UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

IN THE SOUTH TONGU DISTRICT OF THE VOLTA REGION

ERNESTINA DORIS AKOSUA PENIANA

2010

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

IN THE SOUTH TONGU DISTRICT OF THE VOLTA REGION

BY

ERNESTINA DORIS AKOSUA PENIANA

Dissertation submitted to the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master's Degree in Educational Administration

JUNE 2010

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work

and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in the university

or elsewhere.

Candidate's signature……………………… Date ……………………………

Name: Ernestina Doris Akosua Peniana

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were

supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation

laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's signature………………………… Date……………………

Name: Mr. S. K. Atakpa

ABSTRACT

The objective of the research was to examine the factors that contributed to the few number of women leaders in educational management in the South Tongu District of the Volta Region. The research was a descriptive survey and data was gathered by means of questionnaires and documentary sources. The population from which the sample was taken was made up of the entire population of teachers and educational administrators in the District. A total of 150 respondents were drawn from Primary, Junior High, Senior High schools and the District Education Office. This included 60 primary school teachers and heads, 45 Junior Secondary School teachers and heads, 30 Senior Secondary School teachers and school heads and 15 respondents from the District Education Directorate. For the purpose of data analysis, simple percentages and descriptive analysis were used.

The study revealed that the low level of education among women contributes significantly to their low representation in the management positions in the Ghana Education Service in the District. This was due to the situation that females are generally under-represented at the tertiary levels of education. This consequently affected the number of qualified women for leadership positions in education in the District. It was recommended that the Girl child Education Unit of the District should embark on a more vigorous campaign to organize regular seminars and workshops to educate parents on the need to send the girl child to school.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation has reached this stage through the assistance of many people. I am therefore grateful to every person who in diverse ways helped in shaping it. I wish to place on record my sincere appreciation to my supervisor, Mr. S. K. Atakpa, who was always ready to assist and direct me. He offered very constructive criticisms and suggestions which were invaluable to the success of this work. My special thanks to all the lecturers at the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration. My appreciation also goes to the South Tongu District Education Directorate who assisted me with the needed information during the administration of my questionnaire. Much gratitude also goes to all Heads of School and teachers in the District for their co-operation during the interview period. I am deeply indebted to Mr. Asiwome Fiawoyife, Mr. Felix Sisiawovor, Mr. Eric Anane, Mordzifa, Tanyetorwo and Fred Peniana who helped in the collection and analysis of the data. Many thanks also go to my course mates, Rev. Daniel Awuah-Gyawu, Mr. Stephen Donyina, Mr. Frank Ayim and Miss Sarah Inkoom who gave me a lot of encouragement during the trying moments when I lost my father while pursuing this course. I am equally grateful to my friends whose encouragement contributed to the successful completion of this work. My deepest appreciation goes to my husband, Mr Emmanuel Aforbu, and my mother, Miss Cate Atsu, who inspired me and supported me financially during this programme. I am very grateful to them for being there for me to see me through the successful completion of my course.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my entire family especially my children,

Mawutor and Sedem.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

There is empirical evidence that there are significantly fewer women than men in managerial positions all over the world (Schaefer, 2005). 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 endeavour cannot be overestimated (Dessler, 2005). In reality however, only few women by their own efforts have risen to managerial levels in the country. The majority of Ghanaian women are still relegated to the background while men occupy the top management position. In Ghana as a whole, there are very few women in leadership positions, only 10% of women are found in leadership positions despite the fact that women form about 51% of the total population of the country (Allah-Mensah, 2005).

According to Sam (2006), a look at the political scene showed that women are underrepresented in power position. As of 2006, out of a total of 230 members of parliament, only 25 were females representing 10.9% .Also, out of a total of 43 ministers in Ghana, only 3 were females, representing 6.9%. She again asserted that, out of 43 Deputy Ministers, only 13 were females constituting 30.2%, while

the Council of State was made up of 25 members and only 3 of them were females just representing 12%.

In a welcome address delivered by Madam Bernice Sam (WILDAF Ghana, 2006) to formally welcome the female parliamentarians of the third parliament of the 4th Republic to the Women's Movement, she noted that all was 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 made reference to the Geneva Based Inter-Parliamentary Union, as of November 30th, 2004, the worldwide ranking of female representation in the legislative was as follows:

Table 1: Worldwide Ranking of Female Representation in the Legislature

Ranking	Country	Total no. of women out of the total no. in Parliament	Percentage
1	Rwanda	39/80	48.8
12	South Africa	131/400	32.8
14	Mozambique	75/250	30
22	Namibia	18/72	25
23	Uganda	75/304	24.7
28	Eritrea	33/150	22
30	Tanzania	63/295	21.4
40	Guinea	22/114	19.3
41	Senegal	23/120	19.3
82	Ghana	19/200	9.5

(SAM, 2006)

Women make up 43% of South African cabinet; the Malawian cabinet has 25% with 33% Deputy Ministers. Ghana's cabinet as of December 2004 was 2/20 which was 10%. As of 2006, Ghana's women representation at the parliament and

cabinet levels has risen to 25/230 (10.9%) and 3/25 (12%) respectively (Sam, 2006). It must be noted that the fewer number of women in leadership positions in general, also persisted in educational management. According to Davies (1992), fewer numbers of women exist in educational management the world over. He observed that even in countries where education is seen as the prerogative of females, women do not participate actively in management.

The advancement of women in the participation in the management of educational institutions in Ghana is also quite low. Only few women are found at the top of the management ladder of Ghana Education Service (G. E. S). They only dominate the nursery and primary schools as teachers and sometimes as heads. Women's dominance at this level is mostly found in the urban areas of the G.E.S. Their numbers decrease gradually as teachers and more drastically as heads as they enter the Junior Secondary School (JSS) level. It is even worse at the Senior Secondary School (SSS) level. At the Teacher Training College (TTC) and Polytechnic levels, the number of female managers is almost insignificant. In fact, it has been observed that female managers in educational institutions bear no relations to the proportion in the teaching force as a whole. Of the 38 TTCs in the country only four have women principals (Institute of Education, 2007).

Even the representation of women at the Regional Directorates of Education in Ghana where there seem to an improvement from the constantly near 0% representation about a decade ago to 40% currently, still the women are on the low side and it is hoped that things would not change negatively in the near future (Ministry of Education, 2003). At the District Directorates of Education women

are still in the minority. An example can be seen at the Volta Region of Ghana (Ministry of Education, 2006). Out of a total of fifteen (15) District Directors only five (5) are females. This is a clear under representation of women in the management of education. Coming to the South Tongu Directorate of the GES, Table 2 shows the level of participation of women in educational management in the district as of March 2006.

Table 2: Teachers at the various level of Education in the South Tongu District

Level	No. of School	MALES No.	%	FEMALES No.	%
Primary	78	206	(64.4%)	114	(35.6%)
J. S. S	40	146	(82.5%)	31	(17.5%)
S. S. S	2	71	(86.6%)	11	(13.4%)
District Office	1	29	(80.6%)	7	(19.4%)

Source: South Tongu Education office, 2006.

It can be seen from table two that, the higher one goes on the educational ladder, the fewer females one finds. For example, out of the eighty eight (88) teachers at the Senior High Schools only eleven (11) are females representing just 13.4%.

A lot of efforts have been made over the years to raise women's educational standards to enable more women assume leadership roles in all aspects of national development. For instance, the introduction of the Accelerated Development Plan in 1951, the Seven-Year Plan for NRCD and the Education Act of 1961 (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1988) have all helped to increase female participation in education at all levels, thereby paving the way for advancement of women in the Ghanaian society and their subsequent rise to leadership positions. Again, tangible measures have been taken to improve gender parity in enrolments. Some of these are appointment of minister responsible for, among other things, girl-child education. Also a girls' Education Unit was established in 1997 to give special emphasis to girls' education (Ministry of Education, 2007). 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 (Allah-Mensah,2005).

Unfortunately all these efforts to raise the image of women in Ghana have not yielded any remarkable result. Many women in the G. E. S of the South Tongu District are still hovering around the bottom line of the Educational Management ladder. The questions one may therefore ask are: why are there only few women in leadership positions; don't they possess the requisite managerial skills or are they content with the positions in which they find themselves? One may also ask whether women do not have the flair at all to become managers in

educational management, is it that opportunities and accessibilities are not there for them to advance themselves or they do not see the need to become managers.

These and many other questions keep on bothering the mind of many people including the researcher. It is against this background that the research delved into the factors that might cause this situation of women in GES in general and the South Tongu District in particular was conducted.

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 of this unfortunate situation. When the number of women holding leadership positions in educational management was compared to men, it was realized that men dominate the management positions in educational institutions and the directorates in Ghana.(South Tongu Education Office,2006) Population census conducted in Ghana in the year 2000 indicates that women constituted about 51% of the total population of about 18 million (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000). In spite of this huge number of women and the fact that some outstanding women held leadership positions within the educational set up, they were under represented in managerial positions in the country as a whole. Most women are found in subordinate positions in most sectors of the economy.

The participation of women in educational management in the Volta Region is quite low (Ministry of Education, 2006). A typical District in the region where this situation prevails is the South Tongu District. Most women in the district are found in subordinate positions. Why is it so? Do women decline to accept responsibilities as leaders in educational management? Is it because they do not have the flair for administrative positions? Are there some forms of discrimination against them by the appointment committees in selecting people to head educational institutions? Or do they not have the requisite qualification to participate in managing educational institutions? Answers to the above questions require an in-depth exploration. These issues made the researcher interested in studying women's participation in educational management.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors that contributed to the few number of women leaders in educational management. The study sought to specifically find out why there were few women Heads for the Primary Schools, Junior High Schools and the Senior High Schools in the South Tongu District. The study, among other things, assessed critically if gender/traditional roles of women were contributing factors to the position of women in their participation of educational management. It also found out if women themselves contributed to the problem of their subordinate role in the management of educational institutions in the district and why only a small number of women are appointed as heads of District Educational offices.

Significance of the Study

The study would significantly contribute to knowledge; especially to the body of knowledge relating to women and educational management. Again the recommendations/suggestions that would be made from the study contribute to the efforts being made to bridge the gap between men and women in the management of educational institutions in the district and the region as a whole. It would also serve as a source of information for policy makers, educationists and organizations to take appropriate decisions to raise the educational standard of women in the district. This would help more women to rise to leadership positions in all sectors of the economy including the educational sector.

In case the study revealed that women themselves in one way or the other contribute to their small number in leadership positions, suggestions and recommendations would be made to help women overcome attitudes and beliefs that prevent them from getting into leadership positions.

Finally, the findings of the study would serve as a source of literature and a guide for persons who would like to research in the same field in future in the region and the country as a whole.

Research Questions

On the basis of the background information to the study, the research was designed to raise the following questions to guide the conduct of the study and bring out the major factors contributing to the low level of women's participation

in the management of educational institutions in the South Tongu District in the Volta Region of Ghana.

1. What factors hinder females' access to leadership positions in the GES in the South Tongu District?

2. What factors do women in the South Tongu District consider as crucial to their low representation in managerial positions?

3. What relationship exist between level of institution of teachers, qualification, age and the factors that hinder women access to managerial positions?

4. What is the level of comparison between factors that males and females consider as crucial in contributing to the low representation of women in managerial positions?

Limitation

One limitation was that even though the district director of Education in the study area is a woman, it was clear that not all the teachers have had close interaction with her and therefore, their responses to the questionnaire may have not come out of first hand knowledge.

Again other data was gathered from documentary sources from the District Education office, however due to problems with records keeping at the office, the available data was not 100% complete. However these limitations did not significantly affect the validity of the results of the study since the percentages of the mentioned inadequacies were few.

Delimitation

The study was limited to only one district of the Volta Region. The district has two (2) Senior High schools, forty (40) Junior High Schools and seventy-eight (78) Primary Schools. Again even though, there are a number of management level positions in the Ghana Education Service, the study limited management to only headship of Basic Schools, Senior High Schools and the District Directorate.

Organisation of the Study

The report consisted 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 and delimitation.

Chapter Two presents the review of available literature relevant to the study. Chapter three outlines the methodology that was employed in the study. The main areas that were discussed in this chapter are the research design, population and sample, the research instruments, the procedures for the collection and analysis of the data. Chapter Four deals with the actual analysis of the data collected and discussion of the data.

Chapter Five presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations as well as suggestions for future research in the district, the region and other regions in the country.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with the review of the related literature that guided the study. It covers works done on women in leadership positions generally and more specifically on educational management. Views of authors who have written about women and leadership are reviewed. The views are broken into various subheadings according to the objective of the study.

Traditional beliefs and Practices/Gender roles and Conflicts

Access to education is the basis of women's status in a given society. Some traditional beliefs and practices and cultural perceptions 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 (Oduro, Dachi & Fertig, 2008).

Santrock (1996) observes that, the society expects that boys should grow up to be masculine and that girls should grow up to be feminine. A well adjusted male is expected to be independent, aggressive, and power oriented, while a well adjusted female is expected to be dependent, nurturing 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 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 paralled the male's purposeful, competent entry into outside world to gain goods for the family; the expressive traits paralleled 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.

Shakeshaft (1989) supports Santrock's assertion that women's 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) also agree to the assertion made by Santrock and Shakeshaft that male-centered cultures invest in males' 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 at most, secretaries. This emphasizes the traditional notion that women play second fiddle to men in positions of management. Thus women in general tend to either not to have a career plan or to embark upon one. Davidson and Cooper's view was based on interviews they had with female managers. They reported that it was the belief of many female managers that large numbers of women just drifted in senior positions without planning their career strategy.

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 socialized 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) also states that, in the People's Republic of China also, the female's status has historically been lower than the male's. Chinese philosopher Confucius was used to reinforce the concept of the female as an inferior being. Santrock asserts that, 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 and 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 state 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 expert girls to be 'ladylike' and praise their daughters for compliance, cooperation and understanding.

Steinberg et al (1991) citing Barnett, indicate that parents expect different levels of academic achievement for their sons and daughters as well. Many mothers and fathers believe that, finishing college and having a successful career are more important for their sons. They also cited Rothbart and Rothbart who also

14

observe that starting with preschool, parents expect greater achievement and more independence from boys.

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 practice 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 by Nayana (1985), Stromquist 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 Africa 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 and adds that this situation is worsened by the fact that many women only enrol in traditionally feminine fields. He 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.

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.

Pearson, West and Turner (1995) also view the under representation of women in management position from the socialization 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 point 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 state that, fathers and mothers communicate somewhat differently in the family. Fathers tend to emphasize independence and talk autonomy, whereas mothers encourage politeness and mutual activities. They observe 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 misbehavior in the family.

Pearson et al (1995) also 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 assert that children in school settings are not only knowledgeable about sex-role stereotypes, but they are also often reinforced for

enacting them. Boys are reinforced for assertive, active learning behaviours, while girls are reinforced for passive, quite 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 indicate that, in the elementary schools, for example, most custodians are male; nurses, teachers lunchroom workers are females; and principals are males, although 80% of elementary school teachers are women.

Referring to a study conducted by Caldecott, Medal, and Cooper, Pearson et al (1995) state the several conclusions indicate gender stereotyping in the society. These include:

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.

Pearson et al concluded 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 woman 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 schooling. 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.

Kelly and Nehlin (1982) observe 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. For where women carry the main burden of dependence is the balancing of different role responsibilities which they could have applied in managing institutions. It is rather experience by the women as a source of pressure. A move into management is then seen as compounding the role conflict.

Shakeshaft (1989) observes that women generally, will not be promoted because of domestic responsibilities. She provides evidence for 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, 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 and Gunawardena (1992) support Shakeshaft's view that the gender role of women is a hindrance to their advancement to leadership positions. He observes that a common phenomenon in any sphere is the concept of the female as related to ''family''. Davies 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.

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 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 (UNESCO, 1993).

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 account for the small number of women in leadership positions.

Dolphyne (1991) on her part, asserts that women's level of literacy in Ghana on the whole is low, so the few educated women tend to be concentrated in certain areas namely teaching and nursing. Dirasse (1991) agrees with this view and argues that school curricula, career guidance and counselling services in schools tend to channel girls into traditional female fields. In this way, education coupled with women's level of participation, tend to legitimize 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 because it is assumed that, they lack the qualities that are essential for successful managerial careers.

In a UNESCO research on women in Higher Education Management in 1993, it came out that, in University of South Pacific, girls are outnumbered by boys three to one in all courses and four to one in degree programmes. Again, women are not encouraged to study at the tertiary level because the family role is assumed to be paramount. It also concluded that the significance of the male as the bearer of the family name is equally considered when choices are to made about who is to be educated and identifies cultural and religious values as factors which affect female education. The findings indicated that in the Arab states, cultural and religious   norms lead to strict segregation of the sexes at school and at work, with girls taught in single-sex schools by female staff and restricted to a

21

curriculum which favours home economics more than science and mathematics. As a result, girls are not prepared for full and equal participation in the workforce and there by limits their career horizons (UNESCO, 1993).

Stromquist (1989) indicates that parents so rely on girls for domestic help and that results in poor attendance and this in turn leads to low academic performance, which often results in grade repetition or dropping out among girls. He contends that the financial well being of the family greatly affects the participation of female students. He cites an example of Kenya where if parents cannot pay the school fees they keep the female children at home.

Similarly, a study of Benin's Primary and Secondary School Students by Houeto cited by Stromquist also shows that in rural areas, parents are more willing to pay school fees for boys than for girls. Women's responsibilities at home are seen as 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, Stromquist views the level of parents' education to that of their children's education. He indicates that researchers have shown that the higher the education of parents the greater their tendency to favour education of their daughters. He indicates that a survey of 1700 husbands and wives conducted in urban and rural areas in Egypt found that the two most consistent factors were the educational aspirations of the father and those of the mother.

Pra (1992) 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 he 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. 37% on the other hand 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.

Pra 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, as the fear of   distance of girls is related not to physical safety but to fears of sexual assault that might make them lose their virginity.
Citing a study of 1, 903 households in the Philippines by King (1973) Pra 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. Pra 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.

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 indicate 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 proportioned.

They further state 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 report that women tend to look at position in terms of short-run rather than long-term carrier goals that marital status tends to hinder women in managerial roles. This makes married women less willing to spend extra hours on the jobs, to travel or to engage in other unusual job requirements. Again, they believe women appear to be more nervous and less self confident during interviews than men.

Pearson et al (1995) also assert that, in the past, employers have been determined to hire men rather than women because of sexism. The tendency in these cases has been to lose women with unique capabilities and special experiences.   It is bewildering therefore that; 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 state that, our ultimate goal should be to reject errors in judgment unfairly favouring either women or men. It is evident; moreover, that large institutions and business can do a great deal to reduced the adverse effect of sexual stereotyping in hiring practices.

According to Deaux cited in Pearson et al (1995) he also supports the view that women are discriminated against. He states that both women and men may perceive themselves differently as managers. Women may perceive additional problems in their jobs that men do 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.

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 points out that for part of the time each month, women are not at their physical best, for headaches, indisposition and the pain that sometimes, accompany menstruation. This has led to hasty generalizations irrespective of the fact that these 5 or 6 days of discomfort have never prevented housewives, servants, female workers and female administrators from carrying out their regular duties without flinching.

Situation analysis of children and women in Ghana (UNICEF, 1990) reveals that most establishments organize in-service training programmes for their employees. In theory, all categories of employees have equal access to in-service training relevant to their rank and position. However, the majority of 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, employer's prejudices, the demands of marriage and convention notices of what is fit and proper behaviour for married women all combine to place women at a disadvantage.

In reporting possible factors for the under-representation of women at the top level management, Thaman and Pillay (UNESCO,1993) observed that few women hold senior management positions at the University of South Pacific because there is no policy relating specifically to preparing women to take on such tasks. They stated that the charter of University of South Pacific precludes any form of discrimination on the basis of sex, ethnicity and religion, the assumption being 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 suggest that there should be a strong staff training programme aimed at assisting more women to improve their knowledge and skills.

According to Stromquist (1993), 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 and for her role as in providing food, cooking, fetching water and fuel-wood, washing, taking 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 made in the journal is reinforced by social, cultural and religious beliefs that women's inability to participate fully in leadership positions demand for example, that men be served the best food and be free from certain tasks. Even where the women are heads of households they are expected to refer issues relating to their children to a male kin, which is a form of discrimination against women.

Adoo-Adeku (1992) citing Date-Bah's 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. Adoo-Adeku 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.

Biklen and Brannigan (1980) state that not only is a strong cultural norm that encourages one to seek managerial positions and discourages women from the same attempts found but the study also reveals that differential treatment is given males and females when appointing them to administrative positions. They continue 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 conclude that women are not under represented 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 refer to 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 point out that, to be appointed to an administrative position, women teachers must possess superior qualification and skills. They suggest that since women's needs are similar to men's in those areas generally regarded as competence areas for administrators and managers, they must also be given training and advancement opportunities throughout their careers to prepare them for new challenges and a changing world. They point out that women need to be viewed and respected as persons with varied strength and weaknesses.

Female-created Problems/restraints

Rimmer and Davies (1985) indicate that women themselves are to be blamed for their small number in administrative position. They describe this sort of thinking as the "victim-blaming model".

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 contend 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 socializing their children, women pass on norms that work against their own interest as women.

Davies and Gunawardena (1992) also observed that women conform to stereotyped gender roles which are counseling, hospitality and support services. He adds 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. Many female teachers take leadership positions in activities in schools but will not do so in the community. Shakeshaft points out that many women either do not see themselves as school administrators or lack confidence to pursue such an end. Shakeshaft concludes 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 (1995) point out that men may be more assertive or aggressive in their interactions with others and thus, 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 indicate that female bosses say their biggest barriers are insecurity and "being a woman". In a study they conducted on whether barriers to women had fallen at the senior management level, 63% of the women said No. 70% said women don't receive equal pay for comparable jobs. Most female executives mentioned "being a woman" as their major career obstacle, citing "the old boy network", "insecure

men" and the attitude that they are "too good looking to be taken seriously or will run off and get married as their problems at their work places.

After "being a woman", lack of confidence was most frequently cited as the main obstacle to success. They point 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 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. Setiadarma 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 realize her own aspirations. She concludes that women themselves seem to help prevent their own advancement.

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 counseling is a possible strategy to improve the lot of women, and 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 state 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) assert that organizing 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 a number of suggestions to increase the number of women in management positions. Among these suggestion were the need for the education sector in various countries to gives priority to the re-admission of "mother – girls" into the formal educational system.

Also they concluded that courses must be organized in both in-service and pre-service teacher education programmes to sensitize teachers to their role in promoting the education and status of girls. To obtain the desired results, it was agreed that teachers must be given incentives to boost their morale so that they will be interested in issues about girls' education.

It was again suggested that efforts be made to recruit more female teachers. Since the presence of female teachers in schools will provide the impetus to girls' enrolment and attendance in areas where parents do not wish to

send their girls to male teachers. Again, the female teachers may discourage the molestation of girls by male teachers and provide the girls with role models. The parents were also to be encouraged to participate in school life so as to maintain regular attendance of their daughters in schools.

Hammoud (1993) also suggests that, as women are under- represented 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, and to convince them 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.

Teather(1979) indicates that women can attain top management positions when they receive equal attention from researchers, earn equal salaries, attain equal proportion of all the jobs-salaried and honorary- and doing only half the domestic work in the society. He states that, this is important because one cannot be a Dean of Faculty, President of an Association or Director of an institution if one has all the childcare, all the cooking, all the care of aged parents, all the housework and all the domestic planning on one's shoulders. Teather therefore points out that a woman's proper place in education is one of equality, but that can only be achieved when man's place in the house becomes one of equality too.

She concludes that women's place in education will be nearer when mothercare is renamed Parentcare.

Summary

The literature reviewed above has been an attempt to present the views of different authors on issues concerning women's access and participation in education, level of education of women and factors that militate against the progression of many women to top management positions in education. The indication is 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. Further 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 was realized that various authors have various views on the causes of women's level of participation in the management of organizations including educational institutions. The major issue unattended to in the review is whether the factors identified by the writers could be applied to the situation in the South Tongu District of the Volta Region.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design, the target population and the selected sample. It outlines the development and design of the instrument and methods used to administer the questionnaire. It also discusses the method adopted in carrying out the data collection and the statistical method use to analyse the data.

Research Design

The research was a descriptive survey. A descriptive survey design was used to collect data for this survey, so that inferences would be made about characteristics, attitudes and behaviour of the population with respect to the sample size. According to Best and Kahn (1995) descriptive survey is concerned with the conditions or relationship that exist, such as determining the nature of prevailing conditions, practices and attitudes, opinions that are held, processes that are going on or trends that are developed. They further stated that, descriptive survey affords the opportunity to select a sample from the population being studied and then generalises from the sample of the study. It was therefore expedient to use the descriptive survey to find out why women are under-represented in the management of educational institutions.

Population

The population from which the sample was taken was made up of the entire teachers and educational administrators in the South Tongu District of the Volta Region. The population consisted of both male and female teachers and heads of Primary Schools, Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools and teachers at the District Directorate of Education. Assistant Directors at the various institutions and the District Director were also included.

The district has 7 circuits and in other to get a fair representation of the district, schools were selected from all the 7 circuits. Names of all the schools in the district were obtained from the district office. It was observed that, there is no tertiary institution in the district; therefore, the study did not cover any tertiary institution.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The two Senior High Schools, ten Junior High Schools and fifteen Primary Schools in the district were selected for the study. In addition to the schools, the district education directorate was also included in the study.

First the population was stratified into the different educational levels. The stratification brought about 4 different strata comprising Senior High Schools, Junior High Schools, Primary Schools and the District Education Office. Samples were selected from these groups using sampling techniques that were considered appropriate.

Since there are only two Senior High Schools in the district, they were purposively sampled in order to ensure that views from that educational level

were obtained on the study. After the two schools had been purposively sampled, 15 teachers were randomly selected from each of the 2 schools, making a total of 30 teachers.

The district office was also purposively sampled since that also represents one unique section of the district education directorate. Out of the 70 officers at the office, 15 officers were randomly sampled using the systematic random sampling technique. However the District Director was purposively sampled since she was the only one in that level of management position.

n the case of the Junior High and Primary Schools the cluster sampling technique was used to group them into 7 clusters which were the same as the 7 circuits that were there. From each of the clusters, one school was randomly selected from the primary and the Junior High Schools respectively. In each of the sampled schools, all the teachers found in the school during the visit were sampled for the study. This was done to ensure that the female teachers would not stand the risk of not being selected since there were few and would have been at a disadvantage if any random sampling method had been used. A total sample size of 150 respondents, were chosen.

A breakdown of the respondents is as follows:

Table 3: The distribution of the sample

Level	Total No. of Subjects	Sampled No. of Subjects
Primary School Teachers	320	60
JHS Teachers	177	45
SHS Teachers	82	30
District Educ. Directorate	35	14
District Director of Educ.	1	1
Total	615	150

Source: South Tongu Education Office, 2006.

Research Instruments

The technique used in gathering data was based on the questionnaire and documentary sources. The questionnaire items were mostly close-ended type to enable the respondents to respond to the items without much difficulty and to enable the researcher to have easy analysis of the data. There were however, some few open-ended questions to allow respondents to express their views on those issues that could allow for divergent responses.

The instruments were researcher designed. The questionnaire was designed basically for professional teachers, Heads of institutions, Assistant Directors and Directors .The questionnaire consisted of 35 major items which were broken in three sections.

The first section, which was captioned general information, requested for respondents' personal data. These included sex, age, marital status, level of education, professional qualification and the level of institution in which the

respondent is working/teaching. The second section of the questionnaire sought the respondents' views on whether there were some factors that hinder their easy access to the management position in the district. Among the questions were religious commitments, inadequate funds for higher education, health problems, discrimination and stereotyped gender roles. These items were specifically asked to find out the degree of hindrance respondents encounter in striving to get to the management level in the district.

The third section was designed to find out the factors contributing to the low representation of women in the management position in the G. E. S. Factors such as religious teaching that present women as subordinates, early marriage/pregnancy, appointment committee discriminating against women, women discouraging their fellow women were among the questions asked in this section.

The likert scale was assigned to the items in the second and the third sections. In the second section, respondents were expected to rate their response using the options (1) Disagree and (2) Agree. The third section on the other hand used the options (1) Very Crucial (2) Crucial (3) less crucial and (4) not crucial. The second part of the third section of the questionnaire was mostly open-ended questions. This was deliberately done to allow respondents to express their views freely and objectively. They were asked to share their opinions on any other factor they think contribute to women's low representation in educational management and their gender preference for prospective employees at their schools or offices.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

To ensure the validity and reliability of the instruments, they were scrutinized by the researcher's supervisor and colleagues. In addition, the questionnaire was field tested in the North Tongu District. The district was selected because it was considered as sharing similar characteristics with the sampled district for the actual study.

The questionnaires that were answered were coded and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16. The crombach alpha statistical measure was used and this had reliability co-efficient of 0.78. The pretest was also to help reveal ambiguities and poorly constructed questions. Suggestions from the respondents and the researcher's supervisor prompted alterations in the structure and content of the instrument.

Procedure for Data Collection

To ensure a high return rate, the researcher personally took the instruments to the various schools and the District Education Office, together with two research assistants who helped her to administer the questionnaire. The questionnaires were administered within a period of three weeks instead of the two weeks originally planned. This was because the researcher could not meet all the respondents within the scheduled period.

Respondents were either not present at the time of the visit or were engaged individually and therefore could not be interviewed.

The researcher distributed the questionnaires among respondents in the various schools, discussed and explained the filling with respondents and gave

them ample time to complete the filling. The researcher did not leave the instruments behind. They were taken back the same day. This enabled the researcher to obtain a 100 percent return rate though it was attained with same level of difficulty. Most of the respondents were not readily willing to complete the questionnaire and needed to be persuaded or appealed to before they responded. In most cases it was discovered that, it was rather the female teachers who were reluctant to fill the questionnaire. It was detected that, after receiving the questionnaire back, some of the respondents did not provide answers to some of the items and the researcher had to make another trip to those schools concerned for the rest of the questions to be completed.

Data Analysis

Simple percentages and descriptive analysis were used to analyse the distribution on sex, age, marrital status, professional and academic qualifications of respondents. An independent t-test was also used to analyse factors that hindered respondents' access to management positions, factors contributing to low representation of women in management positions, reasons for gender preference in recruitment and appointments, and other variables requested for.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter contains the analyses of the data collected on the field and the discussion of the data. The analyses were presented in tables.

Background Information

Table 4: Institutions of respondents by Gender

Level of institution in which you are working/teaching	Gender		Total
	Male No (%)	Female No (%)	No (%)
Primary	22 (36.7%)	38 (63.3%)	60 (40.0%)
Junior High School	33 (73.3%)	12 (26.7%)	45 (30.0%)
Senior High School	24 (80.0%)	6 (20.0%)	30 (20.0%)
District Directorate	9 (60.0%)	6 (40.0%)	15 (10.0%)
Total	88(58.7%)	62(41.3%)	150 (100.0%)

Table 4 showed the breakdown of the respondents. A total of 150 respondents were chosen at random from the South Tongu District. The males constitute the majority with a total of 88(58.7%) with the women being 62.(41.3) The highest number of respondents was drawn from the primary level with a total of 60, 22(36.7%) are males and 38(63.3%) are females. Forty-five were chosen from JHS with33 (73.5%) being males and 12(26.7%) being females. Thirty were drawn from SHS out of which 24(80.0%) are males and 6(20.0%) are females.

Fifteen respondents were taken from the District Directorate of which 9(60.2%) are males and 6(40.0%) are females. From the data presented above it was evident that there were more females than males at the primary level but as one moved up the ladder the number of women decreased as that of the men increased.

Age of Respondents by Gender

The ages of respondents as distributed by gender are as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Age of Respondents by Gender

Age	Gender		Total
	Male No (%)	Female No (%)	No (%)
20-29	20(48.8%)	21(51.2%)	41(27.3%)
30-39	30(63.8%)	17(36.2%)	47(31.3%)
40-49	24(66.7%)	12(33.3%)	36(24.0%)
50+	14(53.8%)	12(46.2%)	26(17.3%)
Total			150(100.0%)

The age ranges of the respondents were as follows: 20-29years, 30-39years, 40-49years, and 50years and above. Forty one (27.3%) of the respondents fell within the range of 20-29years. Of this total number, 20 (48.8%) were males and 21 (51.2%) were females. There were 47(31.3%) respondents in the range of 30-39 of which 30(63.8%) were males and 17(36.2%) were females. The membership of the range 40-49 with a percentage of 24 was distributed as follows: 24(66.7%) males and 12(33.3%) females.

Respondents' marital status

Data on the marital status of respondents were gathered as part of the background information. This is presented in table 6.

Table 6: Respondents Marital Status by Gender

Marital Status	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Single	24(57.1%)	18 (42.9%)	42 (28.0%)
Married	61(61.6%)	38 (38.4%)	99 (66.0%)
Single Parent	2(33.3%)	4 (66.7%)	6 (4.0%)
Separated/ Divorced	1(33.3%)	2(66.7%)	3(2.0%)
Total			150(100.0%)

Table 6 which indicates the marital status of the respondents showed that out of the total of 150 respondents, 42 (28.0%) of them were single. Out of this number, 24(42.9%) were males and 18(42.9%) were females.

Also it indicated that 99(66%) were married. Again out of this number 61(61.6) were males and 38(38.4%) were females. Also there were 6(4%) single parents consisting of 2(33.3%) males and 4(66.7%) females. In all 3(2%) of the respondents were either divorced or separated thus and out of this number 1(33.3%) was a male and 2(66.6%) were females.

Educational Level of Respondents

The highest educational qualification of the respondents was also collected. The data is presented in table 7.

Table 7: Level of Education by Gender

Level of Education	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
	No (%)	No (%)	No (%)
Certificate A/4 year Post secondary school	47(50.0%)	47(50.0%)	94(62.7%)
Diploma	6(50.0%)	6(50.0%)	12(8.0%)
PGDE	4(100.0%)	0(0.0%)	4(2.7%)
BA/Bed/BFA/Bsc	25(68.6%)	9(31.4%)	34(42.9%)
MEd	2(100.0%)	0(0.0%)	2(1.3%)
Other specify	4(100.0%)	0(0.0%)	4(2.7%)
Total			150(100.0%)

As shown in Table 7, 62.7% of the respondents holds Certificate A/4 year Post secondary while 42.9% had a Bachelor of Education (B.E.d) degree, Bachelor of Arts (BA) , Bachelor of Fine Art (BFA) or a Bachelor of Science (Bsc.). 2% had a Master's Degree in Education or Master of Philosophy (M.E.d/M.phil). This indicates that majority of the teachers in the district are Certificate A/4 year Post secondary holders

Research Question One: What factors hinder females' access to leadership positions in the GES in the South Tongu District?

This question sought to find out the factors that serve as hindrances to female getting managerial positions in GES in the district. The analyses of the responses are as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Factors that Hinder Females Access to Management Positions in GES at South Tongu District

Factors	Agree	Disagree
	No (Percentage)	No (Percentage)
Religious affiliation/commitment	25 (40.3%)	37 (59.7%)
Low level of education	36 (58.1%)	26 (41.9%)
Lack of opportunity for further education	26 (41.9%)	36 (58.1%)
Health problems	26 (41.9%)	36 (58.1%)
Gender discrimination	34 (54.8%)	28 (45.2%)
Early socialization problems	27 (43.5%)	35 (56.5%)
Stereotyped gender roles	32 (51.6%)	30 (48.4%)

As shown in Table 8, majority (59.7%) of the female respondents disagree that religious affiliation/commitment hinders female access to managerial positions in the district. The female respondents did not agree with the fact that lack of opportunity for further education is a hindrance to their access to managerial position. Thirty-six (58.1%) of the female respondents form the above opinion.

However, the same percentage of female respondents (58.1%) agreed that low level of education among women hinders their access to management position in the GES. From this one can deduce that most women in the District will rather settle for teaching mostly at the basic levels rather than pursue higher academic laurels. It was clear from the research that women have not taken the

initiative of pursuing further education though they have the opportunity. In response to whether lack of opportunity to further education is a factor that inhibits women access to GES management position, only 15(%) women agree or strongly agree with the assertion with 36 (%) of the women disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with the assertion. It stands to reason then that most of the respondents either disagree or strongly disagree that lack of opportunity for further studies is not a hindrance to accessing management position in the GES. This limits their chances of participating in management positions in the GES in the District. This finding agrees with Dolphyne (1991) who asserts that women's level of literacy in Ghana on the whole is low, so the few educated women tend to be concentrated in certain areas namely teaching and nursing. Gaertner (1978) also 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 this account for the small number of women in leadership positions.

This is shared by Anamuah -Mensah (1995) who 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. This view is further shared by Gaertner (1978) who 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

47

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 this account for the small number of women in leadership positions.

Probably the reason for this development is captured by Stromquist (1989). He indicates that parents so rely on girls for domestic help and that results in poor attendance and this in turn leads to low academic performance, which often results in grade repetition or dropping out among girls. He contends that the financial well being of the family greatly affects the participation of female students. He indicated that in Kenya when parents cannot pay the school fees they keep the female children at home. This view is largely the perfect picture of what pertains in the South Tongu District where parents are mostly peasants and or traders. These parents normally require the services of the females to assist in marketing farm produce. As most of these products like okro, tomatoes, onions and garden eggs are easily perishable, pressure is put on the girls to forfeit school for days, weeks and sometimes for a whole season in order to sell the products round markets in and outside the district. The effect is that most of these girls get used to the long absence from school and school gradually becomes a remote part of their lives and they tend to settle to the routine of moving from market to market and most often make careers out of this.

Stromquist (1989) also states that in rural areas, parents are more willing to pay school fees for boys than for girls. Women's responsibilities at home are seen as 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, Stromquist (1989) views the level of parents' education to that of their children's education. He indicates that researchers have shown that the higher the education of parents the greater their tendency to favour education of their daughters. He indicates that in urban and rural areas in Egypt the two most consisted factors found were the educational aspirations of the father and those of the mother. Again, majority of the female respondents (54.8%) agree with the assertion that discrimination against women hinders their access to management position in the district. This supports Pearson et al (1995) assertion that employers have been determined to hire men rather than women because of some factors of sexism. They further explain that the tendency in these cases has been to lose women with unique capabilities.

This view is also strengthened by the findings of Adoo-Adeku (1992) on sex inequalities in urban employment in Ghana which indicated 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. Adoo-Adeku observes that sex stereotyping stems

49

largely from cultural practices and socialisation based upon roles and statutes of the sexes. He concludes that some employers discriminate against women when appointing officers to leadership roles solely for fear of reasons stated above.

Biklen and Brannigan (1980) state that not only is a strong cultural norm that encourages one to seek managerial positions and discourages women from the same attempts found but the study also reveals that differential treatment is given males and females when appointing them to administrative positions. They continue 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 conclude that women are not under represented in leadership positions because they are less competent or less qualified than men but it is simply because women are discriminated against.

In the case of stereo-typed gender roles being a hindrance, most of the respondents did not share this opinion. 32(51.6%) respondents agreed with the notion while 30(48.4%) disagreed on it. This is an indication that the female respondents were not in support of the idea that stereo-typed gender roles hinder their access to management positions in the GES in the district. This runs contrary to Santrock (1996) in his observation 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 socialized 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) also states that, in the People's Republic of China, the female's status has historically been lower than the male's. 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 and 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 et al (1991) state that, traditionally in Western society, masculinity and femininity were considered opposites. Independence, competitiveness, self confidence, strength and dominance were masculine traits. Both mothers and fathers reward their sons by approval, encouragement and other positive reinforcement for being competitive, achieving independence and responsibility. On the other hand, gentleness, helpfulness, kindness, empathy, being appreciative and sentimentality were feminine traits. Parents expert girls to be 'ladylike' and praise their daughters for compliance, cooperation and

understanding. This supports Lee and Cropper's (1974) support of 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 schooling. 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. This view is further buttressed by the female respondents in answer to whether early socialization is a factor that limits women's access to GES management positions. 35(56.4%) out of the 62 women do not share this view as against the 13(20.9%) that uphold the view.

It is clear from the responses that majority of the females consider gender discrimination, low level of education and stereotyped gender roles as the main factors that are responsible for the low representation of women in managerial positions in GES in the South Tongu District.

Research Question Two: What factors do women in the district consider as crucial to their low representation in managerial positions?

This question was asked to find out factors women consider crucial to the low representation in the GES of the South Tongu District. Table 9 presents the results.

Table 9: Factors females consider Crucial to Low Representation of Women in Management Positions in GES at South Tongu District

STATEMENT	Very Crucial No (%)	Crucial No (%)	Less Crucial No (%)	Not Crucial No (%)
Religious teachings that present women as subordinates to men	18 (29.0)	12 (19.4)	11 (17.7)	21 (33.9)
Early marriage/teenage pregnancy	18 (29.0)	16 (25.8)	19 (30.6)	9 (14.5)
Women's preference for housework	15 (24.2)	15 (24.2)	17 (27.4)	15 (24.2)
A woman's office is the kitchen	10 (16.1)	14 (22.6)	19 (30.6)	19 (30.6)
Women are not assertive	10 (16.1)	22 (35.5)	13 (21.0)	17 (27.4)
Parents' unwillingness to educate girls	17 (27.4)	23 (37.1)	16 (25.8)	16 (9.7)
Discrimination against women	19 (30.6)	11 (17.7)	22 (35.5)	10 (16.1)
Women in leadership are feel bossy	28 (45.2)	14 (22.6)	13 (21.0)	7 (11.3)
Women are not accommodative	11 (17.7)	17 (27.4)	19 (30.6)	15 (24.2)
Women discourage women	12 (19.4)	23 (37.1)	14 (22.6)	13 (21.0)
Low percentage of women in the GES	16 (25.8)	19 (30.0)	12 (19.4)	15 (24.2)

The table 9 indicates that 18(29%) of the respondents believe that early marriage or teenage pregnancy is a very crucial factor responsible for the low representation of women in the GES in the South Tongu District and 16(25.8%) consider it as crucial. This view is shared by Stromquist(1989) who 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. Stromquist indicates that parents withdraw their daughters from school when they see education as conflicting with marriage. Stromquist further points out those practices such as bride's wealth and dowry in several Africa 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 and adds that this situation is worsened by the fact that many women only enroll in traditionally feminine fields. He 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.

The researcher's observation reveals that most of the lady teachers who graduate from Teacher Training Colleges have marriage and settling down as their foremost plans than plans of pursuing further studies. In a survey of 20 lady teachers posted to the District capital within the last two years, as many as 15 plan

to get married first before considering further studies. Most often those who take this course do not go for further studies due to the demands of marriage. They tend to be content with the teaching job and catering for the family. Similarly, girls who drop out of school due to teenage pregnancy seldom go back after delivery. Most settle for petty trading or undergoing vocational training. The effect of this is not just the reduction in number of women in the GES but it serve to breed complacency in those women who may strive to climb up the academic ladder a bit further. This is because they have very few women to compare themselves to and as they see their lot a bit better than most of their kind they feel satisfied and do not entertain any idea of seeking managerial positions.

A child's education primarily starts with the decision of the parents to educate or not to educate her. Some cultural practices or social norms tend to work against parents decision to educate their children especially the girl child. The question therefore sought to find out how crucial the unwillingness of parents to send the girl child to school a factor that hinder female access to managerial positions in the GES.

Seventeen (27.4%) of the respondents consider this as very crucial and 23(37.1%) think it is crucial. This point of view tallies with Stromquist's (1989) contention that the financial well being of the family greatly affects the participation of female students. Stromquist also indicated that in rural areas, parents are more willing to pay school fees for boys than for girls. Women's responsibilities at home are seen as 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.

Pra (1992) 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 he 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. 37% on the other hand thought that educated girls would not be good mothers because they tended to respect less tradition, parents, and husbands and did not work as hard for their families as they should.

There is a general perception that women in leadership position tend to be bossy. The question was therefore asked to find how this serves as an impediment to female access to management position in the GES. 42(67.8) of the respondents hold this opinion which supports researchers like Pearson et al (1995). They point out that men may be more assertive or aggressive in their interactions with others and thus, 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 indicate 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. 70% said women don't receive equal pay for comparable jobs. Most female executives mentioned "being a woman" as their major career obstacle, citing "the old boy network", "insecure men" and the attitude that they are "too good looking to be taken seriously or will run off and get married as their problems at their work places.

After "being a woman", lack of confidence was most frequently cited as the main obstacle to success. They point 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".

This contrary opinion is also upheld by Setaiadarma (UNESCO, 1993) who observes that the most fatal "internal" obstacle which keeps a woman cornered and prevents her from becoming her full self is what Colette Dowling 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. Setiadarma 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 realize her own aspirations. She concludes that women themselves seem to help prevent their own advancement.

The researcher thinks there are two likely reasons for this contradiction. First is the possibility that some women, knowing well the perception that women are not assertive, would like to show a difference. In doing this they end up

overdoing it hence the opinion that they are bossy. Another factor is that because of male dominance in management positions the entrance of a female into that domain may be regarded as "abnormal". Therefore, people who do not feel comfortable with this tend to be overly critical and brand the least attempt to be assertive as being bossy.

The data revealed that factors like the assertion that women in leadership are bossy, the discrimination by appointment committees, early marriage/pregnancy, unwillingness of parents to send the girl child to school and the low percentage of women in the GES are factors women consider as crucial to the low representation of women in the GES.

Research Question Three: What relationship exist between level of institution of teachers, qualification, age and the factors that hinder women access to managerial positions?

This question was asked to find out whether some level of relationship existed between variables like the level of institution of teachers, qualification, age and the factors that hinder women access to managerial positions in the South Tongu district.

Table 10: Relationship between Age, Professional Qualification, Level of Institution and Factors that Hinder Access to Managerial Positions

Variables	LI	OVF	PQ
OVF	.396*		
PQ	.537*	.238*	
AGE	.367*	.268*	.275*
R Square		.174	

*$p < 0.05$

OVF = Overall factor that hinders females access to managerial positions

PQ = Professional Qualification

LI = Level of institution in which you are working/teaching

As shown in Table 10, the analysis of the data revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the level one teachers and the factors that hinder female access to managerial positions in the district($r = 0.396$, $\underline{p} <$ 0.05). More so, a significant relationship was found between one's professional qualification and factors that hinder females' access to managerial positions, $r = 0.238$ and $r^2 = 0.49$, which means that one's professional qualification explains about 49% of the problems females encounter in trying to access managerial positions in South Tongu district.

This agrees with Anamuah-Mensah (1995) who 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.

The assertion is further supported by the findings of Gaertner (1978) who 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 account for the small number of women in leadership positions.

Research Question Four: What factors do both males and females consider as crucial in contributing to the low representation of women in managerial positions?

This research question sought to find out the factors both males and females consider as crucial in determining the representation of women in managerial positions in the districts.

The opinions of the respondents were measured on a three point Likert scale and coded as 1 = not crucial, 2 = crucial and 3= very crucial. The responses were analyzed and a cut off point of 1-1.4 = not crucial, 1.5-2.4 = crucial 2.5 and above = very crucial were used for the interpretation of the means as shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Factors females consider Crucial to Low Representation of Women in Management Positions in GES at South Tongu District

Factors	Mean	SD
religious teachings that presents women as subordinates to men	2.29	1.179
early marriage/pregnancy	2.70	1.122
women's preference of caring for their family	2.60	1.023
the belief that a woman's place is the kitchen	2.45	1.033
the fact that women are not assertive	2.08	1.052
the unwillingness of parents to send the girl child to school	2.38	1.047
discrimination against women by appointment committees	2.84	1.017
assertion that women in leadership position feel bossy	2.46	1.093

Table 11 cont'd

assertion that women in general are not accommodative	1.99	0.933
the belief that women discourage their fellow women	2.68	0.985
the low percentage of women in GES	2.37	1.020

In general, the respondents considered most of the factors studied as crucial with a mean of 2.50 and a standard deviation of 0.571. Specifically, the respondents considered the following factors as very crucial in determining the low representation of women in GES in South Tongu District:

1. Early marriage and pregnancy

2. Unwillingness on the part of parents to send the girl child to school

3. The assertion that women themselves are not accommodating.

On the issue of early marriage and pregnancy as a factor, even though male respondents appeared to have a higher mean (2.70) than female respondents ($\underline{M}$ = 2.69), an independent t-test conducted shows no significant difference ($\underline{t}$ (148) = 0.059, $\underline{p}$ >0.05) in the means, hence, both male and female respondents consider this factor as crucial. This view is shared by Stromquist (1989) who 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, Stromquist 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 Africa and

Asian countries prompt low-income parents to marry their daughters early to collect money through dowry.

Again, both males and females did not differ on factors such as unwillingness on the part of parents to send the girl child to school and the assertion that women themselves are not accommodating. (See appendix B) On the assertion that women themselves are not accommodating as a factor the male respondents have higher mean (M =2.73, SD =.944) than the females (M=2.61, SD=1.046). On the issue of unwillingness of parents to send their girl child to school as a factor the male respondents appear to have a higher mean (M=2.84, SD =1.017) than the females (M=2.82,SD=.950 but there is no significant difference in the means consequently both male and female correspondents agree that it is a crucial factor.

This view is also upheld by Stromquist (1989) who indicates that parents so rely on girls for domestic help and that results in poor attendance and this in turn leads to low academic performance, which often results in grade repetition or dropping out among girls. He contends that the financial well being of the family greatly affects the participation of female students.

Stromquist also indicates that in rural areas, parents are more willing to pay school fees for boys than for girls. Women's responsibilities at home are seen as 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. This is consistent with Steinberg et al (1991) who indicate that parents expect different levels of academic achievement for their sons and daughters as well. Many mothers and

fathers believe that, finishing college and having a successful career are more important for their sons.

Rothbart and Rothbart (1976) also observe that starting with preschool; parents expect greater achievement and more independence from boys. Consequently more attention is given to the boy child education much to the detriment of the girl child. The situation is not different in the South Tongu District. A survey conducted by the researcher on the wayside sellers in the District notably from Dabala, Sogakope and Sokpoe revealed that girls outnumber boys 10 to 3 in the wayside business. These children are often found selling fried turkey tail, fried oyster, bread, local starch biscuits and fried lobsters during school hours. Interaction with most of them revealed that they do this to support their parents and to pay their school fees. The male female ratio for the adults is rather interesting. The females outnumber the males by 10 to 1. The researcher found out that what accounts for this is the fact that most parents and guardians would rather take their boys off the street to school if they can afford it because they think the girls may get pregnant and drop out anyway. Also the males somehow manage to further their education on their own while the females who do not receive any support from any source settle for this business as their career.

However, with a mean (M =1.99, SD=.993) the respondents do not consider the assertion that women in leadership positions feel bossy as a crucial factor. This agrees with Setaiadarma (UNESCO, 1993) who observes that the most fatal "internal" obstacle which keeps a woman cornered and prevents her from becoming her full self is what Colette Dowling 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. Shakeshaft (1987) points out that many women either do not see themselves as school administrators or lack confidence to pursue such an end. Shakeshaft concludes 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 (1995) point out that men may be more assertive or aggressive in their interactions with others and thus, emerge more frequently as leaders while women reveal more information about their feelings, beliefs and concerns than men and are more person-oriented. From the research it is clear that factors such as early marriage/pregnancy, unwillingness of parents to send the girl child to school and women in general not being accommodative are considered by both males and females as crucial in contributing to the low representation of women in managerial positions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The objective of the research is to attempt to decipher the main factors that restrain female participation in educational management in the South Tongu District of the Volta region of Ghana. Generally the research was geared towards finding out if any of the factors such as level of education, lack of interest on the part of females, traditional or cultural practices, religious teachings, gender or traditional roles, women discouraging fellow women, women not being assertive, early socialization problems and discrimination against women is solely responsible for the low representation of women in GES management in the South Tongu District of the Volta region. The underlining factor is to enable the researcher to make recommendations as to how to improve the situation of women in management positions in the District as well as expose its implication for further research.

The study specifically found out why there are few women in management positions of the GES in the South Tongu District of the Volta region- ranging from school management at the primary, Junior High School (JHS), Senior High School (SHS) to the District Directorate. The population from which the sample was taken was made up of some educational institutions in the South Tongu District. This comprised of some teachers and institutional heads of primary,

Junior High School and Senior High School and also some personnel at the District Directorate as well as the Deputy Director of Education. The study was based on the responses from 150 respondents from the above institutions in the South Tongu District.

Conclusions

The study revealed that the low level of education among women contributes significantly to their low representation in the management positions of the GES in the South Tongu District. This was due to the situation that females are generally under-represented at secondary and tertiary levels of education. This consequently affected the number of qualified women for leadership positions in education in the District. The study also revealed that some traditional and cultural practices in the South Tongu District have negative impact on the participation of women in management positions in the GES in the District. These findings are consistent with similar studies conducted in Ghana and other parts of the world on women participation in leadership positions in organizations and education.

The research identified factors listed and submitted below as the socio-cultural practices that adversely affect women participation in GES management position in the District.

i.   The unwillingness of parents to send the girl child to school

ii. Early marriage/pregnancy and

iii. The assertion that women in leadership positions are not accommodating.

The researcher identified that the unwillingness of parents to educate their girl child was largely considered by respondents as a crucial factor for the low representation of women in the GES management in the South Tongu District.95 out of the 150 respondents, representing 66.3%, consider this as crucial or very crucial. Out of this 40, representing 64.5% of the female respondents are women. The study also shows that early pregnancy/marriage is a factor that affects women representation in the South Tongu District GES. 85(56.6%) of the respondents hold this view.

It is a common belief in Africa that a woman's office is in the kitchen and this belief is upheld by some people in Ghana and for that matter the South Tongu District. However, the respondents do not think this is a factor that inhibits women representation in GES management positions in the District. Out of the 150 respondents, 103(68.7%) of considered this view as less crucial or not crucial at all. The research found that stereotype gender roles do not inhibit women's access to management position in the GES in the District. Out of the 150 respondents, 83(55.3%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the view.

The study also found out that the perception that appointment committees discriminates against women is not a factor that contributes to the low representation of women in GES leadership in the South Tongu District. 85(56.6%) of the 150 respondents consider this as less crucial or not crucial.

Recommendations

The study reveals that factors like unwillingness of parents to send the girl child to school, low level of education and low representation of women in the GES are very crucial to low representation of women in managerial positions of the GES in the South Tongu District. It is therefore recommended that:

i. The girl child education unit of the District should embark on a more vigorous campaign by organizing regular seminars and workshops to educate parents on the need to send the girl child to school.

ii. Career Guidance and Counseling Services providers in the District should make conscious efforts at encouraging females to take up leadership positions in the near future, while stakeholders in education are encouraged to set up scholarship schemes for brilliant but needy girls in the District to pursue further studies.

Suggestions for Future Studies

Future researches can look at the relationship that exists between the childhood home background and the current position of females in the Ghana Education Service.

REFERENCES

Addo-Adeku, K. (1992). *Some gender issues in developing a functional literacy programme in Ghana*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.

Al-Fariri, R. (1987).   Islam's point of view on women's education in Saudi Arabia. *Comparative Education*, *23* (1), 51-57.

Al-Khalif, E. (1992). Management by halves: Women teachers and school management. In N. Benneth, M. Grawford, & C. Riches, (Eds). *Managing change in education: Individual and organisational perspectives* (pp.35-47). London: Paul Chapman Publishers.

Allah-Mensah, B. (2005). *Women in politics and public life in Ghana*. Accra: Friedrich-Ebert Foundation.

Anamuah–Mensah, J. (1995). *The race against underdevelopment: A mirage or reality.* Unpublished paper delivered at the Third Deans' Lectures, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Ankomah, Y. A, (1990). Female participation in secondary education in the Brong Ahafo region of Ghana. An unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.

Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. C. V. (1995). *Research in education* (7th ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Inc.

Biklen, S. K., & Brannignan, M. B. (1980). *Women and educational leadership*. Ontario: Health and Company.

Borcelle, G. (1985) Jobs for women: Pleas for equality of opportunity. Paris: UNESCO.

Davidson, M. J., & Cooper, C. L. (1992). *Shattering the glass ceiling: The woman manager*. London: Paul Chapman.

Davies, L., & Gunawardena, C. (1992). *Women and men in educational management*: *An international inquiry*. Paris: HEP Research Report.

Dessler, G. (2005). Human resource management. New York: Pearson.

Dirasse, L. (1991) *Researching the top women managers in Eastern and Southern Africa*. Nairobi: ESAMI.

Dolphyne, F. A. (1991). *The emancipation of women*. Accra: Ghana University Press.

Gaertner, N. K. (1978). *Organizational careers in public school administration*: *Graduate School of Business*: Chicago: University of Chicago.

Ghana Statistical Service (2001). *Ghana National Census report*. Accra: Government of Ghana.

Goodman J. (1993). The development of gender roles, In K. B. de Marrias & M. D. Le Compte (Eds.). *The way schools work: a sociological analysis of education* (p. 254). Victoria: Longman.

Hammoud, R. S. (1993). Bahrain: the role of women in higher education management in the Arab region. In Mukherjee, H. & Kearney, M. (Eds.), *Women in higher education management* (pp. 107-122). Paris: UNESCO.

Institute of Education, (2007). *Professional board meeting report*. PBM/3/2007/7b

Kelly,K., & Nehlin, H. (1982). Silences in the curriculum. In K. B. de Marrias, & M. D., Le Compte (Eds.). *The way schools work*: a sociological analysis *of education*. Victoria: Longman.

Lee, W., & Copper, S. (1974). The development of gender roles. In K. B. de and Marrais and Le Compte (1995). *The way schools work: a sociological a analysis of education*. U. S.A. Longman Publisher.

Maccoby, E. E., & Jackling, C. N. (1974). In K. B. de Marrais and M. D. Le Compte (1995) *The Way Schools Work: A Sociological Analysis of Education*.Victoria, Victoria: Longman Publishers.

McWilliams, H. O. A., & Kwamena-Poh, M. A. (1988). *The education reform policy: Guidelines on basic education*. Accra: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (2006). *Education Management information system – 2006 Education census report*. Accra: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (2007). Education sector policy review report. Accra: Ministry of Education.

Nukunya, G. K. (1998). *Traditional change in Ghana: An introduction to sociology*. Accra: Ghana University Press.

Pearson, J. C., West, R. L., & Turner, L. H. (1995). *Gender and communication*. New York: W. C. Brown Communication Inc.

Pra, M. (1992). *Gender analysis workshop proceedings organized by the Development and Women Studies Programme (DAWS) at the* Institute of African Studies. Legon. University of Ghana.

Rimmers. C., & Davies B. (1985). Women principals in education department high schools in Victoria. *The Journal of Educational Administration*, 23 (2), 153-187.

Rothbart, M. K., & Rothbart, M. (1997). Birth order, sex of child and maternal help giving sex roles: *Journal of Research,* 2, 39-46.

Sam, B. (2004). *Worldwide ranking of female representation in the legislature.* Retrieved July 20, 2006, from http://www.beinsync.com.

Santrock, J. K. (1996). Adolescence.: *Times Mirror Higher of Education*, 367 - 370.

Schaefer, R. T. (2005). *Sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Setaiadarma, M. (1993). Indonesian women in higher education management. In Mukherjee, H. & Kearney, M. (Eds.),*Women in higher education management* (pp. 107-122). Paris: UNESCO.

Shakeshaft, C. (1989). *Women in educational administration*. Newbury Pake: Sage.

Steinberg, L. D., Belsky, J., & Meyer, R. B. (1991). *Infancy, childhood and adolescence*: *Development in context.* New York: McCraw-Hill.

Stromguist, N. P. (1989). Determinants of educational participation and achievement of women in the third world. *A Review of Educational Research.*59 (2), 143-183.

Teather, D. C. B. (1979). *Staff development in higher education.* London: Kogan Page.

Thaman, K. H., & Pillay, S. (1993). University of the South Pacific: women in higher education management in the south pacific – the case of the university of the south pacific. In Mukherjee, H. & Kearney, M. (Eds.),*Women in higher education management* (pp. 107-122). Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO, (1993). *Women in higher education management*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1993). *The pan–African conference on the education of girls. The Ouagadougou declaration and framework for action*: Burkina Faso. April 1993.

UNICEF (1990). *Children and women of Ghana: A situation analysis*. Accra: UNICEF.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADS OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS AND TEACHERS AT THE SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS, JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

This questionnaire is designed to find out the factors that affect women's participation in the management of educational institutions in the South Tongu District of the Volta Region. Please try to respond to the questions frankly and objectively. The information you will provide for the questionnaire will be treated confidentially.

Please tick or provide a response where appropriate.

General information

1. Level of institution in which you are working/teaching

    Primary [   ]   JSS [   ]   SSS [ ]   District [ ]   Directorate [   ]

2. Gender   Male [   ]   Female [   ]

3. Age …………………………………..…………………………………………

4. Marital Status: Single   [   ]   Married [   ]   Single Parent [   ]

    Separated/Divorced [   ]

5. Level of academic education

    Middle School/JSS [   ]   'O' Level/SSS [   ]   'A' Level [   ]

    HND [   ] BA/BSC/BFA/Bed [   ]   MA/Mphil/Msc   [   ]

  Others[specify]...

6. Professional qualification.

  Certificate A/4 year post secondary school [   ]   Diploma [   ]   PGDE[ ]

  Bed   [   ]   Med [   ]

Other[specify]…………………………………………………………..…..…………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Which of these will you feel comfortable working with?

   Male head [   ]   Female head [   ]

8. Give reason(s) for your answer ……………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………..

This section seeks your view on whether there are some factors that hinder you easy access to the management position in the district.

9. Are there any factor(s) that hinder(s) your easy access to the management

 position in GES in the South Tongu District?   Yes [   ]   No [   ]

10. If yes, what factor(s) hinder your easy access to management positions in the

    GES in the South Tongu District?

……………………………………………………………………………………

……….…………………………………………….………………………...................

11. If no give reasons ……………………………………………………..……..

……………………………………………………………………….………………

……………………………………………………………………….………………

Do you agree that the following hinders your easy access to management position in the GES in the South Tongu District?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
12. Religious affiliation/ commitment				
13. Low level of education				
14. No opportunity for further education				
15. Health problems				
16. Discrimination				
17. Early socialization problem				
18. Stereotyped gender roles				

This section seeks to find out the factors contributing to the low representation of women in the management positions in the GES.

Do you consider this factor crucial to the low representation of women in management positions in education in the South Tongu District?

	Very crucial	Crucial	Less crucial	Not crucial
19. Religious teachings that present women as subordinates				
20. Early marriage/pregnancy				
21.Women prefer caring for the family				
22. The belief that a woman's office is the kitchen				
23. The fact the women are not assertive/confident				

	Very crucial	Crucial	Less crucial	Not crucial
24. Unwillingness on the part of parents to send the girl child to school				
25. Appointment committees discriminating against women				
26.Women in leadership position normally feel bossy				
27. Women in general are not accommodative				
28. Women discourage their fellow women				
29. Low percentage of women in the GES				

30. Do you think that the appointment committees discriminate against women

who apply for leadership positions in the GES in the South Tongu District?

Yes [ ]   No [ ]

31. If yes, what form of discrimination?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………..

32. Do you agree that women are underrepresented in educational management?

Yes [ ]   No [ ]

33. If yes, what in your opinion contribute to their low representation?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

34. If there is a vacancy in your school/office, which will you prefer; a male or female applicant assuming both have the same requisite qualification?

Male   [   ]   Female [   ]

35. Please explain your choice …………………………….…………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
How crucial is religious teachings that present women as subordinates to men, a factor that contribute to low representation of women in the GES in South Tongu?	Male	317	2.11	1.114	.063
	Female	165	2.36	1.189	.093
How crucial is early marriage/pregnacy a factor that contribute to low representation of women in GES in the South Tongu District?	Male	317	2.65	1.167	.066
	Female	165	2.57	1.089	.085
How crucial is women's preference for caring for the family, a factor that contribute to their low representation in GES in the South Tongu District?	Male	317	2.38	.952	.053
	Female	165	2.52	1.091	.085
How crucial is the beleive that a woman's office is the kitchen, a factor that contribute to the low representation of women in the GES in the South Tongu District	Male	317	1.84	.965	.054
	Female	165	2.16	1.049	.082
How crucial is the fact that women are not assertive, a factor that contribute to their low representation in the GES in the South Tongu District?	Male	317	2.38	1.026	.058
	Female	165	2.39	1.034	.080

APPENDIX C

MAP OF SOUTH TONGU DISTRICT`