post-independence) 1961 Commission on University Education, appointed to review the position of the soon-to-be-independent University of Ghana. This international commission noted that women had to abandon education without completing their qualifications and that women were underrepresented even in professions such as nursing, teaching, and social work, traditionally considered the province of women (Leney, 2003). Leney (2003) as cited in Adusah-Karikari contends that employment conditions in the early years of independence were fairly liberal, reflecting the international commission’s stipulation that the terms of employment remain more or less untouched. The conditions even provided some encouragement for women academics. Florence Dolphyne returned to Legon in 1965 as lecturer in Linguistics and later rose to be Pro-Vice Chancellor (1996-1997). This was the highest office in any Ghanaian university held by a woman at the time (Adusah-Karikari, 2008).

The case is no different in the University for Development Studies. Like other institutions, the University appears to perpetuate a sex division of labour where men have tended to hold the
majority of senior and high management positions, while women dominate in junior and low positions. This gendered pattern occurs also in other aspects of the University, its committees, staffing patterns, and informal lobbying groups: a situation that corroborates claims that the higher education institutions are patriarchal.

Despite the existence of patriarchy in the early Ghanaian society, colonialism reinforced that phenomenon and legitimized it in the new social order developed during and after colonialism. Feminists have suggested that patriarchy dominates postcolonial much as it dominated colonial everyday life (Rosser, 2007). Although the end of colonial rule created high hopes for a proper postcolonial era, the extent to which the West had not relinquished control quickly became clear. Two frameworks — pre colonial and postcolonial feminist theory — offer a reasonable place from which to understand the position of women in management in higher education.

According to Gangone (2008) many women working within institutions of higher education remain in middle roles rather than senior administrative positions. Indeed commendable improvements have been made in the public service as many women are put in commanding heights of society. Among the women in high public positions of trust and height are the Chief Justice, Justice Mrs. Georgina Theodora Wood; the immediate past Speaker of Parliament, Justice Mrs. Joyce Adeline Bamford Addo; the current Commissioner of the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ), Ms. Lauretta Vivian Lamptey and the Chairperson of the National Commission for Civic Education (NCCE), Mrs. Charlotte Kesson-Smith Osei. Regardless of the positive steps taken to increase the representation of women and minorities in the areas of employment, education and business, women are still unevenly represented especially in the management of tertiary institutions in Ghana. Professor Naana Jane Opoku-Agyemang, former Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) and Prof.
Florence Abena Dolphynne, former Pro Vice Chancellor of the University of Ghana, Legon will have their names written in golden letters in history for being the first ever female to occupy such positions in public universities in Ghana. The inadequate representation of women within senior management positions automatically raises questions about the effectiveness of equal opportunities and may suggest its absence.

Studies show that the University for Development Studies (UDS) like other public universities in Ghana exhibits a gendered pattern in senior member recruitments and management (UDS, 2006; Apusigah, 2004). This study seeks to investigate the nature of the gendered pattern and challenges of women in management in the UDS.

1.3 Broad Research Questions

The main research question of the study is: To what extent have women been involved in the management system of the UDS?

1.3.1 Specific Research Questions

1. What is the management position of women in relation to men in the UDS?

2. What factors explicitly shape and define the management position of women in the UDS?

3. What is the nature of the challenges women encounter as a result of their position in the UDS?

4. What progressive opportunities exist for women in position in relation to men in the UDS?
5. What pragmatic interventions have been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women’s representation in the management system and structure of the UDS, their effects, achievements and challenges?

6. What opportunities remain for further research and how might UDS enhance gender equality in its management structure?

1.4 Broad Research Objectives

The main objective of the study is to investigate the extent and pattern of women’s involvement in the management system in the UDS.

1.4.1 Specific Research Objectives

1. To assess the management position of women in relation to men in the UDS.

2. To determine the factors that shape and define the management position of women in the UDS.

3. To ascertain the challenges women face by virtue of their position in relation to men in the UDS.

4. To explore available progressive opportunities for women in management positions in relation to men in the UDS.

5. To determine what pragmatic interventions have been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women’s representation in the management system and structure in the UDS.
6. To make recommendations for further studies by researchers who might be interested in a similar study and for working toward enhancing gender equality in the management structure of the UDS.

1.5 Scope of the study

In terms of content, the study sought to investigate the involvement of women in the management of tertiary institutions with specific reference to the UDS. It covered the period 1992 to 2010 with the objective of soliciting information from selected respondents through the use of multiple sources of evidence including observations, interviews and review of literature.

In terms of geographic scope, the research was carried out in the UDS. Its location and multi campuses are spread out in Northern Ghana. These include the Tamale, Wa, Nyankpala, and Navrongo campuses. The UDS was chosen as a tertiary institution in the Northern part of Ghana. Also, not much research has been done on women and management in the study area.

1.6 Research Limitations

No existing project has ever been successfully achieved without challenges. First of all accessing the records of past and present women managers in the institution was indeed hectic.

Secondly, the disparity in terms of the population was great. For instance because there were more men than women in the population, it was difficult to compare certain characteristics.

Again, the scattered nature of the respondents involved in this study made collection of data very cumbersome and complex.
However, since an in-depth understanding was gained from the phenomenon under study it would be informative for researchers and practitioners interested in gaining insight into the status of women in management in higher education.

1.7 Operational Terms

1.7.1 Management

Management is the act of getting people together in an organisation to accomplish desired goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively.

1.7.2 Tertiary Education

Tertiary Education generally begins after Senior High School and is carried out in the university or college and usually involving study for degree, diploma or certificate.

1.7.3 Tertiary Institutions

Education beyond the secondary level, especially education at the college or university level.

1.7.4 Stereotype

Is a thought that may be adopted about specific types of individuals or certain ways of doing things, but that belief may or may not accurately reflect reality.

1.7.4 Glass Wall
Glass wall refers to the phenomenon of high rates of women advancing to executive positions but only in certain industries. Thus women having the opportunity to work in specific areas not others.

1.7.5 Glass Ceiling

The encyclopedia defines glass ceiling as the unseen, yet unreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievement.

Glass ceiling as used in the study is a metaphor used to describe the invisible barriers ("glass") through which women can see elite positions but cannot reach ("ceiling"). These barriers prevent large numbers of women and ethnic minorities from obtaining and securing the most powerful, prestigious and highest grossing jobs in the workforce.

1.7.6 Gender

Gender as used here refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a male or female at a particular point in time.

1.7.7 Gender Equality

Gender equality pertains to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men.

1.7.8 Equal Opportunity

Is a stipulation that all people should be treated similarly, unhampered by artificial barriers or prejudices or preferences, except when particular “distinctions can be explicitly justified.

1.7.9 Higher Education
Refers to postsecondary education, including but not limited to Universities, and including colleges and technical training institutions. In Ghana, it is commonly referred to as tertiary education where it applies to teacher training colleges, and polytechnics.

1.7.10 Empowerment

Refers to increasing the spiritual, political, social, educational, gender, or economic strength of individuals and communities.

1.7.11 Diversification

Refers to the process of changing or variation in ideas or strategy.

1.8 significance of study

Examining women in management in tertiary institutions in Ghana provides an important framework for understanding the ongoing chronic gender imbalances in higher education in Ghana. My interest in this study stems from the scarcity of literature on women in management higher education in Ghana. Morley (2005) contends that the “West has produced a sizeable amount of published quantitative and qualitative data and critical literatures on gender, whereas lower-income countries have had to rely on some gender disaggregated statistics and quantitative studies often funded by international organizations” (p. 210).

This research seeks to contribute more in-depth and specific information to be used by Ghana’s educational policymakers, particularly the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs and the National Council for Tertiary Education, two bodies responsible for designing effective and efficient reforms for integrating the gender equity dimension in the formulation of policy. The Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs is responsible for ensuring equal status for women;
enforcing the rights of children and women; and promoting the survival, development, protection; and increased participation of both women and children in the development process. Through this study, the Ministry will be able to identify the barriers faced by women in higher education, including continuing persistence of the sex-preferential education of children, and use that as a justification for policy formulation.

In addition, this research could also be used by advocacy groups, such as Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), which has expertise and political influence, to articulate for and contribute to women’s interests in society in general. Finally, this study will add to the existing body of knowledge on the understanding of the challenges of women in management in higher education in Ghana.

It is my hope that this research will contribute in many ways to the current discussions about women in management in higher education in Ghana and also my recommendations be used by UDS to implement policies and programs that promote gender issues.

1.9 Organisation of Work

This study is organized in five chapters; background, literature review, methodology, discussion of results, conclusion and recommendations. Chapter 1 provides a background to the study. It focuses on the problem statement, research questions and objectives, significance of the study.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of previous research and literature concerning women and the management of tertiary education in Ghana. The chapter also focuses on other topics relevant to the study, such as diversity in management, glass ceiling which formed the conceptual framework and the theoretical framework for the study.
The methodology of the research is presented in chapter three. The chapter provides a detailed description of the research design, sources of data, data collection procedure and data analysis employed in the study.

The results of the study are discussed in chapter four and chapter five presents summary, conclusion and recommendation for addressing the issues identified.
1.0 Background of the Study

Over the years there has been an increasing debate regarding gender gaps and related issues of the management categories of corporate and public service entities. Management as defined by Fayol (1916) and cited in (Cole 2004), is said to entail how to forecast and plan, organize and command, coordinate and control. In the 21st century, managers are expected to drive new businesses and new strategies of working. A manager is one who takes care of the day to day responsibilities of an organisation. These tasks include activities such as reporting, giving direction to employees and handling the day to day planning. A leader on the other hand creates and changes things, defines strategy and is responsible for outcomes. A leader is not necessarily a manager; in many firms a leader with his or her team draws on specialized knowledge or motivation to complete the set tasks (tresero.hhpages.com/hub/management and leadership, Date assessed: 31st October, 2012). Cole (2004) affirms that leadership at work is a dynamic process whereby one individual in a group is not only responsible for the group’s results, but seeks the collaboration and commitment of all the group members in achieving group goals in a particular context and against the background of a particular natural culture.

However, the bottom line is that both the manager and leader wield power and have the responsibility of making decisions that affect the organisations they serve (Bennis, 1989; guides.wsj.com/management/developing-a-leadership-style/, Date assessed: 31st October, 2012). Once the leader or manager is positioned to take directive stance as well as control the efficient and effective use of resources, they exert a certain level of power or influence. As a result they
are obliged to make decisions that would in the long run result in achieving the set objectives and goals of their organisation. As noted by Butcher and Clarke (2001) the principled use of power calls for a reflection on the nature of politics in an organisation. Managers and leaders should endeavor to subscribe to a set of values that drive their work. Of course these values are built around making a difference to the lives of their employees and communities as well.

Conversely, the unprincipled use of power in organisations and societies is evident in corporate breakdowns and governmental scandals. According to Wheatley (1999), considering the legitimate use of power, managers and leaders should ask themselves whether their big ideas conform to the ethical standards of their professions. Again they should ask whether their big ideas advance the goals of the organization in which they have the vested the power. By this, leaders and managers are cautioned to carefully guide their decision making process by the ethical standards of their profession and the vision and mission of the organisations they serve.

To be able to influence decision making in an organisation, one needs to move beyond the hierarchical model of management. It is critical for every organisation to possess a comprehensive strategic plan, line up all the resources and then focus on implementing the plan to achieve set goals. Managers and leaders of organisations therefore wield enormous power and authority in driving organisations stretching from control of resources, decision making, goal setting and motivating their teams and subordinates. In the area of practice, management and leadership positions have and continue to elude women. Women, the world over, continue to hold managerial positions in management and leadership. This has been attributed in part to women's low participation in politics and public life (Allah-Mensah, 2005; ISSER, 1998). It is in view of this fact that the Platform of Action of the 1995 Beijing World Conference on women drew attention among others, to the unequal representation of women in leadership positions, as
a situation which cuts across political and public life. The persistent exclusion of women undermines the very tenants of the democracy sought by nations. It is important to underscore the fact that women’s unequal participation in decision making processes raises concern on their human rights. Allah-Mensah, (2005) asserts that, equality in political decision-making performs a leverage function without which it is highly unlikely that a real integration of the equality dimension in government policy-making is feasible. In this respect, women’s equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. By this, ensuring equal participation of women in decision-making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but should be seen as a necessary condition for the interest of women to be taken into account. It is important to note that without the active participation of women and of course the incorporation of their perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved.

Nevertheless, the skewed gender gaps often against women has propelled nations the world over to initiate attempts to improve the status of women in their societies. For instance, the September 1995 Beijing Conference of the Fourth World Conference on Women required that states and their governments should narrow the gaps between men and women and to give equal opportunity to women like men. In spite of such efforts and other international meetings, the Association of Commonwealth Universities (2004) notes that women are still largely excluded from policy making and senior management in all sectors of the economy and, more typically, in the field of higher education. Globally, only very small percentages of women hold managerial positions in business and public administration (Crompton and Mishra, 1999).

An important element in national policies is the improvement of women’s access to a wider range of jobs including those at the managerial level. Many nations including the Great Britain,
have introduced legislation such as those outlawing sex discrimination at work and, in public services, among others, with the view to prevent unfair discrimination against women in the workplace (www.equalityhumanrights.com, Date assessed: 15\textsuperscript{th} October, 2012). Unfortunately, such legislation by itself cannot bring the changes sort by governments, but it can only serve as panacea to influence women’s participation in management and leadership at the workplace.

According to Davidson and Cooper (1993) in the UK, women hold 5\% of senior management posts, and perhaps some 26\% of all managerial-type roles. This is in a situation where they make up more than 40\% of the total workforce. The proportion of women reaching top positions is still very low in most countries, though it has been increasing in for instance the US and some European countries.

Attitudes towards women as homemakers or better still career people vary from one society to another. Some societies emphasize women’s roles as homemakers, wives, and mothers. In such societies, attitudes are often biased against women taking on anything other than relatively low-level, part-time work. Their education in such circumstances tends to be geared towards these basic assumptions about a woman’s role. In such a situation, by comparison, the expectations of men as breadwinners are high and thus social action is geared to the education, training and support of men in employment. According to Cole (2004), under such circumstances, the chances of women being able to gain management positions are poor except in occupations such as social work, nursing and infant teaching among others where they are employed in a professional capacity.

Major efforts have been made over the years to remove obstacles to women’s career development especially in the UK. As explained by Cole (2004), in the UK legislation such as
the Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 and the Equal Pay Act of 1970 have been aimed at encouraging greater fairness towards women at work. Other efforts to improve the lot of women employees include such development as WISE (Women into Science and Engineering) and Opportunity 2000- a programme launched in 1991 with the purpose of ‘increasing the quality and quantity of women’s participation by the year 2000.’ Since these various developments but not necessarily because of them, women have begun to take active role in management. An official survey in 1993 showed that women held about 33% of positions described as managerial or administrative, but that many of these positions were in traditionally female occupations (Cole, 2004). This notwithstanding, in the most senior roles as already mentioned women lag far behind men and well out of proportion even in their presence in middle management.

Giving an overview of the status of women in higher education in the Commonwealth with a focus on African countries in 2004, the Association of Commonwealth Universities, (ACU), highlighted the poor representation of women at senior management levels. The data showed that in the year 2000, at the senior lecturer level, there were 28,310 women from a total of 125,212, representing a 22.6% of all the academic staff employed at this level. Top management positions continued to be a domain of men with 9% women vice-chancellors, 14.9% heads of administration, 12.0% finance officers and 14.3% deans in the Commonwealth Universities. The same data showed that, African countries performed extremely poorly with Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe having no woman vice chancellor, Cameroon 14.3% (one out of seven) and Nigeria 2.9%(1out of 34) women vice chancellors. Ghana has had one in recent time. Also, although across the Commonwealth universities, 14.9% heads of administration were women, in the African situation; ten countries had only male administrators in all their universities while Kenya had one.
out of nine; Lesotho one out of one; Sierra Leone one out of two and Zambia one out of two. In Nigeria, three out of thirty one administrators were women and in South Africa all thirteen administrators were male. In the area of financial management, Ghana had one out of four finance officers; Mozambique (one out of one), Nigeria (three out of sixteen) and South Africa (one out of twelve). Again, Botswana, Malawi, Namibia and Uganda had no women in the senior management teams of Universities. Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe had one woman each in their senior teams. South Africa had eight women among 49 (16.3%) senior managers. Deanships continued to be held largely by men. Three countries in Africa reported no woman deans: Lesotho, Mozambique and Sierra Leone. Botswana had two out of seven deans; Uganda four out of twenty one and Swaziland two out of eight representing around 20% women in deanship positions. Nigeria had only 6.5% or ten out of one hundred and fifty five deans and South Africa only 3.2% or three out of ninety three women deans (Singh, 2004; 8-9).

Furthermore, in the academic leadership positions women have shown greater advancement than in the administrative positions (Singh, 2004). The appointment of women as heads of academic departments and directors of academic centers was somewhat more encouraging than the appointment of deans. However, women in Africa had done poorly in attaining professorial status. Five countries reported no women professors: Lesotho, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. Other African countries had less than 10% women professors. At the level of associate professor, African women have done somewhat better. Namibia (100.0%; 8/8), Zimbabwe (63.6%; seven out of eleven), South Africa (33.4%; 667 out of 1999), Sierra Leone (33.3%; five out of fifteen), Botswana (23.9%; 33 out of 138) and Uganda (20.4%; 30 out of 147) had good representation at this level. Women have done much better in taking up positions of chief librarian. In African countries, there were still many countries where no women had
been appointed as chief librarians: Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Uganda and Tanzania. In Lesotho, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe the chief librarians were all women (usually only per country). In Nigeria 27.8% (five out of eighteen) and South Africa 27.2% (three out of eleven) chief librarians were women (Singh, 2004).

The above statistics depicts a grave and persistent inequality in higher education in Africa and the commonwealth. Commenting on the above, Apusigah (2004) identified policy, circular, situational, structural and financial factors that threaten progress toward gender parity in leadership in higher education in Africa. In her words,

Policies are non-existent, unimplemented or under-resourced and located in highly marginalized offices that have limited influence on mainstream decisions. There is need for policies that empower women in higher education to achieve optimum performance, such as Equal Opportunities Acts which cover recruitment, staff development, job descriptions, monitoring and evaluation (ACU, 2004: 10).

Women face lots of challenges in their career development. One of such barriers women experience in the work place has to do with organizational stereotyping. Holmes and associates (2003) state that, gender stereotypes are categorical beliefs regarding the traits and behavioral characteristics ascribed to individuals on the basis of their gender. Dovidio and Helb (2005) further explain that gender stereotyping derives from expectations about the attributes and behaviors of individual group members considered one of the direct antecedents of discrimination at work.

Other barriers that militate against women can be marginalization, glass ceiling, glass walls, socio culturally ascribed roles, occupational segregation, lack of expertise and inadequate career
opportunities, physiological differences which suggest that physiologically men are more inclined to want top jobs and positions of authority in society than women (Owusu, 2009). However, this does not mean that men are more suitable for jobs but they seem to be more inclined to seek such positions. Given the male dominance at the work place, women face difficulties attempting to break into what has been, and still is a “male” world. As Ellison (2001) cited by Owusu (2009), rightly puts it, that most establishment structures such as labour market, legislative policies, politics and mainstream culture are run by men and they perpetrate these situation by appointing men to come after them particularly into positions of power.

Ghana is no exception to these as it was only recently that a good number of women were appointed to head critical state institutions. The appointment of the Government Statistician, Chief Justice, the Speaker of Parliament and the Inspector General of Police, who was shortly replaced by a man and non-confirmation of others such as an acting commissioner of CHRAJ, Anna Bossman, who recently left that establishment are but a few examples. Women also face glass ceiling and glass walls mostly in professions which have difficulties accepting women as equal with sub-groups (Greed, 1991). Flanders (1994) uses the phrase glass ceiling to sum up the frustration of working women at every level who can see where they want to advance to but find themselves blocked by invisible barriers.

West and Zimmerman (1987) argue that gender relations and identities are not natural outcomes of biology or products of appropriate sex role socialization but institutionalized practices that all of us do. It can be said that, this type of socialization places women into positions of inferiority and as such, they usually bargain from a weaker position during negotiation.
According to Loderstedt (2003) the perception of management as a masculine domain, with the associated gender roles and stereotypes also account for women’s inability to aspire higher. To this end it is important to ask whether a woman should be man before she can become a manager. Women therefore appear to be disproportionately placed in areas purported to reflect their physiological traits and duties and for that matter match the stereotyping of women roles as caring and nurturing.

A study conducted by US Bureau of the Census (2001) indicated that, in the last few decades, the number of women in paid employment and their rate of participation in the workforce have speedily increased. Women are projected to comprise 48% of the work force by the year 2008 (US Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2001). Regardless of the far-reaching effort to extend the number of women in organizational management positions, recent research on the participation rate of women in management show modest results (Nesbit and Seege, 2007).

Beyond doubt, it is evident that, though extensive work and studies on women in management have been done, the representation of women in leadership and management position is still marginal. According to EOWA (2006), women enter the work force in similar number to men, so at the lower entry levels in organisations, there is a strong gender balance. Even though women may enter the work force with same qualifications as men and in the same number as men, it is important to note that women seem to get lost along the carrier path. This may be further due to a number of problems. Audet and Miller (2005) have stated in their work that, further along the carrier path, the trend of equality in organizational roles between the genders changes significantly. It is also important to recognize other factors that influence discrimination against women and women’s career development. For instance, career interruptions, unavailability of mentors and perspective stereotypes among other tend to dictate how women should be.
Women continue to face discrimination at workplaces. Shinew and Arnold (1968) studied female gender discrimination in public service and reported that female managers were discriminated against male managers in promotional opportunities. One of the aims of the Millennium Development Goals is removing gender disparities (Millennium Development Goals September, 2000). For this to be achieved all forms of discrimination against women must be removed.

According to Fagerson and Jackson (1994) organizational barriers include failure to recruit, develop and support women for upper level management positions, prejudices against women in performance evaluations and hostile environments. Ellison (2001) adds that women lack mentors because organizational structures perpetuate the situation where men appoint their fellow men to come after them particularly into positions of power. According to Wentling (2003) the supply of women qualified for management jobs has continued to increase as more women accumulate work experience and complete management and professional education programmes.

Again women are equally talented and can bring improvements to the workplace. Ng and Burke (2005) confirm this by stating that perhaps the most compelling reason for more attention to the issues of women in leadership relates to the need to attract talented managers in the face of declining workforce numbers. A recent research at the organizational level has shown that management jobs are still dominated by men and that given the option many organizations prefer to hire or promote men to administrative and management positions.

Women's representation is important for perpetuating succession plans and encouraging mentorship in order to achieve and maintain equality of opportunity for women in management. This should be an ongoing process for keeping up the pace of parity and enhancing women's
opportunity to progress to positions of power and influence in organizations. The African Business Leaders Forum (2008) has stated that there have been significant developments regarding women's empowerment in Africa, both on the political front and the corporate scene. In the last couple of years several companies from the length and breadth of the continent have appointed a notable number of women to leadership positions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Even though global data show that women continue to increase their share of managerial positions, the rate of progress is slow and uneven. In 2007, the Council on Higher Education (CHE) based in South Africa, conducted a study on women employed in higher educational institutions which revealed that until 2005, public higher education employed more men than women. This changed in 2006 when women outnumbered men for the first time. By 2007, women constituted 51% of the total staff at public higher education institutions. At universities and comprehensive universities, 52% of staff was women while at universities of technology 46% of staff was women. But within job categories the gender equality is less evident. Men hold majority of management, academic, technical, trade and services posts while women are in the majority in the specialized support professional and non-professional administration posts (CHE, 2007:www.che.ac.za/heinsa/whe; date assessed; 11th September, 2012).

Further, the CHE (2007) research revealed that women continue to be under-represented in senior management positions (defined as management of the institutions or one of its major divisions). At the comprehensive universities 31% of senior management comprised women. At the time of the research, only four out of 23 public institutions in South Africa had women vice-chancellors. They were the Cape Peninsula University of Technology headed by Prof Valise...
Mazwi-Tanga, the Vaal University of Technology headed by Prof Mount Lana, the University of Pretoria headed by Prof. De La Ray and the University of Zululand headed by Prof. Rachel Gumbi. The greatest inequality was at the levels of professor and associated professor as depicted below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Percentage of Women</th>
<th>Percentage of Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professor, Associate Professor</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Lectures</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Lecturers, undesignated</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of women in higher education in Ghana, Dr. J. K. Aggrey once declared that, if you educate a man, you educate an individual but if you educate a woman and you educate a nation. Education is thought of as a project in which women have a crucial stake, as women are generally those on whom the responsibility of educating falls, whether in the home or in the school. Though, this statement is widely used in Ghana since independence, it does not reflect women’s actual involvement in higher education (Adusah-Karikari, 2008).

A study conducted on gender issues at the University of Cape Coast in Ghana revealed that women academics have low statistical and political visibility and, their concerns and needs within the workplace are not discussed (Prah, 2002: 41). With regard to female university students, Prah (2002:41) concluded that “there is anecdotal evidence about women students who were intimidated by their peers, particularly (but not exclusively) men, when they decided to stand for political office at the university”. Additionally, the university itself has no gender equity unit or special department to handle gender discrimination issues, reflecting some of the
challenges that Ghanaian women face at the university. In recent time however the University of Cape Coast has had its first woman Vice Chancellor, Pro. Naana J. Opoku-Agyemang, who left office after serving a term.

The status of the Ghanaian women is shaped by cultural/societal norms and the legacies of colonialism and its educational system which has been biased in favor of boys, as part of the need to train African men to help them run their colonial government’s machinery (Adusah-Karikari, 2008). Bartels (1965) reveals that when the first school for girls was opened in Ghana, the aim of the missionaries who ran the school was to groom young women to become fit wives for the men they were training. Van Allen (1976) traces the sex differentials in education in Africa to colonialism. He writes:

When they needed literate Africans to form a supportive mediating structure for colonial governments, they sought young boys for schooling. Even when girls were sent to mission schools, they often were not taught the same subjects. Girls’ “training homes” taught some “domestic science” and the Bible in vernacular (p. 35).

Thus, inequality in education is rooted in colonialism and today we see the ripple effects. It has been argued by Prah (2002) as cited in Adusah-Karikari (2008) that if women should excel in any profession, then it should be teaching at the universities because teaching is supposedly women’s forte and universities are assumed to be meritocratic institutions. She further asserts that Ghanaian universities are male-dominated institutions and the women within them — academics, administrators, support staff and, students — face major obstacles because of lack of attention to their specific needs and problems. According to Leney (2003), in the first year of the University College in Ghana in 1946, women accounted for just 2% of the student population,
while in the year 1957, they still amounted for less than 5%. At the first phase of development of the University of Ghana, there were four residence halls for men and one for women (Leney, 2003).

Leney (2003) contends that women have suffered disproportionately from the lack of a sound secondary education and even if they managed to gain places as undergraduates, their prospects for professional employment remain poor. At Ghana’s independence in 1957, according to Leney (2003) “there were 120 students of Arts (5 of whom were women), 76 of Science (3 of whom were women), 26 studying for a Social Studies Certificate (2 of whom were women), 45 studying at the Institute of Education (7 of whom were women)” (p. 163). Thus the problem of the “wastage of womanpower” was one of the concerns of the (post-independence) 1961 Commission on University Education, appointed to review the position of the soon-to-be-independent University of Ghana. This international commission noted that women had to abandon education without completing their qualifications and that women were underrepresented even in professions such as nursing, teaching, and social work, traditionally considered the province of women (Leney, 2003). Leney (2003) as cited in Adusah-Karikari contends that employment conditions in the early years of independence were fairly liberal, reflecting the international commission’s stipulation that the terms of employment remain more or less untouched. The conditions even provided some encouragement for women academics. Florence Dolphyne returned to Legon in 1965 as lecturer in Linguistics and later rose to be Pro-Vice Chancellor (1996-1997). This was the highest office in any Ghanaian university held by a woman at the time (Adusah-Karikari, 2008).

The case is no different in the University for Development Studies. Like other institutions, the University appears to perpetuate a sex division of labour where men have tended to hold the
majority of senior and high management positions, while women dominate in junior and low positions. This gendered pattern occurs also in other aspects of the University, its committees, staffing patterns, and informal lobbying groups: a situation that corroborates claims that the higher education institutions are patriarchal.

Despite the existence of patriarchy in the early Ghanaian society, colonialism reinforced that phenomenon and legitimized it in the new social order developed during and after colonialism. Feminists have suggested that patriarchy dominates postcolonial much as it dominated colonial everyday life (Rosser, 2007). Although the end of colonial rule created high hopes for a proper postcolonial era, the extent to which the West had not relinquished control quickly became clear. Two frameworks — pre colonial and postcolonial feminist theory — offer a reasonable place from which to understand the position of women in management in higher education.

According to Gangone (2008) many women working within institutions of higher education remain in middle roles rather than senior administrative positions. Indeed commendable improvements have been made in the public service as many women are put in commanding heights of society. Among the women in high public positions of trust and height are the Chief Justice, Justice Mrs. Georgina Theodora Wood; the immediate past Speaker of Parliament, Justice Mrs. Joyce Adeline Bamford Addo; the current Commissioner of the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ), Ms. Lauretta Vivian Lamptey and the Chairperson of the National Commission for Civic Education (NCCE), Mrs. Charlotte Kesson-Smith Osei. Regardless of the positive steps taken to increase the representation of women and minorities in the areas of employment, education and business, women are still unevenly represented especially in the management of tertiary institutions in Ghana. Professor Naana Jane Opoku-Agyemang, former Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) and Prof.
Florence Abena Dolphynne, former Pro Vice Chancellor of the University of Ghana, Legon will have their names written in golden letters in history for being the first ever female to occupy such positions in public universities in Ghana. The inadequate representation of women within senior management positions automatically raises questions about the effectiveness of equal opportunities and may suggest its absence.

Studies show that the University for Development Studies (UDS) like other public universities in Ghana exhibits a gendered pattern in senior member recruitments and management (UDS, 2006; Apusigah, 2004). This study seeks to investigate the nature of the gendered pattern and challenges of women in management in the UDS.

1.3 Broad Research Questions

The main research question of the study is: To what extent have women been involved in the management system of the UDS?

1.3.1 Specific Research Questions

1. What is the management position of women in relation to men in the UDS?

2. What factors explicitly shape and define the management position of women in the UDS?

3. What is the nature of the challenges women encounter as a result of their position in the UDS?

4. What progressive opportunities exist for women in position in relation to men in the UDS?
5. What pragmatic interventions have been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women’s representation in the management system and structure of the UDS, their effects, achievements and challenges?

6. What opportunities remain for further research and how might UDS enhance gender equality in its management structure?

1.4 Broad Research Objectives

The main objective of the study is to investigate the extent and pattern of women’s involvement in the management system in the UDS.

1.4.1 Specific Research Objectives

1. To assess the management position of women in relation to men in the UDS.

2. To determine the factors that shape and defines the management position of women in the UDS.

3. To ascertain the challenges women face by virtue of their position in relation to men in the UDS.

4. To explore available progressive opportunities for women in management positions in relation to men in the UDS.

5. To determine what pragmatic interventions have been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women’s representation in the management system and structure in the UDS.
6. To make recommendations for further studies by researchers who might be interested in a similar study and for working toward enhancing gender equality in the management structure of the UDS.

1.5 Scope of the study

In terms of content, the study sought to investigate the involvement of women in the management of tertiary institutions with specific reference to the UDS. It covered the period 1992 to 2010 with the objective of soliciting information from selected respondents through the use of multiple sources of evidence including observations, interviews and review of literature.

In terms of geographic scope, the research was carried out in the UDS. Its location and multi-campuses are spread out in Northern Ghana. These include the Tamale, Wa, Nyankpala, and Navrongo campuses. The UDS was chosen as a tertiary institution in the Northern part of Ghana. Also, not much research has been done on women and management in the study area.

1.6 Research Limitations

No existing project has ever been successfully achieved without challenges. First of all accessing the records of past and present women managers in the institution was indeed hectic.

Secondly, the disparity in terms of the population was great. For instance because there were more men than women in the population, it was difficult to compare certain characteristics.

Again, the scattered nature of the respondents involved in this study made collection of data very cumbersome and complex.
However, since an in-depth understanding was gained from the phenomenon under study it would be informative for researchers and practitioners interested in gaining insight into the status of women in management in higher education.

1.7 Operational Terms

1.7.1 Management

Management is the act of getting people together in an organisation to accomplish desired goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively.

1.7.2 Tertiary Education

Tertiary Education generally begins after Senior High School and is carried out in the university or college and usually involving study for degree, diploma or certificate.

1.7.3 Tertiary Institutions

Education beyond the secondary level, especially education at the college or university level

1.7.4 Stereotype

Is a thought that may be adopted about specific types of individuals or certain ways of doing things, but that belief may or may not accurately reflect reality.

1.7.4 Glass Wall
Glass wall refers to the phenomenon of high rates of women advancing to executive positions but only in certain industries. Thus women having the opportunity to work in specific areas not others.

1.7.5 Glass Ceiling

The encyclopedia defines glass ceiling as the unseen, yet unreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievement.

Glass ceiling as used in the study is a metaphor used to describe the invisible barriers ("glass") through which women can see elite positions but cannot reach ("ceiling"). These barriers prevent large numbers of women and ethnic minorities from obtaining and securing the most powerful, prestigious and highest grossing jobs in the workforce.

1.7.6 Gender

Gender as used here refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a male or female at a particular point in time.

1.7.7 Gender Equality

Gender equality pertains to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men.

1.7.8 Equal Opportunity

Is a stipulation that all people should be treated similarly, unhampered by artificial barriers or prejudices or preferences, except when particular "distinctions can be explicitly justified.

1.7.9 Higher Education
Glass wall refers to the phenomenon of high rates of women advancing to executive positions but only in certain industries. Thus women having the opportunity to work in specific areas not others.

1.7.5 Glass Ceiling

The encyclopedia defines glass ceiling as the unseen, yet unreachable barrier that keeps minorities and women from rising to upper rungs of the corporate ladder, regardless of their qualifications or achievement.

Glass ceiling as used in the study is a metaphor used to describe the invisible barriers ("glass") through which women can see elite positions but cannot reach ("ceiling"). These barriers prevent large numbers of women and ethnic minorities from obtaining and securing the most powerful, prestigious and highest grossing jobs in the workforce.

1.7.6 Gender

Gender as used here refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a male or female at a particular point in time.

1.7.7 Gender Equality

Gender equality pertains to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men.

1.7.8 Equal Opportunity

Is a stipulation that all people should be treated similarly, unhampered by artificial barriers or prejudices or preferences, except when particular "distinctions can be explicitly justified.

1.7.9 Higher Education
Refers to postsecondary education, including but not limited to Universities, and including colleges and technical training institutions. In Ghana, it is commonly referred to as tertiary education where it applies to teacher training colleges, and polytechnics.

1.7.10 Empowerment

Refers to increasing the spiritual, political, social, educational, gender, or economic strength of individuals and communities.

1.7.11 Diversification

Refers to the process of changing or variation in ideas or strategy.

1.8 significance of study

Examining women in management in tertiary institutions in Ghana provides an important framework for understanding the ongoing chronic gender imbalances in higher education in Ghana. My interest in this study stems from the scarcity of literature on women in management higher education in Ghana. Morley (2005) contends that the “West has produced a sizeable amount of published quantitative and qualitative data and critical literatures on gender, whereas lower-income countries have had to rely on some gender disaggregated statistics and quantitative studies often funded by international organizations” (p. 210).

This research seeks to contribute more in-depth and specific information to be used by Ghana’s educational policymakers, particularly the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs and the National Council for Tertiary Education, two bodies responsible for designing effective and efficient reforms for integrating the gender equity dimension in the formulation of policy. The Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs is responsible for ensuring equal status for women;
enforcing the rights of children and women; and promoting the survival, development, protection; and increased participation of both women and children in the development process. Through this study, the Ministry will be able to identify the barriers faced by women in higher education, including continuing persistence of the sex-preferential education of children, and use that as a justification for policy formulation.

In addition, this research could also be used by advocacy groups, such as Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), which has expertise and political influence, to articulate for and contribute to women’s interests in society in general. Finally, this study will add to the existing body of knowledge on the understanding of the challenges of women in management in higher education in Ghana.

It is my hope that this research will contribute in many ways to the current discussions about women in management in higher education in Ghana and also my recommendations be used by UDS to implement policies and programs that promote gender issues.

1.9 Organisation of Work

This study is organized in five chapters; background, literature review, methodology, discussion of results, conclusion and recommendations. Chapter 1 provides a background to the study. It focuses on the problem statement, research questions and objectives, significance of the study.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of previous research and literature concerning women and the management of tertiary education in Ghana. The chapter also focuses on other topics relevant to the study, such as diversity in management, glass ceiling which formed the conceptual framework and the theoretical framework for the study.
The methodology of the research is presented in chapter three. The chapter provides a detailed description of the research design, sources of data, data collection procedure and data analysis employed in the study.

The results of the study are discussed in chapter four and chapter five presents summary, conclusion and recommendation for addressing the issues identified.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

According to Ahiadeke (2008), a literature review is an evaluative report of information found in the literature related to your selected area of study. This suggests that the review more or less clarifies, summarises, describes and evaluates the information relevant to the subject of study. In this study, relevant books and documents on women and the management of tertiary institution were reviewed. These included official reports, journals, articles, technical publications, newspapers, and internet sources.

As noted by Patton (2002:295) “learning to use study and understand documents and files is part of the repertoire of skills needed for qualitative inquiry.” The literature reviewed served as a benchmark for mapping out and tackling conceptual/analytical gaps and deficiencies and contextual shortcomings in existing literature, which in turn served as the basis for determining the additional information needs of this study (Ahiadeke, 2008).

The chapter highlights the conceptual framework with a focus on two perspectives, the diversity of management and glass ceiling; theoretical framework which focused on theories of sex and gender, personality traits, segregation theories, vertical segregation, horizontal segregation, management styles of women, types of management styles, concepts of low representation of women in management and contextual issues that focused on factors and issues accounting for the low representation of women in management, stereotypes and prejudices and cost of under representation of women in management.
2.2 The Conceptual Framework/Theoretical Framework

According to Ahiadeke (2008), a conceptual framework is a tool researchers use to guide their inquiry. It is a set of ideas used to structure the research, a sort of map that may include the research question, the literature review, methods and data analysis.

Researchers use a conceptual framework to guide their data collection and analysis. For instance in this study, the researcher is looking at the women and management in the University for Development Studies (UDS) and so it is important to review existing literature on the participation of women in higher education and then come down specifically to their involvement in management in relation to men.

According to Twumasi (2001), the conceptual framework is a set of theoretical ideas, hunches or clearly defined concepts to direct the scientist in his research operations. By this, the conceptual framework should enable me to find or establish links between the existing literature and my research objectives. There is the need to mention that the conceptual framework for this study was based on the diversification in management and glass ceiling hypothesis.

2.2.1 Diversification in Management

Although the analysis of management only began in the late nineteenth and early twenty centuries, it has undergone several transformations in meaning. The management of every organisation is critical to its survival, growth and development. According to Bennett (1994:1) “all types of organisations –public or private, profit or non-profit, government agencies, theatres, opera houses, educational institutions, sports and social clubs, need to be managed or else will collapse.” This suggests that management procedures differ from organisation to organisation due to the differences in their orientation to the concept of management. It is perhaps for this
reason that management is conceived and explained differently by different scholars depending on their scholarly background. Kreitner (2001: 5) defines management as the “process of working with and through others to achieve organizational objectives in a changing environment.” Thus defined the management process occurs in a collective context where people within settings are mobilized around and toward particular agenda, the success of which lies in the ability to channel diverse energies toward a common good, that of the organization or social institution. Resources, human and material, are at the bottom of that mobilization. Yet resources tend to be limited. Human resources, though might be adequate in numbers, tend to be limited in terms of the caliber and quality necessary for driving change toward achieving organizational vision. The effective and efficient use of such limited resources is central to this process of management. More importantly, quality human resource is scarce and delicate and therefore needs to be put to effective and efficient use.

Understanding the diversity of human beings helps in the management of people more effectively and efficiently. As Williams (2003:460) puts it, “deep level diversity matters because it can reduce prejudice, discrimination and conflict while increasing social integration.” By this, having knowledge of dispositional and personality differences helps in knowing who to put in charge of what if some results have to be achieved in an organisation.

When people think of diversity, they think first of ethnicity, race and gender. Loden and Rosener (1991: 18-19) however define diversity as “otherness or those human qualities that are different from our own and outside individuals and groups”. There are a number of arguments in favor of diversity of board members as seen in Bantel and Jackson (1989) and Murray (1989). Carter (2003) has explained that, pro diversity (heterogeneous) management implies a more diverse board of directors (or executive board) who are able to make decisions based on the evaluation of
more alternatives compared to a more homogenous board. A heterogeneous board compared to a homogenous board is able to have a better understanding of the market place of the firm. Furthermore, diversity increases creativity and innovation. Diversity management may also improve the image of the firm and in this way have positive effects on firm performance and shareholder value if the positive image has positive effects on customers' behavior. An important reason worthy of note for aiming at a more diverse composition of board members is that, if only male individuals are potential candidates for the boards, the selection of board members will take place from only this selected distribution of qualifications, and on average this implies a much lower quality than if the candidates are selected among the best from the distribution of both men and women.

However, there are other schools of thought which are against diversity management (i.e. anti-diversity). One such group argues that a more heterogeneous board produces more opinions and more critical issues. It might be time consuming and may not be as effective as a more homogenous board of directors; especially if the firm is operating in a highly competitive environment where the ability to react quickly to market shocks is an important issue. Hambrick (1996) asserts that a more culturally, ethnically or gender diverse board may experience more conflicts, and even though the decisions may have better quality in the end, this may not balance the negative effects of a more slow decision-making process if the market place of the firm demands quick responses.

For most management positions labeled as the domain of men implies that the tenant or values of diversity in management is not fully realized (Cole, 2004). This suggests that for organisations to achieve their objectives amid limited resources, they would have to tap the knowledge, skills, talents, experience and expertise of both women and men in the management process. Ignoring
diversity issues in management costs time, money and efficiency. In other cases, the consequences can include unhealthy tensions, loss of productivity because of increased conflicts, inability to attract and retain talented people of all kinds, complaints and legal actions and inability to retain valuable employees. In this study, the question of diversity has been pursued as a matter for opening up and broadening of higher education management for more inclusivity through the promotion of women as much as men managers.

2.2.2 Glass Ceiling

Glass ceiling is a metaphor used to describe the invisible upper limits in corporate and other organisations which make it difficult or impossible for women to rise through the ranks. The term became popular in the 1980s.

(http://womenshistory.about.com/od/work/g/glass_ceiling.htm, Date assessed: 10th November, 2012). A glass is used here because it is not a visible barrier and a woman may not be aware of its existence until she hits it. Worse yet, other observers and even inner participants might not be aware of it because it is often a hidden agenda. It often occurs in the form of and within the norms and traditions governing the system, even those that purport to be democratic. It manifests in subtle forms such as the inability of the many women who tend to be concentrated at the bottom or base of the organizations are unable to get past that position in order to move into the middle and upper echelons of governance.

ISSER (1998) contends that, during colonial rule, the British government circumscribed women’s access to formal employment, first by excluding them altogether and later allowing them into selected areas. To borrow from them, “women had to resign on marriage or pregnancy” (p.1). Although the Ghanaian woman had traditionally combined reproductive and
productive roles, the colonial government obliged them to choose either a career or marriage and
children. According to ISSER (1998) as late as 1951, the then colonial governor recommended
that all serving female officers should leave the service on their second pregnancy. This affirms
the stand of Crompton and Le Feuvre, (1992) and Sarage (1992) who explains that glass ceiling
takes two forms, either the women do not move up the career ladder beyond a certain point or
they move along non-managerial tracks away from the channels of power.

Thus, glass ceiling refers to the difficulties faced by women in attempting to break into what has
been and still is mainly a man’s world. Cole (2004) confirms this when he declares that it is an
analogy which attempts to describe the subtly transparent barrier that prevents women from
gaining access to the more senior roles in their organisations.

Catalyst (1998) as cited by (Cole, 2004) identified the following as the most powerful barriers to
female career advancement:

- Negative assumption in executive rank about women’s abilities and commitment to
careers;

- Perception that women do not fit with the corporate culture;

- Lack of core opportunities for female employees who have management potentials;

- Assumptions that, women will not relocate for career advancement;

- Lack of mentoring and self-selection when women move into staff areas instead of line
position and;

- Discrimination and sexual harassment.
Indeed, Catalyst (1998) cannot be more correct as women are thought of traditionally to engage in domestic activities and expected to execute their reproductive roles perfectly or without interruptions such as further education or career move. Typically, they are thought to be silent and to kowtow to the instruction of their fathers when not married, their husbands when married and sons when widowed. So their position in the corporate culture does not come into view at all. Again, the corporate world is characterised by male dominance giving little or no opportunity for women even those who manage to advance the career ladder turns to remain on the non-managerial tracks away from the decision making channel.

Liad and Leung (2001) maintain that ‘Glass ceiling,’ also termed Glass wall, is a transparent barrier that has been applied to women as a group who are kept from advancing to higher positions simply because they are female. By this, though women see clearly and are confident of reaching certain heights in their career they are discriminated against all standards in relation to their men counterparts. Li and Leurna (2001) have categorized the existence of glass ceiling under three basic features, work and family conflict, network access and family support. This suggests that, career women have duel responsibilities to their families as prescribed by society as well as their job descriptions. Combining both often leads to conflicting roles because in most cases they would have to make sure that they satisfy both such that they do not lose their jobs or families in the long run. It is no surprise that in an essentially male-dominated society like ours, the needs and issues of importance to women are not adequately addressed by our legal system which remains largely a bastion of male ideals.

More women in the management of organisations would have been a great opportunity for younger ones to emulate. However, women who are not able to pursue a career or who do not earn enough to maintain an adequate standard of living often depend on their family, husband or
government agencies for financial support. On the other hand, a family which explicitly condemns the advancement of women in their career will not support them to pursue higher education let alone talk of developing their career. This form of glass ceiling may account for why most women with similar qualifications as men and same number of years of experiences are not seen in management as their male counterparts.

It appears that society has influenced the actions, perceptions, ideas, and attitudes of many people and these have had a lot of implications for others, especially women in management where societal ascriptions have made it difficult for women to move up the managerial ladder. Among the three glass ceiling predictors, work and family conflict is the most important factor (Adjah, 2009). For instance, females in Singapore are expected to contribute to their family’s income and continue to fulfill their traditional duties as wife, mother and daughter. This confirms what Li and Leuma (2001) said as they contend that even when women can hire domestic help (i.e., housemaids) their major family responsibilities will still remain. According to Powell (1999) even when women gain the necessary education, experience and are committed to their careers, they still encounter a “glass ceiling.”

Nevertheless, the supply of qualified women for management jobs has increased steadily as more women accumulate work experiences and complete management and professional education programmes (Wentling, 2003). To this effect, women are more likely to occupy managerial jobs in which more women are employed in non-management jobs (Catalyst, 1999). Female managers believe that both women and men are seen as equally likely to possess characteristics necessary for managerial success, therefore women’s continued progress depends on recognizing the persistent nature of these negative attributes towards women and their continual ability to seek out ways to ensure that these attributes do not derail their success (Schien, 2007).
relative failure of women to move into the ranks of senior management, in both private and public sector organisations in all developed countries has been well documented (Adler and Izraeli, 1988; Davidson and Cooper, 1993). According to Wirth (2001), women’s interest in professional and managerial work and the predicted shortages of highly qualified managers have however, not resulted in women obtaining senior executive positions in significant numbers. The glass ceiling continues to limit women’s access to senior management and to management positions in those sectors and areas which involve more responsibilities and higher pay.

From the fore- gone, it has become necessary to focus research on women in management in tertiary education institutions in Ghana.

2.3. Theories of Sex and Gender Differences

Sterling (2000) defines sex as a distinction of biological and/or physiological characteristics associated with either males or females of a species. On the other hand, Gender has to do with the relationship between a man and woman. However, according to WHO (2001), it refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a male and a female at a particular point in time. The above implies that sex differences accrue from natural tendencies but gender differences determined by society. Discussed below are some theoretical explanations of gender/sex differences.

2.3.1 Personality Trait Theory

Jardin and Hernig (1990), postulate that the theories of sex and gender differences contend that gender influence men’s and women’s behavior, attitudes, and traits. This attest to the differences of women in management regarding their behavior which have been found to differ from male norms and thus personality traits which are contrary to the demands of managerial roles
(Galligan, 1980). According to this perspective, women lack confidence and assertiveness, and have failed to undertake appropriate training to develop executive skills, and even reluctant to compete for senior jobs (Blanksby, 1987) and have lower aspirations and inappropriate expectations (Spero, 1987). Morrison (1992) argues that, women fail to plan their careers, to build networks and support systems. Women fail to locate and maintain effective mentoring relationships and have been socialized to subordinate their career in favour of their families (Fagerson and Joakson, 1993).

2.3.2 Segregation Theories

The literature which exists on the subject of women and work identifies two forms of segregation affecting the workforce, horizontal and vertical segregation (Evettts, 1994; Hakim, 1996).

2.3.2.1 Vertical Segregation

Vertical segregation refers to the under or over representation of a clearly identifiable group of workers in occupations or sectors at the top of an ordering based on attributes such as job stability, prestige and income among others, independently of the sector activity (Catalyst, 1999). Powell’s study of the finance sectors in the early 1980’s found clear evidence of vertical segregation with a high proportion of women within the industry but only a tiny minority reaching positions of genuine power, authority and status (Powell, 1986). Similar evidence has been found in management generally and in higher education particularly (Jackson 1990; Tikbrook 1998). Clearly a more strategic approach needs to be taken toward the promotion of women to senior management post if any major change is to be achieved. Evetts (1994, 1998) states that, in order to really progress within organizations it will be necessary to obtain positions with management responsibilities. Accesses to these positions have however been limited as
women identify career route for themselves which avoid this conflict, thereby leaving the issue unresolved. This may encourage vertical segregation where men may perpetuate men to succeed them mostly because on claims that there are no women in the pipeline (Owusu, 2009).

2.3.2.2 Horizontal Segregation

Horizontal segregation as noted by Catalyst (1999) is the under or over representation of a group in certain occupations or sectors not ordered by any criterion. In other words it is the concentration of women and men in professions or sectors of economic activity.

However, over the post war period, horizontal segregation within the workplace has gradually been reduced as jobs have become less gendered (Evetts, 1998). However, Evetts (1998) identified a dual career structure as developing in response to the perceived promotional prospects of women within the engineering organization she studied, which in itself represents an alarming route back towards horizontal segregation.

The managerial structure or route was identified as requiring the commitment of long working hours and subordination of personal lives around work opted for the professional routes where it was perceived that success would be based on merit and building a reputation (Evetts, 1998: 107) which the women saw as much more viable. This resulted in streaming women into non-managerial less strategic decision marking roles of an organization and is a form of horizontal segregation discreetly disguised as a career structure (Ellison, 2006).

A major trade-off between the managerial and professional routes seems to be working hours. Ellison (2006) continues to say that, if a person, no matter how effective they are, or how strong a reputation they have developed, is not prepared or in a position to work much more than a
standard working week, they are perceived by themselves and others as unsuitable for higher managerial positions (Adjah, 2009).

2.4 Management Styles of Women

In the business and professional world today, management is probably the most common word used. Several scholars have defined management style in diverse ways. Management styles, according to Eagly and associates, (2003) are concepts or theories that influence the general work environment of an organisation. Though over the years a lot of economist and business gurus have developed several management styles, they all have a common purpose and that is to make profit in the long run. Due to the dynamism of the corporate world as an entity, management styles have undergone several evolutions. In this section, the popular types of management styles will be discussed and then narrowed down to the management styles of women.

There are numerous forms of management styles which have been practiced over the years. For the sake of this paper the few popular ones practiced today will be discussed.

2.4.1 Autocratic or Authoritarian

According to McGregor (1960) as sited by Cole (2004) autocratic leaders are tough and support tight controls with punishment-reward systems. In other words, authority is completely in one person's hand and no one else can question it. In this style of management, the manager makes decision and announces it. It is also known as totalitarianism or dictatorship. It does forge an atmosphere of discipline in the organization. However, it can at times cause dissatisfaction and a lack of "creative space" for the employees. For such a manager, the employees are just a replaceable resource and not the core of the organization. Here, communication flows from top
to the bottom thus orders are given by the higher hierarchy to the lower level for compliance and not discussion. For the women who use this style of management they are thought of as being too tough or too principled which often considered unwomanly. Age-old, obsolete values and traditions which define women outside of decision making and define women as subservient to men tend to underpin such thinking. However, when men apply it, it is normal, expected and acceptable. As this might be true some companies especially the private ones foster this as they strictly practice a top-down approach of management. In this regard, the concepts of “employee satisfaction” or dialogue do not hold importance for such managers.

### 2.4.2 Paternalistic style

This is a style of management where authority is solely in the hands of one individual. However in this case, the manager cares about the employee’s welfare than outcomes and profits. The implication is that, the manager will be more like a parent rather than a boss. The organization is perceived and managed as a family setting where the boss serves and acts as the patriarch who cares by keeping everyone in check and in line so that to maintain the organizations reputation or image as an efficient system. Employees are treated as minors who must succumb to the authority of the boss-patriarch and stir trouble by inserting their personal idiosyncrasies.

Women who tend to practice this style of management are often termed mothers because they often guide the conduct of employees without necessarily being bossy. Cole (2004) notes that, in this kind of management style although complete authority lies in the hands of one individual, the method of functioning is very different as compared to the autocratic kind. Employees rather than managers are the heart of the organization in this management style and "employee satisfaction" holds higher priority than profits. This kind of a manager uses a two-way approach to communication, top-down and bottom-top.
2.4.3 Democratic

According to Taylor (1997) the democratic management style allows employees to voice their opinions and views without fear of sanctions. Most company policies and decisions are made, taking into consideration employee opinions. It is also known as the 'participative style'. This means that a meeting is held with representatives from each hierarchy, in order to arrive at decisions about even the smallest company policies, as well as the major ones. Such a manager will prefer to have an open-door policy in the organisation to ensure that management and employees communicate openly and freely with each other. A complex system of communication exists that extends beyond top-down and bottom-up as it is driven by a collective sense of purpose to achieve and progress. Women like men are encouraged to participate actively at all levels and are motivated to progress and achieve. Under such systems, various affirmative action policies including quotas have been used as ways of addressing the historical differences and systemic forms of discrimination in the social economic systems that traditional hold women back from rising to management positions (Abantu, 2006).

2.4.4 Laissez-faire

Here the vision, mission, objectives (strategic plan), is available to the employees but no measured efforts are made to produce results collectively. Thus, in this management style, although the targets are communicated to the employees, the employees can go about meeting those targets in whichever way they want. It is a very liberal management style (Cole 2004). However, there is a lot of chaos in the delegation of authority as well as responsibility. Communication is free; however, more through the grapevine. This leads to the employees taking their work for granted. As a result the manager must be circumspect in dealing with
employees especially during informal communication. On the other hand, the manager evades his/her duty very conveniently. If out of control, this management style can spell "doom" for an organization. However, it is adopted by most organizations these days and works well when in compatibility with the other three styles. Under this management system, the lack of leadership can spell doom also for individual and collective aspirations.

2.5. Women and Management

2.5.1 Gendered Notions of Women as Managers

Women managers are often gendered in various ways including the biological/physiological and social. Biologically or physiologically women are gendered on the basis of their strength. Here, management styles are defined in relation to the level of skills adopted; soft or hard. Soft skills are considered feminine while hard skills are termed masculine. Hall-Taylor (1997) asserts that the term ‘soft skills’ is associated with women’s management skill and the term hard skills are associated with masculine management style. But of course, Taylor’s assertion is more or less centered on physical strength which will probably enable an individual to succeed in their managerial duties. However, management goes beyond physical strength to a more assertive way of coordinating, controlling and directing the affairs of an organisation such that its mission and vision will be achieved as planned.

The stereotyping of women’s style of management as soft often taken as being ineffective and incapable of exercising and meeting the demands of management which are often defined masculine, undermines their progression into management positions. At the same time, women are denied or restrained of the ability to exercise certain characteristics considered hard and masculine. Yet, caring relatedness and concern for relationships are neither essential female
characteristics, nor unavailable to men. Specifically, soft skills are not necessarily and in all contexts a priority choice of strategy for women with the evidence of history from Margaret Thatcher of the United Kingdom or Golda Meir of Israel. In fact, studies show that female managers believe women and men are equally likely to possess the characteristics necessary for managerial success (Schein, 2007).

Women’s continued progress depends on reorganizing the persistent nature of this negative attitude towards women and continually seeking ways to ensure that these attitudes do not derail their success (Schein, 2007). Women characterized as masculine were seen as task-oriented. They are assertive and decisive, but have trouble being expressive. Women characterized as feminine were seen as people-oriented. They have good interpersonal skills but have trouble being assertive and decisive. Those characterized as having a mixture of both task- and person-orientedness are termed androgynous (DeMatteo, 1994).

Yet, women whose style is masculine are more likely to be disliked by their subordinates and called names such as “Dragon lady” or worse “Bitch” because they do not display the feminine qualities that are expected of women in our society (Rosener 1990). This may be the reason why in Ghana, women whose management style is considered masculine are also called “Alomo Jata,” “slim macho”, “Thatcher” and “iron lady” among others. What these labels mean is that it is expected that women in management exhibit soft (feminine) rather than hard (masculine) characteristics as defined by our society (Owusu, 2009). Yet, when women exhibit the traditional feminine roles, they may be viewed as likeable people but who lack the task-oriented traits associated with managerial competence (Rosener 1990). So there seems to be no way for women to satisfy these expectations, because either way, there are problems associated with women’s situation.
Androgyny offers women a way out of this predicament as they do not have to choose between being caring mothers or disciplining fathers but serve as good managers who understand the values of both mothering and fathering qualities. Women can retain the positive aspects of their femininity, while at the same time deploying their capacities to function in the masculine environment in order to be good managers (Rosener 1990). However, Korabik and Agyemang (1990) have said that men and women have a mixture of so-called masculine and feminine characteristics. They claim it is important for men and women to recognize that both sides exist within them and that, although one side may appear more dominant in a person, it is only because that side is more developed. Within each gender category exists the potentials to develop both sides. According to Reavley (1990) there is a reason to believe that the lead manager cannot be characterized as either male or female. Management requires a mixture of abilities and skills, some of which are perceived to be feminine and some masculine. Efforts to enhance women's opportunities in management need to focus on changing the design and structure of the work itself so as to facilitate an interface between work and family (Schien, 2007).

Additionally, a survey conducted by Rosener for the International Women's Forum in 1994, concluded that women and men manage differently. She found out that women were less likely to adhere to traditional command and control leadership styles than men would. As more women enter into management they are more likely to draw on what is unique to their socialization as women for creating a different path to the top. This path is transformational requiring the "Transformational" Leadership for – getting subordinates to transform their own self-interests into the concern for a broader goal (DeMatteo, 1994). Moreover, women are said to ascribe their power to personal characteristics such as charisma, interpersonal skills, and organizational structure (Rosenberg, 1990). By contrast, men are said to be more likely to describe themselves
in ways that characterize them as “traditional” leaders. That is, they view job performance as a series of transactional encounters with subordinates exchanging rewards for service rendered or punishment for inadequate performance. Men are also said to more likely use power that comes from organizational positions and formal authority (DeMatteo, 1994). If the said woman’s path to managing will gain acceptance in the workplace then women will mostly be categorized as transformational managers. Overall, however each style of management, traditional or transformational, soft or hard, should complement the other to form a cohesive whole in the organization (Rosenberg, 1990). Above all, an androgynous leader is effective and efficient.

2.5.2 Factors Accounting for Women’s Low Representation in Management

Several factors have been advanced to explain women’s low or poor representation in management. Among them is the concept of ‘discrimination.’ Ellison (2006) explains that, the physiological difference theory suggests that women are less inclined to compete for senior management positions than are their male colleagues. On that score also women are glossed over in the placements of management on the basis of their perceived lack of interest or competitiveness or other assumptions regarding their inability to manage.

Another popular explanation is the issue of barriers to effective promotions. These are extremely difficult to define. However, Davidson and Burke (1994) have explained barriers as those factors such as a lonely and a non-supportive working environment that treat difference as weaknesses and the exclusion of people from group activities because their differences have been identified as discouraging factors within the workplace. The related concept of horizontal and vertical segregation are also explored in this way as evidence is a sought of ‘glass ceiling’ frequently cited in relation to women’s career progress. One woman described her employment...
environment as a "glass box" which seems to perhaps more accurately reflect the true nature of the restrictions on women's movement and progress through the surveying profession, although the "brick wall" described in reference to women's progress within higher education (Millbrook, 1998).

2.5.3 Stereotypes and Prejudices as Barriers.

Gender stereotypes are categorical beliefs regarding the traits and behavioral characteristics ascribed to individuals on the basis of their gender. They serve as expectations about the attributes and behaviors of individual group members and are considered one of the direct antecedents of discrimination at work (Dovidio & Helb, 2005). Typically, women are stereotyped as more communal and men as more argentic.

By communal, features which are principally concerned with the welfare of the people, including attributes such as compassionate, kind, sentimental, helpful and generous, are valued. This is often contrasted with argentic characteristics such as being assertive, dominant and confident, including attributes such as aggressive, ambitious, independent and self-confident. Argentic characteristics have traditionally been aligned with leadership roles (Eagly & Karua, 2002). This suggests that, women who are thought traditionally to possess these communal and not argentic features are deemed unfit for leadership or managerial positions. It follows then that men who are more assertive should at all cost be given the opportunity to take up managerial and leadership positions and as they are deemed fit compared to their female counterparts.

According to Kawakami and Dovidio (2001), implicit stereotypes are thought to be more stable and enduring association because they have been learned through years of environmental influences. If such associations can be unlearned through diversity trainings, and diversity is
common in today's work organizations, then it is possible that gender stereotypes may be changing as a result of direct interventions. Global statistics compiled by the International Labour Organization (ILO) indicate progress is being made in many countries. In a study of women with managerial status in 41 countries, for which internationally comparable data were available, Tabolt (2003) found that female managers were expected to have well developed people skills. He further iterates that the stereotype suggested that they were not good at giving directives, running meetings and challenging views. Such sex roles stereotyping of managerial work can result in the perception that women are less qualified than men for management positions (Owusu, 2009).

Further, Riger and Galligan (1980) and Heinnig and Jardim (1997) considered both person-centered (personality traits, skills, education) and situation-centered factors (different rewards and training opportunities, men's attitudes) concluding that person-centered variables were less important than situation-centered in explaining the small numbers of women in management. However, contrary to the above view, it is important to mention that, for more women to be able to ascend the managerial pyramid, they necessarily have to develop their capacity in skills and education.

Fagenson (1990) suggested that women's experiences may be influenced not only by their gender and the attitude of those in power, but also by the organizational context, including a firm's history and industry policies. This goes to prove that problems faced by women are also due to unfavorable polices that an organization makes or the organization's failure to make policies that will encourage women to move up to managerial positions. Pfeiffer, (1983) proposed that organizational factors such as growth, technology, personnel policies and
practices, and unionization are determinants of organizational demography, including
distribution of age, tenure, gender and race.

Barriers to women's management exist globally and the higher the organizational level the more
glaring the gender gap (Schein 2007). According to Berthing and Izraeli (1993) probably the
single most importance hurdle for women in management in all industrialized countries is the
persistent stereotype that associates management with being male.

A worldwide review of the status of women in management conducted by ILO, (2004) confirms
the existence of similar barriers created by biased attitudes towards women in management.
When managerial positions are viewed as 'male' in gender stereotypes the characteristics
required for success are also seen as more commonly held by men rather than by women. Schein
(2007) reiterates that a male may appear more qualified by virtue of his sex/gender alone, than
does a female to enter and advance in management.

Gender stereotyping of the managerial positions fosters bias against women in managerial
selections, placements, promotions and training decisions. For Schien (2007), this also appears to
be one of the organizational barriers to which women have to battle and which could dissuade
them from vying for positions in management. Schein (2007) explains that talented women were
dissuaded from applying for or turn away from managerial positions because of stereotypical
perceptions of their qualifications was not a consideration.

It may well be that women possess communal characteristics such as compassionate, curing kind
and sentimental, helpful and generous but these characteristics should not lead to their being
viewed as less than men. Men may seem to be naturally endowed with argentic characteristics
and therefore they are more assertive, dominant, aggressive ambitious, independent. Men exhibit
these characteristics over women as they are domineering in every way and the result of which may make men feel they are better than women. The work of managers however is not about mere domination but also about mobilizing and supporting others to contribute their best, which require communal characteristics.

However, training and diversity training may also reduce stereotyping of women. According to Jayne and Dipboye (2004) a decidedly different reason to expect for changing gender stereotypes is due to increased focus on diversity in organizations including specific interventions for example diversity training designed to foster this goal. It is now estimated that organizations spend US$ 8 billion annually on diversity training. A recent survey of Fortune 1,000 companies revealed that 88% reported providing diversity training on gender.

2.5.4 The cost of under representation of women in management

Taylor (1997) has asserted that the cost of under representation of women in management has been measured in at least three ways. First in terms of personal cost to women second, as a cost to organizations which fully utilize women’s skills and finally, as an economic cost to the nation. In terms of personal cost to women, this means that women after going through long years of training-education among others, the next step is probably getting an opportunity to use these knowledge and skills. But of course if they do not exploit these knowledge and skills to affect their communities, how would they measure their contributions to building it. On the other hand, older women are needed to monitor the younger ones through education training and career development.
termination of leadership (Greenberg and Sweeney, 2005). However, the most compelling reason for more attention to the issues of women in leadership relates to the need to attract talented management in the face of declining workforce numbers (Ng and Burke, 2005).

Chikarovski (1994) stresses the economical drawbacks of society that underutilizes the talent of almost half of its workforce or sustains a waste of resource such as the underutilization of women’s capacities. Thus, organizations which permit women to be underutilized are robbing themselves of human capital.

In addition, women are active participants in education providing themselves with university education in equal numbers to men and they enter graduate recruitment programs in equal numbers (Millar, 2005). However, further along the career path, the trend of equality in organizational roles between the genders changes significantly. This is because as men dominate senior management positions, female managers lose out due to the lack of opportunities to socialize with and to develop mentoring relationship with them (Chi-Chan, 1992) as sited by Owusu (2004). Chi-Chan cannot be more correct in that, it is easier for women in higher positions to mentor well and encourage other women below them than would men mentors.

The loss of women along the career track entails a number of potential, direct and indirect, short-term and long term cost for organizations (Nesbit, 2007). Such costs include losing insight from senior women managers into the needs of women who constitute a powerful consumer force. They are also the cost and lost value associated with wasted knowledge, skills, and expertise for the leadership of the organization when women drop out along managerial pathway within organizations (Appelbaum, Audit & Miller, 2003).
In socio-technical systems, motivation at work does not come only through efficient systems and technology, but also through attention to people’s need for social contracts and degree of decision making autonomy in their work (Cole 2004). This may suggest that if certain basic needs of the individual are met, higher needs may also follow; a Maslow hierarchy of needs becomes eminent.

In line with this theory, people’s needs are arranged in a hierarchical manner in which basic needs have to be satisfied before higher needs come into play (Cole, 2004:125). Flowing from the debate, women just as men, after their basic needs are satisfied would aspire to satisfy their higher order needs. It may be assumed that for women to satisfy their esteem needs and self-actualization needs, women must be encouraged to take up managerial positions in organizations.

Socio-culturally ascribed roles and supposed physiological differences may have assisted to relegate women to the background, coupled with family obligations such as child bearing and rearing and caring for the family may be other great barriers to women advancement. These physiological differences may be used against women such as being inferior to men in terms of strength and time/availability. Women are often considered the weaker vessels who are unable to go all lengths and cannot be at certain places at certain times. This could however be detrimental to the advancement of women.

Organizational barriers have also been found to include failure to recruit, develop and support women for upper level management positions, prejudice against women in performance evaluation and existence of hostile environment (Fagenson and Jackson 1994, Snyder, 1998). Organizational barriers are further compounded by lack of effective Government involvement and adequate collection of employment data. Bosses who could not guide or encourage women
to progress to top management level and discriminated against women, stereotyped women to be weak, feeble and not competent and therefore deprived them of opportunities (Owusu, 2009).

It appears that society has influenced the actions, perception, ideas, and attitudes of many people and these have had implications for others, especially women in management where societal ascriptions have made it quite difficult for women to move up the managerial ladder. Among the three glass ceiling predictors, work and family conflict is the most important factor (Owusu, 2009). Females in Singapore are expected to contribute to their family’s income and yet must fulfill their traditional duties as wives, mothers and daughters. Even when women can hire domestic help (housemaids) their major family responsibilities will still remain (Li and Wang Leuna 2001)

According to Powell, (1999) women are gaining the necessary education and experience and are committed to their careers, but they still encounter a “glass ceiling”.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the diversity of management and glass ceiling formed the conceptual framework. Again the theoretical framework was based on the sex and gender theories. It has also unveiled what other scholars have said in relation to mechanisms to promote the active participation of women in management of tertiary education institutions in Ghana with specific reference to the UDS. The literature enhances a greater understanding on the topic under investigation.
3.1 Introduction

A research methodology describes the procedure through which a researcher is able to collect, analyze, and interpret data in order that the aims and objectives of the research can be achieved (Neuman, 2000). If the data collected, generated and/or confirmed is done systematically, then it can be easily verified and authenticated. The main purpose of this section is to delineate the various methods and techniques employed during the study in order to arrive at its findings. It highlights the research design, procedure/protocols, sources of data collection, sampling techniques, study population and sample, methods of data collection, data analysis and presentation of research findings, site selection, validation, ethical considerations and limitations to the study. It also discusses the justification for the study.

3.2 Research Design

According to Punch (2000) a research design is the plan, structure, and strategy of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and to control variance. The plan here is concerned with the overall programme of the research. The structure covers the research outline, scheme, and paradigm of operation of new variables. The strategy is more specific than the plan in that, it refers to the method used to collect and analyze the data. Strategy implies how the research objectives will be achieved.

A case study design was used to obtain the required information on women and the management of tertiary education institutions in Ghana. Leedy and Elilis (2005) assert that in a case study,
particular individual, programme or event is studied in depth for a defined period of time. On the other hand, Bromley (1990) as cited in Agyemang (2010) declares that a case study is a systematic inquiry into an event or a set of related events which aim to describe and explain a phenomenon of interest. In other words, it involves an intensive investigation of a single unit with the purpose of understanding one situation or a very small number of cases in greater depth (Babbie & Mouton 2001; Leedy, 2001) based on which generalization can be made. This approach is suitable for studying an individual, a group, episode, a process, a community, a society or any other units of social life (Theordorson & Theordorson 1969 as cited in Agyemang, 2010) as it demonstrates a causal argument about how general social forces shape and produce results in particular settings (Neuman, 2003, cited in Ahebwa, 2009). In order to achieve the research objectives of this study, multiple sources of evidence such as observations, interviews and written documents were employed to improve the quality of data.

The University for Development Studies (UDS) was selected as the unit of reference to obtain the required information on women and the management of tertiary education institution in Ghana. The choice of this case above others is mainly that it is the only public university in the northern part of Ghana. In addition, is its strategic location in that part of the country where gender disparity is deemed to be very high. Interestingly, having been a student in the institution the researcher noticed that the management structure of the UDS was predominately men and so developed an interest into finding out why things were the way they were.

3.3 Research Procedure

Mogalakew (2006) has argued that, no social research method is exclusive of other research methods and that on its own no one method is sufficient for removing all doubts from the minds
of researchers. This means that for researchers to get in-depth understanding of their work, they will have to combine or employ a number of research methods. This is confirmed by Ahiadeke (2008) who argues that many researchers choose to adopt two or three research methods known as triangulation or multi-method approach, because it is believed to be a means to achieving greater understanding and fuller grasp of the social world. As a result, this researcher combined a number of research methods thus ensuring the use of method triangulation to investigate the same phenomena to enhance reliability and validity of findings as asserted by Grix (2001). According to Owalabi (2004) an important technique to strengthen the reliability and validity of research design is by combining both qualitative and quantitative methodologies through triangulation. Triangulation in this regard is characterized by the use of multiple methods of sampling, research instrument and statistical analyses which aid the researcher to rise above personal biases that could stem from the use of a single methodology and its related deficiencies. This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

According to Schwartz and Jacobs (1979) a qualitative approach reports observations in the natural language at large and seldom makes counts or assign numbers to these observations. In the words of Leedy and Elilis (2005), most researchers strive for objectivity in their research. They believe that their observations should be influenced as little as possible by their perceptions, impressions, and biases. By maintaining objectivity, they hope to maximize their chances of determining the ultimate truth. However, some qualitative researchers believe that there is no single, ultimate truth to be discovered. Instead, there may be multiple perspectives held by different individuals, with each of these perspectives having equal validity or truth (Creswell, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1988 as cited by Leedy & Elilis, 2005). One goal of a qualitative study, then, might be to reveal the nature of these multiple perspectives.
However, Cua (1990) cited in Denzigh and Lincoln (1994) has argued that reality can never be fully understood but only approximated and that qualitative research relies on a multiple of methods to capture as much reality as possible. Sarfuah (2008) has said that, qualitative research is characterized by a physical closeness between the researcher and respondents thereby eliminating or solving misunderstanding and inaccuracies. In order to get deeper understanding of this study, the researcher paid a courtesy call on the pro vice chancellor, some deans in charge of the various campuses, registrars and other management staffs of the UDS.

As a case study, this study explains the position of women in management in UDS by describing phenomena, objects and subjects of study as well as analyzing why some things are the way they are. This prompted me to employ the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In addition, this research aims at rising above personal biases that could stem from the use of a single methodology and its related deficiencies as mentioned earlier.

The study had no standard format for answering questions posed to the respondents; as a result the respondents were carried away by issues and so provided information that made analysis cumbersome in the long run. Again the scattered nature of the study area also made data collection more complex.

Although qualitative techniques dominated this study, some quantitative techniques were also applied. The quantitative research approach produced numeric data measuring and describing social phenomena by the attribution of numbers (Miller & Brewer, 2003). In other words, the quantitative approach to research seeks to assign numbers to qualitative observations. My aim was to be able to use some statistics to explain some aspects of the study in order to support the use of qualitative data which was based on perceptions, beliefs, values, feelings and attitudes.
3.4 Source of Data Collection

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, both primary and secondary data were employed. First of all, secondary data was used as guide followed by the primary data which served as a benchmark to fill in any gaps in the study. This guaranteed a more comprehensive picture of the problem under study. The study used data from the above sources with specific focus on the review of relevant documents and interviews.

3.4.1 Primary Sources of Data

Primary data comprises specific information collected by the researcher. This information can be analyzed by other experts or researchers who may decide to test the validity of the data by repeating the same experiment (Sayers, 1992). It is often used to establish the baseline from which other follow up experiment could be devised. Primary data can be retrospective, interventional and observational. Retrospective primary data gathers information about past conditions or behaviors e.g. research into the causes of a disease. Interventional data are gathered to see the effects of a new therapy. Observational is primary data by means of case studies (Ahiadeke, 2008). Primary data are data collected for the first time and can be acquired in several ways including experiment, observation, interviews among others. In this study interviews and observations were pivotal in gathering the information which was then subjected to detailed analysis based on which logical conclusions were made.

3.4.2 Secondary Data Sources

Secondary data is data that has already been collected by and readily available from other sources. Such data are cheaper and more quickly obtainable than primary data. Ahiadeke (2008) asserts that it is economical and thus saves efforts and expenses. He says it provides the basis for
comparison for the data that is collected by the researcher, it helps make primary data collection more specific since with the aid of secondary data we are able to make up for the gaps and the deficiencies and what additional information needs to be collected. However, the accuracy of the data might not be known and besides, data could be outdated.

Green and associates (1993) maintain that, secondary data should satisfy the following requirements: Firstly, availability. Here, the researcher should ascertain whether that the kind of data sort is available or not. If it is not available then you have to go for primary data. Secondly, it should be relevant and should meet the requirement of the problem. Secondary data involves the review of other people’s research in and around the area of study. This was done in order to get more understanding of the study regarding the perspectives of different authors with respect to the topic under investigation.

This study made use of relevant documents. As noted by Bailey (1994) relevant documentary source of data collection refers to the analysis of documents that contain information about the phenomenon one wishes to study.

These documents served as a rich source of data aside their role in helping me capture key aspects of the situation under study. Such key aspects include among others; women and the management of tertiary education institutions from a global perspective, continental, national and even at the local level. It also enhanced a clearer understanding into the concepts and notions on women in tertiary educational management, and provided the bases for the research design adopted. For the purpose of this study, relevant documents such as newspapers, journals, publications, internet sources, the National Council for Tertiary Education reports among others
were reviewed. Others including the Vice Chancellor’s, UDS Basic Statistics, administrative manuals and handbooks reports from the various faculties of the UDS were used.

3.5 Sampling Techniques

Sampling is a systematic selection of a section from a population of individuals for a study with the intent of generating relevant knowledge about the entire population. In other words, sampling is that part of statistical practice which is concerned with the selection of an unbiased or random subset of individual observations within a population of individuals intended to yield some knowledge about the population of concern (Sana, 2011). This study employed two sampling techniques: purposive (a non-probability sampling technique) and simple random (a probability sampling technique), to select the respondents. In view of this, 80 respondents out of the entire population (140) were sampled through the use of the above techniques.

Purposive sampling became necessary in the sense that, this study reckoned that some particular respondents were very appropriate to provide specific information pertinent to the study. These respondents included the Principal Officers, Deans, Vice Deans, Heads of Departments, and women lecturers. It must also be noted that, purposive sampling was used to select the UDS from the other Universities in the country by virtue of the fact that, gender disparities in the northern part compared to others of the country tends to be greater. A second look at the research topic gives a signal that the involvement of women in management cannot be better understood without relating it to men. There are 6 public universities, 10 polytechnics and several private universities in the country, all situated in areas where gender disparity is low comparatively. Subsequently the choice of the UDS which is located in an area where gender disparity is high

www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh
was to enable the researcher to better grasp the purport of the study offering an in-depth understanding of the topic.

Again, the researcher being a student of the University and having established the necessary rapport with some members of the institution sought to ensure validity of findings and rapid response. Purposive sampling was employed here in selecting key informants based on the hypothesis that they have the most reliable and representative information by virtue of their positions within the university. Such respondents included the Principal Officers, Deans and Vice Deans of the Various Campuses, Directors, Registrar, Assistant Registrars/Faculty Officers, Finance Officers, Heads of department, University Council members, Senior Librarians/Senior Assistant Librarian and Coordinators of postgraduate programmes.

Within this population of 140, the researcher further sampled 80 units (respondents) with the aid of simple random sampling. All the units in the population were assigned numbers from 1-140 which was written on pieces of paper. In this case each number represented a person. The pieces of paper was folded and put in a sizable container, shaken vigorously: the researcher then closed her eyes and picked at random from 1 to 80. By this, giving each unit in the population an equal chance of been selected for this investigation (Twumasi, 2001)

3.6 The Study Population and Sample.

A population can be said to include all people or items with the characteristics one wishes to understand. In other words, it is the group of people to which the results of the study are intended to apply (Silverman, 2000). According to Leedy and Elilis (2005), a target population is the actual population that can be studied. The targetted population of this study consists of what I will want to call respondents at the UDS.
Top level managers both male and female made up of the Principal Officers, Deans and Directors and members of the University council, heads of department, Graduate school Coordinators, were interviewed. Thus, a sample of 4 Principal Officers, 4 University Council members, 4 Directors, 9 Deans and 4 Vice Deans from the various faculties, the Registrar, 12 Assistant Registrars/ Faculty officers, 9 Senior Librarian/ Senior Assistant Librarian, 4 Graduate school coordinators, 25 Heads of Department (academic) were interviewed. Because the target population was predominantly literate an unstructured interview schedule guide was prepared and used during the interviews. The choice of the above category of respondents was highly influenced by the fact that, they have a whole wealth of information on women’s participation in the management of tertiary institutions in Ghana as a whole and UDS in particular.

Now, because there was rarely enough time or money to gather information from everyone in the population, it became necessary to find a representative sample (or subset) of the population under study. A sample is thought of as a portion of the whole population that is taken to be a meaningful representation of the entire population.

A sample size of 80 was used in this regard. As described above, the 80 respondents were sampled from a total population of 140 by means of simple random sampling. However, the selection of the categories by campuses was based on the discretion of the researcher. In all 16 women and 60 men were interviewed. The 80 respondents were identified through simple random sampling an approach that gives every manager in the UDS an equal chance of being selected for investigation (Twumasi, 2002). The researcher was privileged to have had a contact person who actually introduced most of the respondents as the data collection progressed.

The table below illustrates details of the sample.
Table 3.1: LIST OF RESPONDENTS BY CATEGORY AND SEX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondents</th>
<th>Wa campus</th>
<th>Nyankpala campus</th>
<th>Navrongo campus</th>
<th>Tamale/CC EIR/Graduate Sch.</th>
<th>Central Administration</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F  M</td>
<td>F  M</td>
<td>F  M</td>
<td>F  M</td>
<td>F  M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>0  3</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Deans</td>
<td>0  1</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>0  1</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrar</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>0  1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Registrars/</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>1  1</td>
<td>0  2</td>
<td>4  0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Officers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Librarians/Senior</td>
<td>2  0</td>
<td>1  2</td>
<td>1  0</td>
<td>2  1</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assist. Librarian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Sch. Coordinators</td>
<td>0  1  0</td>
<td>0  1</td>
<td>0  1</td>
<td>0  1</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoDs</td>
<td>1  4</td>
<td>2  5</td>
<td>0  5</td>
<td>0  3</td>
<td>0  5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Officers</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>0  4</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Council</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>1  3</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>1  3</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3  10</td>
<td>3  14</td>
<td>2  10</td>
<td>4  20</td>
<td>4  6</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey: February- April 2013

3.7 Profile of the Study Area

The UDS operates a multi campus system with four main campuses spread out the in three Northern Regions of Ghana. These include, Wa campus located in the Upper West Region, Tamale and Nyankpala campus located in the northern region and Navrongo campus located in the Upper East Region of the country (www.uds.gh/history.php, date assessed 19th November, 2012). Let me at this moment give a brief history of the UDS. In May, 1992, the Provisional
National Defence Council passed PNDC Law 279 announcing the establishment of the UDS. In May, 1993, three pioneer principal officers: Prof R.B. Benning, vice chancellor; Mr. Paul Effah, registrar and Mr. Agana Banga, finance officer, were appointed in acting capacities. Other appointments include Mr. I.K. Antwi, University Librarian; Prof. George William Ken Mensah, (Dean) and Mr. A.B.T Zakariah, Assistant Registrar. Following these appointments, a university council chaired by Brigadier Dr. G.K. Deh was put in place to provide policy direction to the new university.

The first batch of students, numbering forty (but one student dropped after matriculation) were admitted to read the BSc. Agriculture Technology programme in the Faculty of Agriculture (the premier faculty of the University) in September 1993, but not all the full complement of lecturers. This process marked the beginning of academic work in the university.

It is worth mentioning that, during its formative stages, the UDS relied heavily on borrowed facilities (including physical infrastructure). In particular, the first batch of students of the faculties of Agriculture and Integrated Development Studies, which was established next were housed at the School of Hygiene and took their lectures at the Islamic Secondary School both in Tamale.

The Faculty of Agriculture was relocated to Nyankpala when the university inherited the campus and the old structures of the former Nyankpala Agricultural College, while the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS) was moved to Navrongo to occupy the premises of the then Institute for Field Communications and Agricultural Training (IFCAT). FIDS was however moved to Wa in 2002.
The School of Medicine and Health Sciences (SMHS) and the Faculty of Applied Sciences (FAS) were established next after FIDS. SMHS is located at the Tamale campus and FAS at the Navrongo campus (UDS, 2012). At present the UDS has additional faculties in all its campuses comprising Planning and Land Management in Wa, Mathematical Sciences in Navrongo and Renewable Natural Resources and Agribusiness and Communications Sciences in Nyankpala. In additions, the Faculty of Education and Institute for Continuous Education and Interdisciplinary Research, which are headquartered in Tamale, which operate multi-campus systems, have departments and offices on all campuses. Navrongo and Wa also house French Language Centres.

3.7.1 Faculties and Centre's by Campus

At the time of data collection, the university currently has eight faculties spread throughout four campuses. Below are the campuses and faculties:

Nyankpala campus

- Faculty of Agriculture (FOA)
- Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources (FRNR)
- Faculty of Agribusiness and Communication Sciences (FACS)

Tamale campus

- School of Medicine and Health Sciences (SMHS)
- Graduate School
3.7.2 Graduate School

The Graduate School coordinates the post graduate academic programmes and other activities executed by the faculties and the School of Medicine and Health Sciences (SMHS). Current graduate training is at the levels of MA, MSc, MPhil, and PhD.

3.7.3 Student Population

The University’s student population has grown from 40 with no single female in 1993 to 20,074 as at June, 2011. This rapid and tremendous increase in the university’s population has been as a

1 Has now upgraded into Institute for Continuous Education and Interdisciplinary Research
result of the establishment of more faculties and the introduction of more demand-driven undergraduate and graduate programmes.

3.7.4 The Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP)

The TTFPP forms a central component of the academic training curriculum of the UDS. It draws its justification from the PNDC law 279(1992) establishing the university, which amongst others, mandates the university to blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of northern Ghana in particular and the country as a whole.” Hence, the academic year has been divided into three trimester which contrasts with Ghanaian tradition of two semesters, so as to put the third trimester to full practical use as part of the official curriculum.

In pursuance of its mandate, the TTFPP, which started as a community-based internship programme of the FIDS, has been extended to all faculties and schools and operated as an integrated system that places students of diverse disciplines from each of the faculties and school in groups to work and learn together during the third trimester. The third trimester of the academic year is devoted solely to practical fieldwork in the local communities, during the first two years. The third year third trimester is devoted to faculty-based internships and practicum while the final year third trimester is spent on research projects, where students live and carry out studies on development issues over a period of eight weeks (UDS, 2012).
Has since been split into the School of Business and Law and the Faculty of Education. However, with the Faculty of Education headquartered in Tamale, the Wa campus currently maintains a Department on Social and Business Education.

The figure below depicts the structure of the UDS.

**Fig.1: UDS Management Structure**

![Diagram of UDS Management Structure]


Below is detail of the above structure:
Principal Officers

- Chairman of the University Council
- Vice-Chancellor
- Pro-Vice-Chancellor
- Registrar
- Ag. Finance officer
- University Librarian
- Director, WPD

Deans and Directors

- Dean, FoA
- Dean, FMS
- Dean, GS
- Dean, SMHS
- Dean, FPLM
- Dean, FELBS
- Ag. Dean, FAS
- Dean, FIDs
- Ag. Dean, FRNR
- Dean of Students
- Director, Academic Quality Assurance
- Director, UDS INT.
- Director, CCEIR
- Ag. Director, TTFPP
Members of the University Council

- Chairman
- Vice- Chancellor
- 3 Government appointees
- 9 other representatives


3.8 Methods of Data Collection

Although methodology is understood to be the general principles behind every research, Ahiadeke (2008) asserts that methods are the practical techniques used to undertake research. The main broad techniques that are often used in collecting qualitative data include: interviews, discussions, observations and diagrams. For the case of this study, interviews (unstructured) and observation techniques were used. The case study required the collection of very extensive data in order to produce in depth understanding on, among others, the career development and aspirations, perception and representation of women managers who are being studied. As a case study, which sort to get in-depth understanding of women in management in the UDS, participant observation, appropriate written documents, and interviews were used to collect data.

3.8.1 Participant Observation

Observation as an ongoing qualitative research technique is important since it helps present the whole picture, captures context or process, and illustrates information about the influence of the physical environment (Nisbet, 1977). Participant observation refers to situations in which an observer gains firsthand knowledge by being in or around the social setting that is being investigated. Participant observation was adopted to ensure that the information gotten from the interview section was consistent with the situation on the ground. Long and involved personal
interaction with the subjects of the research is the prime advantage of participant observation (Zikmund, 1991).

The researcher having been a student of the UDS for the past six (6) years could not avoid noticing the stark underrepresentation of women in the management system and structure of the said institution. This was necessary to ensure that information that was gathered during the interviews conducted is consistent with the observation made by the researcher.

3.8.2 Document Review

As observed by Yin (1994) documents allow an investigator to trace both factual and interpretive information about the phenomenon or situation under study. Miller and Brewer (2004) also assert that, documents are a good place to search for answers as they provide a useful check on primary information gathered through interviews and observation. The review of these documents was necessary because the research is aimed at producing quality data.

Nevertheless, Finnegan (1996 cited in Baabereyir, 2009: 15), asserts that “documentary sources had, for a long time, been taken to mean sources in the form of only written documents but its scope has now been widened to include other sources such as radio or film materials which are neither primarily in writing nor in documents in the traditional sense”. Information from such traditional documentary sources such as reports and newspaper articles, discussions on radio and other electronic media was not exempted. These traditional documentary sources provided the study such information about the views of the general public concerning women and tertiary educational management. Payne and Payne (2004) indicated that, this method of data collection helps in categorizing, investigating, interpreting and identifying the limitations of physical sources most commonly written documents whether in the private or public domain.
Again relevant documents, mostly from newspapers, journals, publications, internet sources the Ghana National Tertiary Education Council, among others. As Patton (2002:295) advises, “learning to use, study and understand documents and files is part of the repertoire of skills needed for qualitative inquiry”. The relevant documents mentioned above provided relevant information on women’s involvement in the management of tertiary institutions as well as the successes gained (in terms of statistics) over the years following affirmative action on equality.

The researcher indeed found these documents useful to the study in the sense that, they serve as a check on the observations made as well as the interviews conducted to ensure the logical and factual representation of findings.

3.8.3 Interviews

Patton (2002) asserts that qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowledgeable, and should be made explicit. In this regard, the researcher was mindful of the fact that each respondent was entitled to their own opinions regarding the case at stake. During the interviews, the researcher ensured that respondents really understood the questions posed to guarantee that the information given will not be misleading.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (2003) an interview is a purposeful conversation, usually between two people, although sometimes involving more, which is directed by someone (interviewer) in order to get information from the other (interviewee). Thus interviews involve two or more people where one moderates by asking questions and the other(s) listen and answers as such. Rapley (2004) contends that interviews are by nature, social encounters where speakers collaborate in producing retrospective (and prospective) accounts or versions of their past (future) actions, experiences, feelings, and thoughts. An interview is a face to face conversation
with the aim of obtaining information. In other words, it is a method of field investigation whereby the researcher meets his respondents and through the interaction he asks specific questions to find answers to his research problem (Twumasi, 2001). For this study, unstructured interview technique was chosen, among others, because of its flexibility in that the interviewer is in a position to sense the situation and can adapt his questions to suit the psychology of the people involved in the field situation.

In this study, top level managers both male and female comprising Principal Officers, Deans and Directors and members of the university council were interviewed. This enabled the researcher to uncover the essence, the variance structure of the meaning of experience. To this end, an unstructured interview schedule guide was prepared and used during the interviews. The interview schedule guide was however reviewed by the supervisor of the study. The interview schedule guide was distributed to interviewees one week before the commencement of the actual interview. This helped them to fix their minds on the nature of questions to be asked and gave them an opportunity to prepare for the interview.

Dates, time and venue of interview was agreed upon by each interviewee. The interview lasted between 30 and 45 minutes. The interview schedule guide was divided into five parts. Part one carried the research topic and the objectives of the study as a briefing to the interviewees. Part two of the interview schedule guide focused on questions about the acceptance of women with particular emphasis on their position in relation to men in the university.

Part three of the interview schedule guide asked questions on the determinant factors that define and shape the management position of women in the university, followed by the fourth part which carried questions on the challenges women face as well as the progressive equal
opportunities for women in management positions. Part five of the schedule guide asked questions regarding the effects, challenges and achievement of the intervention which have been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women’s representation in the management system and structure of the UDS. Men were included in this study because they are the counterparts of women and they work very closely and hand in hand with women hence will provide a comparative score.

The respondents in this section were categorized into three: one for women senior members, another for principal officers, deans/directors, and the third was for the human resource manager.

The third part asked questions on the perception, representation and acceptance of women in management. The final part examined the respondent’s opinions of the factors that might have contributed to their career achievements. An introductory letter was written to explain guaranteed confidentiality of respondents. Most of the respondents who were not sure of the researcher’s identity insisted on an identity card which was provided.

One of the limitations of the interviewing process encountered was that some of the respondents were reluctant to provide enough information for fear of the unknown. Meanwhile, from the commencement of the interview process, the researcher stressed the importance of their confidentiality and that made them to talk to me in confidence. However, the interview process was interrupted by the strike action of UTAG as most respondents especially the Heads of Departments were consistently not available. Table 3.2 depicts the total number of respondents interviewed by category and gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category of interviewees</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Deans</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assist. Registrar/ Faculty Officer</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sen. Librarian/Sen. Assist. Librarian</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoDs</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Officers</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Council</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey February- April, 2013

### 3.9 Techniques of Data Analysis and Presentation

Analysis of data is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modeling data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making (Lewis-Beck & Michael, 1995). In other words, it is a process of summarizing information according to the relevant issues in agreement with the objectives of the study by closely examining information gathered for a study with the aim of understanding it better and based on which conclusion can be drawn (Bryman, 2001). Also, Patton (2002) notes that the analysis of any kind of data refers to its systematic examination to determine its parts, the relationships among the parts and their relationship to the whole. As Glesene and Peskin (1992 cited by Adusah-Karikari, 2008) maintain that qualitative data analysis involves organizing what one has seen, heard and read so that one can make sense out of what he/she has learned in the field.

According to Bell (1993:127), “a hundred separate pieces of interesting information will mean nothing to a reader unless they have been placed into categories......grouping patterns and items of particular significance”. As a result, in the process of data analysis, inductive analysis was used. Indeed Hoepfl (1997) notes that it is a process that is aimed at uncovering embedded
information and making it unambiguous. In a similar vein, Bogdan and Biklen (2003) also note that qualitative analysis helps themes and categories to emerge in three phases. The first phase discovery is when the researcher identifies themes and develops concepts as the research progresses. The second phase, coding, occurs after data collection focusing on redefining the understanding of the subject matter. The final part is interpretation in which the researcher attempts to understand the data (Adusah-karikari 2008).

In this study, the data was reduced through coding. The researcher's personal notes during the interview process and observations as well as institutional documents constituted my data. The quantitative data was analyzed with SPSS in which the data was presented in frequency table flows and charts. However, the qualitative aspect was content analyzed.

3.10 Site Selection

As noted earlier, the UDS operates a multi-campus system with four main campuses spread across the three northern regions of Ghana, comprising all the faculties and school as well as the central administration; the graduate school comprised my research site. Also, the main reason for selecting this population is due to the fact that the institution is located in that Part of the northern region of Ghana where gender disparity is very high. This research was conducted over a period of two months from February to April 2013. Having been educated in the UDS, I have substantial networking capabilities with management and this gave me an easy access to a wide variety of respondents.

3.11 Validation

Preliminary interviews were held with the aid of an interview guide which contained 10 set of questions, 5 each for women and men respectively at the Tamale Polytechnic. The result from
the pretesting was used to make minor modifications to the instruments before administering it across the four campuses of the UDS. In any case the response was considered acceptable thus paved the way for the main investigation.

### 3.12 Ethical Considerations

A research involving human subjects' raises questions of ethical concerns about the respondent’s right to privacy, the possible harm or discomfort caused by experimental procedures and the use of deception (Bryman, 2001). As a result, this research duly prioritizes a number of ethical considerations which include among others;

**Ensuring Confidentiality:** The researcher assured the respondents and interviewees of immerse efforts to treat data generated with utmost anonymity and confidentiality. Fostering the assurance, the researcher desisted from using any audio or video recording devices. This was necessary following the recent act of Ghanaian journalists who violate people right to confidentiality by, recording the voices of public officials often without their knowledge only to replay them in the electronic media. It was anticipated that most of the respondents will exceedingly skeptical about this issue for fear of losing their jobs.

Also in the observance of **Academic Honesty**, the research was aware of the fact that, sourcing information from a writer without duly acknowledging was a form of academic dishonesty (plagiarism) and in fact punishable by law. Again, it must be noted that since no single individual or group of individual can monopolize knowledge and claim ownership of one particular phrase or preposition, unless otherwise stated, all prepositions and ideas in this research work reflect that of the researcher.
Furthermore, the research was aware of the **consequence of declaring false information**. Aside the need to examine the participation of women in management in the University for Development Studies, which results is envisaged to be useful to the university itself, the ministry of women and children's affair, National Council for Tertiary Education and other development organizations; this work also aims at contributing to the general body of academic knowledge. Therefore the researcher had made significant strides to ensure that, all information provided in this research was gotten by carefully pursuing the research methods outlined in this work.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION.

4.1 Introduction

Data analysis and presentation is a crucial part of the research process. It enables the researcher to use primary data supported by secondary data to examine the questions of the study with the view to present and discuss results. This chapter presents the results obtained from checklists, observations and interviews conducted in order to answer the research questions posed in this study. The main objective of this study was to investigate and offer an understanding of the involvement of women in the management of tertiary education institutions in Ghana, with specific reference to the University for Development Studies (UDS). The research questions provided a framework for this study. The participants comprising administrators and academics formed a total of 80 respondents.

This chapter is divided into two sections: The first presents the socio-demographic background of respondents. The second provides the presentation and discussion of main findings.

4.2 Socio-Demographic Background of Respondents

In all, 80 respondents were interviewed across the four campuses and centers: Wa, Nyankpala, Navrongo and Tamale as well as Center for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research (CCEIR), Graduate School and Central Administration of the University. On the socio demographic characteristics of this study, the respondents were asked various questions which bordered on their level of education, desire to further their education, marital status and current position held in the institution among others. This gave an insight into the background
characteristics of the respondents regarding their age, marital status and educational background. This was followed by the examination of the core issues of the study as presented below.

4.2.1 Sex Composition of respondents

The randomly selected study sample was revealing when disaggregated by sex. It showed that out of the 80 respondents, 60 (75%) were men compared to 20 (25%) women. This is indicative of the gender skewed nature of the staffing situation. It also already reflects the limits of women’s ability to participate in management positions with such a low level of representation.

Table 4.1 below depicts the sex distribution of the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey (February -April, 2013)

4.2.2 Age of Respondents

From the research, it was revealed that 22 respondents constituting about 29.0% were within the youthful age bracket of 30 to 40 years of which 14 (10.64%) were males and 8 (6.08%) were females. For this category of administrator/managers, which has the largest concentration of women and who have age on their side, there is the possibility for rising to higher levels, all things being equal. There is possibility to use mentoring and further training to enhance their participation in management.

Noteworthy also is that 37 respondents (48.6%), constituting the majority of respondents were in their middle years of age range 41 and 50 of which only 2 (1.52%) were females and 39 were
male. For this age category which has the largest concentration of administrators, women were woefully underrepresented.

As many as 35 (26.6%) were within the 40-50 years while 15 respondents 19.7% were within 51 and 60. The data showed that majority of the respondents (59) were in their most active years from between age 30 and 50 of which 14 are women. As persons in UDS management, it can be said that UDS has a youthful class of management. There was however a significant number, 15 (19.7%) who were above the youthful bracket and within 51 and 60 years. A marginal number of 2 (1.52%) was however beyond retirement. Details of the age distribution of respondents are presented in fig 4.1 below.

Fig 4.1: Age Distribution of Respondents

Source: Field Survey (February -April, 2013)

4.2.3 Marital Status of Respondents

The marital status of the respondents is presented in Table 4.3 below.
Table 4.2: Marital Status of Respondent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>81.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey (February - April, 2013)

From Table 4.3 above, 81.3% of respondents were married while 12.5% are single. Respondents in the single category 10 in all of which females are in majority (6) will probably have the time and could decide to develop their career or further their education if they are willing and need to. But of course some of the respondents who are married could also do same, especially those not bogged down by challenges of family and social responsibilities on top of the technical and financial requirements such as qualification, study leave and educational opportunities. However, due to the gendered roles and expectations of women they could be more challenged. Women with young children, recently married, considering having children, role expectations, among others could posed challenges from the personal and family/social level. Also, gendered practices and values could lead to the sidelining of women in choosing who to award scholarships or study leave. Also, women who perform multiple duties could face some difficulty as they juggle professional work and housework, especially as culturally women burden the higher burden of child care and housekeeping. Moser (1992) examines the triple roles of women in society, productive, reproductive and community, with implications for their wellbeing and empowerment.
4.2.4 Educational Background of Respondents

Since the University as an academic institution, thrives on the qualifications of its staff and this is especially so for entry into management positions, it was important to examine the educational background of those in the managerial class of UDS.

The survey revealed that 41 respondents forming 53.9% of the respondents held Master’s degrees with a research base; 28 respondents forming 36.8% hold Doctoral degree. Table 4.4 below provides the various levels of education of the respondent. Of those holding masters degrees, 26 (33.3%) were male while 15 (19.2%) were female. For those who held doctoral degrees, 28 (35.5%) were males while 5 (6.4%) were females. Here again the smaller number of women holding the requisite academic degrees with better chances for progression poses a disadvantage.

Table 4.3: Educational Background of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>52.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>42.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey (February -April, 2013)

A point of note is that, although the educational levels of all respondents are commendable, it is important to underscore the fact that for one to attain a managerial position and or rise through the managerial ranks, one must at least hold a research degree. For those in academic track, a doctoral degree is most competitive. In the case of the respondents of the study, this subsequently puts a heavy task on them, majority of who 53.9% who hold masters degrees.

Figure 4.2 below illustrates the educational background of respondents.

Fig.4.2 Educational Background of respondents.
It is clear from Fig 4.1 above that female (15) master’s degree holders are less than their male (26) counterparts. Again there are (28) male doctoral degree holders while 5 females were recorded. Among the respondents

4.3 Rank/Status of Respondents

On the rank/status of the respondents, two clear categories exist; the academic and administrative. These are presented below.

Table 4.4. Academic Category of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant lecturer</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18.24%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17.48%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior lecturer</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.32%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.28%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>57</strong></td>
<td><strong>43.32%</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>9.12%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey February- April, 2013

Table 4.4 represents the academic category of respondents. From the table a significant number of women within the female total at 8 out of a total of 12, were in assistant lectureship category but comparing the participation of women with men, one would quickly conclude that men are
more actively involved at the academic level than women. Overall 57 males compared to 12 females at and even in that specific category at 15 males compared to 8 females.

4.3.1 Administrative Category

This looked at gender representation within the senior category of administrative staff within the Registry.

Table 4.5. Ranking of Respondents of Administrative category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.76%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Assistant Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.76%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Registrar</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.76%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.28%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.04%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey February- April, 2013

Table 4.5 above illustrates respondents who were interviewed within the administrative category. From the respondents, the figures show that more women than men were interviewed. From the table above, one might quickly say that a considerable percentage of women were represented. However, as much as this might be true, the women were concentrated, 3 out of 4, at the lowest positions, assistant registrar, on that ladder. Sarage (1992) who observes that in management, women tend to occupy the lowest positions.

Table 4.6. Management positions of respondents by sex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal Officers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4(19%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9(43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>4(19%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Council</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>4(19%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>21(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey (February- April, 2013)

Table 4.6 above depicts the management positions of respondents by sex. Overall, 19 males forming 90% and two females representing 10% of total respondents in management positions.
were reached during the data collection. Of these, four (4) males representing 21% of male respondents and no women 0% of female respondents formed the principal officers. The largest concentrate was in the dean category, where there were 9 male and no female among the sampled participants. There were also 3 males representing 16% of males and 1 female representing 50% of females respondents were council members of the university. These stunning figures reflect the low participation of women in the management processes of the university. This confirms the assertion of Cole (2004) that management is the domain of men. The dominance of men in almost all departments of the university raises discomforting questions regarding the impacts of efforts that have been made by governments and other affirmative action groups to bridge the gap between men and women and to give equal opportunities to women like men.

4.3.2 Managers of Academic units

Table 4.7. Respondents within Academic units.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty officers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>5(11.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoDs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>56.4%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>25(58.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice deans</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4(10.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9(23%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>39</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>43(100%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey (February- April, 2013)

Table 4.7 depicts respondents within the academic unit of UDS who were interviewed. Indeed, 4 males and 1 female respondent were faculty officers: 22 males and 3 females were HoDS: 4 males were recorded as vice deans but females recorded none: 9 male deans were recorded but females recorded none. From the above striking figures men are actively involved in management as compared to women who are hardly visible.
4.3.3 Principal Officers

Table 4.8. Respondents who are Principal Officers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pro. V. Chancellor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag. Finance officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Librarian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of WPD</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey (February- April, 2013)

Table 4.8 represents Principal Officers who were interviewed. As can be seen from the table, occupants of these positions who form the principal officers of UDS are all males. Women at this point are not visible. As the ladder of management is climbed higher, women face out completely as illustrated in the above table. Men continue to dominate management positions in all spheres of life (Cole, 2004). This study at this point would want to agree with Sarage (1992) who asserts that women move along management positions away from the channels of power.

Table 4.9. Respondents from University Council

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government Appointees</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UDS Alumni</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRASAG</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey (February- April, 2013)

4.4 Gender and Management in UDS

This section discusses the analysis of findings of the field data on the gender situation of the UDS management structure.
4.4.1 Gender Profile of UDS Management.

In this section, I conducted a gender profile of management positions in UDS. I used data from the Vice Chancellor’s Report and basic statistics of 2012/2013 and the Attendance List extracted from the Minutes of 57th Academic Board meeting held on May 23, 2013.

4.4.1.1 Principal Officers

These comprise the core managers of the University who head major administrative sections/directorates. They include the Vice Chancellor, Registrar, Finance Officer, Internal Auditor, Librarian and Director of Works and Physical Development. In this analysis however three other important Directorates, not included in the list of principal officers have also been included. This has been necessary in order to make a distinction between those in administrative and those in academic directorates. They are Director of International Programmes, Director of ICT and Director of Health Services. The study shows that only 1 (0.01%) out of the 10 (100%) positions have been held by a woman. Table 4.10 below depicts the principal officers of the University as well as the composition by sex.

Table 4.10 Principal Officers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Male %</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female %</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro Vice Chancellor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Auditor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Works And Physical Development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of International Programmes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of ICT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Health Services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(10%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 4.10, all other positions with the exception of that of the Director of International Programs which is headed by a woman, the rest are headed by men. The 7 Principal Officers are all men. The difference is made when the other 3, not often included in that category are added. Yet, as noted above, the Principal Officers form the core managers of the university who take pertinent decisions that affect key sections of the entire university, both in the present and for future of the University. This is a clear indication that the tenets of diversity in management as it relates to gender are not fully utilized in the system of the University. This situation could be likened to Cole, (2004) who asserts that management is the domain of men.

4.4.1.2 University Council.

The University Council is another decision making structure of the University, it includes the vice chancellor, Government appointed persons, elected representatives and other UDS officials in attendance. Table 4.11 depicts the members of the University council by sex. From the Table 4.11, 95% of the compositions are males leaving 5% females. Even with the 5% female, the only woman, happens to be a government appointee. While it is the case that majority of the members are statutory representatives either by election or office, noteworthy is that when due diligence is exercised even under such contests it is possible to improve gender equality. Government could have appointed all men but they did not resulting in the only woman member. Although woefully inadequate, this is suggestive of government’s effort to meet its gender quality commitments. Although the figure is below the promise of 30% it still counts. In fact the only woman member is as qualified as the men members but perhaps would not have made it to the Council, if gender considerations were ignored.
Table 4.11 University Council

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vice-Chancellor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Appointed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>4(20%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elected Representatives</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>47.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9(45%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UDS officials in attendance</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6(30%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>20(100%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


4.4.1.3 Academic Board

The Academic Board is the highest internal decision-making structure of the University. Its membership is drawn from faculties, departments and academic units. In attendance, is the Registrar and selected staff. As part of an affirmative action measure to improve the participation of women in UDS, a decision was made to allow all women senior members to become automatic members of the Board. This has served to boost the number of women on the board although not comparable to those of men. This is because the board representatives include Principal Officers, Deans, Directors, Vice Deans/Deputies, Heads of Departments and Unit, who have tended to be largely male. In addition, there are appointed representatives of departments.

Table 4.12 illustrates the composition of the academic board.

Table 4.12 academic board

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal Officers</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.13%</td>
<td>10(6.4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans/Directors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.13%</td>
<td>14(8.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Deans/Deputies</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15(9.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoDs/HoUs</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>41(26.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registry</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.38%</td>
<td>11(7.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representatives</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>31.2%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84.38%</td>
<td>66(42.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>125</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>157(100%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Membership List of Academic Board Minutes, 2013.
From the Table 4.12 above, 18.4% of females are represented while 80.4% of men are actively involved in this line of management. Indeed, comparing these stunning figures, the gap between men and women is further widened beyond measure. Although affirmative action had resulted in inclusion of as much as 27 women forming 16.1% of the total this is still lower compared to 80.4% of men.

### 4.4.1.4 Dean/Directors

The deans and directors head the various faculties and other programmes in the University. Table 4.13 illustrates the composition of the deans and directors of the University. From the table 2 (8.0%) females are represented and the rest of 23 (92%) are men.

#### Table 4.13 Dean/Directorate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty/ directorate</th>
<th>Dean/director</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agribusiness &amp; Communication Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Law</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCEIR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Development Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematical Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine and Health Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Land Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Development Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematical Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Land Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable Natural Resources</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Land Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable Natural Resources</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Land Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Quality Assurance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Affairs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTFPP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Relations</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.1.5 Vice Deans/Deputy Directors

At the time of the study, many of the directorates and faculties did not have vice deans or deputies. Only the 4 oldest faculties and school, Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty of Integrated Development Studies, Faculty of Applied Sciences and School of Medicine and Health Sciences, had officially appointed vice deans.

Table 4.14 Vice Deans/ Deputy Director

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty/Directorate</th>
<th>Vice Deans/ Deputy Director</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agribusiness &amp; Communication Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Sciences</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Law</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCIER</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Development Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematical Sciences</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine and Health Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Land Management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable Natural Resources</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Affairs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIFPP</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Vice-Chancellors’s report, 2012/2013

From table 4.14 as illustrated above, all the positions are occupied by men. It must be noted that although governments the world over, including Government of Ghana and other affirmative action groups as well as gender policies require that the gaps between men and women are bridged, there are also practical challenges. In the case of UDS, one would have thought that, at least if women were not able to make it to the higher echelons as Principal Officers or Deans and Directors, they could have at least been considered for the positions of vice and deputies as a
way of balancing the equation in the running of the faculties and programmes but this is not the case in the University. Even at this lower level, women did not have the requisite qualifications of at least Senior lecturer to contest for or be elected into the vice or deputy positions. Note that the senior of highly qualified women, associate professors, are in high management as dean and director. So while the policies and advocates might call for women’s representations there are also technical and practical reasons, limiting women’s rise to managerial status.

### 4.4.1.6 HoDs/HoUs of Academic Section

#### Table 4.15 HoDs/HoUs of academic section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department/units</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Sex %</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agronomy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Science</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Mechanization &amp; Irrigation Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horticulture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agribusiness Management and Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Extension, Rural Development &amp; Gender Studies.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family and Consumer Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biotechnology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Chemistry And Biochemistry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Physics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Biology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earth and Environmental Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Studies</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Legal Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range and Wildlife Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry and Forest Resource Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco-Tourism and Environmental Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries and Aquatic Resource Management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African and General Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics and Entrepreneurial Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.15 depicts heads of department and units (academic section) of the University. At a glance, 100% of the compositions are men. Not even a single female can be seen. At the time there was only one female HoD, Education. Note that, although at this point the Faculty of Education had been created, no appointments had been made yet. This is important because that faculty has a couple of women heads of units (HoUs).

The researcher at this point would want to agree with Cole, (2004) who has asserted that management is the domain of men.

### 4.4.1.7 Faculty Officers/Assistant Registrars of Faculties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty officers</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>10(30.3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant registrars</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>23(69.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>33(100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Membership List of Academic Board Minutes, 2013.
For this category of administrators, responsible for administrative components of the Directorates, Sections and Faculties, out of the total officer, 7 (21%) were female and 26 (79%) were men. This is probably the closest one can get in terms of balancing the representation of women and men in decision-making in the UDS. Studies on gender equality and quotas show that for the effective representation of women in decision-making one requires a critical mass of 30% to be able to make a difference. While the state at this level is encouraging there is still some gap to cover. What is interesting is that, there are enhanced chances of women for rising to the position of Faculty Officer. With a total of 7 women, the chances of women in this category of managers to rise should be higher than their colleagues in other categories.

4.4.1.8 Administrative Deputies

Table 4.17 Administrative Deputies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2(28.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2(28.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(14.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WPD</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(14.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1(14.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>7(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From table 4.17 above, 71.4% are men whiles 28.6% are females. Here again, one finds even a much better chance for women. The female in Registry Department is serving in acting capacity.

4.4.1.9 Heads of Administrative Sections

4.18 Heads of Administrative Units by Sections and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final Accounts</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh
Table 4.17 represents heads of administrative sections of the University. The table reveals 92.3% of men represented while only 7.1% female is represented. Indeed, it can be realized that women are not actively involved the management of UDS.

4.5. Factors Defining and Shaping the Occupation of Management.

4.5.1. Qualification (degree and rank)

The study revealed that qualification was an important criterion for occupying a management position in UDS. Respondents defined qualification to include the type of degree held, academic papers written and published as well as years of service. However for elected positions such as Dean and Pro Vice Chancellor, qualified persons have to contest before they can be given the mandate or not.

4.5.1.1 Degree Held

Before any one enters the University whether as an administrative staff or academic staff, he or she should hold a masters degree with a research base. A lecturer should hold a doctoral degree in their respective fields. These two degrees are awarded after completing a course of study whiles ranks such lectureships and professorships are appointed after meeting certain criteria
largely determined by contribution to knowledge, establishment and community. The second factor that is considered in defining managerial position in the UDS is hard work in the form of serving the waiting period and publications of papers. Indeed a respondent said Universities in Ghana do not respect personality and the UDS is no exception.

From the survey, 41 out of the 76 respondents interviewed were master’s degrees holders out of which 25 had served on the job between two (2) to ten (10) years and were willing to further their education. The rest however declined, explaining that their age will not permit them to further their education. They rather encouraged the younger ones to endeavor and further their education to secure their place in the University. So then, it is important to underscore the fact that, long service might not be enough but then the individual should endeavor to write and publish more quality papers in order to earn promotion.

Table 4.8 below shows the academic qualification of respondents who comprised a sample of managers in the UDS.

Table 4.8: Academic Qualification and rank of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Master’s Degree</th>
<th>Doctorate Degree</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey (February -April, 2013)

Table 4.8 displays the academic qualification of the respondents. This happens to be the first criterion that has to be met by all persons who seeks jobs as academics or administrators who enter the University. 27 males and 14 females were recorded to hold master’s degree whiles 14 males and 5 females were recorded to hold doctorate degree. All, academic track staff who do
not hold master’s degrees are expected to do so within six years of their employment and/or earn a promotion to the next rank through research and other contributions.

In terms of rank, academic staffs are expected to rise through the ranks as depicted in Fig. 4.3 below, from an assistant lecturer (master’s degree) to lecturer (doctorate/masters with experience) to senior lecturer (doctorate with publications/masters with experience and publications) to associate professor (doctorate with publications) to professor (doctorate with publications/impact). While in the past non-doctoral holders had equal chance to rise to the highest rank of Professorship, current regulations limit master’s degree holders in academia to the level of senior lecturers. This means that for the men and women, who work as academics that hold master degrees only, they can reach the very top, from which deans and directors, vice chancellors and pro-vice chancellors are selected if they hold doctoral degree. Unfortunately, this disfavors women as majority tend to hold master’s degrees.

Fig. 4.3 Ranks of Academic Position
During the interviews conducted, the respondents mentioned that for the position of an assistant lecturer one has to hold a master’s degree with a research base, serve the waiting period and work hard by publishing “quality papers”, incredible sources such as books and journals before one can qualify for promotion. Doctoral degree holders start as lecturers but then have to still publish enough papers as well as serve on the job and work hard to earn their promotion. They said the University system is such that, to hold a position like departmental head, senior lecturers and/or doctoral degree holders are considered above lecturers or master degree holders otherwise one can only serve in an acting position for a limited period.

If qualification is a criterion then there is no doubt that men in this category will be considered for management positions in this sense especially the professors and doctoral degree holders. On the other hand, majority of the women interviewed held Master’s degree with only one (1) being an associate professor at the time. Eventually, when people are needed to occupy management positions, women will invariably be left out. It is difficult if not impossible for Master’s degree holders to compete with doctoral degree holders for the same positions. For instance, senior lecturers with PhDs are considered for departmental heads. However, they are limited in supply in the case of the UDS, and so you will find master’s holders heading departments in ‘acting’ capacities.

However, this research probed further to find out whether the many master’s degree holders were willing to further their education? The table below reveals the response.

Table 4.11: Desire for Further Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey (February-April 2013)
From Table 4.11 above, 57.8% of the respondents are willing to further their education. Most of the respondents in this category hold masters with research base while others hold professional degrees in other fields. They are willing to work hard, publish more papers and enroll to offer their doctoral degrees.

However, 42.2% of the respondents said no to my question that they did not desire to further their education. In academia, holding a doctoral degree seems to be the limit and so all they can do is to write more papers, articles and journal papers to qualify them to attain the professorial status. Here in this category were a few people.

The University system is a closed one in the sense that it does not lead anywhere beyond its precincts. This implies that a person employed or recruited into the university remains in the system until retirement or resignation. The only motivation is that the individual moves up the steps in hierarchy by promotion and appointment to higher management positions.

### 4.5.1.2 Publications

The University expects its members to write and publish academic papers that would enable them to be promoted. A minimum of 5 papers are expected to be written and published as part of the progression from Lecturer to Senior Lecturer position. The number and quality of papers are higher as one rises further.
4.5.1.3 Years of Service

Again, an individual could qualify to hold a managerial position through long years of experience. Depending on the number of years one has served the university through hard work, such persons could be promoted as they are thought to understand the system of the institution. The second factor that is considered in defining managerial position in the UDS is hard work in the form of serving the waiting period. A lecturer has to serve for at least 3 years before they can qualify to be promoted to the next rank of Senior Lecturer. Hence, it is not enough to publish papers but those papers can be presented for consideration if one has served the minimum wait years of the category to which one is applying.

4.5.1.4. Election

Apart from being qualified by certification, other positions such as dean and pro vice chancellor are contested and elected. The difference here is that although an individual might be qualified irrespective of their gender, they have to go the extra mile of competing with others for such positions. In this process the contestants are expected to campaign within and among colleagues articulating clearly their vision in order to amass the support of the electorates. As Ellison (2006) has explained the physiological difference theory which suggests that women compared to men are less inclined to compete for senior management positions could come into play. This inclination could be informed by the candidates' assessment of their popularity and chances of winning. This could be true if women anticipate minimal support from colleagues, they are likely to decline. In a male-dominated environment where women's leadership is rare, women's chances of outdoing their male competitors are slim. Hence, they would be more inclined to offer themselves for appointed rather than elected positions. For instance, the two women senior
members who meet the qualifications for deanship have not competed for the position in their respective faculties although one competed for Pro-Vice Chancellorship and lost. However, the two are currently serving as dean and director, only by appointment.

4.5.1.5. Nominations/ Appointments

This category often takes two major forms: being appointed by the university or by the government.

4.5.1.6 Government Appointees

Appointed positions in UDS include Council members other than institutional representatives and the Vice Chancellor. The difference however is that while the Vice Chancellor position is advertised and a search party formed to lead the process of screening and identifying one for appointment by the President, appointed council members including the Chair are appointed by the President only in consultation with relevant principals. Currently, the following have been appointed by government as presented in Table 4.17 below.

Table 4.19: Appointed members of University Council by sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice chancellor</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Council chair</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other council members</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: vice-chancellor’s report, 2013

There are also those who are internally appointed by the Vice Chancellor through internal consultations. Internally, appointed candidates are often done with the approval and/or confirmation of Council and/or Academic Board. These will include foundations deans, directors...
and deans of academic units as well as heads of departments and units and vice deans and deputies who are nominated by deans in consultation with principals for appointment by the Vice Chancellor. However, such appointments whether in acting or substantive positions are informed by the qualifications, rank and experience of the candidates.

Closely related to the above, a staff who might have served the university for some years could be appointed to assume a management position by the University. On the other hand, the government of the day could appoint a staff to assume a management position. However in Ghana, this has been politicized.

4.5.1.7. Contributions

Nonetheless an individual could be promoted to a management positions through the persons diverse contribution to the development of the institution or unit. This is done as a way of honoring the individual irrespective of gender for their immerse contribution and long service and experience in the institution. In most cases such individuals must of course be qualified by certification and ranking. Hence, both men and women have the option to make a difference in other to be recognized.

4.5.1.8. Popularity

Apart from meeting the above requirements, popularity between and among your colleagues is an important virtue that cannot be overemphasized. During the interview, respondents made it clear that an individual’s interpersonal relationship with colleagues in most cases is a plus. This is most important in those positions that are contested. Flowing freely with electorates makes it easy to articulate your vision to them and subsequently gaining their support. In a social setting,
where there are subtle barriers to the extent to which women can fraternize, especially when they are married, this can be limiting.

4.6. Challenges of Endangering Women’s Ascend to Management in UDS

During the interviews, most respondents expressed their views on the challenges likely to endanger the chances of women to ascend management positions in the UDS. Among the myriad of challenges mentioned included inadequate logistics/ resources, inadequate staff, women’s attitude, as discussed below.

4.6.1 Inadequate Logistics.

During the data collection, on the whole, 58 respondents forming 44.08% agreed that inadequate logistics increased their work burden. All of these challenges they observed made it difficult to execute their job descriptions. Consequently, it was difficult measuring their output.

Irrespective of these challenges they said they were expected to work hard to meet their targets as managerial staffs though the institutional structures seem inadequate.

4.6.2 Inadequate Staffing

Inadequate staffing is a situation that puts enormous pressure on staff in general and women in particular in terms of the demands on their time and effort. From the investigation 60 respondents forming 45.6% admitted that UDS does not have the full complement of staff and 65 forming 85.5% admitted that they were constrained as a result. The shortage of staff means workers have to work extra load and time, a situation which many working women, especially those raising family do not have.
4.6.3 Women’s Attitude

The attitude of women towards management per say is positive but the means to reaching there is often the problem. During the survey 70 respondents representing 87.5% most women often find it difficult to contest for some positions for fear of not accepted. Again they feel their work schedules might be over burdened due to the fact that they play multiple roles in the home and so most find it extremely challenging combining their domestic roles and the office.

4.7. Status of Women in UDS Management.

Although governments the world over have made attempts to improve the statues of women by narrowing the gaps between men and women, to give an equal opportunity to women like men, it has yielded little results.

As noted by the Association of Commonwealth Universities (2004) women are still largely excluded from policy making and senior management in all sectors of the economy and more typically, in positions of higher education. To some extent this is a true reflection in the case of UDS. Few women are seen in management as evident in the findings presented earlier. Taking a close look at the structure of the line management in the UDS, one can hardly count women among them. Labeling management in UDS as the domain of men means in this regard that the tenets of diversity in management as noted by Cole (2004) are not fully realized.

From the analysis above few women are visible at the academic and administrative positions which in most cases are beyond the channels of power. Although they are in the system, they seem to be passive receipts of information and instructions from authority without necessary partaking in the decision making processes of the university. Of course their inputs are definitely
needed. This draws attention to the fact that gender diversity of management which is very important has hardly any place in the university.

4.8. Peculiar Challenges of Women managers

Irrespective of all the opportunities, women in management face challenges.

From the interview 49 (64.5%) respondents agreed that women encounter difficulties in management while 27 (35.5%) of them did not agree explaining that those challenges should be considered as stimulants on the job. The latter felt facing challenges in administration were normal. The highlighted challenges were admitted by the respondents during the interview sections.

4.8.1. Family Life

The survey revealed that 65 forming 85.5% of respondents identified family life as one of the challenges women managers face. For the few married women, this was challenging as they had to combine childcare and other household chores as well as their jobs. This further has a lasting effect on their ability to apportion their time to develop their career amid all the difficulties. For respondents who were single, this implied that they had lesser responsibility and so stood the chance of developing their career effectively and efficiently.

The women expressed considerable difficulty in combining their family life and that of work. This was especially so for those in the administrative units who had to leave home to the office before 8:00am only to return home after 5:00pm to continue. They particularly had little time to do research in order to come out with the requisite publications that will propel their promotions. Of course some of the men felt this is indeed a big challenge for which women had to battle with.
4.8.2. Stress involved in the work place.

The research further revealed that the stressful nature of the work made it quite challenging. Indeed, 65 persons forming 85.5% of the respondents identified this challenge as devastating. The respondents said that working in the University was demanding as they are faced with heavy work schedules on a daily basis. They mentioned that they particularly found it difficult combining their work schedules with researching and publishing papers to be promoted. For instance those who double as academic and administrative staffs, must make sure both roles are diligently performed thus making it considerably stressful.

4.8.3 Lack of confidence

The survey revealed that 41 persons forming 53.9% respondents mentioned that lack of confidence was one of the challenges faced by women in management. They said that having worked in the University for some time, men occupy majority of the management positions with a few or no woman to look up to as role models. This made it difficult for them to avail themselves for any management position. Again, their qualification keeps them away from management positions.

4.8.4. Male Networks and Alliance

The survey further revealed that 28 persons forming 36.8% of respondents said that, male networks and alliances were one of the many challenges faced by women managers. They said their colleagues formed smaller gangs or groups where all manner of issues are discussed between and among them. They admitted that male networks and alliances often geared towards making them feel intimated and incompetent. These alliances have enforced less cooperation from male staffs to female managers. For instance, one woman lamented how she was having
difficulties to manage men in her department who equally wanted her position. The men, she said would often gang up and refuse to perform their duties as scheduled. Unfortunately, whenever she complained about them to her boss who was a male, nothing was done about them.

4.8.5 Unclear job descriptions

Another spectacular challenge lamented by women had to do with unclear job description. They found themselves in situations where an office would be given without clear job description. Subsequently, most of the women found it difficult to perform because their tasks were not clearly defined. The survey revealed that 32 forming 42.2% of respondents identified this as challenging.

4.8.6 Socio-cultural Perception of Women

The surveyed exposed socio-cultural perceptions as another challenge women managers face. In all, 44 persons forming 57.8% of respondents identified as one of the challenges women managers faced. The socio-cultural perception of women as home makers and who do not fit in the corporate world affects women’s characteristics such as self-esteem, assertiveness and confidence. This in the long run, according to respondents interviewed, make them shy away from holding public offices. They (respondents) mentioned that those women who manage to occupy managerial positions in spite of the odds are thought to be treading the domain of men and as such are often distinguished as “social outcasts” who do not have time for their family responsibilities and who end up being divorced (Adjah, 2009).

All these difficulties as seen above are said to be glass ceilings which prevent women from developing their career to the latter.
These challenges practically make it difficult for women to break into what has been and still is mainly a man’s world. This project would agree with Sarage (1992) glass ceiling are those difficulties which prevents women from moving up the career ladder or they move along non-managerial tracks away from the channels of power.

4.9 Opportunities for Women in Management Position

This section presents findings on available opportunities for women relative to men to progress through the line of management in the UDS relative to men.

4.9.1 Training and Development.

The research revealed that there was no preferential treatment in terms of the progression. Thus both men and women are treated same in the university system. In terms of an individual going for further studies, which is encouraged by the University for job security, both men and women stand an equal chance of support from the institution. That is why it is very important for the many Masters holders (41) in the University to strengthen and encourage themselves to further their education.

The survey revealed that UDS does not discriminate positively or negatively in terms of gender when it comes to opportunities for progression. Women like men in the institution especially those with Master’s degree have to seize the opportunities to further their education.

The research probed further to find out whether the University had a special package in terms of sponsorship or scholarship scheme to support employees who had the desire to further their studies. Interestingly, the survey revealed that once the individual involved had served the waiting period and made publications, the institution has a sponsorship package for them.
Apart from being promoted as a result of hard work and qualification in order to rise through the ranks of management. Promotion through the ranks is also up for contest. Positions such as deanship and Pro Vice Chancellorship were keenly contested. Here again, the survey revealed that there was no discrimination by gender. Men and women who meet the requisite qualification and to some extent have seniority on their side are all considered. One’s ability to win and or lose is not automatic. The survey revealed that sometimes it goes beyond qualification and seniority to include unspoken criteria such as the effective social class formed in terms of the rapport built or the interpersonal relationship within and among colleagues.

Again an individual’s experience in the University system is a plus. This is considered in terms of publications, long service as well as previous managerial positions held by the individual. Considering the educational qualification of women in the UDS, almost all women none at the time of data collection, with the exception of only two associate professors, with one now a full professor had the requisite qualification to take up this challenge of contesting for positions. Although the opportunities are available for women, but barred by the glass ceiling, they have to push harder by working hard on their current statues in order to propel their promotion. Eventually the involvement of women in the management structure of the UDS, which does not seem encouraging, can only be unwritten by the women themselves who in this direction are entreated to make ready all promotion papers, further their education and work hard in order to climb through the managerial ladder of the UDS and so are encouraged to contest for positions as and when necessary.
4.9.2 Recruitment

More women should be recruited as much as men, as and when the need arises. This will ensure a significant percentage of women that would boast their active participation in the management system of the University.

4.9.3 Mentorship

More women in the management of UDS would have been a great opportunity for the younger ones. Women in high profile management positions would have an upper hand in mentoring other younger women who share the same aspiration to achieve their dreams. They would have served as career guides to them.

4.9.4 Role Models

Here again women in management positions would have served as models for many to look up to. As more women progress through the line of management, other people would have enough courage to aspire to be like them. This would indirectly increase the participation of women in management in the long run.

4.10 Interventions to Address Gendered Women’s Representation in Management.

The research tried to find out what pragmatic intervention has been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women’s representation in the management structure and system of the UDS.

When this question was posed to respondents about 95% of them responded that all females where members of the Academic Board of the University. As much as this is true, one is tempted to also question whether it is indeed enough to have all female staff being automatic members of the Board. Historically, the UDS as an academic institution was started and managed by men. It
is no surprise that males and their norms dominate the affairs of the University. However the 2003-2008 Strategic Plan of the UDS states that ‘UDS should take proactive steps in looking for senior female staffs who can serve as role models’ (2003-2008 Strategic Plan: 38). In view of this some respondents said efforts have been made to retain female students who complete the university to serve as research assistants and assistant lecturers. Again the survey revealed that, when employment adverts are published, much emphasis is placed on women by encouraging them to file their application. Even though the results at the end in most cases is disappointing, to some extent the UDS in its bid to diversify their management and also achieve their goal as stated in the strategic plan of 2003 – 2008 is still making efforts in this direction.

During the survey, some of the very top managers of the UDS had lot of experiences to share which are worth noting. The following paragraphs will highlight what they said:

"I had a female student whom I constantly encouraged to do her national service in the institution after completion. Then after, when the time was due, all applicants were shortlisted for an interview. This lady unknown to me was not interested in the offer yet she never told me; only for her to tell the panel of interviewers that she was not interested in the working with the institution and I was forcing it on her".(Interview 3rd February, 2013)

In a similar vein, another respondent noted the following:

"My faculty had a few female research assistants who were serving on the waiting period diligently. They were supported to further their education which they could be taken in after completion as assistant lecturers and lecturers alike as planned. Unknown to us one
Another respondents noted:

"She happened to be my favorite student, I took her in as a daughter and so encouraged her always to work hard, I was virtually mentoring her. Some of my co-workers started spreading stories that I was going out with her, ooooh! How can I a married man and responsible man do such? Along the line this lady asked permission to go home and get prepared to come and work with the institution. A few weeks after, she called me and said she was no longer interested in working with the UDS. I tried to persuade her to change her mind and that all will be well but no, even her father called and landed a Cassandra warning to leave his daughter alone........" (Interview, 15th February, 2013)

Though the above seem to be summed up in the old adage, 'you can force a donkey to the river side but you cannot force the donkey to drink from the river' it is not an end in itself. Throughout the study, it appeared women were being blamed for their minimal involvement in the management structure of the UDS. As mentioned from the beginning, these are experiences of top managers of the institution who have tried in their own small way to bring some women on board yet in vain. Thinking through thoroughly, one would want to ask if this will not affect their attitude towards the future recruitment of females in the UDS. If the outcome of these attitudes is negative, it will be difficult if not impossible to achieve the goal of getting senior female role models to effectively and efficiently mentor the younger ones. It is not easy having males
mentoring females as it comes with so many challenges, some noted above which in many cases worsen the whole existence of mentorship.

According to some of the respondents, apart from individual members’ efforts, what the institution itself does and is still doing to increase the participation of women in the UDS is that females are encouraged to file their applications for those vacant positions as and when necessary. In recruitment situations, females stand the chance of being selected. According to Fagerson and Jackson (1994) organizational barriers include failure to recruit women, however this study revealed that women were being recruited but in practice they were few.

4.11 Conclusion

This chapter has described the results obtained from checklists, observations and interviews conducted in order to answer the questions asked in this study. The first section describes the socio demographic characteristics of the sampled population. It also provides the statistical visibility of women in management in the UDS which is noted to be woefully inadequate. The second section discusses findings. The research questions asked in this study form the main themes of the discussion.
5.1 Introduction

The following objectives were central to the study:

1. To assess the management position of women in relation to men in the University for Development Studies.

2. To determine the factors that shape and define the management position of women in the University for Development Studies.

3. To ascertain the challenges women face by virtue of their position in relation to men in the University for Development Studies.

4. To explore available progressive opportunities for women in management positions in relation to men in the University for Development Studies.

5. To determine what pragmatic intervention have been put in place to address the gendered pattern of women's representation in the management system and structure in the University for Development Studies.

6. To make recommendation for further studies by researchers who might be interested in a similar study and for working toward enhancing gender equality in the management structure of the University for Development Studies (UDS).

To achieve these objectives, the UDS was selected by virtue of its location through purposive sampling. Again, purposive sampling was used to select the population of UDS staffs in
management positions. From this, 80 respondents were selected through simple random sampling thus both men and women (20 women and 60 men) were interviewed and various documents were analyzed to investigate the involvement of women and management in the management system and structure of the UDS in relation to men.

In this chapter, a summary of main findings regarding the objectives and research questions of the study is provided. As well, conclusions are made and recommendations for improvement are suggested.

5.2 Summary of Findings

It was noted that the 80 sampled participants had attained varied degrees of education. Out of the total, 41 hold master's degrees with a research base; this is a major requirement for recruitment. Also, 28 hold doctorate degree which is a major requirement for holding a senior management position, especially for the academic category, in the UDS. There were also, 4 associate/ full professors and 3 others who held professional degrees from other fields. The educational levels of the sampled population showed that men outnumbered women in all levels.

However, 57.8% of the participants who were interested in furthering their education gave reasons such as for job security and also enhanced knowledge in their respective fields.

Again, the survey revealed that, the top management positions of the UDS seem to be the domain of men as they outnumber women. In trying to establish how long women had worked in the institution, it was revealed that they had at least served in the UDS between 2 and 10 years.

Further, the study concerned itself with finding out the factors that shape and define the management position of women in relation to men in the UDS. It was noticed that, relevant
qualification, number of publications, work experience in the university system, hard work and long service were all considered for into management position. However, the survey revealed that majority of the women within the sampled participants did not meet many of these criteria. This had contributed to their less participation in the management system of the UDS.

Further, the findings revealed that women in management encounter challenges among which include socio-cultural perceptions of women, conflicting family and work responsibilities, male alliances and networks, stress involved in the work among others.

5.3 Conclusions

The main objective of this study was to investigate the involvement of women in the management system and structure of the UDS in relation to men.

Appraising the management position of women relative to men in the UDS, the study revealed women are few. Fewer numbers of women in management undermines the principles of diversity management. Every organization or institution has specific problem which need diverse skills and knowledge to address them. As a result, women are needed in equal grades as men to assist organizations achieve their objectives. Again, more women are needed to serve as monitors for the younger generation.

Furthermore, establishing the factors that shape and define the management position of women in the UDS, the study revealed that, in the UDS, qualification, long service, required promotional papers are all important factors as far as working in the institution is concerned. Regarding the management position, there is still a huge gap between men and women. Men still dominate management positions in the UDS as only a small percentage of women occupy managerial positions and this is to prove that indeed tertiary education institutions are the domain of men.
The educational level of women is far below the ladder as compared to men but of course in terms of duration at their current post, women have considerable experience. Gender equality as sort by affirmative action does not apply to tertiary education institutions management as qualification is the main issue considered to hold a managerial position in the UDS.

In addition, the research established that indeed women in management encounter challenges that limit their performance as well as output. These included, family life, stress involved in the work, lack of confidence, male networks and alliances, less cooperation from colleagues, unclear job description, and socio-cultural perceptions of women. These challenges limit the effective and efficient running of their offices. It again discourages other women from making efforts improve their academic statues.

Despite the above, the study revealed that both men and women stand the chance of progressing through the managerial ranks. Ones the individual is qualified with all promotional papers ready, serving the waiting period and hard work will propel women like men to rise through the ranks of managerial positions in the UDS. And so women are encouraged to publish more papers and work hard irrespective of the challenges involved to propel their promotion. It is important to note once this is done there would be no excuse to their less participation in the management of UDS. However, it is important to note that women in UDS are barred by a glass ceiling which holds them back whether in management or attempts to enter management.

Notwithstanding this, women have been blamed for their minimal involvement in the management structure and system of the UDS due to the action and inactions of others. However the major intervention by the institution to address the gendered pattern of the management position of women is through recruitment. Qualified women who file their applications for
vacant position are often considered. By these, women should not be intimidated by the fact that tertiary institutions seem to be the domain of men. They are hereby entreated to enter in their numbers as they stand the chance of been recruited and possibly selected to work in the UDS.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings in the study, the following are recommended so as to improve the involvement of women in the management system and structure of the UDS.

- There is the need to sensitize the staff of UDS and the general public that both men and women can play equally important roles in development. At this point, we cannot possibly afford to relegate one section of our society to traditional roles which are no longer viable for national development. The institutional atmosphere needs to be made conducive for women through change in attitudes of senior academic and administrative staffs.

- Women should be encouraged and supported to publish and upgrade their educational status as qualification is the main impetus for holding managerial positions in tertiary education institutions in Ghana. For instance UDS could sponsor their female staffs or better still give them loans to upgrade their educational status and assure them of job security when they are back.

- Ensure the proper provision of legislative and other infrastructure to support the lot of women in management. For instance a clear, proactive and effective policy should be formulated and enforced to encourage women to aspire top management positions in tertiary education institutions. In terms of infrastructure, the University should endeavor to provide the necessary office space and logistics that would enable women in
management discharge their managerial roles effectively and efficiently. Again women in management should be given clear job description to assist them work effectively. Women in management positions should be accepted as mothers and wives through the provision of maternity and child care centres within the institutions.

- A quota should be allocated to female students who graduate from the graduate school to be groomed and recruited to work in the institution. This in the long run will improve their participation in the management of tertiary institutions in the country.

- There is the need for special training programmes for women to equip them with the necessary managerial skills. They should be encouraged to participate in workshops and seminars, and conferences that will broaden their knowledge and skills as well as attitudes. This can be made more effective by backing the programmes with governmental legislation as well as institutional legislation and regulations.

- For women to rise through the managerial ladder irrespective of the challenges they face, they should get well trained and educated as level of education is a prime factor for holding managerial position in the UDS. Women are required to edify themselves on their perceptions of jobs and lowered expectations of getting hired in certain positions (such as those male dominated jobs) could actually be sabotaging careers and keeping them from higher paying jobs which they desire. Thus conscious efforts must be made to remove the imaginary perceptions and barriers and rather see themselves as capable of succeeding in any job. However this could be achieved by redefining their career goals, determine the knowledge, education and experience needed, then go after their career dreams, regardless of the nature of job.
References.


EOWAS, (2006). 2006 EOWAS Australian Census of Women in Leadership, Australia, Sydney:


**Other important internet sources**


Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Good day, my name is Ntim Mary, a student of the University for Development Studies, Wa campus, offering MPhil Development Management. I am doing a research on “Women and Management in Tertiary Education Institutions in Ghana: A Case Study of the University for Development Studies”. Below are a few questions which you are entreated to please provide answers that in the long run will aid me complete this research.

I wish to assure you that your identity will not be disclosed in this process and any information you provide would be treated with utmost anonymity and confidentiality. The questionnaire should take you between 5 minutes to complete. Please try and complete the questions at a time when you are unlikely to be disturbed. Please do not ignore any of the questions; your answers are essential in getting accurate information in relation to the research topic.

I hope you find completing the questionnaire enjoyable and thank you for taking time to assist me.

THANK YOU

Sign

NTIM MARY.
APPENDIX II

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL
DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT

Title of Thesis
"WOMEN AND THE MANAGEMENT OF TERTIARY EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES".

Researcher: Ntim Mary

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Purpose of data collection
This study seeks to collect extensive data on women and the management of UDS with the aim of gaining deeper understanding of the subject area which in the long run will inform the logical presentation of findings, recommendations made and conclusion drawn.

Statement of ethics
This study is purely an academic exercise: as a result, information gathered will remain confidential as possible. Again no video or tape recorders will used in this process.

Bio Data.

Please Circle Sex: Male/Female

1. Age Category?
   A. 30 – 40 years
   B. 41 – 50 years
   C. 51 – 60 years
   D. Above 60 years
2. Marital Status.
   A. Single { }
   B. Married { }
   C. Divorced { }
   D. { } Others, Please specify

3. Number of children .....................

Educational Background

4. What is your academic qualification?
   A. Masters Degree { }
   B. PhD { }
   C. Associate Professor (PhD) { }
   D. Associate Professor (Non-PhD) { }
   E. Full Professor (PhD) { }
   F. Full Professor (Non-PhD) { }
   G. Degree (Please Specify) ..................

5. If your answer to question 4 above is A or G, do you still wish to further your education. Yes/No

6. If Yes/No, Why? .................................................................

7. How long have you been in employment at the UDS? .............................................

8. Are you an academic or administrative staff?
   A. Academic
   B. Administrative
   C. Both

9. If academic what is your current status at the UDS?
A. Assistant Lecturer/Assistant Research Fellow
B. Lecturer/Research Fellow
C. Senior Lecturer/Senior Research Fellow
D. Associate Professor
E. Professor

10. If administrative, what is your current status at the UDS?
   A. Junior Assistant Registrar/Equivalent
   B. Assistant Registrar/Equivalent
   C. Senior Assistant Registrar/Equivalent
   D. Deputy Registrar/Equivalent
   E. Registrar/Equivalent

11. Do you hold an administrative position at the UDS? Yes/No

12. If Yes, what position?
   A. Head of Department  {   }
   B. Dean/Director       {   }
   C. Deputy Registrar    {   }
   D. Registrar           {   }
   E. Pro-Vice Chancellor {   }
   F. Vice Chancellor     {   }

13. How would you rate your position in UDS?
   A. Managerial Staff    {   }
   B. Non Managerial Staff {   }
   C. An Employee         {   }
   D. Other (Please Specify) {   }

14. If a Managerial staff, what level of management will you classify your position?
A. Assistant Lecturer/Assistant Research Fellow
B. Lecturer/Research Fellow
C. Senior Lecturer/Senior Research Fellow
D. Associate Professor
E. Professor

10. If administrative, what is your current status at the UDS?
   A. Junior Assistant Registrar/Equivalent
   B. Assistant Registrar/Equivalent
   C. Senior Assistant Registrar/Equivalent
   D. Deputy Registrar/Equivalent
   E. Registrar/Equivalent

11. Do you hold an administrative position at the UDS? Yes/No

12. If Yes, what position?
   A. Head of Department
   B. Dean/Director
   C. Deputy Registrar
   D. Registrar
   E. Pro-Vice Chancellor
   F. Vice Chancellor

13. How would you rate your position in UDS?
   A. Managerial Staff
   B. Non Managerial Staff
   C. An Employee
   D. Other (Please Specify)

14. If a Managerial staff, what level of management will you classify your position?
A. Top Management

B. Middle Level Management

C. Lower Level Management

15. What are the challenges associated with your level of management?

i. ......................................................................................................................

ii. ...................................................................................................................

iii. ...................................................................................................................

16. In your opinion, are the number of female managerial staff many? Yes/No

17. If Yes/No, Why? ................................................................................................

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

18. If No to question 15 above, what specific challenges are you aware of that limit the number of females in managerial positions?

i. ......................................................................................................................

ii. ...................................................................................................................

iii. ...................................................................................................................

19. Are you aware of opportunities available to female Senior Members to take up managerial positions in your institution? If Yes/No

20. If Yes to 18 above, list.

i. ......................................................................................................................

ii. ...................................................................................................................

iii. ...................................................................................................................

THANK YOU
APPENDIX III
UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL
(DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT

Title of thesis

"WOMEN AND THE MANAGEMENT OF TERTIARY EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES"

Researcher: Nitim Mary

INTERVIEW GUIDE

CATEGORY: HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT/PLANNING

1. How many Faculties/Schools do you have in your organization?
2. What is the total population of Senior Members in your Organization?
   Males: ...........................................  Females: ...................................................
3. How many Females are.
   i. Head of Department: ...........................................
   ii. Deans/Directors ..............................................
   iii. Principal Officers ...........................................
4. Are there plans to increase the number of females employed at the Senior Member Level?
   Yes/No
5. If Yes to question 4, Are these documented policies of the University? Yes/No
6. If Yes to 5, What are the policies?
   i. ........................................................................
   ii. ........................................................................
   iii. ........................................................................
7. What are the requirements to becoming a manager in the following categories:
   a. Top Manager (Principal Officer)
      i. ........................................................................
      ii. ........................................................................
      iii. ........................................................................
   b. Middle Level Manager (Dean/Director)
      i. ........................................................................
      ii. ........................................................................
iii. .......................................................................................................................... c. Lower Level Manager (Head of Department)
   i. ..........................................................................................................................
   ii. ..........................................................................................................................
   iii. ..........................................................................................................................

8. Are there motivational incentives for females taking up managerial positions? Yes/No
9. If Yes What are they/If No, Why? ..............................................................................

10. What challenges are associated with being a manager? ...........................................

11. Are there opportunities for females to take up managerial positions? Yes/No
12. If Yes, what are they .................................................................................................

Thank You
APPENDIX IV

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

GRADUATE SCHOOL

DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT

Title of Thesis

“WOMEN AND MANAGEMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES.”

Researcher: Ntim Mary

INTERVIEW GUIDE

CATEGORY: WOMEN SENIOR MEMBERS (ACADEMIC/ADMINISTRATIVE)

1. How long have you been working in UDS?

2. Have you been promoted since you joined UDS?

3. Have you ever applied for promotion? Yes/No

4. Do you hold any Managerial position in UDS? Yes/No

5. If Yes to 4 above which level?
   i. Head of Department/Senior Hall Tutors
   ii. Dean/Director
   iii. Principal Officer

6. What are the requirements/qualifications for holding any of the positions above?
   i. Head of Department/Senior Hall Tutor

6. What are the requirements/qualifications for holding any of the positions above?
   ii. Dean/Director

6. What are the requirements/qualifications for holding any of the positions above?
   iii. Principal Officer

7. Do you have any of the above qualifications? Yes/No

8. If you do not have any qualifications required to hold any of the above positions, what efforts are you putting in place to attain these qualifications?


136
9. If you are in a managerial position, what assistance are you offering women in UDS who are yet to attain your status?

10. Generally, what do you have to say regarding the level of involvement of women in the management of UDS?

Thank You
APPENDIX V

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING AND LAND MANAGEMENT

Title of thesis:

"WOMEN AND THE MANAGEMENT OF TERTIARY EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES".

Researcher: Ntim Mary

INTERVIEW GUIDE

CATEGORY: DEAN/DIRECTORS/PRINCIPAL OFFICERS

1. How long have you been working in UDS? ..................................................
2. What position do you currently hold? a. Dean b. Director c. Registrar d. Pro-VC e. VC
3. How long have you been in this position? ..................................................
4. Do you have women (senior members) who are Head of Departments in your unit. Yes/No
5. If Yes, how many? ....................................................................................
6. If No, Why? ..............................................................................................
7. Are there efforts to promote the involvement of women in managerial positions in your unit? Yes/No
8. If Yes, what opportunities exist for the women in your unit?
   Head of Department
   ..............................................................................................................
   Dean/Director
   ..............................................................................................................
9. What efforts/policies exist to encourage women to take-up managerial positions?
   ..............................................................................................................
10. Do you think the policies allow women an equal chance of holding managerial positions? Yes/No
11. If Yes, How?

12. Generally, what do you have to say regarding the involvement of women in the management of UDS?

Thank you.