

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE MANAGEMENT  
OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE  
SEKONDI TAKORADI METROPOLIS

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**A Project Report in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of  
Education and Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate  
Studies, University of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the requirements  
for award of the Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree**

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## DECLARATION

### STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, ANNA TAKYIWAA BOAHEN, declare that this project report, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in the university or elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

### SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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

SUPERVISOR'S NAME: DR. STEPHEN BAFFOUR ADJEI

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

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## **DEDICATION**

To my entire family especially my children

Ama, Abena and Kwaku.



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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors that contribute to the level of women participation in educational management in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis of the Western Region of Ghana. The research used descriptive survey design. The population for this study comprised all female teachers, heads of Senior High Schools and their Assistants and officers at the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolitan Education Directorate. Questionnaire was used for the study. The sample size was 135 respondents comprising the Metropolitan Director, the four frontline Assistant Directors, the 10 heads of the Schools and their assistants and 100 teachers. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the Metropolitan Director, the Four Frontline Assistant Directors, all the ten heads of the Schools and their two assistants. Convenience sampling was used to select five female and five males' teachers from each of the schools. The data analysis was done using descriptive statistics indicating frequencies, percentages and meanS. The study revealed that the low level of education among women contributes significantly to their low representation in the management positions of the Ghana Education Service in the Sekondi Takoradi metropolis. Also, traditional and cultural practices in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis contribute to the low level of participation of women in management positions in the Ghana Education Service in the metropolis. It was recommended that the Girl Child Education Unit of the Metropolis should embark on a more vigorous campaign by organizing regular seminars and workshops to educate parents on the need to educate their girl child. Career Guidance and Counseling Services providers in the Metropolis should make conscious efforts at encouraging females to take up leadership positions in the future.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

There has been the general perception that there are significantly fewer women than men in managerial positions all over the world. Women, like men, are capable of performing management roles and functions effectively and efficiently. They also have the talents and capabilities of contributing effectively towards nation building. Women's contributions to the development of various fields of human endeavours cannot be overestimated. Interestingly, in most parts of the world, male leadership seems to be more valued than female leadership (Fuglar, 2015). The International Labour Organization [ILO], asserts that less than one-third of businesses worldwide are run by women. In fact, in the United States for example, more than 70% of public-school teachers are women but only 30% of them are educational administrators. The case is not different in Ghana. According to the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2010), 51.2 % of the population, are females. However, only 10% of women are found in leadership positions in the country (GSS, 2010). Most Ghanaian women are still relegated to the background while men occupy the top management positions. As some have argued, women do the work while men make the decisions (Fuglar, 2015).

A look at the political scene shows that women are underrepresented in power positions. As at 2016, out of a total of 275 members of Ghana's parliament, only 35 were females representing 12.75% (UNDP, 2016). Also, out of a total of 37 ministers in Ghana, only 10 are females, representing 27% (Ghanaweb, 2016). Again, out of 50 Deputy Ministers, eight are females constituting 30.2%. The Council of State is made up of 25

members and, the “old ladies” who are consulted when the going gets tough are just three (3) representing 12%. This is a clear indication that women in Ghana are not given a fair representation when it comes to leadership roles in Ghana (Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016). It is worth noting that in recent times, the country has seen two female Chief Justices in succession, a female Electoral Commissioner, and a female Vic-Chancellor. However, these do not reflect the general situation in the country. In spite of all the efforts made to raise the status of women and the fact that laws guarantee equal rights to education and empowerment for both sexes, it appears the number of women in leadership positions in the various sectors in the country has not changed much.

In a welcome address delivered by Madam Bernice Sam, the National Programmes Coordinator of Women in Law and Development in Africa (WILDAF)- Ghana, to formally welcome the female parliamentarians of the seventh parliament of the 4<sup>th</sup> Republic to WILDAF, she noted that all is not well with the representation of women in parliament. She said it would have been desirable if the present parliament had a balanced representation of both sexes or at least 30% female representation. She indicated that, according to the Geneva Based Inter-Parliamentary Union, as of 1<sup>st</sup> August 2017, the worldwide ranking of female representation in the legislative arm of government was very low. Ghana is currently ranked 138 out of 193 in the Inter-Parliamentary Union ranking on women representation in parliament across the world (Ghanaweb, 2017).

It must be noted that the fewer number of women in leadership positions in general also persists in educational management. Research carried out by Davies (1992) confirms the fewer number of women in educational management the world over. He observes that

even in countries where education is seen as the prerogative of females, women do not participate actively in management positions.

The advancement of women in the participation in the management of educational institutions in Ghana is still quite low. Since the establishment of GES in 1974 till date, the only female Director General was in December 2002. Only few women are found at the top of the management ladder of GES. They only dominate the nursery and primary schools as teachers and sometimes as heads. Women dominance at this level is mostly found in the urban areas of the GES. Their number decrease as teachers and more drastically as heads at the Junior high School (JHS) level. It's even worse when we continue to the Senior high School (SHS) level. At the College of Education and Technical Universities, the number of female managers is almost insignificant. It has been observed by Segkulu and Gyimah (2016), that female managers in educational institutions bear no relations to the proportion in the teaching force. They further argued that out of the 38 College of Education in the country only 4 have women principals (Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016).

Currently the representation of women at the Regional Directorates of Education in Ghana is encouraging and it is hoped that things will not change in the negative in the near future. For example, in 2017 out of the out 10 Regional Directors of Education six were females (Allotey, 2017). However, at the District Directorates of Education women are still in the minority. An example can be seen at the Western Region of Ghana. Out of a total of twenty-two (22) District Directors only five are females. This is a clear under representation of women in the management of education. Coming to the Sekondi -

Takoradi Metropolis of the GES, Table 1 below shows the level of participation of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis as of August 2017.

**Table 1.1 Teachers at the various level of Education in the Sekondi -Takoradi Metropolis.**

Level	No. of School	Male N (%)	Female N (%)
Primary	78	206 (64.4)	114 (35.6)
J. H. S	68	146 ( 82.4)	31(17.5)
S. H. S	10	454 ( 79.7)	116 (20.3)
Metro Office	1	29 (80.6)	7(19.4)

**Source:** Metro Education Office, Sekondi-Takoradi, 2018

It can be seen from table 1 that, the higher you go on the educational ladder, the fewer females you find. For example, out of the five hundred and seventy (570) teachers at the Senior High Schools only one hundred and sixteen (116) are females representing just 20.3%

With reference to the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region of Ghana, the issue of women in leadership positions is a reflection of the national situation as the number of women in educational leadership positions remains tilted towards male dominance.

Generally, studies have attributed the phenomenon of low representation of women in management to a twin factor of lack of qualification and gender roles. Anamuah-Mensah (1995) and Gyekye, Aryeetey, Bortei-Doku, Tsikata, Mama, and Amos-Wilson (1998), for example opine that education is an important leverage for pushing women into public office. As a result, the lower educational and training qualifications of women make them uncompetitive in the job market and elective offices. According to Segkulu and Gyimah

(2016), one factor that seems to account for the phenomenon is that, in the GES, preference is given to members with second degrees when it comes to appointment to leadership positions. Based on this policy, it is suggestive that more men qualify to be appointed to leadership positions in educational establishments as women may be in the minority when it comes to qualification.

There are others who also believe that gender related issues greatly contribute to women's participation in leadership. Segkulu and Gyimah (2016) posit that people behave according to societal expectations about their gender role and that these expectations largely account for the level of leadership of women. So pervasive is this stance that, in his review of the composition of teachers in Africa, Central America and South Asia, Davies (1992) concluded that "Educational administration is still seen as a masculine occupation in many countries" (p. 62). This position was also held by Memon (2003) about educational leadership in Pakistan.

All these researches create a path of interest for further study into the phenomenon of female leadership in educational leadership. It is against this background that the researcher wants to investigate the factors that might influence the situation of women leadership in GES in general and the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis in particular.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

For any nation to develop there is the need for both men and women to work hand in hand. It requires the responsibilities of men and women to strive hard to achieve national goals and objectives. It has been observed that, though women play very important roles in the development of their countries, only a few of them are found in managerial positions

and Ghana as a country is no exception (Fugler, 2015; Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016). In a comparison of men and women holding leadership positions in educational management, one realises that men dominate the management positions in educational institutions and the directorates in Ghana (Gyekye et al, 1998; Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016). Population census conducted in Ghana in the year 2010 indicates that women constitute about 51.2% of the total population of over 24 million (GSS, 2010). Despite this huge number of women, some exceptional ones hold leadership positions within the educational set up. Women are generally under-represented in managerial positions in the country, particularly in the educational sector.

Several studies have been undertaken in this area (Anamuah-Mensah, 1995; Gyekye et al, 1998; Segkulu & Gyimah, 2016). Interestingly, all these studies established the fact that there is low representation of women in management positions in education. This is attributed to the phenomenon that either women relatively have low educational status or gender related issues. It is however, important to note that most of these studies (Anamuah-Mensah, 1995; Gyekye et al, 1998) were undertaken almost two decades ago where flexible higher education programmes such Sandwich and Distance education were virtually non-existent in the country and the cultural dynamics were quite different. Even in the case of Segkulu and Gyimah (2016) which seem quite recent, data was collected in 2013 and in the northern part of the country where subservient gender roles for women are relatively prevalent. The empirical focus of this study is to investigate the factors that influence women's participation in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region of Ghana.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors that contribute to the level of women participation in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

### **1.4 Research Objectives**

The study sought to:

1. Assess the level of participation of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis.
2. Find the factors that appointing authorities assign for the level of representation of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis.
3. Explore the factors that teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

The following were the research questions that the study addressed;

1. What is the level of participation of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis?
2. What factors do appointing authorities consider for the appointment of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis?
3. What factors do teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?



### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The study will significantly contribute to knowledge especially relating to women in educational management. Again, the recommendations and suggestions that would be made from the study will contribute to the efforts being made to bridge the gap between men and women in the management of educational institutions in the metropolis and the region as a whole. It will also serve as a source of information for policy makers, educationists and organizations in identifying the barriers to women participation in educational management. This will go a long way in helping such bodies to make appropriate decisions to remove the barriers to women participation in educational management.

### **1.7 Delimitation of the Study**

Issues relating to women in educational management are diverse and has attained national dimensions. This study, however, considers the factors that influence women participation in educational management at the pre-tertiary level in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis. The results are neither generalizable to the Western Region nor to the nation.

### **1.8 Limitations of the Study**

The study focused on the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, therefore the sample was not representative enough to allow for generalization to the entire Western Region. Questionnaires tend to be the most appropriate instruments for data collection. However, its inherent challenge of reliability hinging greatly on the respondents sincerity, could affect the reliability of the results of the study.

Finally, the respondents selected from the schools knew themselves and are somehow related. There is therefore the possibility of discussing their responses among each other which could affect the study.

## 1.9 Definition of Terms

**Management:** Management is the process of finding and distributing resources in an institution for the purpose of achieving stated goals.

**Educational Management Positions:** Educational management positions implies the supervisory positions such head of school, frontline Assistant Directors and Directors of Educational Directorates.

**Participation:** Participation means involvement in decision-making through the assignment of specific managerial functions.

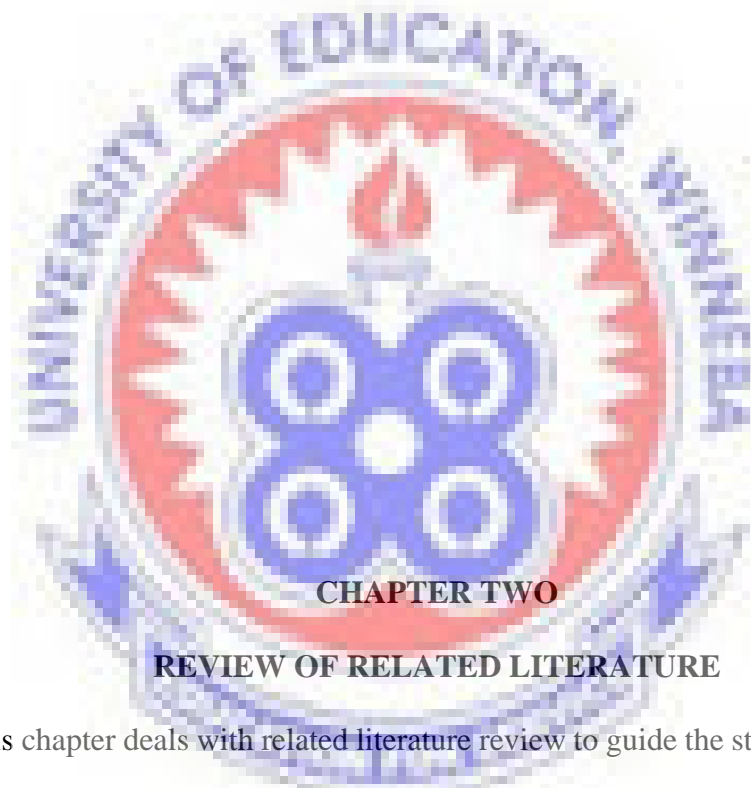
## 1.10 Organisation of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter one comprises the introduction-background to the study, state of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, and research questions. The rest of the chapter deals with the limitations.

Chapter two will constitute the review of available literature relevant to the study. Both theoretical and empirical reviews would be conducted. Chapter three outlines the methodology and procedures used for the study. These will include the population and the sample, the instrument and the procedures for the collection and analysis of the data.

Chapter four deals with the results and findings of the study. In this chapter the data collected will be analysed. The chapter five will cover the discussion of the results.

The last chapter will constitute the summary of the findings, conclusion and recommendations as well as suggestions for future research in the metropolis, the region and other regions in the country.



This chapter deals with related literature review to guide the study. It covers works done on women in leadership positions generally and more specifically on educational management positions. Views of authors who have written about women and leadership are reviewed about the objectives of the study. The review is structured under various subheading according to the objective of the study. First the concept of management would be discussed, followed by Active Participation of Women in Educational Management. Next, Traditional beliefs and Practices/Gender roles and Conflicts will be reviewed. Also

the Level of Education of Women will be considered as well as Discriminations against Women. In addition, Female-created Problems/restraints will be discussed and finally Measures to Increase Women's Representation in Educational Management will be reviewed.

## 2.1 Concept of Management

Management has been given many interpretations by various authorities (Terry, 1975). Indeed, sometimes the interpretations hinges on matters of semantics while at other times they hinge basically on matters of classification. For example, Follet (1922) (as cited in Clegg, Kornberger & Pitsis (2005) defines management as the art of getting things done through people. This definition seemingly suggests that the one managing (manager) contributes to the organisational goals by directing the efforts of others and not necessarily performing the task by him/herself. In other words, a non-managerial person contributes to the organisational goals by directly performing the task. Terry on the other hand defines management as a process consisting of planning, organizing, actuating and controlling performed to determine and accomplish the objectives using people and resources. Even though the two definitions seem to differ literally, there is a greater level of concession than disagreement. Both seem to quite implicitly agree that management involves various activities. Again, they agree that the manager may not always do things by themselves but rather use others to carry through their visions. Finally, they all concede that management is a service which is directed towards improving the factors that go into ensuring growth and development in an organisation.

According to Fayol (1949) as cited by Wren, Bedeian and Breeze (2002) the activity of management involves planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling the activities of an organisation. From the above definition management could be said to be a purposive activity, as it directs group efforts towards the attainment of certain predetermined goals. It is the process of working with and through others to effectively achieve the goals of an organisation by efficiently using limited resources in an ever-changing world.

## **2.2 Active Participation of Women in Educational Management**

Women's under-representation in management position may be attributed to women's own decision and interest not to apply for promotion in education for a variety of reasons such as lack of necessary aspiration, lack of awareness of the promotion system and a lack of confidence that they will succeed gender – based socialisation, fear of failure and lack of competitiveness (Limerick & Anderson, 1999). Some women have indicated that task of administration are not of interest to them because they entered education to teach (Usluer, 2000). In his view, female teachers prefer the role of motherhood and being good wives. This because they see these traditional roles as being of higher priority than the public sphere. Hence their preference for classroom role to administrative roles. However, as these women come to understand that administration takes many forms they are also likely to show more interest in becoming administrators. Studies of women administrators indicate that they do the job differently from the way men do, focusing more on teaching, learning and children (Shaksheft 1987). The more women administrators find opportunities to incorporate the values of teaching, learning and contact with children in

their work, the more likely they become interested in school administration (Wanjama, 2002).

### **2.3 Traditional beliefs and Practices/Gender roles and Conflicts**

Having access to education is the basis of women's status in a given society. Some traditional beliefs/practices and some cultural perception of the roles which women are expected to play affect the extent to which women participate in formal education and the type of education to which they have access.

Shakeshaft (1989) asserts that women exclusion from many activities is due to attitudes and cultural practices. He argues that, it is the traditional belief that men and women divide labour on the basis of sex. He continues to say that, males tasks are more valued than female ones. This theory of male domination of society and culture is applied to all areas of life including education. Such theory of endocentrism holds that a male-centered culture invests worth in male values and regards female values and experiences less significant.

Davidson and Cooper (1992) support the assertion made by Shakeshaft that male-centered cultures invest in male values. They agree that men find it hard to work with women as equals. Males have at the back of their minds the unconditional stereotypes of women being mothers, wives and secretaries. This emphasises the traditional notion that women play second fiddle to men in positions of management. This is clear in their view that women in general tend to either not to have a career plan or to embark upon one. This was revealed in their interview they had with female managers. They reported that it was the belief of many female managers that a number of women just accidentally drift into in

senior positions without planning their career for such positions because they never envisaged them.

Santrock (1996) gives credence to these facts as he argues that, not too long ago, it was accepted that, boys should grow up to be masculine and that girls should grow up to be feminine. A well-adjusted male was expected to be independent, aggressive, and power oriented, while a well-adjusted female was expected to be interdependent, nurturant and uninterested in power. He states that, masculine characteristics were considered healthy and good by society whereas female characteristics were considered to be undesirable.

A study by Broverman (1972) cited in Santrock (1996) indicates the various masculine and feminine traits. The traits clustered into two groups that were labelled 'instrumental' and 'expressive'. The instrumental traits parallel the male's purposeful, competent entry into outside world to gain goods for the family; the expressive traits parallel the female's responsibility to be warm and emotional in the home. Such stereotypes are more harmful to females than males because the characteristics assigned to males are more valued than those assigned to females. Santrock (1996) observes that, the beliefs and stereotypes have led to the negative treatment of females because of their sex, or what is called sexism. He again states that, females receive less attention in schools, are less visible in leading roles on television, are rarely depicted as competent and dominant characters in children's books, are paid less than males even when they have more education, and are underrepresented in decision making roles throughout our society.

Santrock (1996) observes that, in many countries, gender roles have remained more gender-specific. He states that in Egypt for example, the division of labour between Egyptian males and females is dramatic: Egyptian males are socialised to work in the

public sphere, females in the private world of home and childrearing. He states that, the Islamic religion dictates that the man's duty is to provide for his family, the women's duty is to care for her family and household. Any deviations from this traditional gender role orientation are severely disapproved of.

Santrock (1996) further states that, in the People's Republic of China, the female's status has historically been lower than the males. The philosophy of the Chinese philosopher, Confucius, was used to reinforce the concept of the female as an inferior being. Beginning with the 1949 revolution in China, women began to achieve more economic freedom and more equal status in marital relationships. However, even with the sanctions of a socialist government, the old patriarchal traditions of male supremacy in China have not been completely uprooted. Chinese women still make considerably less money than Chinese men in comparable positions, and in rural China, a tradition of male supremacy still governs many women lives. He observes that though females in China have made considerable strides, complete equality remains a distant objective. In many cultures, such as Egypt and other countries where Muslim religion predominates, gender-specific behaviour is pronounced and females are not given access to high-status positions.

Steinberg, Belsky, and Meyer (1991) state that, traditionally in Western society, masculinity and femininity were considered opposites. Independence, competitiveness, self-confidence, strength and dominance were masculine traits. Gentleness, helpfulness, kindness, empathy, appreciativeness and sentimentality were feminine traits. They stated that both mothers and fathers reward their sons (by approval, encouragement and other positive reinforcement) for being competitive, achieving independence and responsibility. Parents also encourage boys to control their feeling: 'boys don't cry'. Daughters are more



closely supervised and more restricted than sons, but their parents are also warmer towards them, more confident of their trustworthiness and truthfulness and more likely to encourage them to reflect on life. Mothers and fathers still expect girls to be 'ladylike' and praise their daughters for compliance, cooperation and understanding.

Barnett (1979) as cited in Steinberg et al. (1991) indicates that parents expect different levels of academic achievement for their sons and daughters. Many mothers and fathers believe that, finishing college and having a successful career are more important for their sons. In fact, right from preschool, parents expect greater achievement and more independence from boys (Rothbart & Rothbart, 1976, cited in Steinberg, et al., 1991).

Al Khalifa (1992) observes that, there is a belief that men are capable of manning higher positions. He points out that when theories of management were first applied to schools, the applications were seen as technical and logical. Therefore, those who practiced management were accepted to have male qualities of critical analysis and detachment, strong task direction and toughness.

Stromquist (1989) also observes that cultural and religious values also affect the participation of females in management. Practices involving early marriage for girls result in their being withdrawn from school at an early age. Referring to a survey of parents of dropouts in India, Nayana (1985), as cited in Stromquist (1989) indicates that they withdraw their daughters from school when they see education as conflicting with marriage. Stromquist further points out that practices such as bride's wealth and dowry in several African and Asian countries prompt low-income parents to marry their daughters early to collect money through dowry. He asserts that economic conditions, cultural norms and religious beliefs affect the participation of females in education. He attributes the small

number of women playing leadership roles in the various fields to these forces. He added that this situation is worsened by the fact that many women only enroll in traditionally feminine fields such as dressmaking and culinary services. He further suggested the termination of outmoded cultural practices and religious belief to pave way for the educational advancement of women. It is only when women's level of achievement in education is high that they can occupy leadership positions in managing educational institutions.

Again, Nukunya (1998) asserts that in many Ghanaian societies, the traditional position is that a woman is never wholly independent. He states that a woman must always be under the guardianship of a man, and when she marries, her original guardian hands her over some or all his responsibilities for her to her husband. This trend seems to be so entrenched that women in themselves generally accept them as the status quo. As a result women may generally feel that it is odd to have ambitions of getting into positions of management as they are expected to be subservient to men.

Pearson, West and Turner (1995) also view the under representation of women in management position from the socialisation process in our society. They assert that right from birth, it is clear that male and female babies are treated differently in all cultures. They pointed out that as infants, males and females are viewed differently. Males are more likely than female infants to be described as strong, solid or independent. Female infants on the other hand are often described as cute and sweet. Parents often perpetuate differential perceptions and treatment. They stated inter alia that, fathers and mothers communicate somewhat differently in the family. Fathers tend to emphasis independence and talk autonomy, whereas mothers encourage politeness and mutual activities. They

observed that fathers are clearly responsible for sex-role acquisition. Sex-role stereotyping appears to affect children's perceptions of parenting. They point out that boys and girls saw fathers as the chief disciplinarian for misbehaviour in the family (Calvert & Stanton, as cited in Pearson et al, 1995).

Pearson et al. (1995) further observe that educational institutions also provide clear message about gender roles. They state that children enrolled in nursery schools and day care centres appear to develop stereotypical beliefs earlier than other children. They asserted that children in school settings are not only knowledgeable about sex-role stereotypes, but are also often reinforced for enacting them. Boys are reinforced for assertive, active learning behaviours, while girls are reinforced for passive, quiet learning behaviour.

Pearson et al (1995) indicate that several researchers have found that boys generally receive more attention and more favours in school than girls. They also talk about the pattern of staffing in most schools. The pattern, they assert, reinforces sex stereotypes by occupation and thus often fail to provide alternative role models for children at a formative period. They indicated that, in the elementary schools, for example, most custodians are male; nurses, teachers and lunchroom workers are females; and principals are males, although 80% of elementary school teachers are women.

A study conducted by Caldecott, Medal Winners, and Cooper (1993) Pearson et al (1995) state the several conclusions discovered which are relevant to the discussion. They discovered that:

- 1) Most books concern males
- 2) No book exclusively focused on females

- 3) No female is shown working outside the home and no male is depicted working inside the home.
- 4) The generic ‘he’ is often used
- 5) Men are represented as instrumental; women are expressive (traditional roles).
- 6) Occupations are stereotyped
- 7) Women’s talk is presented in frivolous, senseless and powerless ways.

Cooper et al concluded their research by noting that if stereotyped roles are primary roles shown, males and females will fail to realize that people, regardless of their gender, can achieve a wide range of roles.

Maccobby and Jackling (1974) point out that women learn what it means to belong to any society through a socialising process which begins from their infancy. As part of this process, they learn how to be males and females.

Lee and Cropper (1974) support Maccobby and Jackling’s view on the socialising process of gender. In terms of sex role differences, Lee and Cropper report that males and females are socialised through different life styles through child rearing practices which entail differential expectations.

Goodman (1993) also confirms the assertion made by Lee and Cropper about the gender roles of males and females. He says life’s work is assigned according to gender and women’s work is caring, nurturing, worrying about relations, making things right and feeling guilty. This kind of nurturing of women to accept certain gender occupation is evident in the curriculum of school. Viewing women as home workers affects what is taught in school since the focus of the curriculum is to prepare students for further work roles. Females are portrayed as wives, social workers, nurses and helpers to men.

Nehlin and Kelly (1982) observed that in most instances, women find it difficult to combine their traditional roles in the home and official duties at their work places. They therefore assess the commitments involved in the respective works before accepting responsibilities.

Al Khalifa (1992), considering the potential role conflict in relation to women's participation in management positions, concludes that women may be less inclined to advance to management, given the potential stress of role conflict that such a move may bring. Women even though by social roles engage in a responsibility which could give them skills which could have applied in managing institutions. They rather considered those responsibilities as a source of pressure. This therefore makes women not interested in management position.

Shakeshaft (1989) observes that women generally, will not be promoted because of domestic responsibilities. She provides evidence to support based on her "Woman Place Model" which assumes women's non-participation in administrative careers as based solely on social norms. She also observed that school boards do not want to invest time and money in workers with short-term commitments, description often given to women who are expected to leave work for marriage. She gives an example of gender barriers given by Padlock (1978) that the demands of the role of homemakers and mothers were listed as major difficulties for women attempting to move from teacher to administrator.

Davies (1992) also believes that the gender role of women is a hindrance to their advancement to leadership positions. He observes that a common phenomenon in many spheres is the concept of the female as related to "family". Davies (1992) continues to explain that male emotional dependence on women and female economic dependence on

men create situations where women's power in the domestic sphere is difficult to relinquish, or where it is the woman who follows her spouse if a job demands mobility.

According to Dine, (as cited in UNESCO, 1993) many researchers have shown that for many women, a professional career is dependent on the grace and favour of the husband. Without the support of the spouse, the academic woman cannot be a successful wife and administrator. She says that in the Arab States and in India, women generally; require the permission of the male to work. She therefore, views the attitude of some husbands as a contributory factor to the small number of women in educational leadership.

#### **2.4 Level of Education of Women**

The kind of access a female has to education is an indicator of her status in any society. Societal perceptions of the roles which women are expected to play reflect the extent to which women participate in formal education and the kind of education they have access to. It is a general view that the level of education is most crucial to ultimate status attainment of both men and women.

Anamuah-Mensah (1995) identifies education as an important leverage for pushing women into public office. He notes however, that several attitudes in the society tend to discourage higher education attainment among females. As women climb the education ladder, their participation continues to fall.

Gaertner (1978) observes that there has always been less percentage of females participating in education than do males, which affects the upward movement of women to leadership positions. He states that the inequality is keenly felt after the first cycle of

education. Participation rates for women in higher education are generally low and these accounts for the small number of women in leadership positions.

Dolphyne (1991), on her part, asserts that women's level of literacy in Ghana overall is low, so the few educated women tend to be concentrated in certain areas; namely, teaching and nursing. Dirasse (1991) argues that school curricula, career guidance and counseling services in schools tend to channel girls into traditional female fields. In this way, education coupled with women's level of participation, tend to legitimise stereotypic roles for women. The impression created is that women are fit for certain occupations and not for others. He also agrees that, in recruitment to senior positions and derivation of benefits in the work places women face discrimination. This because, it is assumed they lack the qualities that are essential for successful managerial careers.

Dine as (cited in UNESCO,( 1993) findings in her research on women in Higher Education Management indicates that at the University of South Pacific, girls are outnumbered by boys three to one in all courses and four to one in degree programmes. She feels women are not encouraged to study at the tertiary level because the family role is assumed to be paramount. She further states that the significance of the male as the bearer of the family name is equally considered when choices are to be made about who is to be educated. Dine also identifies cultural and religious values as factors which affect female education. She observed that in the Arab states, cultural and religious norms lead to strict segregation of the sexes at school and at work. Girls are taught in single-sex schools by female staff and restricted to a curriculum which favours home economics more than science and mathematics. This she feels, do not prepare girls for full and equal participation in the workforce and there by limits their career horizons.

Stromquist (1989) indicates that parents rely on girls for domestic help and that results in poor attendance leading to low academic performance. This often results in grade repetition or dropping out among girls. He contends that the financial wellbeing of the family greatly affects the participation of female students. Ninyagi (1980) as cited, reports that in Kenya when parents cannot pay the school fees, they keep the female children at home.

Similarly, according to a study of Benin's Primary and Secondary School Students in rural areas, parents are more willing to pay school fees for boys than for girls Houeto (1982). It is believed that women's responsibilities at home are more important than those outside the home in remunerated jobs. Parents therefore, are more willing to invest in the education of their sons more than that of their daughters, regardless of their intellectual abilities.

Apart from parents' financial stand which induces them to discriminate against daughters in educational participation, Stormiest (1989) views the level of parents' education to that of their children's education is correlating. He indicated that researchers have shown that the higher the education of parents the greater their tendency to favour education of their daughters. According to a survey by Cochrane, Mehra and Osheba (1985) in urban and rural areas in Egypt they found that the two most consistent factors were the educational aspirations of the father and those of the mother.

Yeoman (1985) states that parental interest and encouragement is a major factor in the retention of girls in schools. He argues that, in traditional societies parents have low occupational aspirations for their daughters and even see education as risky for women. His survey of rural wives in Pakistan showed that 46% of the respondents believed that it



was acceptable for girls to receive no education or one grade of education. In another study Yeoman (1985) conducted in Papua New Guinea, he found that 40% of the parents thought that schooling was good for women, inasmuch as it made them better wives and mothers. In other hand 37% thought that educated girls would not be good mothers because they tended to respect less tradition, parents, husbands and did not work as hard for their families as they should.

Yeoman (1985) also sees distance to school as a deterrent to girl's participation in education to a higher level. This may be related to social norms controlling the sexuality of women. It is important to note that, such distance of girls is related not to physical safety but to fears of sexual assault that might make them lose their virginity.

Lillard as cited in Yeoman, (1985) in a study of 1,903 households in the Philippines, indicates that distance to school had a negative impact on the schooling attainment of girls. The same study found that the presence of an elementary school available to students within 0.5km of their homes had a positive effect not only on enrolment rates but also on continuation rates in elementary school. Yeoman (1985) concluded that distance to school not only affects the girl's enrolment and dropping out rates but it also affects the educational attainment of girls. All these studies seem to suggest that women level of participation in management position influence by myriad factors which beginning from childhood and become highly endemic. It is therefore expected that in an environment where culture is like these, it will be appreciated that time, globalization and access information could change the situation. The function of internet and information technology must also go a long way to change these practices and attitude.

## 2.5 Discriminations against Women

Discriminatory appointment and promotion practices constitute barriers to women's advancement into leadership positions. Pearson et al. (1995) indicate that prior convictions about sex –appropriate jobs, occupational goals that are different from men, and social attitudes that imply that women should not compete with men, all contribute to women's perception of their limited employability. They indicated that when women are interviewed for positions they should not be surprised if they are asked illegal and sexist questions. Women may be asked questions about their marital status, plans to have children and other personal questions or they might even be sexually propositioned.

They further stated that employers who have been surveyed about women in the employment interview have identified some factors that impair women's chances of being hired. They reported that women tend to look at position in terms of short-run rather than long-term career goals. It was concluded that, marital status tends to hinder women in managerial roles. This is because married women are less willing to spend extra hours on the jobs. They are less willing to travel and are less willing to engage in other unusual job requirements than single women. Also, it was argued that women appear to be more nervous and less self-confident during interviews than men. However, the survey also indicated that, during interviews, females more than males are discriminated between applicants. This is based on speech style. Although male applicants may be equally competent, women are still perceived as being more eloquent.

Pearson et al. (1995) also asserted that, in the past, employers have been determined to hire men rather than women because of some factors of sexism. The tendency in these cases has been to lose women with unique capabilities and special experiences. These have

often been due to sheer discrimination and not necessary based on any known competence or lack of competence. Interestingly the years of discrimination against women have not aroused the same outrage as the far fewer and more recent cases of discrimination against men. They further stated that, the ultimate goal should be to reject errors in judgment rather than unfairly favouring either women or men. It is evident that large institutions and business can do a great deal to reduce the adverse effect of sexual stereotyping in hiring practices.

Deaux (1979) also supports the fact that women are discriminated against. He stated that both women and men may perceive themselves differently as managers. Women may perceive additional problems in their jobs, but men may not. In self-evaluation, women and men provide significantly different responses. Male managers view themselves as performing better than women in comparable jobs, and as having more abilities and higher intelligence. Also, men rate their jobs more difficult than the jobs women hold, an impression corroborated by their subordinates. It is also true that men are more likely than women to view themselves as successful and to attribute their success to their own abilities. (Deaux, 1979)

Borcelle (1985) observes that employers normally defend their attitude towards women on the notion that women are physiologically inferior and therefore are not competent to take up leadership roles. She pointed out that for part of the time in each month, women are not at their physical best. This is because headaches, indisposition and pain sometimes, accompany their menstruation. This has led to hasty generalizations irrespective of the fact that these five or six days of discomfort have never prevented

housewives, female workers and female administrators from carrying out their regular duties without flinching.

A situation analysis of children and women in Ghana by (UNICEF, 1990) reveals that most establishments organise in-service training programs for their employees. In theory, all categories of employees have equal access to in-service training relevant to their rank and position. However, most working women have fewer opportunities for training and self-advancement due to mostly their reproductive and nurturing roles and duties. In addition, traditional beliefs concerning the value of women's work, and employer's prejudices place women at the disadvantages. Also, the demands of marriage and convention notices of what is fit and proper behaviour for married women all combine to serve as a hindrance to women ability to hold managerial positions (Ukeore, 2009)

In reporting possible factors for the under representation of women at the top-level management, Thaman and Pillay (1993) observed that few women hold senior management positions at the University of South Pacific. This is because there is no policy relating specifically to preparing women to take on such tasks. They stated that the university charter precludes any form of discrimination based on sex, ethnicity and religion. There is the assumption that everyone is treated equally and that everyone who joins the staff has an equal chance of pursuing a career. However, this is not the case in practice. They suggested that there should be a strong staff training programme aimed at assisting more women to improve their knowledge and skills.

The National Programme of Action (NPA) on the follow-up at the World summit for children, noted that the position of a woman in the family is often dependent on whether she is married, single or widowed and young or old. She is valued because of her

reproductive abilities (as the guarantor of the family line). A woman's role according to the study is in providing food, cooking, fetching water and fuel-wood. She is also to do washing, take care of children, the sick and the aged and promoting the health and well-being of other family members. In spite of these, there exist a situation of gender inequality and men enjoy a dominant position within the family and the household compared to women. This assertion is reinforced by social, cultural and religious beliefs and practices. Even where the women are heads of households, they are expected to refer issues relating to their children to male kin, which is a form of discrimination against women. (Koyana & Bekker, 2007)

Date-Bah's (1986) survey on "Sex inequalities in urban employment in Ghana" indicates that employers consider women not as strong as men to supervise effectively. She states that 21% of employers admitted that they did not like employing women on some jobs for fear that they might become pregnant and go on maternity leave. According to the employers, pregnancy poses problems like payment for maternity leave, absence on maternity and the fear that work would be affected by a woman's new family commitments after child birth. Some employers fear such problems would affect general productivity. Addo-Adeku (1992) observes that the results from Date-Bah's survey depict a kind of sex stereotyping which stems largely from cultural practices and socialisation based upon roles and statutes of the sexes. She concludes that some employers discriminate against women when appointing officers to leadership roles solely for fear of reasons stated above.

On deterrents to women's career in school management, Biklen and Brannigan (1980) are of the view that strong cultural norm does not encourage women to seek managerial positions. According to them, such cultural norms tend to discourage women

from doing so. The study revealed that differential treatment is given to males and females when appointing them to administrative positions. They continued that whereas some women described the sort of discrimination they faced on the job; other women face discrimination before the final selection process. They then concluded that women are not underrepresented in leadership positions because they are less competent or less qualified than men, but it is simply because women are discriminated against.

Another set of discriminatory attitudes that hinder women's representation in educational leadership are the problems of job training and selection processes. According to Biklen and Brannigan, (1980) Colleges and Universities make no special effort to select women for training to become principals. Women teachers receive less encouragement from supervisors to become administrators and strong bias exists against appointing women to administrative positions.

They further pointed out that, to be appointed to an administrative position, women teachers must possess superior qualification and skills. They suggested that women need are like men in those areas generally regarded as "competence areas" for administrators and managers. Hence women must also be given training and advancement opportunities throughout their careers to prepare them for new challenges and a changing world. They pointed out that women need to be viewed and respected as persons with varied strength and weaknesses.

## **2.6 Female-created Problems/restraints**

According to a study conducted by Rimmer and Davies (1985) on Women Principals in Education Department of High schools in Victoria, USA, women themselves

are to be blamed for their small number in administrative position. They described this sort of thinking as the “victim-blaming model”. This model explains that the victim of an act is held entirely or partially at fault for the harm against them. Many cultures across the globe have different degree of victim blaming for different scenario. Victim blaming is common around the world especially in cultures where it is socially acceptable to treat certain group of people as lesser.

They stated that women are found to be less aggressive, less competitive and more emotional. They are not natural leaders; they lack confidence in competitive situations; they are not clearly work-oriented and cannot handle responsibilities. They argue that women do not plan careers in ways that men do; women are very inactive in pursuing administrative goals. They contended that while men often plan their move into administration several years before it occurs, women may not think much about being an administrator until the opportunity arises. Therefore, many women who go into teaching do so primarily because of their choice to work-(work which is suitable for women and work which will be compatible with home and family demands). Men on the other hand tend to view teaching as a stepping stone to higher positions in education or in other fields.

Pra (1992) stresses that the attitudes that prevail to lower women’s quest to increase their participation in public life have been motivated by women themselves. This is because; it is within the home and the community that the learning of gender relations takes place. Women as custodians of culture pass on values and norms which contribute to their inequality. It is said that in socialising their children, women pass on norms that work against their own interest as women (Pra, 1992).

Davies (1992) observes that women conform to stereotyped gender roles which are counseling, hospitality and support services. He continued that, such an allocation leads to a spiral of under evaluation where women are not given the chance to demonstrate administrative competence.

According to Shakeshaft (1989) women are blamed for low self-image, lack of confidence and lack of motivation. She argues that women do not take interest in applying for certain posts for which they could be considered. Additionally, female teachers take leadership positions in activities in schools but will not do so in the community. She pointed out that many women either do not see themselves as school administrators or lack confidence to pursue such an end. She concluded that since self-confidence affects the way women are perceived as well as the ways they perceived themselves, women can be blamed for not being appointed to leadership positions.

Pearson et al. (1985) pointed out that men may be more assertive or aggressive in their interactions with others. They emerge more frequently as leaders while women reveal more information about their feelings, beliefs and concerns than men and are more person-oriented. Pearson et al further indicated that female bosses say their biggest barriers are insecurity and “being a woman”. In a study they conducted on whether barriers to women have fallen at the senior management level, 63% of the women said ‘No’ while 70% said women do not receive equal pay for comparable jobs. Most female executives mentioned the fact that they were women was their major career obstacle. They argued that the old boy network and the perception that women are too good looking and are not carried seriously is a factor. They feel that they will run off and get married. Women will thus



dump their jobs or neglect their responsibilities and continue to be indicted at their work places.

After “being a woman”, lack of confidence was most frequently cited as the main obstacle to success. It was pointed out that, a senior vice president of a Marketing firm indicated that, she was forced to overcome “my own fears of not being as good or strong as the men I work with because of lack of education and “being the first woman”, when she was asked to name her greatest career challenge. Another woman simply responded “myself”.

Setaiadarma (1993) observes that the most fatal “internal” obstacle which keeps a woman cornered and prevents her from becoming her full self is what Colette Dowling (1982) calls “The Cinderella complex”. This attitude she says consists of the psychological dependence of a woman who wants to be taken care of and protected by another person. Setaiadarma (1993) sees this dependency as a sort of network of attitudes and fears which do not give enough encouragement to a woman to develop the potentials she has and to realise her own aspirations. She concludes that women themselves seem to help prevent their own advancement. It can therefore be argued that there is a great mass of literature that suggest that, the factor that work against women participation in management are not always external. They can sometimes be from the women themselves as a result of cultural orientation and socialisation.

## **2.7 Measures to Increase Women’s Representation in Educational Management**

In suggesting possible measures to increase women’s representation at top level positions, Thaman and Pillay (1993) believe that, staff counselling is a possible strategy to

improve the lot of women. It is also important that younger women on the academic and administrative staff receive encouragement from their Heads of Department to strive to improve their academic status by pursuing further studies. In addition to this, they stated that, encouragement should be given to the female staff to take on responsible jobs for which they are quite capable but would not otherwise volunteer.

Thaman and Pillay (1993) think organising special workshops and seminars for women in management is another possible strategy. They indicate that, this has been a rather popular method of preparing women for management and leadership positions in some countries. For apart from improving and enhancing women's management knowledge and skills, it makes them more assertive and aggressive. It is their view that these programmes be backed by anti-discrimination legislation and regulation so as to get the desired results.

According to UNESCO (1993) The Pan – African Conference on the Education of Girls held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, made several suggestions to increase the number of women in management positions these includes:

- i. The education sector giving priority to the re-admission of “mother – girls” into the formal educational system. For instance, in Jamaica, there are crisis centres which provide the education and guidance needed by young girls who become pregnant during their school years. After the baby is about 6 months old and the centre is assured by the girl that there is someone to take care of the baby, she is allowed to return to school. Similarly, it is a practice in Burkina Faso to allow pregnant secondary school girls to remain in school.

- ii. The courses being organized to sensitize teachers to their role in promoting the education and status of girls. Such courses must be included in both in-service and pre-service teacher education programmes. To obtain the desired results, teachers must be given incentives like housing, accelerated promotions and special scholarships for academic advancement to boost their morale.
- iii. The efforts being made to recruit more female teachers. The presence of female teachers in schools will enhance girls' enrolment and attendance in areas where parents do not wish to send their girls to male teachers. Female teachers will discourage the molestation of girls by male teachers and provide the girls with a role model. For example, efforts to increase the female teaching force have been made in Yemen through the institution of a voluntary national service programme which requires all girls who complete secondary school to serve as primary school teachers for one year.
- iv. The role of parents' participation in school life being increased so as to sensitize them and maintain regular attendance of their daughters in schools.

Hammond (cited in UNESCO, 1993) also suggests that, as women are underrepresented in management positions, a compensatory measure could be taken to assign a certain percentage of the managerial posts to women and to ensure that such positions are accessible to them. Secondly, special efforts should be made to change women's negative self-image, to provide them with knowledge about their rights and their real role in the comprehensive development of the society. Women needs to be convinced that they are fully capable of carrying out any task. The examples of women who have successes in positions traditionally reserved for men should be stressed. She adds that,

concerted action should be directed towards the establishment of a system of sharing parental responsibilities by women and men in the family.

David (1997) indicates that women can attain top management positions when they receive equal attention from researchers. David noted that women must earn equal salaries, attain equal proportion of all the jobs-salaried and honorary. Women should be doing only half the domestic work in the society. This is important because one cannot be a Dean of Faculty, President of an Association or Director of an institution if one must do all the childcare, all the cooking, all the care of aged parents, all the housework and all the domestic planning. David (1997) therefore pointed out that a woman's proper place in education is one of equality. This can only be achieved when man's place in the house becomes one of equality too. It was concluded that women's place in education will be nearer when 'Mother Care' is renamed 'Parent Care'.

## **2.8 Summary**

The related literature reviewed above tried to find out view on issues concerning women's access and participation in education, level of education and factors that militate against the rise of many women to top management positions in education. The studies show that whereas many girls enroll at the primary level, only a few of them ever reach the top level of education to enable them assume management positions. It has been shown that social problems such as discrimination, low participation of women at higher educational levels, family responsibilities and self-imposed problems by the women themselves are some of the barriers to women's advancement to management positions.

From the reviewed literature, it is realised that various authors have various views on the causes of women's level of participation in the management of organisations including educational institutions. The major issue unattended to in the review is whether the factors identified by the writers may be applicable to the situation in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis of the Western Region. The review, which provides an insight into the work of experts and scholars in this area, would serve as a guide to this research. The study would find out if the issues discussed above exist in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis. The findings of the research would confirm or contradict the views of the experts in the field and will indicate whether the views expressed by the authors in the literature review could be generalised or otherwise.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter covers method to conduct the study. It involves the research design, the population, the sample and sampling techniques, instruments, procedure used for data collection, as well as data analysis.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

The research design used to carry this study was descriptive survey. Gay, Mills and Airasian (2009) indicate that survey is a method that involves the collection of data that describes one or more characteristics of a specific population. The usefulness of the descriptive survey for this study is supported by Leedy and Ormrod (2005) who assert that the descriptive sample survey is useful in collecting data from members of a population in order to determine current status of that population with respect to one or more variables. It allows the researcher to gather data at a point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions. It also identifies standards against which existing conditions can be compared or determined the relationship that exists between specific events (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

### **3.2 Population**

The target population for this study comprised all female teachers, female school heads of Senior High Schools and officers at the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolitan Education Directorate. The study involved all ten public Senior High Schools within the metropolis.

### **3.3 Sample and Sampling Procedure**

The sample size was one hundred and thirty-five (135) respondents comprising of the Metropolitan Director, the four frontline Assistant Directors, all the ten heads of the Schools and their two assistants and one hundred (100) teachers. The purposive sampling technique was used to select the Metropolitan Director, and the four Frontline Assistant Directors. It also applied to all the ten heads of the Schools and their two assistants. Convenience sampling was used to select five female and five male teachers from each of the schools. The two sampling techniques were used to ensure that data was directly collected from people who influenced the appointment of heads. Those who were affected by the appointments committees or those who work with heads in the metropolis were inclusive.

### **3.4 Instruments**

Questionnaire was used for this study. Two sets of questionnaires were developed for the study. One set was designed for the teachers, Assistant Heads and the Heads of Schools, while the other was developed for the Director and the frontline Assistant Directors. However, both questionnaires had very similar structure. The questionnaires had both close-ended and open-ended items. They all had two broad sections. The first section dealt with the demographic data of respondents. The second section was designed to cover

the major issues that the research questions addressed. These covered the level of women participation in educational management in Sekondi Takoradi metropolis.

The responses to the close-ended items were designed on a four-point Likert-type scale. The scale had four points instead of the conventional five-point scale, because the use of odd number response scale often leads to the selection of the responses at the centre of the scale (Casely & Kumar, 1988). The Likert-type scale items were generally made up of positive statements. The open-ended items were made so, in order to allow room for respondents to come out with their own views on issues that would be considered under this section.

### **3.5 Pre-testing of the Instrument**

The instruments were pre-tested in the Shama Municipality. The municipality was selected for the pre-test because it had similar characteristics as the research area. The purpose of the pre-test was to ensure a further screening of items before the actual administration.

The questionnaire was administered to the two frontline Assistant Directors, one headmaster and his two assistants and 10 teachers in Shama Senior High School. Issues of ambiguities, unclear statements and inadequacy of the items detected were corrected before the final administration.

### **3.6 Data Collection Procedure**

To ensure a high return rate, the researcher personally took the approved instruments to the various schools and the Metropolitan Education Office, to administer.



The questionnaires were administered within a period of one month. This was so because the researcher could not meet all the respondents within the scheduled period. Some respondents were either not present at the time of the visit or were engaged individually and therefore could not receive the researcher.

At each place visited, a personal introduction was made and the objectives of the study were stated. The questionnaire were distributed among respondents in the various schools and discussed and the respondents were given ample time to complete them. In most cases the instruments were taken back the same day. It was in the case of the authorities that the instruments were left behind and collected at a later time. This enabled a hundred percent return rate though it was attained with some level of difficulty.

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

In order to facilitate scoring and analysis of the data, the items on the questionnaire were edited, coded and then transferred to a spreadsheet. The statements that were formulated to reflect the right concepts were given the following values: Strongly Agree – 4, Agree – 3, Disagree – 2, Strongly Disagree – 1. Likewise, those that assessed intensity or frequency were coded: Very High – 4, High– 3, Low–2, and Very low – 1. All responses for each of the items on the questionnaire, were analysed with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.

The study employed descriptive statistical tools in the analysis of the data. The data were organised into tables of frequencies, percentages and means and carefully interpreted to answer each research question. The resultant relationships between the variables were described and relevant conclusions of the study drawn. The findings which

emerged from the analysis of the data collected in the study is discussed in detail in chapter five (5).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Introduction

The purpose for the study was to examine the factors that contribute to the low level of women participation in educational management within the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

In order to effectively deal with the issues, three main area became the focus of the data collection. These areas included:

- i. The areas that women are involved in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis?
- ii. The factors that appointing authorities consider for the appointment of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis?
- iii. The factors that teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?

In all, 135 respondents comprising of the Metropolitan Director, the four frontline Assistant Directors, all the ten heads of the Schools and their two assistants and 100 teachers were used as respondents for the study. Questionnaires were the instruments used in collecting data for the study. The main statistical tools employed for the analysis of the

data included frequencies, percentages and means. This chapter presents and discusses the results of the analysis of the data collected to answer the major research questions.

#### 4.2 Gender and Department of Respondents

**Table 4:1 Distribution of Respondents by Department and Gender**

Department	Gender		Total
	Male N (%)	Female N (%)	
Senior Secondary School	74 (54.8%)	56 (41.4%)	130 (96.2%)
Metropolis	4 (3%)	1 (0.8%)	5 (3.8%)
Total	78 (57.8%)	57 (42.2%)	135 (100%)

**Source: Field data, 2018**

Table 2 shows the breakdown of the respondents. A total of 135 respondents comprising the Metropolitan Director, the four frontline Assistant Directors, and the ten heads of Schools and their two assistants and one hundred (100) teachers making up of five male and five female teachers from each of the schools. In terms of gender distribution, the males constitute the majority with a total of 78 while the women were 57. The highest number of respondents were from the Senior High School level with the total of 130

respondents. Out of this number, 74 of them, representing approximately 57% of that group were males and 56 which represents 43% were females. The rest of the five (5) respondents were from the Metropolitan Office. Out of this, 4 which represent 80% of those from the Metropolitan Education Office were males and only 1 which represents 20% was a female. From the data presented above it is evident that there were more males respondents than females at the secondary level.

#### **4.3 Marital Status of Respondents**

The data gathered on the marital status of the respondents revealed that only 20 out of the 135 were single. This represented 14.8%. The distribution of this by gender revealed that 11 (8.1%) were males while the remaining 9 (6.7%) were females.

A total of 108 (80.1%) indicated that they were married. Out of this number, 62 (46%) were males, and 46 (34.1%) were females. Only 7(5.1%) of the respondents were either divorced or separated thus 3(2.2%) males or 4(2.9%) females.

#### **4.4 Academic Qualifications of Respondents**

The study revealed that the academic qualifications of respondents ranged from a Bachelors' degree to a Master of Philosophy degree. Eighty-two (82) teachers representing 65.2% had BA/BSC/BFA with Forty-seven (47) representing (34.8%) possessing a MA/Msc/Mphil/. Also six (4.5%) possessed an additional qualification of a Post Graduate Diploma in Education.

This was an indication that all the teachers possessed at least the first degree which is considered as the minimum academic requirement for teaching at the Senior High School level (Ghana Education Service, 2000).

#### 4.5 Professional Qualifications of Teachers

**Table 4.2: Professional Qualification of Respondents**

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Teachers' Certificate 'A'/Diploma in Education	10	7.4
Post Graduate Diploma in Education	13	9.6
Bachelor of Education Degree	75	55.6
Master of Education Degree	37	27.4
Total	135	100

Source: Field data, 2018

Table 3 indicates that all the respondents possessed at least the minimum professional certificate to work in the teaching profession as required by Ghana Education Service. Only 10 (7.4%) possessed Teachers' Certificate 'A' or Diploma in Education which is the minimum professional qualification for teaching.

Also 13(9.6%) of the respondents possessed Post Graduate Diploma in Education. The majority of the respondents consisting of 75(55.6%) teachers and the heads possessed Bachelor of Education. This is followed by 37 (27.4%) of the respondents, having Master of Arts in education.

#### 4.6 Professional Ranks of Respondents

**Table 4:3 Professional Ranks of Respondents**

Rank	Frequency	Percentage
Principal Superintendent	40	29.7
Assistant Director II	50	37.0
Assistant Director I	30	22.3
Deputy Director	14	10.3
Director II	1	0.7
Total	135	100

**Source: Field data, 2018**

From the perspective of professional ranks, 40 (29.7%) were Principal Superintendent, 50 (37%) were Assistant Director II and 30 (22.3%) were Assistant Director I rank. Fourteen (10.3%) had reached Deputy Director and 1 (0.7%) were Director II.

This therefore meant that approximately 66.7 % of them were in the middle ranks, and could assume some managerial roles in the school. The rest which formed about 33.3% were in the senior ranks position. They were considered as very competent to assume managerial roles at the school, the district or the regional levels (GES, 2000).

**Research Question 1: What are the areas in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis that women participate within the last 10years?**

This question sought to find the areas in educational management, that women mostly participated in with the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.

Questionnaire was used to gather data for this question. The individual items relating to the research question were analyzed using frequencies, percentages and means.

Tables 4 present the results.

**Table 4.4: The areas in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis that women participated in within the last 10 years**

Position	Very High N (%)	High N (%)	Low N (%)	Very Low N (%)	Mean
Metropolitan Director		10(7.7)	42(32.3)	78(60)	1.5
Assistant Director, Human Resource		10(7.7)	45(34.1)	80(61.5)	1.5
Assistant Director, Finance		7(5.3)	28(21.5)	95(73)	1.3
Assistant Director, Inspectorate		7(5.3)	28(21.5)	95(73)	1.3
Assistant Director, Training		57(43.8)	28(21.5)	45(34.1)	2.1
Head of School		45(34.1)	31(23.8)	54(41.5)	1.9
Assistant Head of School		3(0.2)	50(38.4)	77(59.2)	1.4
Senior House Master/Mistress		24(18.4)	43(33)	63(48.4)	1.7
House Master/Mistress	3(0.2)	19(14.6)	56(43)	52(40)	1.8
Head of Department	10(7.7)	58(44.6)	23(17.6)	39(30)	2.3
Form Master/Mistress	19(14.6)	68(52.3)	32(24.6)	11(8.5)	2.7
Chaplain			15(11.5)	115(88.4)	1.1
Guidance and Counselling Coordinator	37(28.5)	24(18.5)	55(42.3)	14(10.8)	2.7

Source: Field data, 2018

N= 130

Mean Range: 4.00 – 3.60 (very high), 3.50 – 2.60 (high), 2.50 – 1.60 (low), 1.50 – 1.00 (very low).

From Table 5.1, heads, assistant heads and teachers agreed that in the last 10 years the managerial position that women have had the least opportunity to work in is Chaplaincy. There was a general consensus among all the 130 respondents that women's involvement in this area is very low ( $M = 1.1$ ).

Aside Chaplaincy, respondents were of the view that, the areas of Assistant Directorship in charge of Finance and Inspectorate have predominately been a male affair. In these twin areas, out of the total of 130 respondents, 123 (92.7%) asserted to women's low level of involvement. Only 7 (5.3%) dissented to the claim. However, with a mean of 1.3, it could safely be argued that there was a very low representation of women in these areas.

Also, Assistant Headship has had its own share of low representation of women in the last 10 years. In all 127 of the respondents which represents a whopping 99.8% made such a charge. Only 3 (0.2%) of the respondents felt otherwise. Invariably, with a mean of 1.4, the general assertion was that there was a very low representation in this area as well, within the last 10 years.

The last set of managerial positions that there were claims of women having very low representation are the Metropolitan Directorship and the Assistant Director – Human Resource. Out of the 130 respondents, 120 (92.3%) emphasized there was low level of involvement of women in these areas. However, 10 (7.7%) differed in their views. All these notwithstanding, with a mean of 1.5, it could safely be maintained that there was a very low representation of women in these areas too.



The areas that saw a bit of an improvement over the former set included Senior House Mistress. Even though not very low, there was a low representation ( $M = 1.7$ ) within the last 10 years. A total of 106 (81.6%) indicated that there was a rather low participation of women in this area. However, 24 (18.4%) felt that women participation in this area is high.

The position of school headship even though was an area that could be considered as having low level of women participation ( $M = 1.9$ ), there was a significant improvement. For once, 45 (34.1%) argued that women's participation in this area of educational management was high. However, the majority of the respondents totaling 85 (64.3%) argued that the participation of women in this area too was not yet adequate enough.

At the Metropolitan level, it was only the Assistant Director in charge of Training Position that majority of the respondents felt had women participation being high. In all 57 (43.8%) indicated that women participation in this area has been high in the last 10 years, 28 (21.5%) felt it was low, while yet another 45 (34.1%) believed women participation in the area was very low. Even though on the surface the data seem to suggest a high level of involvement of women in this sector, cumulatively 73 (55.6%) of them asserted that women participation was low.

In the case of women playing managerial roles as Heads of Departments, there was a mean of 2.3 which could be classified as low. However, it was not hopelessly low. A total of 68 (52.3%) concluded that their involvement in this area was high. It was 62 (47.7%) of the respondents who asserted that women were still having low representation in this area too.

Indeed, it was in the cases of Form tutorship (Form master/mistress) and Guidance and Counselling Coordinator position that respondents generally acceded to the high level of involvement of women. Both positions had a mean of 2.7 to indicate women were highly involved in these areas. In terms of the raw data, while 87 (66.9%) said women involvement in Form tutorship was high in the case of the Guidance and Counselling Coordinator position, 69 (47%) asserted to same.

**Table 4.5: Views of Authorities on the areas in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis that women participate in**

Position	Very High N (%)	High N (%)	Low N (%)	Very Low N (%)	Mean
Metropolitan Director		2(40)	1(20)	2(40)	2.0
Assistant Director, Human Resource		1(20)	1(20)	3(60)	1.6
Assistant Director, Finance		1(20)	1(20)	3(60)	1.6
Assistant Director, Inspectorate		1(20)	2(40)	2(40)	1.8
Assistant Director, Training		1(20)	2(40)	2(20)	1.8
Head of School		1(20)	1(20)	3(60)	1.6
Assistant Head of School	1(20)	1(20)	2(40)	1(20)	2.4
Senior House Master/Mistress	1(20)	1(20)	2(40)	1(20)	2.4
House Master/Mistress	1(20)	2(40)	1(20)	1(20)	2.6
Head of Department	2(40)	1(20)	1(20)	1(20)	2.8
Form Master/Mistress	2(40)	1(20)	1(20)	1(20)	2.8
Chaplain			1(20)	4(80)	1.2
Guidance and Counselling Coordinator	2(40)	1(20)	1(20)	1(20)	2.8

Source: Field data, 2018

N= 5

Mean Range: 4.00 – 3.60 (very high), 3.50 – 2.60 (high), 2.50 – 1.60 (low), 1.50 – 1.00 (very low).

Table 5.2 highlights the views of those at the helm of educational affairs in the Metropolis. In their view chaplaincy is one area of educational management in the metropolis that women have had the least opportunity to work in within the last 10 years. There was a general consensus among all the 5 respondents that women's involvement in this area is very low ( $M = 1.2$ ).

Again, this segment of respondents also asserted that following closely after chaplaincy, the positions of Assistant Directorship and Heads of Senior High Schools in the metropolis has become a predominately male affair. In each of these positions 80% of respondents confirmed the low participation of women. Indeed, except for Assistant Directorship in charge of inspectorate and Assistant Directorship in charge of training which had a mean of 1.8., the rest had a mean of 1.6. It could therefore be maintained that there was equally low representation of women in these areas.

The topmost managerial position in the metropolis was also seen to be tilted towards male dominance. Out of the total respondents 3 (60%) stressed there was low level of involvement of women in this area. However, 2 (20%) had a contrary a view. All these notwithstanding, with a mean of 2.0, it could safely be maintained that there was a low representation of women in this area also.

At the school level, apart from the headship which education authorities accorded lowest level of participation of women on the basis of the mean, Assistant Headship and Senior House Master/Mistress also had their own share of views of low representation of women in the last 10 years. In each of these, 3 (60%) of the respondents alluded to it.

Invariably, with a mean of 2.4, the general claim was that there was a low representation of women in this area as well, within the last 10 years.

Indeed, the only management positions that the authorities attested to, that women were seen to have had some sort of substantial participation were Housemistress, Head of Department, Form Tutor and Guidance and Counselling Coordinator. In all these cases 3 (60%) of the respondents acceded to the high level of involvement of women in these areas. The position of house mistress had a mean of 2.6 while those of Head of Department, Form Tutor and Guidance and Counselling Coordinator had mean of 2.8 to indicate women were highly involved in these areas.

**Research Question 2: What factors do appointing authorities consider for the appointment of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis?**

This question sought to find out the factors that appointing authorities consider for the appointment of women into educational management positions in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Questionnaire was used to gather data for this question. The Metropolitan Director of Education, and the four frontline Assistant Directors of Education answered the questionnaire. The individual items relating to the research question were analysed using frequencies and percentages. Table 6 present the results.

**Table 4.6: Factors that appointing authorities consider for the appointment of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis**

Factor	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
Level of education of women	2(40%)	1(20%)	2(40%)		3.4
Health conditions of women		1(20%)	1(20%)	3(60%)	1.6
Gender Stereotyping issues		2(40%)	2(40%)	1(20%)	2.2
Religious teachings and views	1(20%)	2(40%)	1(20%)	1(20%)	2.6
Family Responsibilities	3(60%)	1(20%)	1(20%)		3.6
Human relationship skills exhibited by the women	2(40%)	1(20%)	1(20%)	1(20%)	2.8
Low percentage of women in the GES			2(40%)	3(60%)	1.4
Working experience of the women		3(60%)	2(40%)		2.8
Women's level of confidence/assertiveness	1(20%)	3(60%)	1(20%)		2.8
Women communication skills challenges	3(60%)	1(20%)	1(20%)		3.2
Women Leadership abilities	2(40%)	2(40%)	1(20%)		3.2

Source: Field data, 2018

N= 5 Mean

Range: 4.00 – 3.60 (strongly agree), 3.50 – 2.60 (agree), 2.50 – 1.60 (disagree), 1.50 – 1.00 (strongly disagree).

Table 6 indicates that, 60% of the respondents agree that the level of education is a key factor that they consider when selecting women to occupy managerial positions. Even though 40% disagreed the mean for the statement was 3.4 which was an indication of the acceptance of educational level as a factor that affected the selection of females into managerial positions in education.

According to the respondents 80% disagreed that health condition is a factor in considering females for appointment to managerial status. It was only 20% who felt the health conditions were considered in appointment. Altogether, with a mean of 1.6 it could be concluded that the health condition of women was not a factor in appointment to managerial positions. Also 40% agree that gender stereotyping issues is a factor in considering female representation as managers. This means that the majority of 60% disagreed to this fact. This statement had a mean of 2.2 which meant that the authorities generally assert that gender stereotyping issues did not influence the appointment of women to managerial positions. In the case of religious teachings and its views about women influencing appointments, the 60% of appointing authorities indicated that, it influenced appointments. Even though 40% disagreed, with a mean of 2.6 there was consensus on the fact that religious teachings and views influenced the appointment of women into managerial positions.

Table 6 reveals that family responsibilities is a key factor that influences the appointment of women into managerial position. The assertion had 80% of the respondents supporting while only 20% disagreed. With a mean of 3.6 it could be deduced that it was one of the most critical factors that appointing authorities see as influencing the appointment of women into managerial positions.

Those in charge of appointments at the Metropolitan education level, were generally of the view that human relationship skills exhibited by women is considered a determining factor for the selection of women into managerial positions. On the whole, 60% of these agreed to the assertion while 40% disagreed even though on the strength of the mean which was 2.8, it could be agreed that there was agreement that human relations skills influenced appointments.

It should be noted that 100% of the respondents disagreed that low percentage of women in GES is considered as factor by the appointing authorities in selecting females as educational managers. This statement had a mean of 1.4 which was indicative of the fact that they had a strong disagreement about statement. The respondents however, agreed that working experience was an important factor that is used in considering women for selection into managerial positions. A total of 60% of the respondent acceded to this. The mean for the statement was 2.8.

Again the respondents agreed that women level of confidence or assertiveness is a factor considered in determining women appointment to educational managerial positions. Indeed, 80% of the respondents agreed to this with only 20% disagreeing. The mean for that statement is 2.8 which meant that there was consensus that women level of confidence and assertiveness plays a crucial role in appointing them to administrative positions. Women's communication skills and leadership abilities were all asserted by 80% of the respondents as key factors in considering female appointments to managerial positions. Each of these factors also had 3.2 which meant that communication skills and leadership abilities play a decisive role in the appointment of women as educational managers.

**Research Question 3: What factors do teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis?**

This question sought to find the factors that teachers consider as being responsible for the appointment of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Questionnaire was used to gather data for this particular question. The individual items relating to the research question were analysed using frequencies and percentages. Table 4.2 present the results.

**Table 4.7 Factors teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.**

Factor	Strongly Agree N (%)	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)	Strongly Disagree N (%)	Mean N (%)
Level of education of women	30 (23.1)	23 (17.7)	18 (13.8)	59 (45.4)	2.2
Health conditions of women	17 (13.1)	15 (11.5)	10 (7.7)	88 (67.7)	1.7
Gender Stereotyping issues	60 (46.2)	30 (23.1)	19 (14.6)	21 (16.2)	3.0
Religious teachings and views	60 (46.2)	29 (22.3)	23 (17.7)	18 (13.8)	3.0
Family Responsibilities	70 (53.8)	32 (24.6)	13 (10.0)	15 (11.5)	3.2
Human relationship skills exhibited by the women	30 (23.1)	25 (19.2)	15 (11.5)	60 (46.2)	2.2
Low percentage of women in the GES	2 (1.5)	5 (3.9)	7 (5.4)	116 (89.2)	1.2



Factor	Strongly Agree N (%)	Agree N (%)	Disagree N (%)	Strongly Disagree N (%)	Mean N (%)
Working experience of the women	3(2.3)	2(1.5)	15(11.5)	112(86.2)	1.2
Women's level of confidence/assertiveness	7(5.4)	7(5.4)	30(23.1)	86(66.2)	1.5
Women communication skills challenges	6(4.6)	9(6.9)	21(16.2)	95(73.1)	1.4
Women Leadership abilities	9 (6.9)	15(11.5)	39(30.0)	69(53.1)	1.8

Source: Field data, 2018

N= 130

Mean Range: 4.00 – 3.60 (strongly agree), 3.50 – 2.60 (agree), 2.50 – 1.60 (disagree), 1.50 – 1.00 (strongly disagree).

Table 7 shows the factors that teachers believe influence the participation of females in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Out of the 130 respondents, 53 (40.8%) indicated that the level of education of women is a key factor that is considered when selecting women to occupy managerial positions. However, 77 (59.2%) of the teachers rather disagreed to this statement. The means that teachers did not generally agree to the fact that the level of education has been a factor that is considered in selecting women into educational management roles.

Also 98 respondents representing 75.4% disagreed that health condition is a factor that is considered when females are being appointed to managerial status. It was only 24.6% who felt the health conditions were considered in appointment. Altogether, with a mean of 1.7 it could be concluded that teachers did not see the health condition of women as being a factor in the appointment of women to managerial positions.

The majority of teachers totaling 90 (69.3%) believed that gender stereotyping issues is a factor that affects female representation in educational management. This statement had a mean of 3.0 which means that teachers generally hold a strong view that gender stereotyping issues influence the appointment of women to managerial positions.

The fact that religious teachings and views influenced the appointment of women into managerial positions is something that 89 (68.5%) of the respondents believed. Even though 41 (31.5%) disagreed, with a mean of 3.0 there was consensus on that.

The teachers again revealed that family responsibilities are key factors that influence the appointment of women into managerial position. A total of 102 (78.4%) of the respondents asserted to this while only 21.5% disagreed. With a mean of 3.2 it could be deduced that it was one of the most critical factors that consider as influencing the appointment of women into managerial positions.

Teachers did not general agree that human relationship skills exhibited by women is a factor that affects the selection of women into managerial positions. On the whole, 75 of them which represent 57.7% disagreed to this as a factor while 55 of them representing 42.2% agreed that it was a possible factor. On the strength of the mean which was 2.2, it could be concluded that teachers did not see that human relations skills of women influenced their appointment into managerial positions in GES.

The teachers also had a strong disagreement about the statement that the low percentage of women in GES is a contributory factor to the selection of females as educational managers. Out of the 130 respondents, only 7(5.4%) agreed to this statement. The remaining 123 (94.6%) disagreed with the statement. This statement had a mean of

1.2 which was indicative of the fact that the teachers had a strong disagreement about this statement.

On the issue of working experience of women, the respondents were of the view that this factor do not influence selection of females into managerial positions. In fact, only 5 (3.8%) of the teachers felt that such a factor could influence the appointment of teachers into managerial positions. On a whole, 112(86.2%) of the teachers disagreed that work experience of women serves as a factor that may influence their selection into any managerial position in the GES.

Again the respondents disagreed that women level of confidence or assertiveness is a factor considered in determining women appointment to educational managerial positions. Indeed, 116 (89.3%) of the respondents disagreed to this with only 14 (10.8%) agreeing. The mean for that statement is 1.5 which meant that on the whole there was a general level of disagreement to this statement.

Women's communication skills was also another factor that teachers did not agree influenced the selection of female to managerial positions. Out of the total 130 respondents, 116 (89.3%) disagreed. Only 15 (11.5%) were of the view that women's communication skills could be a factor that can influence the appointment of women into management positions.

Lastly, teachers once again did not accept women's leadership abilities play a crucial role in the appointment of women as educational managers. Similarly, 108 (83.1%) of the respondents disagreed to this statement a factor. It was just a minority of 24 respondents who agreed that the leadership abilities of women could be a factor when considering women for managerial positions in GES.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors that contribute to the level of women participation in educational management. The study aimed at finding out whether women underrepresentation in educational management is prevalent and the factors that account for the situation in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. The study was guided by three main objectives. The first was to assess the areas in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis that women participate in. The second was to find the factors that appointing authorities assign for the level of representation of women in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis. The third was to explore the factors that teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. This chapter discusses the main findings from the research and links the literature to the research outcomes.

The study revealed that there are several managerial positions in the GES both at the Metropolitan and School levels. Women have virtually been involved at all those levels even though with different levels of intensity and frequency. Generally the study revealed that management positions that women had the greatest participation in the last ten years were Housemistress, Head of Department, Form tutorship (Form master/mistress) and Guidance and Counselling Coordinator positions. These positions had a mean between 2.6 to 2.8 to indicate women were highly involved in these areas. This was alluded to by both the appointing authorities and the teacher respondents. This is interesting as these positions were counselling related which are basic social functions of women (Davis, 1992). Perhaps

women act well as ‘surrogate mothers’ to students and as such their being offered such positions in most cases.

Again, the research reveals that women participation in management was in most cases limited to middle management levels and not the top management levels. It is therefore instructive to note that in all top management positions such as Metropolitan Directorship, Frontline Assistant Directorship, School Headship and its deputies, women participation were low.

However, in the last 10 years the managerial position that women have had the least opportunity to work in is Chaplaincy. There was a general consensus among both the teachers ( $M = 1.1$ ) and appointing authorities ( $M = 1.2$ ) that women’s involvement in this area is very low. Indeed this situation may be understood in the light of the fact that chaplaincy in most cases is reserved for the clerics which requires additional training in religion – an area that until recently has been a highly male dominated.

These findings generally support the assertions of Davidson and Cooper (1992) that there is a traditional notion that women play second fiddle to men in positions of management and therefore a number of women just accidentally drift into in such positions.

It also backs the observation of Santrock (1996) that in many countries, professional roles have remained more gender-specific. As this research revealed, roles such as counselling in schools in the metropolis has remained predominantly female roles.

The study revealed that appointing authorities consider both social and professional factors as influencing the appointment of women into management positions in GES. What is even more interesting is the fact that they suggest a social factor as having first-place over a professional factor. They indicated that the family responsibilities of women are

often considered as key factor (M= 3.6) in their appointment. After family responsibilities they assert that educational level of the women (M =3.4) affect the appointment of women to management positions. Also appointing authorities adduced that other key factors that affect the appointment of women include their communication skills and leadership abilities (M=3.2). However the appointing authorities rejected low percentage of women in GES (M=1.4), health conditions of women (M= 1.6) and gender stereotyping issues (M = 2.2) as being key factors that influence the appointment of women to management positions.

The views expressed by the appointing authorities confirm some earlier researches as they contradict others. Their views on the influence of family responsibilities and educational levels on women appointment to managerial positions largely confirm Shakeshaft (1989) in her observations that women generally, will not be promoted because of domestic responsibilities. She argues that there is the “Woman Place Model” which puts women’s non-participation in administrative careers at the doors of social norms. She believes that appointing authorities will not want to invest time and money in workers with short-term commitments. Again it corroborates well with Nehlin and Kelly (1982) as they indicate that women find it difficult to combine their traditional roles in the home and official duties at their work places.

The findings also support the views of Anamuah-Mensah (1995) and Gaertner (1978) that education is an important leverage for pushing women into public office and therefore participation rates for women in higher education are generally low and this account for the small number of women in leadership positions.

The study however, rejects Santrock (1996) observation that gender stereotypes have often been key to the underrepresentation of women in decision making roles throughout our society.

On the issue of factors that teacher consider as being responsible for the level of participation of women in educational management, the study revealed that teachers believed that in most case the social factor cards play far higher than any other cards. The teachers asserted that the most influential factor is the family responsibilities of women (M=3.2). Indeed, the teacher and the appointing authorities all agreed that this factor is most paramount in the decision for women to apply for such positions or even be nominated for them. Also teacher raised religious teachings and views as well as gender stereotyping as being the next the in succession of the factors that influence female appointments.

Indeed the teachers downplayed professional factors such as human relation skills (M=2.2), level of education (M =2.2) and leadership abilities (M=1.8) as being critical factors in the selection of women to educational management positions.

It is interesting to note that to them, issues like working experience and low percentage of women in the GES to not appear in the scheme of things when selection of women into managerial positions is being discussed.

These seem to contradict what appointing authorities say, but perhaps this is an example of the phenomenon of conflict between theory and practice or perceptions and reality. The authorities may be describing what the policy stipulates and therefore ought to be done, and teachers being the direct recipients of these, policies may be presenting their daily experiences which could be described as the prevailing practices.

This finding supports Pearson et al (1995) assertion that employers have been determined to hire men rather than women because of some factors of sexism which they explain as having the tendency to lose women with unique capabilities.

Again, it also strengthens the findings of Date- Baah's (1986) Survey on 'sex inequalities in urban employment in Ghana' which revealed that employers did not like employing women on some jobs for fear that a woman's family commitments could affect the general productivity.



## CHAPTER SIX

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors that contribute to the level of women participation in educational management in the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis of the Western Region of Ghana. The research used the descriptive survey design. The



population for this study comprised all female teachers, heads of Senior High Schools and their Assistants and officers at the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolitan Education Directorate. The sample size was one hundred and thirty-five (135) respondents comprising the Metropolitan Director, the four frontline Assistant Directors, the ten heads of the Schools and their assistants and one hundred (100) teachers. The purposive sampling technique was used to select the Metropolitan Director, the Four frontline Assistant Directors, all the ten heads of the Schools and their two assistants. Convenience sampling was used to select 5 female and five males' teachers from each of the schools. The data was gathered using questionnaires and analyzed using percentages and means.

#### **6.1 Summary of Key Findings**

**The study revealed the following findings:**

1. The major educational management position that women have mostly participated in within the last 10 year were Housemistress, Head of Department, Form tutorship (Form master/mistress) and Guidance and Counselling Coordinator positions.
2. Women participation have been low in top management positions such as Metropolitan Directorship, Frontline Assistant Directorship, School Headship and its deputies.
3. Appointing authorities indicated that the key factors that they considered in selecting women into educational management positions included the family responsibilities of women, their educational levels, communication skills and leadership abilities.
4. The study revealed that teachers considered family responsibilities of women, religious teachings and views as well as gender stereotyping as being the most

influential factors that influence female appointments to educational management positions.

## **6.2 Conclusions**

Based on the findings it could be concluded that women are often not found at the top management levels in education but rather the middle and lower management levels and these placements are influenced by gender factor.

Also, it can be concluded that appointments decisions are most often influenced by the social orientations of appointing authorities instead of by clearly laid down strict procedures. Finally, teachers generally perceive appointment decisions as not being very objective but highly influenced by numerous social factors which often put women at a disadvantage.

## **6.3 Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn the following recommendations are made:

1. The ministry of education in collaboration with the Ghana Education Service should embark on an affirmative action policy that tends to address the parity issues in educational management.
2. The Ghana Education Service should establish clear guidelines for appointment interviews and made them available to teachers.
3. The Ghana Education Service should create a system where detailed appointment/promotion interview reports will be made available to candidates to check abuses based on gender and social orientations.

4. The Regional Education Office should establish appointment review committee where teachers who feel they want to challenge an interview result can send their petitions to.

#### **6.4 Suggestions for Further Studies**

It is suggested that further studies can be conducted on factors that motivate women to aspire for educational management positions in the Ghana Education Service.



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## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX A**

**UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA**  
**FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE WOMEN PARTICPATION IN MANAGEMENT**  
**OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE SEKONDI TAKORADI**  
**METROPOLITAN AREA**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS, ASSISTANT HEADS AND**  
**TUTORS**

Dear Sir / Madam,

This instrument is being used to gather information on the factors that influence women's participation in the management of educational institutions in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region. The information is being collected as part of a Master's Dissertation work, and it is therefore strictly for academic purposes. I will be grateful to have you take part in the study by answering the questions as honestly as possible. The information you will provide on the questionnaire will be treated confidentially. Thank you.

**General Instruction:** *Please tick or write your answer in the spaces provided where appropriate.*

**Section A: General information**

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
  2. Marital Status: Single [ ] Married [ ] Separated/Divorced [ ]
  3. Highest level of academic qualification: 'O' Level/SSS [ ] 'A' Level [ ]  
HND/DIPLOMA [ ] BA/BSC/BFA [ ] MA/Mphil/Msc [ ] PHD [ ]
- Other please specify .....

4. Professional qualification: Cert. A/4 Year Post Secondary [ ] Diploma [ ] PGDE[ ] Bed [ ] Med [ ] Other

specify.....

5. Professional Rank: Principal Supt [ ] Asst. Dir. II [ ] Asst. Dir. I [ ] Deputy Director [ ] Director II [ ] Direct I.[ ]

Any other (specify).....

6. Responsibility and Position at the Workplace (i.e. Housemaster):

.....



**Section B: What are the areas in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis that women participate within the last 10years? Indicate by a tick (✓) in**

the column the response which best describes the your level of acceptance of the statements below

7. The areas in educational management in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis that women participated in within the last 10 years.

<b>Position</b>	<b>Very High</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>Very Low</b>
Metropolitan Director				
Assistant Director Human Resource				
Assistant Director Finance				
Assistant Director Inspectorate				
Assistant Director Training				
Head of School				
Assistant Head of School				
Senior House Master/Mistress				
House Master/Mistress				
Head of Department				
Form Master/Mistress				
Chaplain				
Guidance and Counselling Coordinator				

Any other please state

.....

**Section C: What factors do teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi metropolis?**

Indicate by a tick (✓) in the column the response which best describes your level of acceptance of the statements below.

**8. Factors teachers consider as responsible for the level of representation of women in educational management in GES in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis.**

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
Lower level of education				
Health conditions				
Gender Stereotyping issues				
Religious teachings and views				
Family Responsibilities				
Human relationship skills exhibited by women in leadership				
Low percentage of women in the GES				
Working experience of the women				
Women's level of confidence/assertiveness				
Women communication skills challenges				
Women leadership abilities				

Any other please state

.....

Thank you for participating in this research.