# UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

# TUTORS' PERCEPTION OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN GHANA

# BY JOSEPHINE EFFIBA EBE-ARTHUR

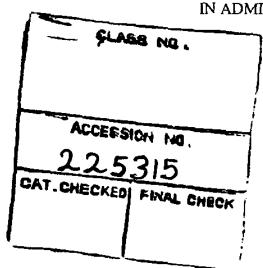
#### A THESIS SUBMITTED TO

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 OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE

IN ADMINISTRATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION



SEPTEMBER 2004

LIBRARY Programme of the control

#### DECLARATION

# CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

Candidate's Name: Josephine Effibah Ebe-Arthur Signature: 11144 Date 6/2/16

#### SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

We, the undersigned, hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's: Name: S. K. Atakpa Signature / Mathematic: 06 -02-28

Supervisor's Name: Prof. S. O. Owolabi. Signature Thate Date 06/02/06

Supervisor's Name: Dr. Y. A. Ankomah. Signature. Date Of Free Company

#### **ABSTRACT**

All over the world, particularly in Ghana, the percentage of women in administrative positions is lower than that of men. Out of the 38 Training colleges in Ghana, at the time of study, there were 8 female administrators who were Principals and a few Vice-Principals, Heads of Departments and Senior Housemistresses.

The study was conducted in 9 Teacher Training Colleges in five regions namely in the Ashanti, Central, Greater Accra, Volta, and Western of Ghana. The focus was to examine tutor's perception of female administrators in teacher training institutions, staff relationship to the female administrators, as well as the her impact on work performance.

A descriptive survey using purposive sampling for investigation was employed. The sample size of respondents was 52 tutors made up of 24 females and 28 males. The main instrument was a written questionnaire. Some findings deduced from the study were, the female administrators were co-operative and involved the staff in various decisions concerning the colleges. The administrators were perceived to be good financial managers and they made available teaching materials to facilitate quality teaching. They promoted cordial communication amongst teaching and non teaching staff on campus, and involved the staff and students in communal work.

It was recommended that women were to be encouraged and appointed as administrators of institutions as they served as mentors and role models to up and coming girls. It was also recommended that a further study be carried out on comparison of administrative practices of male and female administrators in training colleges.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My profound gratitude goes to God who granted me grace, courage strength, and traveling mercies throughout my course. Various people helped in the success of my study in the University and in the preparation of this thesis in particular. My gratitude goes to Mr. S. K. Atakpa, Prof. S. O. Owolabi, and Dr. Y. A. Ankomah for their effective supervision of the study. To all the lecturers and non-teaching staff of IEPA, thank you for your encouragement and support.

Special thanks go to Mr. and Mrs. Newton who made their laptop computer available to me throughout my course and Miss Charlotte Omane-Achamfuor, a lecturer of Methodist University, for typing this work. I am equally grateful to Mr. P. E. Ackom, Dean of Students' Affairs and Lecturer, University of Education, Winneba (UEW), and his daughter, Sophia, for the support they provided me in diverse ways during the study period. Miss Kwakyewa Aye and Mrs. Rosemond Ofori-Manteaw, both lecturers of Cape Coast Polytechnic, Miss Dora Aidoo and Mrs. Janet Koomson, lecturers of the University of Cape Coast, Mr. and Mrs. Mensah-Woode, Businessman, Takoradi, and Mr. E. Anowih of SSNIT Pension House, Accra, all deserve my gratitude for their encouragement, love and support throughout my course.

I specially thank my siblings, Grace, Rosemond, Genevieve and Joseph Ebe-Arthur (Jnr.), for their constant communication with the old folks while I was away on campus. Finally, to all those who responded to the questionnaire, students and all the authors whose works helped in this study, I am grateful.

## **DEDICATION**

To my parents, Rt. Rev & Mrs. J. E. Ebe-Arthur and Miss Joyce Ofori, my little girl, for their unflinching support while I pursued higher education at a time when they needed me most.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
DECLARATION		ii
ABST	ABSTRACT	
ACK	NOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDI	DEDICATION	
TABI	TABLE OF CONTENTS	
LIST	OF TABLES	x
LIST	LIST OF FIGURES	
CHAPTER		
ONE	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background to the Study	1
	Statement of the Problem	6
	Purpose of the Study	9
	Research Questions	10
	Significance of the Study	10
	Delimitation	12
	Limitations	14
	Organization of the Study	14
	Definition of Terms	15
TWO	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	17
	Administrative Practices	17

		Page
	Role Perception	26
	Leadership in Decision Making	29
	Women in Decision Making in Education	32
	Explanation for the Invisibility of Women in	
	Education Decision-making	38
	Gender Sensitivity and Stereotyping	44
	Role Conflict	56
	Studies on Women	63
	Summary	66
THREE	METHODOLOGIES	69
	Research Design	69
	Population	70
	Sample	70
	Sampling Technique	71
	Data Collection Instrument	73
	Pretesting of Instrument	74
	Instrument Administration and Data Collection	75
	Data Analysis	76
FOUR	ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA	77
	Demographic Data of Respondents	77

		Page
	Categories of Female Administrators under	
	Whom Respondents Worked	82
	Perception of Female Administrators'	
	Leadership Style	83
	Perception of Female Administrators' Performance	86
	Perception of Female Administrators' Work Ethics	89
	Gender View	92
	Female Administrators' Attitude to Subordinates	100
	Increase of Female Administrators in Teacher	
	Training Colleges	101
	Aspiration to Administrative Positions	103
	Relationships with the Female Administrators	104
	Low Level of Female Administrators in Teacher	
	Training Colleges	105
	Work Output of Tutors under Supervision of	
	Female Administrators	107
	Discussion of Results	108
	Summary of Chapter	111
FIVE	SUMMARY, CONCLUTIONS AND	
	RECOMMENDATIONS	114
	Overview of the Study	114
	Summary of Findings	116

		Page
	Conclusions	117
	Recommendations for Practice	119
	Recommendations For Further Research	120
REFRENCE	es	122
APPENDIC	ES	
Α	Questionnaire for Tutors' Perception of Women	
	in Management Positions in Teacher Training	
	Colleges Ghana	132
В	Letter of Introduction	140

# LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Distribution of Administrators in the GES	56
2	Distribution of Respondents by Institutions	71
3	Distribution of Respondents Using the Census Sampling	
	Technique	72
4	Distribution of Respondents Using the Stratified Random	
	Sampling Technique	73
5	Distribution of Respondents by Sex	78
6	Distribution of Respondents by Age	79
7	Highest Professional and Academic Qualification of Respondents	80
8	Distribution of Respondents by Rank	80
9	Respondents' Work Experience Under Female Administrators	81
10	Categories of Female administrators Under Whom	
	Respondents Worked	82
11	Respondents' Perception of the Female Administrators'	
	Leadership Style	84
12	Respondents' Perception Females' Administrative	
	Performance	87
13	Respondents' Perception of the Female Administrators'	
	Work Ethics	89

		Page
14	Distribution of responses on Perception of the Female	
	Administrators' Leadership Style by Gender	94
15	Distribution of responses on Perception of the Female	
	Administrators' Performance by Gender	96
16	Distribution of responses on Perception of the Female	
	Administrators' Work Ethics by Gender	98
17	Attitude of Female Administrators towards Subordinates	100
18	Respondents' Preference for Increase of Female Administrators	
	in Teacher Training Colleges	102
19	Respondents' Aspiration for Administrative Positions	103
20	Respondents' Relationship with the Female Administrators	104
21	Respondents' Reasons for Low Number of Female Administrators	
	in Teacher Training Colleges	106
22	Work Output of Respondents Under Supervision of Female	
	Administrators	108

# LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Figure	
1	p showing 3- Years Post Secondary Teacher Training	
	Colleges in Ghana	13

#### **CHAPTER ONE**

#### INTRODUCTION

# Background to the Study

In Ghana, as in almost all African countries, women are traditionally regarded as playing subordinate roles to that of men. As a result, women are mostly seen but not heard. This situation exists in many aspects of life - social, religious, educational, employment, administrative and political among others. For instance, the proportion of women to men in the civil and public services, medicine, engineering, law and teaching in the training colleges and universities is very small and negligible. This claim is supported, for example, by the fact that there were only 15 women directors as against 138 male directors in the Ghana Civil Service in 1995 (Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research [ISSER] Ghana, 1998).

In a typical traditional Ghanaian society, the notion was, (and still is), held that a woman's place in the society is in either the home or kitchen. Parents, therefore, did not find it worthwhile spending money to educate their daughters to higher levels of education like universities. Parents, especially mothers, discouraged girls from getting "too much" education for fear that they would not get husbands (Dapaah, 1988). This notion has developed a psychological problem in women, in the sense that a lot of females believe they are not mentally capable of attaining higher levels of education. Even though the situation is gradually changing, it is still felt by women climbing up the leadership ladder.

Right from infancy, males are treated superior to females, as observed from societal attitudes. This attitude begins at birth when a boy is preferred to a girl, and continues throughout life since traditionally the male bears the family name. For instance, when people hear of the birth of a child, they would ask if the newly-born is a 'human being', meaning a male, and if the answer is positive, it is greeted enthusiastically, but if otherwise the response is cold. Members of society generally perceive males as aggressive and females as passive. Women are, thus, generally taught or made to feel inferior right from the beginning of their lives.

Parents generally raise their children to conform to the roles they are expected to perform in society. Moser (1986) identifies this as the reproductive role, which comprises the child bearing and nurturing responsibilities, and domestic tasks undertaken by the female. The female will have to take care of both the children and the husband. Household chores, such as cleaning, cooking, laundering of clothes and taking care of the sick are all considered the duty of the woman. These are traditional responsibilities that the woman is expected to perform, whether she is working out of the home or not. Traditionally if a woman is a failure at home, no matter how high her academic achievement, she is considered a failure. These traditional attitudes towards women have contributed substantially to gender discrimination and the glass ceiling effect. Girls, therefore, studied housekeeping and mothering from their mothers and so were not sent to school. Those from elite homes attended school but that was mainly up to the elementary level. Due to their low level of education, women were unable to

enter the universities, leading subsequently to their inability to attain high positions at the work place, thus leaving men to rise to the top of the hierarchy.

In Ghana women who find themselves in administrative positions still have the primary role of family responsibility. The first duty of the woman is to take care of the husband, the children and the home. The woman's work outside the home is considered as secondary. Thus, most women are discouraged from applying for senior positions as their dual work load and the inflexibility of most child care arrangements do not allow them to do long hours at the office, of which is assumed to be part of the manager's load. The small percentage of women who made it to the universities and teacher training colleges struggled to gain appointments at work places while their male counterparts with the same academic qualifications took up even higher administrative positions. Most of the women who gained employment in companies and other establishments worked mostly at the lower positions as clerical officers and cleaners.

In the educational sector they were mostly classroom teachers and were gradually promoted through the ranks without much responsibility. Women occupied the lower positions at work because they did not have high education. They could also not attain higher administrative positions because those positions were thought to be the domain of men. Men did not consider it right for women to rub shoulders with them. They were not ready to take instructions and orders from women, so females in administration were very rare. This attitude towards female administrators stemmed from tradition, which has always pushed women far to the background.

It is worthy to note that in Ghana in the 1990's, there was a slight increase, though still disproportionate, in the number of women who were holding top administrative positions countrywide although they were still under-represented in educational administration. When one compares the number of women teachers with the number of women in school administration the number is disproportionate. The majority of teachers were females. Criswell and Betz (1995), for instance, noted that in the USA, 66% of the teaching force was female. However, the percentage of women in school administration was quite different. Women held 5% of the superintendent positions, 20.6% of assistant superintendent positions and 30% of the principal position. Restine (1993). A survey conducted by the Executive Educator and Xavier University. Natale (1992), revealed that in the 1990's women held 39.7 % of the elementary school principal positions, followed by 20.5% at the junior high/middle school level, and 12% at the high school level.

What factors contribute to the low numbers of women in educational administration? One of the commonest reasons presented in the literature for the under-representation of women in school administration is the negative perception of women's leadership. Tyree (1995) Studies of female and male approaches to leadership document a distinct difference in the way women and men manage. Shakeshaft (1989) Management attributes, traditionally associated with men, such as being authoritative, decisive, controlling, and unemotional, are often more respected by potential employers in education than a female with a more decentralized approach to leadership, which involves the principal as a facilitator

of a shared vision and shared decision-making. Tyree (1995) stated that the underrepresentation of women in educational administration is fostered through a series
of myths, like "(a) women don't have what it takes, and (b) women lack support of
teachers and the community" (p. 48). According to Helgesen (1990), women still
must deal with the negative views of female administrators held by peers, parents,
and employers of both sexes. Gupton and Slick (1995), quoted a female
elementary principal as saying that "even after women have obtained
administrative positions they are not accorded the status or the respect given their
male colleagues" (p. 10). Within the school environment, the attitudes, which
teachers have toward women administrators, may have a direct effect on how well
the administrator's job performance will be evaluated by her supervisor. These
attitudes may also be a deterrent to more women seeking administrative positions.

School reform efforts, which have included transformational leadership, site-based management, empowerment of teachers, and other forms of decentralized decision-making now highlight the changing stereotypical characteristics of women school administrators. In fact, contemporary theories and studies of leadership indicate that the characteristics of the leadership style used by most women are becoming the dominant model of leadership. Aburdene & Naisbitt, (1993), Bennis & Nanus, (1985), Helgesen, (1990) as cited by Gupton & Slick, (1995). Gupton and Slick (1995), then asked whether collaborative, participatory leadership styles are valued, and whether the attitude toward elementary and secondary school women administrators has changed positively. They went on to ask other interesting, but pertinent, questions about the role of

female administrators, such as how they rose to such key positions in the male-dominated world of work, whether their performance fell below expectation in comparison to their male counterparts, how they assessed themselves and their relationship with other workers. They also questioned how others, whether they were colleagues or subordinates, perceived the woman's role in such top positions. These are some of the issues that affect workers' perception of women in management positions, including headship in training colleges in Ghana.

### Statement of the Problem

Traditionally, women have usually conformed to stereotyped gender roles of counselling, hospitality and support services. It is this behaviour that has led to a spiral of under-valuation mostly by a male-dominated society and, unfortunately it has been accepted and perpetuated by a majority of women. The consequence of such under-valuation has been the situation in which women find themselves not being given the chance to demonstrate their administrative competence. This view consigns women into certain typical roles, which prevent them from infiltrating certain areas of work environments and, consequently, inhibits their growth potentials. Women's stereotyped gender roles, as stated here, are what prevent them from getting into top administrative positions to demonstrate their administrative qualities in different work settings.

Gray and Shein (1996) observed that women in leadership positions are more democratic and willing to share while male executives are autocratic and discreet in their dealings in administration. However, Eagly and Yale (1992) observed that some women also violated some of the norms associated with the

feminine style of leadership, such as being impersonal and democratically orientated. To break the mould, some women emulated their male colleagues in order to push themselves up in the world of men.

In recent years, more women have risen to management positions in various public sectors of Ghana. In the educational sector, for example, in the institutions under study, this trend has been observed, even though it is not very significant. For instance, out of the 38 public training colleges, women administrators headed eight of them at the time of the study. There were also 43 secondary schools out of 438 having women as their heads. However, in the country's public and private universities there has never been a female Vice Chancellor and the highest a woman (and that is the only one) has risen to is to the position of a Pro Vice Chancellor.

In spite of the increased number of conferences intended to elevate women, NGOs which have sprung up to encourage women to higher heights, and the size of women's population (51.04%) to that of men in the 2002 census (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002) there is still no significant increase of women in leadership positions. The only exception is in the informal sectors where most women head their own jobs.

In politics, it is realized that women are under-represented in the ruling hierarchy. A Ghanaian Times article revealed that in the 1994 assembly election, out of the 12,867 candidates only 348 (2.7%) were women. In the Fourth Republic of Ghana the first parliament had only 16 (8%) women out of the 200

seats. There were no significant shifts in the 2000 and 2004 elections either.

The situation is no better, even in the United Nations (UN), where human rights laws are well grounded and women are supposed to have no hindrances whatsoever, because very few women are found in top positions. Within the UN, in 1993 there were only six out of the 179 states governed by women. In 1995 out of the 184 Ambassadors only six were women and only seven in 1997. As at 1997, only four out of the 32 UN specialized agencies, were headed by women (The Ghanaian Times, August 10, 1997). By the late 1997 there were only five women holding top positions among the 36 UN Agencies, Funds and Programmes.

In the US Fortune 500 companies (private sector participation) a survey revealed that women held 2% of the highest paid positions and 10 % of corporate officer posts. In Korea the percentage of women in leadership positions was constant at 0.1% between 1985 and 1992. It is only in Norway that gender equity has so far been achieved at cabinet level, where 40% of parliamentary seats are reserved for women as well as on all boards, public agencies and committees.

The few women who have risen to administrative positions have proved themselves efficient and this has raised eyebrows (because of unbelief and skepticism) and led to questions pertaining to their competence being asked. Questions, which readily come to mind, are as follows: 'If women are not given the opportunity, how can it be known or determined that they can perform management roles? Is it a commonly held view that women cannot perform well at management levels? Have women themselves, unknowingly contributed to the

low perception men and colleagues hold of them as administrators or managers? In what ways have women themselves contributed to that low perception held about them? What has been the general level of performance, success or failure, of the few women who have been in management positions? Is it possible that there are tutors who cannot bring themselves to accept a woman as head or feel uncomfortable working under the supervision of a woman? What are the effects, if any, of such feelings on other women in the institutions as well as on the work output of staff members?

From personal observation and views some colleagues have expressed, many women would rather work under men than women because of the perception that they are bossy, and one may wonder why. These types of questions and issues have agitated the researcher to undertake this study into staff perception of women in administrative positions in Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana.

# Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to find out tutors' perception of female administrators in Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana. The study was to examine the perception of male and female tutors of their female administrators and how they relate to them.

Specifically, the study also sought to examine the female administrators' work ethics and leadership style and their effect on the performance or work output of subordinate staff, especially tutors.

#### Research Questions

The issues raised in the statement of the problem led to the following research questions for the study:

- 1. What perception do tutors have about women in administrative positions in Teacher Training institutions?
- 2. How do colleagues and subordinates accept, relate and respond to such female administrators?
- 3. Does working under female supervision affect work performance of staff members?
- 4. What do colleagues and subordinates expect of their female administrative heads?
- 5. What is the attitude of tutors to the female head?

# Significance of the Study

Generally, women in management positions are comparatively fewer than men, and are fewer still at top management levels. Ghana is no exception to that general phenomenon, and the phenomenon in Ghana lends itself to research, especially where records show that the school drop out rate among girls increases as they progress from the primary to the junior secondary school. For example, both the former middle/and the present junior secondary school enrolment rate of female students has remained 40% for ten years, while in the senior secondary schools it dropped further to 32% during the period of the study. The rate reduced even more drastically as they moved up the educational ladder, (ISSER, 1997). This state of affairs immediately reduces the proportion of girls to boys who may

continue their education at the secondary and tertiary levels. It is worth noting that it is after tertiary education that teachers and tutors are either posted or appointed to the teacher training colleges to teach, and they may then start to rise to management positions. This study then becomes relevant in attempting to find out how women fare when they get to the level of the management of teacher training colleges.

This study on female administrators in the teacher training institutions is the researcher's contribution to the existing body of knowledge on the role of women in administrative positions in Ghana. It is the view of the researcher that the study would lead to a possible clarification and correction of the negative notion that women in administrative positions are not able to cope and are bossy. The study should form the basis for similar studies on women in administrative positions of other sectors in the working domain in the country.

It should also help shape policies for organizations and employers on the need for them to recruit and place female graduates who have taken courses in administration in the various universities, especially in Educational Administration, at their rightful positions with no spite.

Furthermore, the study may be found useful by the Ghana Education Service (GES) and the Ministry of Education (MOE) as a whole, in assisting them with information on how tutors perceive female administrators in the training colleges, and thereby guide them in some decisions taken concerning women administrators. The information may guide policy makers in the formulation of policies and decision-making concerning the appointment of female

administrators into key positions at the Ministry and other public sectors of the country. Finally, the study may serve as a resource material for female administrators and students who may like to undertake similar or related studies in other sectors.

#### Delimitation

The study covers Teacher Training Colleges that have females as principals, vice principals, heads of department, and senior housemistresses as administrators, from the Ashanti, Central, Greater Accra, Western and Volta Regions of Ghana. Nine training colleges from these Regions were used for the study. These colleges constitute 24% of the teacher training colleges in the country (refer to Fig. 1).

The study was restricted to tutors and not all categories of workers because the researcher was of the view that all tutors at this stage were potential administrators and their perception of female administrators was likely to influence their administrative style if, and when, they become administrators in future. It was aimed at investigating tutors' perception of the female administrators and the effect of their supervisory role on staff output and performance in the various teacher training colleges.

Finally, the ideal situation would have been to cover all the 38 teacher training colleges for the study, but time, financial and mobility constraints, in addition to the scattered locations of the colleges, made it impossible to involve all teacher training institutions in the country.

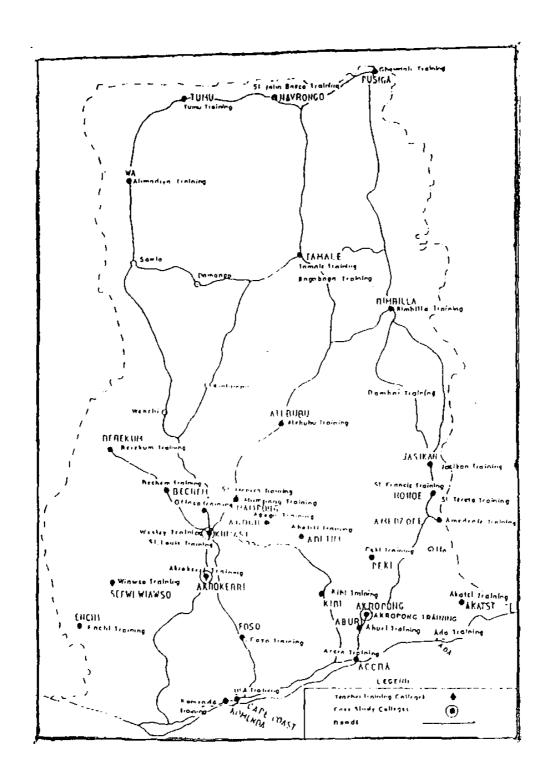


Figure 1

Map showing 3-Year Post Secondary Training Colleges in Ghana

Source: Institute of Education, University of Cape Coast.

#### Limitations

A study of this nature certainly has its limitations. Limitations identified included difficulty in obtaining information, working within the time limit and financial constraints. Obtaining information was a problem as there were no records in some of the District Education Offices on the training colleges, which had female administrators. The researcher, therefore, had to travel to all the training colleges in the regions selected to verify the information.

Questionnaire completion fatigue and retrieval became another problem encountered. Sometimes the researcher had to wait for hours on end for questionnaires to be completed or for respondents to return from assignments out of school. Finally, time limitation made it extremely difficult for a very extensive study.

## Organization of the Study

The study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter covers the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitation and organization of the study and finally definition of terms. The second chapter reviews related literature by scholars in the area of administration, especially on women. The third chapter deals with the methodology, which includes the research tools and procedures used in the data collection. The method of data analysis is also presented. The fourth chapter dwells on the analysis and discussion of the

findings of the study while the fifth chapter comprises the summary of the findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

# Definition of Terms

In the conduction of research specific terminology is used to clarify phenomena. This study used specific terms to express clarity in the process of the research. The operational definitions of the terms used in context of the study are as follows:

#### School Climate

It is the social atmosphere of the setting or learning environment in which students have different experiences, depending upon the protocols set up by the teachers and administration.

## Management Position

This is the position from which an organization, such as an educational institution, is controlled and supervised. In the context of this research report, it is the position occupied by the principals, vice principals, heads of department, all housemasters/housemistresses and class teachers.

## Perception

This is the awareness, understanding or conception that one has about one's relationship to an idea, object or phenomenon as measured by respondents' reaction to given indicators. Perception is reality to the person who is doing the perceiving. This perception may not be the truth or what actually is, but that is not of priority concern to the person making the decision. Perception is what an individual understands or believes to be true

# Work Output

This refers to the amount of work produced or achieved by an individual or a group of people in an organization within a given time.

# Glass Ceiling Effect

The "glass ceiling" effect is described as a barrier which keeps females from reaching high-level management positions in organizations.

#### **CHAPTER TWO**

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature on the study of women in administration, which has been an area of interest to writers and researchers. This review of related literature is to form a conceptual framework for the study of the perception of the various categories of workers under female administrators in teacher training colleges in Ghana. Some amount of research pertinent to the study by scholars has been done about women who want to climb the ladder into administrative positions, and the various challenges they encounter along the way. The review is discussed under the following sub-headings:

- 1. administrative practices
- 2. role perception
- 3. leadership in decision-making
- 4. women in decision-making in education
- 5. gender sensitivity stereotyping
- 6. role conflict
- 7. studies on women

#### Administrative Practices

Fayol (1916) suggested that an administrative process includes the elements of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling. He said the administrative process could be defined as the sequence of actions

through which the executive takes decisions and implements them in order to achieve organizational goals. These elements of the process, which form a cyclical sequence, include decision-making, planning, organising, communicating, supervising and controlling. The definition recognises the position of the administrator as one vested with both professional and legal status and responsibility and concomitant authority to determine what is done in the organisation.

Blumberg (1989) said that the school could be likened to a moral institution, where teachers, as professional educators, have a moral obligation to contribute positively to the intellectual, social, emotional and physical development of the students in their charge. The administrator, as a professional educator, is morally obligated to support teachers in their efforts and to secure for teachers and students, the materials and conditions needed for their work. School administrators have a professional duty to ensure that school policies and techniques serve the best educational and developmental interests of students.

The school administrator could also be said to be a facilitator of teachers because s/he reminds teachers of their core values and beliefs, of the importance of their efforts in the lives of students. The school administrator's efforts to support teachers create and maintain conditions that would enable teachers to teach students to learn. Administrative techniques could therefore be formulated around these parameters or indicators: - planning, organizing, directing, supervising and evaluating.

#### Planning

Koontz and O'Donnel (1976) defined planning as designing an environment for the effective performance of individuals bonded together in groups. They proposed that it is most essential that purposes, objectives and methods of achievements be clearly outlined and understood beforehand. In other words, planning is the identification of purposes and objectives and setting forth means or strategies to attain them. They said it is also deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who to do it. Essentially, planning is made up of three elements.

First is the present state of things (the status quo). Here the administrator would have to make accurate diagnosis of the present state of affairs of the institution. The diagnosis would show the need for action, concerning the deficiency in the institution, to be taken.

Secondly, the administrator would decide the optimum place for the institution. Thirdly, s/he would try to estimate the distance between the present state and where s/he wants to get to. S/he would also take note of the obstacles along the path and then decide what means and what resources – human and material – s/he would require to get the institution from its present state to the new position desired.

Better Schools Module Two (1993) indicates that planning could be said to bridge the gap from where we are to where we want to go. Simply put, planning is where we are, where we want to be, and how to get there. Planning involves the translation of national educational policies into school-based

teaching and learning objectives and targets; preparation of syllabuses, schemes of work, time tables, schedule of meetings of the governing board, Parents/Teachers Association, staff and others and planning long-term acquisition of relevant teaching and learning resources (including finances).

Teachers, parents, students and others should be involved in planning for the school. The head of the school should aim to manage an efficient and effective school through the process of planning effectively by achieving set objectives, and efficiently by using minimum resources to get maximum results in time (p. 28-29).

#### **Organising**

Better Schools Module Two (1993) sees organizing as putting in order of priority and preference the resources available, an action plan of which activities are scheduled. The targets set should be quite easily attainable within a period of time. It is the up-to-date job descriptions and the assigning of roles, responsibilities and duties to staff and students. The head in organizing should also arrange for the appointment of new staff and give students responsibilities (p.7).

Koontz and O'Donnell's (1976) held the view that organizing is the grouping of activities necessary to attain objectives, the assignment of each grouping to a manager with authority necessary to supervise it and the provision for coordination horizontally and vertically in the enterprise structure. An organisational structure should be designed to clarify the environment and to assign responsibility for results, to remove obstacles to performance caused by

confusion and uncertainty of assignment and to furnish a decision-making communications network reflecting and supporting enterprise objectives.

Allen (1958) also stated that organising is a process of identifying and grouping work to be performed by defining responsibility, authority and establishing relationship for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively together in accomplishing objectives. In organizing, an administrator has to deal with three aspects of work. First, he must identify and group work that must be done to achieve the objectives of the institution, and then divide the work into parcels that could be performed by single individuals. Secondly, the administrator must define and delegate responsibility and authority, see to it that each individual knows exactly what work s/he is to do and what rights and powers he/she may exercise in doing it. S/he should also decide on what to delegate and what not to delegate. Finally, an administrator should establish cordial relationships. In other words, s/he must set up rules for teamwork to enable the team work harmoniously under all possible circumstances (p.57-62).

#### Directing

Fayol (1937) referred to the process of directing as coordinating, controlling and communication. The head should direct the implementation of a plan. S/he should provide leadership by delegating duties and responsibilities to staff and motivating them. Fayol said that what some called directing, others called stimulating, influencing, leading or commanding. All these words connote the concept of making things happen through other people. This is the step or stage where the action starts and keeps the system moving towards its

goals. This step is concerned with the authority that issues directives, consults and takes decisions.

In order to direct human effort towards set objectives, administrators should think in terms of issues related to orientation, communication, motivation and leadership. Administrators are to communicate regularly and fully by the most appropriate means, to all those with an interest in the school about school programmes. He she should hold formal and informal discussions with individuals and groups, including staff and students, and those outside the school about all aspects of school life. The administrator also has a duty of controlling and coordinating the supply and use of resources.

#### Supervising.

Koontz and O'Donnell (1976) revealed that the administrative process is concerned with the effort of the administrator to guide the day-to-day operation of the organization by stimulating, directing and coordinating the workers' personal relations to enable them move collectively toward a more efficient performance of all the functions that lead to goal achievement. The supervisor endeavours to create a positive work environment and opportunities for teachers to experience psychological growth. This could be achieved if the head realizes that teachers, like other humans, have a need for belongingness and so need a place where they could interact freely with others without emotional strains. Good relationships and satisfaction of needs on the job could motivate teachers to willingly contribute to the common cause by utilizing their own skills and abilities.

The head as a leader and supervisor is expected to hold frequent meetings with staff to discuss their problems and plans for action. At such conferences or meetings, whether individually or in groups, the head has to create an easy but business-like atmosphere. He/She is supposed to call for views and listen through discussions. At group meetings, answering questions is not the exclusive affair of the administrator. S/he is to give the opportunity to particular interests, specialties and abilities of other members. To assess the progress made in a school, the head of a school goes round helping out and overseeing the work of the staff. This assessment helps him/her make evaluation of the work done in the institution and takes fresh decisions about administrative actions required. Evaluation is, therefore, seen as an inevitable task of the supervisor or head, because the feedback from the evaluation could be used for further planning.

The supervisor has the responsibility of evaluating factors that affect instruction and other non-academic outcomes of schooling e.g. the goals of the school, the social climate within it, organizational structure of the school, communication, the process of supervision and even the effectiveness of the teachers themselves. This agrees with the concept of control. Supervision and evaluation provide a means of control to check on the fulfilment of assigned tasks, and identified factors that enhance or inhibit the achievement of objectives.

The head as a supervisor also carries out self-evaluation to see how well he/she is doing. S/he could seek information on how well he/she had organized his/her work into a schedule that could be a guide. S/he could also seek information on his/her inter-personal relationship through questioning. In

supervising, the head could ensure that classes are held, students' work marked and the schemes of work of teachers checked, ensure the presence and punctuality of both staff and students. S/he could conduct full and fair appraisal of all staff, which could include observations, discussions and written reports, take stock and physically check the stores and equipment of the school (p.72-91).

#### **Evaluating**

Better Schools (1993) state that evaluation involves collecting information, at regular intervals, about on-going programmes within the school and analyzing it. Data collection could be in the form of general observation of students, seeking views through discussion groups, peer evaluation and interviews, among others. The final part of the management cycle is to assess the results and compare them with the set targets and objectives. The performance of all staff, including the head, could be assessed; this is because feedbacks are needed in the adjustment of future plans.

The functions of the school head in evaluating is to prepare annual reports of the school, analyse examination results, review the performance of the school in all in-class and out-of-class activities, set new targets for individuals, departments and the school, make new requests for better qualified teachers where necessary; and present financial statements and reports to the Board of Governors. Allied to evaluating is the issue of controlling, which is an administrator's function of making sure that plans succeed. In other words, it is the measuring and correcting of activities of subordinates to ensure that those activities are contributing to the achievement of planned goals.

### Controlling

Koontz and O'Donnell (1976) regarded the controlling process as one of establishing standards against which performance could be measured, and deviations corrected from standards and plans. Controlling includes the functions severally defined as 'reporting' and 'budgeting', 'evaluating' and 'appraising or re-appraising.' Controlling aims at corrective actions necessary to assure that organizational objectives are achieved.

### Communication

Koontz and O'Donnell (1976) again said that communication permeates all aspects of school life. Administrators spend most of their time in communicating and understanding, as it is the central part of administrative pervasiveness and makes it a useful object of study. Goals are only made known and useful if communicated to others. It helps people to organize and coordinate their activities in order to accomplish common educational goals, therefore, establishing a communication network and accessing. It is the first task of the organizer and a continuous task of the administrator without which there could be no organization. They also define communication as shared messages, ideas and attitudes that produce a degree of understanding between a sender and receiver; it is a form of transmission of information

### **Bureaucracy**

Owen (1991) said that at the time when people and organizations were dominated by authoritarianism, Weber propounded bureaucracy as a fairer, more

impartial and rational form of administration than organizations subject to powerful individuals. Weber felt a well-run bureaucracy would be efficient for a number of reasons, one of which was that bureaucrats were highly trained technical specialists, each skilled in a specific, limited portion of an administrative task. He held the view that bureaucracy is a theory of organization. especially suited to the needs of a large and complex enterprise that performs service for a large number of clients. It minimized frustrations and irrationality of large organizations in which the relationship between management and workers were based on traditions of class privileges.

## Role Perception

Pepitone (1965) stated that to play a leadership role accurately, the school administrator needs to have a fairly accurate perception of the role-expectation, that is, an accurate perception of the kind of activities and behaviours s/he is to engage in, in order to perform his/her job well. This is because "role-perception determines the direction in which the individual applies his/her effort." (p. 65)

Evans (1970), House (1971). House and Dester (1974), propounded the theory of leadership that explains that attractiveness of a reward outcome is associated with performance and the leader also helps his/her men to see the relationship between the expected performance level (task goal) and the reward that they hope to get (e.g. personal needs).

They pointed out that, accordingly a leader is effective if s/he is able to:

1. influence and clarify his/her effort and push his/her men to move along the performance and reward paths by providing necessary

guidance, support or coaching and removing all barriers along the path.

make satisfaction of subordinate needs contingent upon the performance level desired by the organization.

Shakeshaft (1987) asserted that women spend more time with people, communicate more, care more about individual differences, are concerned more with marginal students and motivate them more. The staff of women administrators rated women higher, as being more productive, having higher moral standing and being more favourable towards schools and districts run by women. She said women administrators exhibited greater knowledge of teaching methods and techniques, helped new teachers, supervised all teachers directly and created a climate more conducive for learning, and that was orderly, softer and quieter. Shakeshaft added that academic achievements were higher in schools and districts, which had women administrators and supervisors.

Lawler and Porter (1967), also observed that, the manager need to perceive accurately the role expected by others in reciprocal positions - teachers, students, parents and the board. S/he also needs to perceive himself/herself, his/her needs, attitudes and values in such a way that s/he could understand those whose role performances s/he is to evaluate. The accurate role and ability to enact are bound to affect the relationship between his/her effort and performance.

Linton (1996) saw role perception and leadership as simply a collection of rights and duties attached to positions irrespective of the individual who occupies it. When the individual puts the rights into effect, s/he is performing a role. To

Linton, a role does not refer to the actual behaviour of the individual, but to his/her behavioural standards, including attitudes and behaviours that are stipulated by the culture of whoever occupies that position. It is thus, a natural pattern for these people occupying social positions within the school system, like the teacher, the principal, the supervisor, and the chief inspector of schools (in that hierarchical order), to exhibit some rights, duties and obligations stipulated for them to follow depending on the laid down ethics of the position.

Fayol (1916) emphasized broader preparation of administrators to perform their unique functions effectively. He presumed that the task of the administrator is different from that of the engineer but is equally important. He viewed the work of administrators as management – the coordination of many small tasks so as to accomplish the overall job as effectively as possible. Women are not new in the work force. They have always worked in one way or the other in or out of the home.

According to Apter (1993), the most important social change in the past twenty-five years involved the status of women, particularly of women at work. She said nearly half of the entire work force in the United States of America (U.S.A.) was female, and nearly half of women with children were back at work within a year of a child's birth. She revealed that in the last decade of the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, 19% of all women were in the labour force. In 1977, 32% of all mothers with children younger than a year old were in the labour force. In 1988 it was 52% and in the 1990's the percentage had exceeded 60%. She concluded that women had gradually participated more in employed work as they made advances

in education, and that the decrease in fertility and the greater ability to predict and plan pregnancies had also made a difference.

Myrdal and Klein (1962) said that the proportion of women in paid employment in Britain reached its highest peak during the Second World War. Out of the total of 17.25 million women between the ages of 14 and 64 years, about 7.3 million worked in either paid employment or were drafted into the auxiliary military services. They further conducted an enquiry into women's two roles, and found out that, working women in France had steadily formed a considerable proportion of the labour force.

Perbi (1992) investigated the role of women in the colonial government service and came out with the manner in which the British restricted women's access to formal employment. Initially, according to him, women were excluded altogether from employment but later, after 1890, were allowed into selected areas. Women, however, had to resign on the grounds of marriage or pregnancy. They were either to choose between a career or marriage and children. A female officer who got pregnant resigned from service, a factor that retarded the career advancement of women.

# Leadership in Decision-Making

Poskitt (1976), assessing the role of women in leadership in decision making expressed the view that their low representation constituted brain wastage and posed the question: "does it matter that women are under-represented in decision-making in higher educational institutions?" Her answer was "yes". She was of the view that it is an economic waste to train a person and not encourage

her to make full use of her skills. She further said it seemed women bring different styles into leadership and management. Typically, they show greater commitment to the underlying idea than to pursuing positional powers and status. To her, women show more interest in personnel and developing them than most of their male counterparts. Women administrators exhibit more democratic participatory style and involve themselves more with staff and students, ask for and get higher participation, maintaining more closely knit organizations. Employees working with women administrators had greater job satisfaction and these administrators were more involved in their work than male administrators.

Curdwood (1978) compared the leadership styles of men and women. In the conceptualization of male and female leadership models, she stressed on domains which appear to differ most dramatically from each other. She pointed out that masculine leadership was competitive, hierarchical, winning, rational, highly controlled, cold, just and principled. Feminine leadership, on the other hand was cooperative, team-oriented, qualitative, intuitive, collaborative, emotional, fair and contextual.

Bond's (1996) studies showed that women holding senior level positions reported:

- a) significantly greater job satisfaction
- b) organizational concern for their career growth
- c) inclusion in informal networks
- d) higher personnel priority on work over family, than did women holding decision-making roles at lower levels of the organization.

He further indicated that studies on women in leadership positions revealed a greater caring attitude than men, and that women spend more time counselling staff than disciplining them.

The studies also revealed that women were more consultative, conciliatory and also avoided conflict while being more task-oriented (p. 25).

Stogdill (1974) stated that a group of researchers belonging to the school of human relations at first contended that leaders should emphasize considerate participative styles. Stogdill held the belief that consideration of employees' feelings and their participation in decision-making result in increased satisfaction, which, in turn, improved performance and increased output. He also stated that equivocal negative results indicate that this approach was not always the answer to all situations.

A research by Hackman and Richard (1983) revealed that leaders changed their behaviour in response to situational conditions and to subordinates' behaviour. They stated that subordinates saw their leaders as not having 'one style'; nor do they treat subordinates the same way; the truth was that there is not one best approach to any situation. Leaders have numerous behaviours to choose from (not two or three) and also a variety of different situations. A number of leadership behaviours may be equally effective in the same situation. As the research included task structures, power, hierarchical level, subordinate expectations and other organizational characters in their models, predictive power and model complexity increased. From the discourse, one thing was clear; no one leadership style was effective in all situations. Some of their findings were that

leadership was cultural and symbolic, as well as instrumental and behavioural. Successful leaders infused value into organizations, thereby creating institutional awareness and purpose that go beyond the technical requirements of the job. The institutional leader was responsible for articulating the mission of the organization, shaping its culture and protecting and maintaining its integrity

# Women and Decision-Making in Education

Gunn and Holdaway (1986) stated that educational institutions were formal organizations, which required leadership to perform their functions and went on to confirm Bass's list of leadership functions as follows:

- 1. defining objectives and maintaining direction
- providing means for goal attainment and maintaining structures
- 3. providing and maintaining group structures
- 4. facilitating group action and interaction
- 5. maintaining group cohesiveness and member satisfaction
- 6. facilitating group task performances (p.109).

Dilating on women and decision-making in education, Davies and Gunnwardena (1992) wrote that the declining curve in the number of women in certain senior positions had become a major concern in the United States of America, the United Kingdom and Australia, at least, in the decade preceding their publication. Though women formed the majority of the teaching profession in richer countries, they did not constitute the majority of principals, deputies, or supervisors. The under-representation of women in high status positions was not confined only to the teaching profession but it was particularly problematic in all

spheres, which had traditionally been associated with females because of its connotations with caring and nurturing. They collected data from the UK and found that while women formed 78% of primary school teachers, they formed only 12% of university lecturers. Even though women also constituted 59% of the teaching profession they were 45% of primary head teachers and 18% of secondary heads. In 1990, figures from Birmingham, the second largest local authority in the UK, (with a firm equal opportunities policy), revealed that though 45% of secondary school teachers were females, most of the head teachers were males. In their report, Davies and Gunnwardena wrote that one of the reasons why the classic sociologists such as Etzioni classified teaching, as a 'semi-profession' was that, it had a large number of females, thus apparently lowering its status. In Tunisia, for instance, while 65% of teacher training students were women, there was not a single Tunisian woman in the inspectorate division of schools, and of 150 secondary schools, only 12 had female principals. Again in the Philippines, while 77% of primary school teachers were females, only 22% of principals of the primary schools were women, and also only 7% of secondary school principals were women. Of the 280 colleges in Nigeria, only 40 had women principals. If such a pattern were true across a range of countries, this could lend support to Gramb's (1976) claim that the female professions were run by men.

Ho-Ming Ng (1990) also wrote on women in decision-making positions in education. She reported that the proportions of female head teachers and inspectors or Senior Ministry personnel bore no relation to their proportions in the teaching force as a whole. Women were seriously under represented in power

positions across the world, even in countries where education was seen as the preserve of the female. Writing on China, she observed that there were more women working in higher education than many other developed countries but the percentage of women working in higher education in China, the UK and USA was 26%, 13% and 24% respectively. Yet again, the 29% female teaching force in secondary schools was only 11% of female principals and secretaries.

A related factor to this was the relative invisibility of women in the senior levels of the inspectorate. Ho-Ming Ng said it was undeniable that one could find some women in very powerful positions in education in a number of countries (Zimbabwe, Barbados, the Gambia) at the time of writing. However, these numbers were insignificant. She added that men held most posts of responsibility and authority in the teaching field. Male staff dominated positions such as the chairs; women teachers tended to be assigned to domestic roles, or on the 'administrative' side to secretarial work. It was significant that of the 20 class and school prefects, who held much responsibility and power in a school in China. only one was female. A unique case study of the inspection service in Gvangston in the People's Republic of China found women heads relegated to the less prestigious 'shaky foundation' schools. There was no apparent discrimination regarding qualifications on recruitment into the inspectorate, but the interview data from the study revealed men being seen as more 'suitable'. She concluded that, the need for travelling in difficult and crowded public transport systems, and to be away from family responsibilities in a society where women were still expected to take up a disproportionate share of domestic duties, meant women

were not viewed favourable for promotion. Even within the office, women were given trivial tasks such as reproducing reports by hand, filing, proofreading and clearing up the office. More important tasks such as drafting circulars, designing evaluation sheets and giving in-service lectures were mainly in the hands of men.

Coleman (1995) also found that despite the large number of female teachers, particularly in primary schools, there were disproportionately few women in positions of authority in educational management. In her study, she found that of the total number of teachers in nursery and primary schools, over 80 per cent were women, but 51% of the head teachers were men. Moreover, there were only 16 females out of the 108 chief education officers.

Edson's (1988) in a similar study showed that more women aspired for administrative work and that though more were enrolled in courses there was not much increase in their appointment into administrative positions. The American Association of School Administrators reported that whereas from 1981-1982, 25% of American school administrators were female, within 1984-85 the figure had risen to only 26%. They also reported that the higher the administrative positions the lower the proportion of women appointed for them; while 21% of school principals in America were women from 1984-1985 only 16% were deputy, assistant or associate superintendents and fewer than 3% were superintendents.

Hoy and Miskel (1982) and Fiedler (1967) wrote on trait, situational and contingency theories of management. The Trait Theory talked about individuals who became leaders and had certain natural capabilities that enabled them to play

the leadership role more successfully. The Situational Theory explained "leadership as a relational concept" implying two terms - "the influencing agent" and "the persons influenced". This meant that a situation created its own leadership. Fiedler's study on leadership talked of the 'contingency' theory of leadership. According to him, this theory was a combination of the characteristics of both the trait and the situational theories.

Sisk (1977) made an observation that the role of leadership in the work of organizing the functions of leadership in formal organizations was the attainment of organizational objectives by means of interpersonal relationships with the members of the group. An effective form of leadership brought about a climate which Hoy and Glover (1986) described as an Organizational Climate. They were of the view that 'the concept of organizational climate' could be summarized as, a relatively enduring quality of the school environment which was affected by the principal's leadership.

Halpin (1966) came out with two sets of behaviours of effective leadership. The first set, "initiating structure" dealt with a leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between the leader and the members of the work group and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and methods or procedures. He defined the second set as 'consideration', which involved the expression of friendship, mutual trust, respect and certain warmth between the leader and group. His concept of leadership stressed that the administrator, who wished to be a leader, must engage in both types of behaviour (although not necessarily at the same time), in order to

achieve the goals of the organization, while maintaining positive and satisfying relationships with others. The behaviour approach involves the 'style' a leader uses in dealing with subordinates.

The National Council for Women and Development (NCWD) 1998 Report in support of the leadership style stated that an effective woman in management was be a disciplined person, disciplining herself first before others. In most cases, such a woman was often considered a disciplinarian or to be too strict because her managerial style was often the bureaucratic type. In the Report, the woman in management was considered a disciplinarian and effective because of her adherence to managerial rules and the maintenance of an air of interest without her involvement in workers' personal problems; her efficiency in going through the right channels, and paying attention to detail while following orders to the letter and her acceptance that the only rules to follow existed and they were the past practices.

The Report further stated that the disciplined woman was not to rest on her oars, but to aim for managerial effectiveness, measured by the following basic criteria:

- 1. task oriented: the quality of wanting to get a job done.
- 2. relationship oriented: the quality of being interested primarily in people.
- 3. effectiveness oriented: the ability to obtain high productivity.

The Report encouraged the woman to aim at becoming an executive, try to combine all the three criteria listed above and view her job as getting the best out of others through people management.

Gorton and Snowden (1993) said the ability to recognize and address difficulties that confronted the staff members as a group showed a mark of effective leadership. The bureaucratic nature of educational systems put the head in a different situation when it came to addressing situations. However, more effort could be devoted to developing and understanding on the part of the staff, regarding the reasons why they are in the institution and their potential contributions and roles. The head should attempt to demonstrate the ability to lead and show appreciation of the participation and contributions of each staff. Gorton and Snowden defined "staff cohesiveness" as the "degree to which the members of a group were attracted to the group and were willing to take personal responsibility for its tasks; and willing to engage in co-operative actions to achieve goals". Staff trust was the extent to which the members felt secured with each other and were open toward each other. These factors associated with female administrators were important ingredients for the effective functioning of a group.

# Explanation for the Invisibility of Women in Education Decision making

Davies & Gunnwardena (1992) in their report identified a number of factors to explain the marginalization of females in education. The first factor they identified was sex roles. They explained that, the traditional sex role in the socialization paradigm could be used to explain gender inequity. It was a general notion that women the world over were almost irrevocably conditioned into certain orientations. This was a problem because it drew attention from the parties involved in the reproduction of discrimination by attributing expected roles to a

vague notion of the needs of society. Women in particular are blamed for not succeeding in their aspirations, conducted patterns and domesticated traits. It accentuates the concept of sex difference instead of gender inequality.

They looked first at the access conditions that determine progress within administrative fields. Differential qualifications may seem important and can be traced back to segregation at the training level. Yet, even in countries where women were more highly qualified than men, they still did not exceed men at senior levels, buttressing the fact that women were under represented in education decision making.

The third factor in the assessment was the job market. To identify the processes through which the selection of potential educational administrators takes place, one should explore the economic, political and cultural context of teaching. Teachers were professional workers in paid employment. Salary scales provided important information to them and to the public about their perceived worth. In some developing countries, there were still differentials in salary scales for men and women. In South Africa, pay discrimination was removed in 1984, but not for African women teachers. There were rules about women having to resign from public service on marriage, or being re-employed. Alternatively, basic salary scales were the same but fringe benefits - housing or cost-of-living-allowances - were much higher for men than for women. In institutional constraints, it was observed that co-educational schools could however be a mixed blessing for both students and teachers. The replication of 'natural' family

structure often meant the replication of conventional gender divisions. In single sex girls' schools, women teachers held administrative and organizational positions, while in boys' schools men were of necessity given roles such as pastoral duties, time tabling, and other much effective roles. Such allocation led to a spiral effect of under-valuing women. This was because women were not given the chance to demonstrate their administrative competence at a stage where men's 'natural' leadership ability was given prominence. Men had an over-inflated perception of their own potentials while women tended to be more pragmatic about the possibility of their 'reaching the top'. In the UK, the reason cited by male administrators for low proportions of senior women was women simply did not apply for the posts.

Al-Shallan (1990) indicated that in strictly segregated systems as in Saudi Arabia, management roles for women were limited, as women heads, for example, could never go to the ministry or see male heads even on professional issues; all communication had to be done by telephone or through a go-between. Women were thus limited in their experience, in that they could not gain in the area of educational planning and could never take central roles in the major decision making about national education.

Equally important was the understanding of the place of women teachers in the country's political history and the question of religion. Muslims differ in whether girls should go to school or be educated at home. Predominantly Muslim countries also had different views when it came to choosing between single-sex

and co-educational schools. However, in Quranic schools everywhere, female teachers were not recruited.

Coleman (1995) explained the invisibility of women in education and commented that despite the fact that there was a Sex Discrimination Act that made direct or indirect discrimination illegal, women still suffered a form of discrimination and prejudice in their career progression. Gender affected women's job promotion and career prospects. She added that a male teacher, as reported by the Clwyd County Council in 1983, hated to have a woman in any position of authority over him. It seemed that at every stage of education or other organization there appeared to be barriers to the advancement of women. Such organizational barriers operated not only against women, but also positively in favour of men. Whilst the most obvious aspects of discrimination were being identified and eliminated, the more subtle barriers remained. She identified the following as some of the reasons for the low representation of women in administrative positions:

The first was applications for promotion. There was evidence to show that women were less persistent than men in applications for promotion, particularly when a mentor did not support them actively in their application. Women tended to be self-critical in weighing up their chances of successfully obtaining promotion. Men held more positions of responsibility than women and tended to set the standards of what was expected from a manager; it was claimed that men were gatekeepers to the profession.

The second was lack of self-confidence. It remained to be seen whether institutional practice was changing. Even where there were changes there were still underlying subtle pressures and influences that hampered the career progress of women. Self-confidence was a necessary pre-requisite for successful job applications and it has been suggested that women were more likely to lack self-confidence in applying for jobs even if they were more qualified than their male colleagues.

The third was potential role conflict. Women were less inclined to advance into management, given the potential stress of role conflict that such moves involved. Women carried the main burden of dependents. The balancing of different roles and responsibilities was a considerable organizational achievement, but this was also experienced as a source of pressure. A move into management then was seen as compounding problems.

The fourth was realistic assessment of commitment. Women, not for lack of aspiration, would not seek promotion but because there was evidence that a woman took an overview when contemplating a decision about an increase in workload. Whereas a male teacher would apply for promotion as a simple career move, a female teacher would not separate the world of work from the rest of her life in the same way. Women tend to seek to bridge the personal and professional aspects of their lives and to reduce the gap between public and private roles.

The fifth was antipathy to male concepts of management. Alternatively the male image of management may be unappealing to women who would rather not become part of a culture which they saw as fostering aggressive competitive

behaviours, an emphasis on control rather than negotiation, collaboration and the pursuit of competition rather than shared problem-solving. Women would not identify with management because of the way it was practised. When women became managers, they often took on definitions of management, which excluded their experience and their understanding. This was because when theories of management were first applied to school, the application was seen as technical and logical. Therefore, those who practised management were expected, for example, to have the male qualities of analytical detachment, strong task direction and hard-nosed toughness. This identification of management with 'maleness' did not allow different ways in which women managers carried out their work, nor for the increasing recognition of the benefits of 'feminine' style management.

The sixth was evaluation of the worth of work. It seemed probable that many women in education choose deliberately to stay with classroom teaching rather than opt for a career that moved into school or college management. The same inclinations that made women in general 'work for self-fulfilment', for social relationships and to feel that they were making a contribution compelled women teachers to 'value classroom teaching and make it a priority. For them teaching and not management was 'real work'.

The seventh was dual career families. Women were strongly identified with the family. For years researchers studied the activities and attitudes of women in 'family life'. The men were part of the family, but they were not seen as carrying with them family problems when they went off to work. Employed women, however, were presumed to have, or want to have, a family. There was

the difficulty of leaving home or trying to maintain two homes (family and work).

Coleman then concluded that women still faced overt and covert form of discrimination and that was the basic reason why there were fewer women in top education management.

### Gender Sensitivity and Stereotyping

Williams (1984) stated that gender referred to the social, psychological and cultural attributes of masculinity and femininity. Gender pertained to the socially learned patterns of behaviour and the psychological or emotional expressions of attributes that distinguished males from females. She stated that gender referred to psychological attributes, characteristics and behaviours that were acquired with a social context and that were related to the social meanings of sexual categories in a given society. She further stated that, males and females were distinguished not only by their biological sex, but also by behaviour, as for, example, the kinds of clothes they wore or the kinds of work they did. Such differences, where they existed, were social constructions that could vary greatly from one culture to another.

Most of the early research on the content of gender stereotypes concentrated on personality traits associated with women and men. Yet it was obvious that many other domains were also linked to gender in most people's mind. Indeed, the person in the street could likely invoke sports, hobbies, occupations and a range of other domains in which the sexes were believed to differ. Stereotypes of gender could be differentiated on the basis of the role behaviours, physical characteristics and occupational status. However, the

dimensions were interrelated to the extent that information about one dimension could influence other dimensions, suggesting that the network of beliefs was interwoven.

Stereotypes based on gender historically placed women in a nurturing submissive role, while men were seen as the dominant, more aggressive gender. Stereotypes of men and women were derived, at least in part, from observing individuals in their societal positions, that is, men were more likely to assume the occupational role and women likely to assume the domestic role.

Moser (1986) identified three roles – reproductive, productive and managing roles. The reproductive role comprised the child bearing/rearing responsibilities and the domestic tasks undertaken by female representatives to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labour force. It included not only biological reproduction but also the care and maintenance of the work force (husband and working children) and the future work force (infants and school going children).

The productive role comprised work done by females and males for payment in cash or kind. It included both market production and an exchange value, subsistence/home production with an actual use-value, and also a potential exchange value. For females in agricultural production, this included work as independent farmers, peasant wives, and wageworkers. The community-managing role comprised activities undertaken wholly by females at the community level as an extension of their reproductive role. This was to ensure the provision and maintenance of their scarce resources of collective consumption

such as water, health care and education. It was voluntary and unpaid work undertaken in 'free time'.

Prichard and Evans (1970) indicated that Auguste Comte, the father of modern sociology, in constructing his views on the perfect society, saw women as mental and physical inferiors of men. According to Comte, as cited by Prichard and Evans, in all kinds of force, whether physical, intellectual, or practical, it was certain that man surpassed woman in accordance with the general law prevailing in the animal kingdom. Comte believed women should not work outside the home, own property or exercise political power. Their gentle nature required that they remain at home as mothers tending their children, and as wives tending their husbands' emotional, domestic and sexual needs. Comte viewed equality as a social and moral danger to women. He felt progress would result only from making the females' life more and more domestic, to diminish as far as possible the burden of out-door labour. Women, to Comte, were the pampered slaves of men.

One of the few people who felt there should be equality between men and women was Plato, a 4<sup>th</sup> century B.C. Greek philosopher and teacher of Aristotle. In his book, "The Republic", Plato constructed an utopian society, where women were included among the ruling elite, but men were still placed on higher status. Plato argued that men and women were similar in all respects except physical strength and the bearing and begetting of children. Therefore, the female and male guardians were to be educated alike in preparation for the assignment in the society. Women were to strip for exercise like the men did. Considering the time

in which he lived, perhaps one of Plato's most remarkable contributions was his recognition of individual differences among women, as well as among men. There was no special faculty of administration in a state for a woman because of her status, or a man by virtue of his sex, but the gifts of nature were alike diffused in both sexes.

Weinzweig (1979) on the other hand declared that the dominant view in many societies was that gender identities were expressions of what was 'natural'. People tended to assume that acting masculine or feminine was the result of an innate, biologically determined process rather than the result of socialisation and social-learning experiences. In order to support the view that gender-role differences were innate, people sought evidence from religion, the biological sciences and the social sciences to support their respective positions.

Many religions have overtly acknowledged that men were superior to women. For example, the Judeo-Christian story of creation, as found in the Bible NIV (1983), presents a God-ordained sex-role hierarchy, with man created in the image of God, and woman a subsequent and secondary act of creation. This account has been used as the theological justification that men were superior to women, who was created as a "help-mate" to man, and to bear his children. In traditional India for instance, the Hindu religion conceived women as a threat to male asceticism and spirituality. Women were, therefore, cut off physically from the outside world. They wore veils and voluminous garments and were never seen by men who were not members of their families. Only men were allowed access to, and involvement with, the outside world.

Supporters of the belief that the basic differences between males and females were biologically determined, have sought evidence from two sources, namely, studies of other animal species, including non-human primates (monkeys and apes) and that of the physiological differences between men and women. Ethnologists have observed that there are sexual differences in behaviour throughout much of the non-human animal world. Evidence indicates that these differences are biologically determined; that in any given specie, members of the same sex behave in much the same way and perform the same tasks and activities. Popularised versions of these ideas, such as those of Morris, (1969) in "The Human Zoo" or Tiger & Fax (1971) in "The Imperial Animal" generalise from the behaviour of non-human primates to that of humans. They maintained that in all primate species, including "Homo Sapiens", there were fundamental differences between males and females. They tried to explain human male dominance and the traditional sexual division of labour in all human societies on the basis of inherent male or female capacities. Sociologists believed that much of human social behaviour had a genetic basis. Patterns of social organizations, such as family systems, organised aggression, male dominance, territorial defence, and even religion, were seen to be rooted in the genetic structure of our species. The emphasis in sociology was on the inborn structure of social traits.

Contributing to the discourse, Logon (1987) was of the view that women traditionally have been stereotyped as more people-oriented and collaborative. Women were believed to be fond of consulting others before taking decisions. This was the management style of a democratic leader who depended on the

interpersonal, democratic approach and shared decision-making in the discharge of her administrative duties.

Gray and Shein (1996) observed on the other hand that the style of management had nothing to do with gender. To them, being a man or woman allowed distinct individuality or personality, disregarding sex stereotyping and this was also true for heads of schools. The study made it known that women in leadership positions were more democratic and willing to share while male executives were more autocratic and directive.

In a similar vein, Powell (1993) stated that women and men did not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favoured men while others favoured women.

Davies & Gunnwardena (1992) observed that women conformed to stereotyped gender roles, which were counselling, hospitality and support services. They stated that this led to a spiral of under-evaluation where women were not given the chance to demonstrate administrative competence. This behaviour put women into pre-determined roles that prevented them from infiltrating into other parts of the work environment and inhibiting their growth potential (p. 31).

However, Karsten (1994) observed that some women adopted the autocratic and directive style (masculine style) of leadership, which violated the norms associated with the feminine style of leadership, which was impersonal and democratic-oriented. This implied that to break the mould, some women

emulated their male colleagues in order to push themselves up in the world of work.

Hoy and Miskel (1982) stated that the persistence of cooperation depended upon two conditions of effectiveness and its efficiency. Effectiveness related to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which was social and non-personal in character. Efficiency related to the satisfaction of individual motives, and it was personal in character. Effectiveness was the accomplishment of common purpose(s). The test of efficiency was the eliciting of sufficient individual's will to cooperate. Administrators and managers across school business settings exhibited regular patterns of behaviour and character. They worked hard primarily in offices, in a pragmatic fashion, by talking and working on a variety of tasks exhibiting the different characters of efficiency and effectiveness. Their main concerns were the tasks, individuals and interpersonal relations worked out. Their ability to organise work and relate to subordinates was very important.

Tancred-Sheriff (1991) made many recommendations with a focus on changing attitudes and creating women-friendly environment and the identification of factors that can facilitate implementation of gender sensitivity and awareness. To him, real social change would only occur when everyone understood and accepted that women deserved equal status as human beings and were capable of performing on the job roles people thought were only for men, such as, engineering. The Commonwealth Conference of Women Engineers (CCWE, 1991) report stated that the acceptance of women in engineering was

especially important to facilitate engineering where some male students and professors still discriminated covertly against female students and women in the work place; where many women engineers did not have the respect of staff, coworkers and supervisors. The CCWE stated that a change in attitude would take time, but would only be accelerated by education and awareness programmes that reinforced gender sensitivity.

Sutton and Moore (1985) have recorded that the percentage of male executives who favoured women executives rose from 35% in 1965 to 73% in 1985. They found only 5% of male executives who felt women needed to be exceptional to be successful in business as compared to 90% in 1965. The percentage of men who felt comfortable working for women had increased from 27% to 47% in the same period. They went on to say that in 1965 women held only 15% of executive positions in management but by 1985 the figure had risen to 40%, with women rising to higher levels of seniority in corporations. Linden (1964) stated that, nevertheless, women still lagged behind.

Goodman (1993) stated that women accepted certain gender occupations and this was evident in the curriculum of schools. A view of women as home workers affected what was taught in schools since the focus of the curriculum was to prepare students for future work roles. Females were portrayed as wives, social workers, nurses and helpers of men.

Kelly and Nehlin (1982) observed that in most instances, women found it difficult to combine their traditional roles in the home with official duties at their

work places. They therefore assessed the commitments involved in the respective work before accepting responsibility.

Manuh (1991) revealed that the way in which Victorian values, introduced by the colonial powers, defined men as bread winners, helped to create a situation in which Ghanaian women were to receive little or no remuneration from the colonial administration for the many forms of work (such as farming and food production) in which they were engaged. In many societies in the world, women were ascribed traditional roles. These roles were dictated by the societies in which they found themselves.

Greenstreet (1971) made an inquiry into traditional Ghanaian society and observed that it was based on a subsistence economy in which division of labour existed between men and women. According to her "the main function of women was to look after the home, raise children and to give regular assistance with farm work such as the planting and harvesting of crops" (p.117).

Rogers (1980) carried out investigations into the domestication of women in developing countries, and stated that, the striking feature of Western ideology was the enormous emphasis on the exclusive role of the biological mother in nurturing infants and children, particularly in the first few years. "This was closely linked with the identification of women's place in the domestic sphere; as wives and mothers, the home was presented to them as their primary occupation" (p.20).

Dahlstrom (1967) conducted an inquiry into the changing roles of men and women and stated that the woman's most important role was widely considered to

be that of caring for the home and children. To them, the woman's participation in formal, paid work was secondary, something that she could undertake when the children had grown older.

Another militating factor that impedes the participation of women in formal work was the lack of access to available managerial vacancies. According to Deaux (1976), at the managerial level there existed an "old boys network" which was predominantly male. Women were thought of as "outsiders" or "intruders" when they gained access to managerial positions. He pointed out that men felt more comfortable with their own kind rather than with the opposite sex. They were malevolent towards women who were mostly at a disadvantage because they lacked mentors in most senior level executive positions. This situation caused them to work extra hard at their jobs and that made them seem to be over-enthusiastic.

Deaux encouraged organisations to realise the value of women in the corporate hierarchy and to judge women on the basis of their ability instead of their gender. Women had a more arduous task of proving their ability because their success was generally attributed to "luck" whereas men's achievements were credited to their ability. He advised parents to encourage their daughters to work hard and aim at self-actualisation to enable them pursue an educational route that could place them at managerial positions instead of them feeling intimidated at the sort of competition they grew up to face in a male-dominated world. He was of the view that the perception of women would change if they were taught to develop more autonomous and positive skills. He stated that females would no

longer see their place in society as the passive nurturer, whose place was in the home.

Deaux admonished parents to see the need for appropriate and encouraging childhood direction to give girls equal opportunities to pursue goals they were previously discouraged from attempting. He went on to say that for women to succeed in the male- dominated world of business, they were to be made familiar with the system, be ready to accept that the sex difference would be difficult to overcome and that women should strive to excel and not give in to pressures from the primarily male-dominated business world. Deaux also stated that women should capitalize on their strengths, recognise their weaknesses and improve upon them with positive attitude and tenacity to withstand pitfalls, which would enable them to achieve managerial success. He continued that women who developed their own businesses preferred the freedom of exercising their own managerial duties, and thereby avoiding discrimination as found in the traditional corporate hierarchy.

World Bank Paper 244 (1994) stated that low advances in education hindered women from getting employed at higher levels. According to the Paper, of the many socio-economic/cultural factors inhibiting women's participation in higher education, three were worth noting. First, low secondary school enrolments greatly reduced the scope for progress in higher education. The second factor was the fact that even if secondary enrolments were high, the drop out and repetition rates of girls in most developing countries were so high as to result in only a small pool of completers eligible for higher education. Third,

from the demand side, the low level of manufacturing and service activities discouraged parents from sending their girls for university education, as they did not see prospects for absorption into the formal labour market.

Dapaah (1986) gave various reasons why Ghanaian women rarely got One main constraint was that women who found management positions. themselves in management positions found that they were supposed to be in a man's world and were therefore faced with the problem of having to prove themselves. This made such women feel that they had to put in more effort than their male counterparts. There was also a lack of ambition on the part of many Ghanaian women because, according to Dapaah, once some women attained a certain level in management they felt comfortable and did not want to risk leaving those positions for higher ones. This was because they felt they had already achieved more than enough for a woman. He further stressed that employers were also reluctant to promote women to higher positions involving more responsibilities, because they believed women could not cope with the workload. Lack of interest in females pursuing education to higher levels, according to him, was another constraint, as this had in the past been considered the preserve of males. Though the situation was steadily changing with more and more females getting higher education, gender imbalance was significantly apparent in leadership positions in the Ghana Education Service (GES) in 1999 (Women/Gender Issues in Management- Handout Overview) (p 6) as depicted in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of Administrators in the GES

Designation	Women	Men	Total	% of Women
Divisional Directors	4	6	10	40
Regional Directors	l(Acting)	9	10	10
District Directors (in Headquarters)	16	5	21	76
District Directors (Regional Offices)	9	2	11	81.8
District Directors (District Offices)	22	79	101	27.8
Principals of Teacher Training	8	30	38	21
Colleges				
Heads of Senior Secondary Schools	43	395	438	9.8

Table I shows clearly that in 1999, the Ghana Education Service had only 40% of its Divisional Directors to be women and out of the 10 Regional Directors, the only woman was in an Acting capacity. At the GES Headquarters, 16 out of 21 District Directors were women, an encouraging 76%. At the Regional Offices, nine out of the eleven District Directors were women. These were, however, serving as deputies to men in the Regional Education Offices. Out of 101 District Directors at the District Offices, only 22 were women. 21% of Principals of Teacher Training Colleges were women, that is, eight out of 38. Only 43 or 9.8% out of the 438 Heads of Senior Secondary Schools in Ghana were women.

### Role Conflict

Floyd and Thatcher (1982) wrote that role conflicts take the form of workhome role conflict, management-workers conflict and management-superior conflict. Role conflicts usually took positive or negative turns when women headed the organization. For most women, work remained something to be interwoven with the role of wives and mothers. Women's dual role had been stressed endlessly, but the dual concept was confined to the "home and work" dilemma. It was often said that women were to be twice as good as the male counterparts at their jobs if they were to succeed. As far as their leadership duties were concerned, female leaders who were frequently praised for their ability to work more effectively with subordinates, increased their prestige in the family, increased their workload, intensified their mental stress and aggravated the problems related to child rearing and household management.

Goode (1993) assumed that multiple roles would be harmful for one's well being. He perceived a linear relationship between the number of roles and the amount of roles strain, that is, the more social roles an individual played, the greater the role strain she he would experience. Goode revealed that in American families, where both the husband and wife worked they were engulfed in a set of strains which caused stress, especially if they were ill prepared to cope, and unless a proper balance was maintained between their work and all other aspects of their lives, married couples normally faced a number of conflicts and distress.

According to Brew and Ekuban (1991), long periods spent on household chores made women tired and reduced the time available for other activities. They also added that, a mother might have to reduce the amount of time she spent on her household duties because of her outside employment.

Kanter (1996) stated that the influence of work-related stress on the family lives of many workers had been documented extensively in counselling and

family life literature. He described five aspects of work, which had important effects on family life and well being. The first was the relative absorption of an occupation. The occupation left less time, emotion and commitment for family life. The second one was the timing of work and its effect on the free time for family activities. The third was resources – the income and reward, which were provided by the work and which may be used for the benefit of the family. The influence of work activity and work culture on the value system of the individual was another important domain where work influenced family lives and behaviour. Finally, the emotional aspects of work were strongly linked with the emotional tone one brought home.

Neumann and Neumann (1990) defined work stress as an individual's reactions to the characteristics of the work environment that appeared threatening. It resulted from job demands, constraints, and other job related events or situations that interfered with an individual's role fulfilment. They further stated that job performance suffered and other types of activities emerged, such as politicking and even sabotage. Stress created an unfriendly work environment and that reduced work performance directly (p. 567).

According to Lai (1995), stress spill-over occurs when problems in one role spill over into another role and/or in a reciprocal direction. Stress spill over between work and family roles had been shown to be prevalent among working couples, especially wives. She cautioned that to release themselves from work-related problems, workers should check the cause of stress and frustration on spouses and other family members. Interpersonal conflicts at the work place

could further have a spill over impact on family roles by lowering family satisfaction. Pressures at home and conflict relationships with family members could also affect one's performance on the job and relations with co-workers, thus affecting one's satisfaction at work.

Apter (1993) said many people, men and women alike, were more comfortable in one sphere than another and they tried to bring the best from one sphere into the other. People compromised and accepted trade-offs, as they juggled the needs in a society that did not provide a friendly pattern. She contended that women had more difficulties "compartmentalising their behaviour and their personae" (p.42).. They had more trouble than men did at switching off their concerns about their families when they were at work

Ayeh (1986) defined stress as the degree of tension, anxiety and pressure experienced by people. He stated that male teachers were absent less frequently than their female colleagues, and that the frequent nature of female teachers' absenteeism impact might be the consequence of their dual role as career teachers and parents primarily responsible for child raising and household management. Writing about problems faced by women working in formal organisations within Kumasi, he indicated that women found it difficult to reconcile the two demanding roles that resulted in role conflicts. The combination of these two roles had series of repercussions on their health, efficiency, productivity, and the upbringing of the child. Working mothers were often late for work, and sometimes left the work place before official closing hours because of their responsibilities at home.

Brekke (1985) contended that most women were simply not able to put in the same number of hours at their jobs as men and that though, in most cases, female teachers received help from relatives, maids, and sometimes husbands in their household chores, housekeeping still interfered with their punctuality in the classroom.

In a research carried out in Accra, Anker (1986) revealed that women were more prone to absenteeism than their male counterparts because of illness in the family, usually that of a child and, in a few cases, of a husband, parent, uncle or aunt, and personal illness. Combining leadership responsibilities with domestic duties tended to bring about inter-role conflict among women and this created a barrier to women's career development.

Marshal (1996) contended that administrative positions demanded nearly total immersion, long hours, many evening meetings, and high personal visibility and for women the norm conflicted with their domestic role. The spill over effect of work and family roles had high influence of work-home conflict on female administrators.

Poskitt (1976) revealed in her study that if women did succeed, they brought in not only particular skills in leadership but also fulfilled male expectations of their leadership. In leadership, they were the role models for fellow women. These high levels of duties in domestic and professional roles, management styles and societal perceptions were not expected of their male counterparts.

Lewin (1948) held the view that in all organisations, some amount of role conflict was inevitable but a lot of unnecessary conflict could be reduced by careful structuring of task and objective communication among members so as to clarify roles and bring role perceptions as close as possible to role expectations. Accurate perception was important because it affected group effectiveness while overt forms of social behaviour depended largely on the perception of the social environment.

Al Khalif (1992) considered potential role conflict in relation to women's participation in management positions, and concluded that women might be less inclined to advance in management, given the potential stress of role conflict that such moves brought about. In the study where a woman was the 'main-man' in an organization, balancing the different role responsibilities that could be applied in managing the organization or institution was a source of pressure and a move into management by the woman was seen as compounding the role conflict.

Clerk(1996) confirmed that childcare responsibilities were solely assigned to women in Ghana. Women who opted to participate in public life therefore found themselves carrying triple workload. The 'triple workload' was domestic work, childcare, and work outside the home, the first two of which were a hindrance to women's participation in management. In these activities, the woman was neither a leader nor a head except in single parent homes or women's organizations.

Murphy (1990) described the roles of the leader in the assisting of teaching and learning. The school administrator's time was heavily devoted to

matters such as curriculum and instructions of issues affecting students' discipline, parent relations, plant operations and school finance. Most principals did not meaningfully supervise and evaluate teachers, plan and co-ordinate curriculum, actively monitor the technology of the school or progress of students or spend time in the classroom nor did they act as instructional leaders.

Edson (1988) revealed that women administrators were always on display and vulnerable to attack in the misogynous male world of education. He stated that whether or not the assault actually occurred was less important than the knowledge that it was always possible women's status was perceived as a token at male dominated work places.

Bell and Chase (1988) asked the question, "Why would a School Board be inclined to select a less-qualified man when there were more well-qualified women?" They gave the answer as 'social conformity' because organizations had many characteristics that created pressure for members to conform to accepted standards. School Boards faced a great deal of uncertainty, ambiguity and not a little conflict in fulfilling their mandate to govern the schools. Naturally then, in looking for a superintendent, Board members wanted to reduce that uncertainty, for they realized that the superintendent could exercise wide-range discretionary authority on their behalf. They therefore wanted one whom they felt they could rely on, trust and whose behaviour they could predict, so they looked for one whose values, experience and language they shared, someone like themselves.

This was social homogeneity and it increased the confidence, predictability, ease of communication and trust that were essential in all effective

organizations. When people who were 'different' were brought into the inner circles of organizations it became difficult to preserve the culture of trust that homogeneity fosters. Bell and Chase answered their own question by explaining that what the preferred candidates (men) had going for them and what operated against the women who applied (for the job) was a social homogeneity factor and in that case, the male Board members found it easier to communicate and interact with, and hence trust male candidates for the post of superintendent.

#### Studies on Women

Falancer (1994) delved into how women administrators were perceived in Jesuit higher educational institutions and found out that though women student population there was over 50% of the student body the number of women in higher level administration constituted only 13.6%. In this research, some women spoke of mentors and role models that had inspired them but others suggested that they did not fit into the existing masculine styles of leadership.

Filippelli (1995) conducted another study on the first female presidents of a co-educational Public Institution of higher education in America. It came out that traditionally American Universities and Colleges had chosen male, white, middle-class presidents to lead them and that it was in recent years that women had made progress in their quest for inclusion at the highest level of higher education administration.

Nott's (1995) study on women and minorities indicated that participation of women and racial minorities in the academic labour market cut across all fields of study and types of institutions. Women presented a huge potential source of

academic labour supply. Their presence as potential academics was itself a function of complex phenomena and they were seen as shifting from their expected role in society. Balancing career and family-centred pursuits increased workplace opportunities for women outside academia. Economic realities also affected women's decisions to seek and sustain academic careers. It was clear that greater efforts should be made to encourage interest among minorities in academic careers, as well as receptivity in academia towards them.

Inove (1997) looked at educational and occupational attainment process for American Women. This study expected a modification of the 1969 Wisconsin model (a process by which men attain social status in American society) to address these questions: "Is the process for women the same as that for men, and does socio-economic background play a similar role in the educational and occupational attainment of women as that for men?" Her results indicated that the process was the same for men and women and that the privilege of social origin was equally important for both. Women's high school academic performance was superior to men's yet they had lower educational and occupational aspirations and attainments than men. The results also provided considerable evidence that the development and maintenance of status aspirations in high school exerted a pronounced influence on the probability of an individual's success in educational and early occupational attainment.

Maxine (1997) also examined the conceptual basis of the presidents' leadership agenda and feminist leadership models of higher education. The study reveals two distinct but interconnected scholarly domains, women in higher

education leadership and women issues in higher education. What emerged from this inquiry was that while processes of leadership behaviour may reflect "women's ways of leading", the substantive or tangible outcomes of a leader's actions were not necessarily feminist in nature. The findings reinforced the dangers in women accepting and celebrating that they had a peculiar leadership style. She emphasized that women needed to resist the hegemonic (political domination) discourse around gender and leadership and acknowledge that women leaders enact their own realities (in their roles as leaders) in a variety of ways, which make sense to them.

Edson's (1988) study showed more women aspiring for administrative work and though more were enrolling into courses there was not much increase in their appointment into administrative positions. The American Association of School Administrators reported that whereas in 1981-82, 25% of American School Administrators were female, by 1984-85 the figure had increased by 1% to 26% and moreover the higher the administrative position, the lower the proportion of women appointed. While 21% of school principals in America were women in 1984-85 only 16% were deputy, assistant or associate superintendents and fewer than 3% of superintendents were female (p.281).

Acheampong (1999) examined the factors that contributed to women's low level of participation in the management of educational institutions in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana and found that:

 Women did not strive hard for educational attainment to enable them qualify to take up leadership responsibilities in

- managing the schools in the Region.
- Traditional concept of leadership was that males were to head, women were secondary to males, and as such, they could not head. This was a contributory factor to the low participation of females in educational management.
- Male dominant working environment was another hindrance to female participation in school management.
- 4. Women generally declined to take up leadership positions even if they qualified.
- Men were more physically stronger than women to carry out management duties.
- Female teachers did not show interest in becoming heads of schools; rather they were interested in marriage responsibilities and trading.

### Summary

The administrative practice of management consists of a process, which is made up of planning, organising, communicating, supervising, commanding, controlling and co-ordinating. It is putting these into operation in an organisation that effective administration can take place. In an organisation where the administrator displays good communicating and delegating skills as well as with effective supervisory role then he is sure to effect the achievements of the colleges' goals.

The role perception of the administrator was seen as an effective relationship between work performance and goals. The role of the leader was measured as rights and duties performed by administrators irrespective of the individual. It was realised that the leaders did not exhibit one form of style in running an institution. It was also revealed that colleges could be run effectively if all tutors, students, supervisors and parents in short stakeholders were involved in events and decision concerning the institutions instead of the administrators being the sole decision- makers.

Women in decision making in education was very effective. Their relationship with their subordinates was amicable and all were involved to help bring about achievements and results to set goals. The women used democratic style of authority in running the colleges and were seen as very effective, but women invisibility in education showed that women were marginalized in the administrative sector of education. Women did not rise or succeed to heights because their aspirations were low and more of domestic origin and there were very few women mentors. The women had the feel that they could not stand the organisational barrier against them so did not look forward to administrative positions.

Gender sensitivity and stereotyping were attributed to, psychological, emotional and behavioural expressions that distinguish the male from the female. The women were more of a nurturing and submissive role while men were taken as dominant and more aggressive. It is also on record also that though more women are being enrolled for higher academic levels they are still in the minority.

The role conflict was affecting the women at work where the home or domestic activities and family programmes came into conflict with work. Women were more involved with domestic activities to the detriment of the official work and they were also stressed and frustrated by their spouses as well as at their official duties since combining the two was a problem and the domestic one took a better part of the women.

From these studies on women there is evidence that over the years women have been striving to attain higher levels in academic and work places. The women have been displaying the bureaucratic form of administration and leadership style, which has been showing effective results at the different work places. Administration is the over-sighting and management of organizations. It has mostly been a man's domain but from studies, women have also attained some administrative heights and were doing very well, while at the same time administering their homes with a lot of efficiency.

The leadership styles of women in administrative positions have been reviewed in chapter two where there is all indication that women in these positions have put effective structures in place, which have brought about improvement and high work output and helped livened administrative work. Though more women are striving to enter the administrative hemisphere their numbers are still low.

#### **CHAPTER THREE**

#### METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the various procedures that were followed to obtain information for the study. This write-up contains a description of the research design, target population, accessible population, sampling technique, research instrument used, administering and collection of information and data analysis plan. The work is non-parametric.

#### Research Design

The research design adopted for the study was the descriptive survey, a type of qualitative research design. Patton (1985) has observed that: "[Qualitative research] is an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions. This understanding is an end in itself, so that it is not necessarily attempting to predict what may happen in the future".

Merriam (1998) has stated, among other things, that the "descriptive research design's key concern is the understanding of the ... phenomenon of interest from the participants' perspectives, not the researcher's" [p.6]. She further observed, "... descriptive studies are undertaken because there is a lack of theory. or existing theory fails to adequately explain a phenomenon..." [p.7]. The researcher assumed that there was either inadequate or unavailable information on tutors' perception of women in management positions in teacher training colleges in Ghana and that it would be possible for the researcher to generate the necessary

information with this type of design. It is expected that data gathered from the field through a descriptive survey would provide relevant information to policy makers on what the actual situation is in the teacher training colleges.

## **Population**

The target population is the large group of people who exhibit characteristics that stimulate research work. The target population of the study comprised all tutors in all the 38 public teacher training colleges that are spread throughout Ghana. This population was the target for data collection to answer questions on, '... teaching staff perceptions of women in management positions in training colleges in Ghana'. (Refer to Fig. 1 p. 13.)

The accessible population was made up of all teacher training colleges located in the southern half of the country. According to Ary, Jacob and Razaviah (1985) the accessible group, is the group from which the researcher takes the sample for the study (p.139). Thus the accessible population was made up of all tutors of training colleges in Ashanti, Central, Greater Accra, Western and Volta Regions. This category of tutors should have worked or are working under female administrators.

## Sample

The sample for the study, (28 males and 24 females), was drawn from tutors of nine teacher-training colleges in the southern part of Ghana. A total of (52) fifty-two respondents formed the sample from which information was

collected for the study. Table 2 gives the detailed information on respondents for the study.

Table 2

Distribution of Respondents by Institutions

Institution	No. of Res	pondents	
	M	<b>}</b>	
Komenda Training College	31	4	
Ada Training College	20	8	
Accra Training College	-	2	
Holy Child Training College	6	3	
OLA Training College	6	3	
Wesley Training College	5	4	
St. Francis Training College	4	3	
St. Louis Training College	5	4	
St. Theresa's Training College	2	2	
Total	28	24	

#### Sampling Technique

To get the desired information, sampling was done for staff or respondents working with female administrators in the selected teacher training colleges. This technique was used to identify the direct source of respondents with the information that was to generate the relevant data to answer the research questions.

Sample selection was done in the following two phases:

Phase 1: Census sample selection. This was done in training colleges which did not have female administrators as their principals but rather had administrators

who were heading departments and houses. The institutions in this category were Komenda, Accra, and Ada Teacher Training Colleges. This type of sample selection procedure was used because staffs working under female administrators were not many and could only be found in those places. A total of 6 respondents were chosen at this phase. Table 3 shows the details.

Table 3

Distribution of Respondents Using the Census Sampling Technique

	Sa	mple			
Training Colleges	Male Female				
Komenda	<del></del>	2			
Ассга	-	2			
Ada	-	2			
Total	0	6			

Phase 2: The stratified random sampling took place in the six other institutions which had females as administrators because they had a larger number of staff members from whom a selection could be made. The institutions were Holy Child, Wesley College, OLA, St Francis, St Theresa's and St Louis Teacher Training Colleges. The stratified random selection was done to obtain respondents who were both male and female, since all the members of staff there were potential respondents. In each college the researcher collected a staff list from the school's general office. The staff list was divided into the male and female components. Numbers were then assigned to the names on each list (male and female lists) by the researcher. The numbers were written on pieces of paper and

put into separate boxes for males and females. The lottery method was used for the selection. The pieces of paper with numbers were randomly selected from the boxes. The teachers whose numbers were selected formed the sample/respondents. A total of 46 respondents were selected with this technique. Table 4 indicates the colleges, and the sample sizes.

Table 4

Distribution of Respondents Using the Stratified Random Sampling Technique

	· <del></del>	No of Tutors	
Training Colleges	Male	Women	Total
Wesley College	4	4	8
Holy Child	6	3	9
OLA	6	3	9
St Francis	4	3	7
St Theresa's	2	2	4
St Louis	5	4	9
Total	27	19	46

# Data Collection Instrument

The questionnaire was the main instrument for collecting data used in this research. This is because, as Sarantakos (1993) has observed, the questionnaire facilitates the collection of data from respondents with minimum interference on the part of the research personnel. The instrument focused on finding out the tutors' perception of their female administrators, how the tutors relate to them and the effect of their leadership style on tutors' performance. The questionnaire was

used since it is noted for its reliability. As claimed by Rowden (1994), it has a high response rate that can be obtained from self-administered survey.

The questionnaire also simplifies the stage of data analysis as information obtained is already well organised. After intensive review of literature, the questionnaire was designed based on (a) the salient points in the literature review and (b) the research questions. Section two was made up of three types of Likert tables on the perception of the female administrator's leadership style, her performance and work ethics under the following options:

Perception

Always

Sometimes

Never

Respondents were required to place an 'X' in the appropriate box corresponding to one of the three- possible responses. The final section, the third, was made up of six open-ended items, which allowed the respondents the opportunity to express their opinion in writing. An example of such questions was: "Would you prefer an increase of women in administrative positions in Ghanaian Teacher Training College.

## Pre - testing of Instrument

The researcher, with the assistance of the supervisors, developed the questionnaire and pre-tested it to ensure that the items were unambiguous and would elicit the appropriate responses from the sample respondents.

Six male and four female tutors of Fosu Teacher Training College were selected to respond to the pre-test questionnaire after permission had been sought from their principal. After the pretest, it became necessary to modify or restructure some of the items to make their meaning clearer to the respondents while others that were similar in meaning or repeated were either rewritten or deleted from the final questionnaire. An example was the question, "How many years have you worked with a female?" which was recast to read "How many years have you worked under a female administrator?"

#### Instrument Administration and Data Collection

Letters of introduction (Appendix B) were sent out to seek permission from the Principals of the selected institutions to enable the researcher explain and distribute questionnaires (Appendix A) to the respondents. Some respondents immediately answered and returned the questionnaires, while others asked for some more time to work on them because they were busy on the first day of the administration of the questionnaire. Respondents were given envelopes to enclose the answered questionnaires in to ensure confidentiality since they were asked to hand them over to their principals for safe-keeping until the researcher went back to retrieve them. Six missing questionnaires had to be replaced; this however did not adversely affect the data collection. Those who had then not completed answering the questionnaire were encouraged to complete them on the last days the researcher visited the colleges. It took four weeks to retrieve the questionnaires from all the respondents.

## Data Analysis

All closed and open-ended items were coded before the questionnaires were distributed. Three types of Likert tables with the following responses to various items: (1) 'Always', 'Sometimes' and 'Never', 'Always' connoted a positive response and full agreement, while 'Sometimes' meant or indicated a mid-position and 'Never' stood for a complete disagreement with the statement.

(2) 'To a great extent', 'To some extent' and 'Not at all' (3) 'Agree' and 'Disagree'.

After the collection, the entire data were coded and then fed into the computer to be analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. All the results were presented in tables of frequencies and percentages.

#### CHAPTER FOUR

# ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

This chapter presents the results and analysis of a survey conducted amongst 28 male and 24 female tutors in nine Teacher Training Colleges in the Ashanti, Central, Greater Accra, Western and Volta Regions of Ghana. The study sought to answer the following research questions:

- 1. What is the perception of tutors, regarding women in administrative positions in educational institutions?
- 2. How do subordinates relate to their female administrators?
- 3. Does working under a female administrator affect work performance?
- 4. What do colleagues and subordinates expect of their female administrative heads?
- 5. What is the attitude of tutors towards female heads?

#### Demographic Data of Respondents

Tables 5 - 10 give a summary of respondents' sex, age, professional and academic qualifications, ranks in the Ghana Education Service (GES), work experience under female administrator and categories of female administrators under whom respondents work. These were all sampled to get the demographic information on respondents.

### Distribution of Respondents by Sex

Table 5 shows the sex distribution of the respondents. The 52 respondents were made up of 28 males and 24 females. The perception of the two groups was very relevant to the study since it helped to sample their individual views, as well as their views as a group.

Table 5

<u>Distribution of Respondents by Sex</u>

Sex	Frequency	Percentage		
Male	28	53.8		
Female	24	46.2		
Total	52	100.0		

# Distribution of Respondents by Age

In Table 6 the respondents were asked to indicate their ages. It was to help find out the age range of tutors teaching in Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs). The majority of respondents were within the ages of 36 and 45 years. This group accounted for 50% of the respondents; the mean age of the tutors at these institutions was 40 years. A very small percentage, 3.8%, fell in the group above 55 years of age. The data collected showed that tutors in the TTCs were widely spread among the age ranges, with the majority of them falling into the active working age group. The age distribution (31-45 years) is similar (though with different ranges) to Chapman's (1990) findings that in the Australia the majority of teachers in decision-making positions were within the ages of 30-40.

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Age

Frequency	Percentage
4	7.7
6	11.5
4	7.7
13	25.0
13	25.0
5	9,6
5	9,6
2	3.8
52	100.0
	4 6 4 13 13 5 5

# Highest Professional and Academic Qualifications

To qualify to teach in a TTC one is supposed to possess, at least, a diploma certificate or a first degree in a subject area and/or education. Table 7 shows that the majority of the tutors were degree holders since out of the 52 respondents, 42 representing almost 81% held a Bachelor's degree, which satisfied the minimum requirement for teaching in a TTC. The data showed that there were three respondents with a Master's degree and that represented nearly 6% of the total respondents. It is very clear then that the majority of the teachers were highly qualified academically and so it could be assumed that, with that calibre of tutors in the TTCs, the quality of tuition would be correspondingly high.

Table 7

Highest Professional and Academic Qualification of Respondents

Frequency	Percentage
6	11.5
42	80.8
1	1.9
3	5.8
52	100.0
	6 42 1 3

# Rank of Respondents in the Ghana Education Service

The ranks of the tutors show their position or status in the hierarchy of the Ghana Education Service (GES). The respondents were asked to indicate their present rank in the GES and the results are as set out in Table 8.

Table 8

<u>Distribution of Respondents by Rank</u>

Frequency	Percentage	
1	1.9	
4	7.7	
17	32.7	
16	30.8	
14	26,9	
52	100.0	
	1 4 17 16 14	

By their qualifications and ranks, almost all the respondents were eligible to hold supervisory positions. Table 8 shows that about 47 respondents, representing 90.4%, were in the supervisory category. Of these, 32.7% (17) were at the Senior Superintendent level, 30.8% (16) at the Principal Superintendent level, while 26.9% (14) of them were Assistant Directors. The data suggest that for one to hold a management or supervisory position at a tertiary institution (which the Teacher Training institutions are), one must have risen to, at least, the GES rank of Principal Superintendent and be a holder of a degree or equivalent or a higher professional qualification.

## Work Experience Gained Under Female Administrators

The responses to the item on the number of years respondents had worked under the supervision of female administrators revealed that all the respondents had worked for a number of years, with the least being in the range of one and five years and the longest experience being gained in the 16 and over 26 years ranges. Table 9 gives details of that.

Table 9

Respondents' Work Experience Under Female Administrators

Range of Duration	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 5 years	26	50.0
6 – 10 years	15	28.8
11 – 15 years	8	15.4
16 – 20 years	1	1.9
21 – 25 years	1	1.9
26+	1	1.9
Total	52	100.0

From Table 9 it can be seen that 50 % of the respondents have worked under female administrators for between one and five years. This gives an indication that respondents were in a good position to answer the questionnaire fairly, since they had all had some years of experience working with female administrators.

# Categories of Female Administrators under Whom Respondents Worked

Some women had successfully striven to get into administrative positions either by pursuing further education or rising through the ranks, and they were heading institutions and departments. Table 10 gives a summary of the data collected.

Table 10

<u>Categories of Female Administrators under whom Respondents Worked</u>

Categories of Administrators	Frequency	Percentage
Principal	23	44.2
Vice Principal	12	23.1
Head of Department	1	1.9
Senior Housemistress	2	3.8
Principal & Vice Principal	6	11.5
Vice Principal & Senior	1	1.9
Housemistress		
Principal, Vice Principal &		
Senior Housemistress	7	13.5
Total	52	100.0

Table 10 shows the different categories of female administrators the respondents were subordinate to at the different institutions. It was realized that thirty-eight respondents, representing 73.1% of the respondents were, at the time of the research, working with either a Principals, Vice Principal, Head of Department, or Senior Housemistress who was a female. The remaining 14 respondents, representing 26.9 % were working under the supervision of two or more female administrators. From the responses it can be deduced that every respondent worked under the supervision of one or more female administrators.

## Perception of Female Administrators' Leadership Style

Item 11 was designed to determine the Leadership Style of the female administrators in the colleges. A three-point Likert table was used to record the respondents' views on the administrative performance of their female administrators. The positive aspects of leadership comprise good supervision. communication, management, and programming. The responses in Table 11 indicate the perception respondents had concerning the leadership style of their female administrators. A number of findings were made with regard to the perceptions as revealed in Table 11.

Concerning the leadership style of the female administrators, 86.6% of the respondents agreed that their administrators delegated authority to their staff members while 84.6% of the staff also confirmed that the women administrators really went about the supervision of their subordinates judiciously and with a human face.

Table 11

Respondent's Perception on Female Administrators Leadership Style

Leadership Style	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total
Delegates authority where possible	45	6	1	52
	(86.6)	(11.5)	(1.9)	(100)
Involves others in decisions that affect	41	11	0	52
them	(86.6)	(11.5)	(0)	(100)
Effective in supervision of subordinates	44	8	0	52
	(84.7)	(15.3)	(0)	(100)
Regular staff meetings	50	1	1	52
	(96.1)	(1.9)	(1.9)	(100)
Involves students in communal activities	44	6	2	52
	(84.7)	(11.5)	(3.8)	(100)

NB: Numbers in brackets are percentages.

There is every indication that the female administrators exercised effective supervisory roles in the various institutions, this meant that there was co-ordination amongst the staff. This finding agrees with Logon (1987) who stated that leadership style could be exhibited in how the head of a group delegated authority to the subordinates and how best the group was involved in decision-making. In the training colleges a majority of the staff, about 78.8% affirmed the point that the women administrators encouraged staff involvement in decision

making, which concerned themselves and the school as a whole. This involvement in turn contributes to the effective running of the colleges.

On the issue of either holding or not holding regular staff meeting, 96.1% responded that their female administrators held regular staff meetings while only 1.9% each said they either sometimes or never held staff meetings. This finding is also in agreement with the findings of Logon (1987), Gray (1996) and Powell (1993). The 1.9 % 'negative' and 'sometimes' responses are however insignificant. It is significant to observe that meetings are the main channels through which an organization gets to know what is happening and how to plan and look forward to the improvement of the institution, and this is what the female administrators were found doing. It was at these meetings that the administrators informed their subordinates and involved the staff in helping to bring about cordiality and change into the colleges and their governance.

It also came out that 84.7 % of the respondents were in agreement that the women administrators did involve the students in community activities since the colleges were in the community and the students formed part of that community. This involvement of students in communal activities went to enhance good co-habitation with the community.

The findings from the study gave indications that women administrators were bureaucratic, delegated and supervised duties assigned as much as possible. The female administrators involved the staff in decision-making that concerned both the tutors and students so they were democratic in their choice of style of leadership. This was in agreement with Gray and Shein (1996) who stated that

women were more democratic and sharing, than their male counterparts in administrative positions.

# Perception of Female Administrators' Performance

Item 12 was used to determine the performance of the female administrators in the colleges. A three-point Likert table was used to record respondents' views on the administrative performance of their female administrators.

The performance of a leader goes a long way to influence a group of people under his or her authority to bring about a positive or negative response or an attitude from the subordinates. From Table 12 it could be observed that most of the respondents gave their responses in favour of their female administrators. This indicated that they had a very positive perception of the female administrators' performance.

Over 90 % of the respondents were of the view that their female administrators were courageous in facing and solving problems which affected the institutions and confronted their staff. More than 80% and 88% of the respondents respectively held the view that their female administrators easily adapted to changing situations and made effective decisions concerning situations which contributed to the effective running of the colleges.

Table 12

Respondent's Perception of Females' Administrative Performance

Females' Administrative	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total
Performance				
Courageous in facing problems	26	24	2	52
	(50)	(46.2)	(3.8)	(100)
Treats all with respect	10	33	9	52
	(19.2)	(63.5)	(17.3)	(100)
Demonstrates the ability	22	25	5	52
to make effective decisions	(42.3)	(48)	(9.6)	(100)
Adapts to changing situations	13	33	6	52
	(25)	(63.5)	(11.5)	(100)
Receptive to criticisms	10	37	5	52
	(19.2)	(71.1)	(9.6)	(100)
Works beyond time	26	23	3	52
	(50)	(44.2)	(5.7)	(100)
Skilful in handling disputes	17	27	8	52
of groups and individuals	(32.7)	(51.9)	(15.4)	(100)
Displays no favouritism	18	25	9	52
	(34.6)	(48.1)	(17.3)	(100)
Respects diverse opinions	15	32	6	52
and ideas	(26.9)	(61.6)	(11.5)	(100)
Gets on well with all	19	28	5	52
	(36.5)	(53.8)	(9.6)	(100)

NB: Numbers in brackets are percentages

The data showed that 90% shared the view that their female heads were receptive to criticisms and this could be the reason why 82% and 88% are in agreement respectively that the female administrators treated all tutors with respect and showed respect to the diverse opinions of the staff members. The findings emphasise the point that the administrators allowed their members to participate in decisions taken concerning the welfare of the school. The performance of the female administrators was highlighted by about 90% of respondents who also indicated that their female administrators got on well with their subordinates.

The findings suggest that female administrators who strive to attain high administrative positions really work hard, impressing upon their employers and subordinates that women can handle responsibilities that go with those positions if given the chance. This is in agreement with Gorton and Snowden (1993) who said that the ability to recognize and address difficulties that confronted the staff members as a group showed a mark of effective leadership and administration. The bureaucratic nature of educational systems puts the head in a different level when it cames to addressing situations. A head should attempt to demonstrate the ability to lead and show appreciation of the participation and contributions of each staff. Gorton and Snowden (1993) went on to define "Staff cohesiveness" as the "degree to which the members of a group were attracted to the group and were willing to take personal responsibility for its tasks; and to engage in co-operative actions to achieve goals". Staff trust was the extent to which the members felt secured with each other and were open toward each other. These factors are

important ingredients for the establishment and the effective functioning of the group and should be upheld by the administrators.

# Perception of Female Administrators' Work Ethics

Item 13 was used to determine the work ethics of the female administrators in the colleges. A three-point Likert table was used to record the respondents' views of the female administrators' work ethics.

Table 13

Respondent's Perception of the Female Administrators' Work Ethics

	То	a great	To	some	No	t at all	T	otal
Work Ethics of Female	Extent		Extent					
Administrators	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Admits qualified students	42	80.8	4	7.7	6	11.5	52	100
Sees to the regular								
maintenance of plants	29	55.8	16	30.7	7	13.4	52	100
Promotes cordial relationship								
amongst personnel	17	32.7	30	57.7	5	9.6	52	100
Promotes college-community								
relationship	22	42.3	24	46.1	6	11.5	52	100
Ensures students respect								
college regulations	42	80.8	11	21.2	2	3.8	52	100
Shows interest in staff								
welfare	25	48.1	19	36.6	6	11.5	52	100
Exhibits an open								
administration	20	38.5	22	42.3	6	11.5	52	100
Encourages staff in decision								
Making	25	48.1	24	42.3	3	5.8	52	100

Table 13 continued

To	a great	To some Extent		Not at all		Total	
1	Extent						
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	°.0
25	48.1	22	42.3	5	9.6	52	100
28	53.9	23	44.2	1	1.9	52	100
25	48.1	26	50	1	1.9	52	100
27	52	24	46.2	l	1.9	52	100
41	78.8	10	19.2	1	1.9	52	100
28	53.3	16	30.8	8	15.4	52	100
	25 28 25 27 41	25 48.1 28 53.9 25 48.1 27 52 41 78.8	Extent E N % N 25 48.1 22 28 53.9 23 25 48.1 26 27 52 24 41 78.8 10	Extent N % N %  25 48.1 22 42.3  28 53.9 23 44.2  25 48.1 26 50  27 52 24 46.2  41 78.8 10 19.2	Extent Extent  N % N % N  25 48.1 22 42.3 5  28 53.9 23 44.2 1  25 48.1 26 50 1  27 52 24 46.2 1  41 78.8 10 19.2 1	Extent         Extent           N         %           25         48.1           22         42.3           5         9.6           28         53.9           23         44.2           1         1.9           25         48.1           26         50           1         1.9           27         52           24         46.2           1         1.9           41         78.8           10         19.2           1         1.9	Extent Extent  N % N % N % N  25 48.1 22 42.3 5 9.6 52  28 53.9 23 44.2 1 1.9 52  27 52 24 46.2 1 1.9 52  41 78.8 10 19.2 1 1.9 52

The general perceptions of tutors of the female administrators as observed from table 13 were very high on all items. On the admission of students, 80% of the tutors agreed that their female administrators made sure they admitted qualified students, while 80% thought the women saw to the regular maintenance of college plants, facilitated and enhanced work on campus. In support of the administrator seeing to the maintenance of equipment and tools Blumberg (1989) indicated that it was obligatory for the administrator to contribute to the image of the college by securing materials of good condition to enhance output of work. A very high percentage of over 90%, were of the opinion that female administrators ensured that the students obeyed and respected college regulations and had cordial

created by the female administrators made the climate very conducive to live and work in. The respondents perceived the female administrators as people who had the welfare of the staff and students at heart. When asked about possible upward change in their academic status, 80% of the respondents said the female administrators encouraged them to further their education or go in for promotion and short upgrading courses to appraise their qualifications whenever the opportunity was available. It was the opinion of 70% of the respondents, that the female administrators were good financial managers.

From these findings, there is the probability that targets set by these female administrators in Training Colleges were achieved, since their work ethics were very highly rated by the respondents. The high perception of a person by a group of people is very important, if good relationship is to be nurtured to enable members of the group to co-exist, take decisions to improve situations and contribute individually to the smooth running of the organisation. It would be reasonable then to assume that work in these institutions run by women are on course, since respondents seem to have favourable perceptions about their work ethics. This finding agrees with Shakeshaft's (1987) view that schools and districts run by women were higher academic achievers since the women exhibited greater knowledge of teaching and learning techniques with which they guided their staff to help them to achieve their set targets.

There must be a high probability of a better academic performance on the campuses of the women because of the prevailing conducive teaching and

learning atmosphere in these institutions. In the same vein, due to the cordiality created by the female administrators, strike activities are likely to be reduced. In agreement with Stogdill (1974), Curdwood (1978), and Logon (1987) a participatory style and corporate decision-making between leaders and subordinates was bound to bring about satisfaction, an increase and improvement in performance as well as output.

#### Gender View

Respondents' views were further grouped into male and female to give a gender analysis of their opinions on the various items concerning the female administrators' leadership style, administrative performance and work ethics in the training colleges. Details of these can be found in the next three tables 14, 15, and 16. The responses were grouped under 'agree' and 'disagree' for all three tables.

#### Gender Perception of Female Administrators' Leadership Style

Leadership is cultural and symbolic as well as instrumental and behavioural. Successful leadership infuses value into organisations thereby creating institutional awareness and purpose that go beyond the technical requirements of the job. Leadership comes about when one is able to administer situations and work in a team putting into play, organisation, planning, commanding, co-ordination, controlling and supervision. These have to be put in place to get work done in an establishment or school.

In response to the item on whether the female administrators delegated authority, 96% female and 86% male responded that the administrators delegated authority to all who were concerned and due to carry higher responsibility. Respondents made up of 86% male and 83.3% female also confirmed that they had regular staff meetings, at which duties and assignments were discussed and deliberated upon before being assigned to a staff member. Allen (1958) was of the view that the administrator identified duties and assigned or delegated them to the subordinates. It was the administrator who established a cordial environment and set up rules for the teamwork to enable the tutors to work harmoniously to achieve all set goals.

On the issue of supervision by female administrators, over 90% of the male and female respondents confirmed that the female administrators supervised the duties they assigned to them. The findings were similar to Koontz and O'Donnell (1976), that structures should be laid down for every one to know his or her duties and a relationship was to be established to encourage team work and responsibility. Gorton and Snowden (1993) strengthen the findings that there was the need to delegate work and authority to staff members and a good supervisory scheme put in place for effective work to achieve set goals. It seems the female administrators were conversant with this since they used the democratic form of ruling, and it was easy to get all staff members involved in decisions at staff meetings.

Table 14

<u>Distribution of Responses on Perception of Female Administrators' Leadership</u>

<u>Style by Gender.</u>

Leadership Style	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	
Delegates authority where possible.	23	1	25	3	
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(85.7)	(10.7)	
Involves others in decisions that affect					
them Effective supervision of	21	3	27	3	
subordinates	(87.5)	(12.5)	(96.7)	(10.7)	
Effectively supervises subordinates	24	0	26	2	
	(100)	(0)	(92.8)	(7.1)	
Heads regular staff meetings	20	4	24	4	
	(83.3)	(16.6)	(85.7)	(16.6)	
Involves students in communal	23	1	26	2	
activities.	(95.8)	(4.2)	(92.8)	(7.1)	

NB: Numbers in brackets are percentages.

 $\mathfrak{D} \supseteq \emptyset$ 

In pursuance of delegation of work and authority, Departmental heads and Senior Housemistresses, for example, could either be delegated to do the work or get other members of staff or pupil to do it in their stead, supervise and report to ad hoc committees. The reports would then be sent to the administrator and later the relevant information would be relayed to all at the staff meeting for further discussion, amendment and possible acceptance and implementation. According

to Koontz and O'Donnell (1976), this may not always be the right approach because even though the approach makes all tutors aware and responsible for decisions taken and ready to defend its course, it is a waste of time. A high response of 92.8 % male and 95.8 % female responded positively to the question that female administrators involved the staff in decisions, which affected the staff and brought about understanding and fairness amongst the tutors.

# Gender Perception of Female Administrators' Performance

Deaux (1976) stated that managerial levels were formerly marked as "old boy network", that is, mainly a male-domain. He, however, advocated for and encouraged organisations to realise the value of women in the corporate hierarchy and judge them on the basis of their ability rather than on their gender. Administration, according to Kountz and O'Donnell (1976), is organizing or grouping of activities necessary to attain set targets. The administrator assigns roles, exercises authority, supervises and coordinates activities both horizontally and vertically in the establishment or structure.

In response to the item, "was the female administrator courageous in facing administrative problems?" A 91.6 % of females and 85.7 % of males affirmed that their female administrators were courageous in all administrative situations concerning the college. Responding to whether their administrators showed any favouritism, 100% of both male and female groups responded in the negative. This is in agreement with what Curdwood (1978) stated that female administrators were more cooperative, team-oriented, qualitative, intuitive, collaborative and contextual towards work.

Table 15

<u>Distribution of Responses on Perception of Female Administrators' Performance</u>

<u>by Gender</u>

Females' Administrative Performance	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
Courageous in facing problems	22	2	25	3
	(91.6)	(8,4)	(85.7)	(10.7)
Treats all with respect	22	2	26	2
	(91.6)	(8.4)	(92.8)	(7.1)
Ability to make effective decisions	24	0	27	1
	(100)	(0)	(96.4)	(3.4)
Adapts to changing situations	20	4	26	2
	(83.3)	(16.6)	(92.8)	(7.1)
Receptive to criticisms	23	1	28	O
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(100)	(0)
Works beyond time	21	3	24	4
	(87.5)	(12.5)	(85.7)	(16.6)
Skilful in handling disputes of	22	2	25	3
groups/ individuals	(91.6)	(8.4)	(89.2)	(10.7)
Displays no favouritism	24	0	28	0
	(100)	(0)	(100)	(6)
Respects diverse opinions/ ideas	23	1	27	1
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(96.4)	(3.4)
Gets on well with all	22	2	26	2
	(91.6)	(8.4)	(92.8)	(7.1)

NB: Numbers in brackets are percentages.

Over 95% of both male and female respondents were of the view that the female administrators took effective decisions that affected their colleges, since

they acted democratically. The administrators did this by holding meetings where decisions were collectively taken and, where necessary, concessions were made to help run the institutions. While Stogdill (1974) also stated that consideration of employees in decision-making resulted in the increase in work satisfaction, performance and output, and gave them a feeling of belonging. The findings agree with Fayol's (1937) assertion that women administrators exhibit more democratic participatory style. Logon (1987) and Gray and Shein (1996) were of the view that women were more of the consultative nature, and more willing to share their decisions with their employees. More than 90% of both men and women were in agreement that their women administrators were receptive to criticisms and also treated all subordinates with much respect, enhancing their relationship and work, which also had a link up with output of their staff members.

#### Gender Perception of Female Administrators' Work Ethics

Work ethics is the system of moral principles, which guides work in an establishment or school and the targets set should be quite easily attainable within the period of a time set. In Better Schools, (Module Two) organising which is a very important aspect of administration is defined as "the preparation of up-to-date job descriptions for all employed staff by the head, and assigning roles, responsibilities and duties to staff and students. The head, in organising, should also arrange for the appointment of new staff and students holding responsible positions.

they acted democratically. The administrators did this by holding meetings where decisions were collectively taken and, where necessary, concessions were made to help run the institutions. While Stogdill (1974) also stated that consideration of employees in decision-making resulted in the increase in work satisfaction, performance and output, and gave them a feeling of belonging. The findings agree with Fayol's (1937) assertion that women administrators exhibit more democratic participatory style. Logon (1987) and Gray and Shein (1996) were of the view that women were more of the consultative nature, and more willing to share their decisions with their employees. More than 90% of both men and women were in agreement that their women administrators were receptive to criticisms and also treated all subordinates with much respect, enhancing their relationship and work, which also had a link up with output of their staff members.

#### Gender Perception of Female Administrators' Work Ethics

Work ethics is the system of moral principles, which guides work in an establishment or school and the targets set should be quite easily attainable within the period of a time set. In Better Schools, (Module Two) organising which is a very important aspect of administration is defined as "the preparation of up-to-date job descriptions for all employed staff by the head, and assigning roles, responsibilities and duties to staff and students. The head, in organising, should also arrange for the appointment of new staff and students holding responsible positions.

Table 16

Distribution of Responses on Perception of Female Administrators Vork Ethics

by Gender

Work Ethics	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
Admits qualified students	22	2	24	4
	(91.6)	(8.4)	(85.7)	(14.2)
Sees to regular maintenance of plants	23	1	26	2
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(92.8)	(7.1)
Promotes cordial relationship among	22	4	25	3
personnel	(91.6)	(16.8)	(89.2)	(10.7)
Promotes college community	24	0	27	1
relationship	(100)	(0)	(96.4)	(3.4)
Ensures students respect college	23	1	27	1
regulations	(95.8)	(4.2)	(96.4)	(3.4)
Shows interest in staff welfare	23	1	23	5
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(82.1)	(17.8)
Exhibits open administration	22	2	25	3
	(91.6)	(8.4)	(89.2)	(10.7)
Encourages staff in decision making	21	3	23	5
	(87.5)	(12.5)	(82.1)	(17.8)
Shows interest in students' welfare	24	0	28	0
	(100)	(0)	(100)	(0)

Table 16 continued

Work Ethics	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
She is approachable	22	2	25	3
	(91.6)	(8.4)	(89.2)	(10.7)
a) Good communication with students	23	1	27	1
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(96.4)	(3.4)
b) Good communication with	22	2	25	3
teaching staff	(91.6)	(8.4)	(89.2)	(10.7)
c) Good communication with non-	24	0	28	0
teaching staff	(100)	(0)	(100)	(0)
Exhibits good supervisory role	23	1	27	1
	(95.8)	(4.2)	(96.4)	(3.4)

NB: Numbers in brackets are percentages.

On how female administrators maintained the plants and the environment of the school, 90% of both male and female respondents said that their administrators saw to the maintenance of all plants and equipment and furnished their colleges with enough teaching and learning materials to facilitate teaching and learning.

The administrators' positive attitude in providing the right facilities and environment could be said to be a reason for the improvement in the work output of their staff and students. According to Fayol (1937), the administrator as a professional educator, was morally obliged to support teachers in their efforts and to secure for teachers and students the materials and conditions needed for their

work. School administrators had a professional duty to be sure that school policies and techniques do indeed serve the best educational and developmental interests of students.

The school administrator could be a facilitator to teachers, because he/she reminds teachers of the core values and beliefs and the importance of the teachers' efforts in the lives of students. The school administrator's efforts are to support teachers and to create and maintain conditions that would enable teachers to teach students to learn and research for knowledge. This could be said to cover most of the responses of the findings collected, 90 % responded were in the affirmative concerning the work ethics of their female administrators in their colleges.

Table 17

Attitude of Female Administrators toward Subordinates

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Bossy	34	65.4
Not bossy	18	34.6
Total	52	100.0

## Female Administrators' Attitude to Subordinates

Administrative positions have been the domain of men so women who have risen to these levels deem it prestigious. People therefore thought that, to assert their competency, women in senior administrative positions would tend to

be strict and bossy. A question was asked to find out if the respondents considered their female administrators to be bossy. The responses are displayed in Table 17.

From the findings, about 65 % of the respondents have the view that the female administrators are bossy. They buttressed their views with such claims that "some women administrators were bossy and acted in domineering manner because they wanted to earn respect and instil fear into their subordinates". Others were of the view that the women acted as "tin gods" to avoid challenges and criticisms for whatever they did. The 34.6 % who responded that the female administrators were not bossy said they rather went about their duty more conscientiously, adding that the women were disciplinarians, bureaucratic and respectful when at post. This made them appear strict but not necessarily bossy.

There seems to be a contradiction between the high ratings the female administrators received from both female and male tutors on being receptive to criticisms (95.8% and 100% respectively), respecting diverse opinions/ideas (95.8% and 96.4% respectively) and being seen as bossy (65%). The question is how people who are considered as being receptive to criticisms and respecting diverse opinions can, at the same time, be seen as bossy.

## Increase of Female Administrators in Teacher Training Colleges

Responses in Table 18 show whether or not respondents preferred an increase in women as administrators in Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) in the country.

Table 18

Respondents' Preference for Increase of Female Administrators in TTCs

Responses	Frequency	Percent
No response	6	11.5
Increase	32	61.5
No Increase	14	26.9
Total	52	100.0

From the data the majority of the respondents numbering 32 (61.5%) preferred an increase in female administrators in the colleges. An analysis of respondents' comments showed that they perceived the women as follows:

- 1. They displayed good human relations.
- 2. They did not indulge in any sexual harassment.
- 3. They exercised delegation of authority and exhibited good supervisory skills.
- 4. They were time-conscious.
- They served as role models and mentors to both the girl-child and female subordinates.
- 6. The female administrators were better financial administrators than their opposite counterparts

It would be reasonable to assume that such positive characteristics, as perceived by the respondents regarding female administrators, would influence and lead to hard work on campuses administered by women administrators. It is, however, worthy of note that, in spite of such impressive qualities in the female

administrators as identified by the majority of tutors, a significant 26% of them would not like to see an increase in female administrators in the Teacher Training Colleges. Could one attribute the negative response from a quarter of the respondents to jealousy or insincerity on the part of some of the tutors to some of the items on the questionnaire? Unfortunately, this seeming inconsistency could not have been foreseen for an item to be included to seek a reason for such inconsistency.

#### Aspiration to Administrative Positions

The responses in Table 19 were to the question as to whether respondents had any wish of rising to administrative positions.

Table 19

Respondents' Aspiration to Administrative Positions

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
No	6	11.5
Yes	46	88.5
Total	52	100.0

From Table 19, it came out that most of the respondents were aspirants for administrative positions. The majority of the respondents, numbering 46 (88.5%) knew of no hindrance emanating from the behaviour of their female administrators to their aspirations for high positions. The finding gives an indication that the respondents were focused on their intentions of becoming

future administrators. Those who responded in the negative were probably not yet in the rank of aspirants.

### Relationships with the Female Administrators

Table 20 shows the form of relationship respondents had with their female administrators.

Communication is an important aspect of human relationship, which helps in the progress of an organization or any human institution. It is through communication that information is relayed to, and from, staff and administrators. In order to have an efficient administration in the colleges, the atmosphere should be free of feelings of constraint or impasse amongst the staff and administration.

Table 20

Respondents' Relationship with the Female Administrators

Response	Frequency	Percentage	
No response	3	5.8	
Formal	10	19.2	
Cordial	36	69.2	
Avoidance	3	4.7	
Total	52	100.0	

Responding to the question of how well the tutors related to their female administrators, the majority (36) representing 69% said that they were on cordial terms with their female administrators. It is to be noted that 4.7% said they either

been instructive to find out why some tutors either avoided the head or were not close to them. It was also revealed that the tutors were in good relationship and communicated well with the administrators, who were also concerned with the staff's welfare. The women encouraged the tutors to seek higher academic qualifications to enhance themselves and teaching in the institutions and as stated by Halpin (1966), to maintain positive and satisfactory relationship the leader was to adapt "initiative structure" and "consideration" and mutual trust, between him/her and the subordinates.

#### Low Level of Female Administrators in Teacher Training Colleges

The reasons given for the low level of female administrators in Teacher Training Colleges have been stated in Table 21. From Table 21 it is revealed that about 65% of respondents attributed the low level of female administrators in Teacher Training Colleges to factors such as socio-cultural traditions, women having no mentors, women being out-numbered by men in education or the non-availability of many qualified women to take up administrative positions.

Only one respondent representing (1.9%) mentioned work and home conflict as the reasons for the low percentage of women in administrative positions. This is significant, allowing for the presumption that women administrators may have learnt to make more use of time-saving devices, delegate their house work, and may be having understanding partners or children who are helping them at home.

Table 21

Respondents' Reasons for Low Number of Feinal: Administrators in TTCs

 $t^{*}$ 

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
No response	5	9,6
Socio-cultural	10	19.2
Avoid risk/lack confidence/shun opportunity	6	11.5
Discriminated against/underestimated	6	11.5
No mentor/outnumbered by men	12	23.1
Few qualified women	12	23.1
Work-home conflict	1	1.9
Total	52	100.0

In response to the reason for low female administrators in management positions in Teacher Training College, respondents numbering 10 (19.2%) were of the view that it was mainly on socio- cultural grounds which is in agreement with Apter (1093) who stated that women were more involved and concerned with their home and family work and were more comfortable in their own area than trying to build confidence in an unfriendly situation. Ayeh (1986) also confirmed the findings by stating that women found it difficult to combine their role of motherhood and office work for this reason they preferred not to rise to high levels in their work places. Ghanaian tutors in particular, and society in general, should have a changed attitude toward women administrators, otherwise there should be more advocacy and education on women's emancipation and the

need for women to work hard at their work places. The education being advocated for would, hopefully, help erase some of the stereotyped ideas about women, such as 'the only position for the woman is being second class to men in all situations'.

#### Work Output of Tutors under Supervision of Female Administrators

Respondents were asked if they had seen any improvement in their work output since they found themselves under the supervision of female administrators. Their response can be found in Table 22. The majority of respondents, numbering 36 (69.2%), replied in the affirmative, that their work output had improved since they worked with a female administrator with comments such as:

- i. They were jointly involved in decision-making and so they put in all they knew to make decisions work.
- ii. The female administrators were responsible and disciplined and their influence had affected them to also put in their best to help raise the image of the institution.
- iii. The female administrators were most appreciative of their contribution to the upkeep of the institution and that encouraged them to also put in more effort to maintain their heads' respect and appreciation.
- iv. The favourable conditions put up by the female administrators, such as those perceived by the tutors and presented in Tables 11 to 16, encouraged the tutors' to improve upon their work output which, in turn, was also evident in students' performance at the final examinations.

Table 22

Work Output of Respondents under Supervision of Female Administrators

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
No Response	5	9.6
High Output	36	69.2
Low Output	11	21.2
Total	52	100.0

The findings are supported by Poskitt's (1976) view that female administrators are a good influence in institutions and they put in a different flavour.

#### Discussion of Results

A number of findings were revealed as a result of deliberations of the study, under the research questions and the review of relevant literature on other similar and earlier studies. The significant findings made concerning the research questions were:

1. What is the perception of tutors regarding the women in administrative positions in educational institutions?

The tutors' perception of female administrators was generally very high. It was realised from the responses to the questionnaire that women really worked hard to maintain their position as well as the climate of the school. Qualified students were admitted and the administrators were interested in the welfare of the students and staff members.

The female administrators were interested in social well-being so they engaged their colleges in communal activities and functions such as church and durbars. This was to bring the college and community together to strengthen their relationship since they were neighbours who could not be ignored.

Though the staff regarded the female administrators as strict and firm they were only performing their duty, especially when they were sure the decisions they had taken were in conformity to regulations of the GES or where they were sure that decision would help raise the image of their institutions. Though some thought them bossy others saw them as only performing their duties as administrators.

The tutors showed a lot of admiration for the female administrators and went further to recommend that more women be promoted to take up the administration of the institutions since they did well in maintaining, improving and, as Poskitt (1976) put it, adding or enhancing the climate of the institution.

#### 2. How do subordinates relate to their female administrators?

The subordinates were of the view that the female administrators were approachable and there was no fear of, or harassment from, them. The tutors agreed that the female administrators were strict but cordial and went to the extent of involving them in decisions that concerned them as well as being effective at handling disputes that involved the staff. The female administrators got on well

with all the staff members and showed no favouritism, which was the right direction of running an institution.

3. Does working under the supervision of a female administrator affect work output?

The female administrators were much concerned about the output of both the staff and students since it was the results of the students that were used as the measure of the institution's standard. The administrators stressed upon the students' output at every meeting.

To improve standards, the female administrators made sure that there were enough teaching and learning materials and books to enhance teaching and learning. They also maintained all plants and equipment to make work and life on the campus comfortable and conducive to work in.

The supervisory role of the female administrators was rated very highly. She delegated work and supervision to those who were found due and fit, while she monitored constantly to make sure all did their part well to support the growth of the institution.

4. What do colleagues and subordinates expect of their female administrative heads?

It can be deduced from the responses that the subordinates were satisfied with the approaches, style and behaviour of the administrative heads. To enable work to go on they held regular meetings, assessed other people's views

democratically and the treated all with respect. The women administrators were strict and firm with their work and in taking decisions concerning the administration of their institutions. They delegated work where necessary and supervised and monitored effectively. The female administrators were concerned with the welfare of their students and staff members to the extent of encouraging them to pursue further studies to broaden their knowledge.

#### 5. What is the attitude of tutors to female heads?

The attitude of the tutors to the female heads or administrators was generally cordial except for a few who said they saw them as bossy, and so tried to avoid them unless it was necessary to get close to them in the course of duty. Overall, it is deduced from the responses of the tutors that the female administrators were really coping with their work and raising standards in their institutions so there was a high recommendation that more women should be put in administrative positions.

#### Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented the responses of tutors' perception of their female administrators in selected Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana. Respondents' opinions were sampled and sorted out to get a clear view of what their thoughts were on various aspects of their female administrators.

It was evident from the discussion that female administrators were doing well in the various colleges they worked in. It was also realised that most of the

findings were in agreement with similar findings mentioned in the literature review. This indicated that women administrators in Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana were basically no different from other female administrators in other parts of the world where similar studies had been conducted. Teachers wanted administrators who were good communicators and good listeners, had good knowledge of the curriculum and instruction, were problem solvers and who delegated power and supervision and sought a variety of input to enhance their work.

Several questions arose as a result of the responses to legitimate female authority: Why do women still not have legitimate authority when stepping into a leadership position? Why must women earn the authority? If teachers are receptive to female administrators, to who must female heads prove themselves? The question as to why women are still under represented as educational leaders still remains. Some of the answers may be within the responses to the questions posed above. A follow up study examining these issues and the questions above is warranted.

The above gives indications that the administrator as a professional educator is morally obligated to support teachers in their efforts and to secure for teachers and students the materials and conditions needed for their work and studies respectively. The college administrators have a professional duty to

ensure that college policies and techniques do indeed serve the best educational and developmental interests of students.

The school administrator is a facilitator of teachers, because she reminds teachers of their core values and beliefs and of the importance of their efforts in the lives of students. The school administrator's efforts are to support teachers and to create and maintain conditions that will enable teachers to facilitate teaching and learning in schools. The female administrators' techniques may, therefore, be said to be centred around those parameters or indicators: - planning, organising, directing, supervising and evaluation in a democratic administrative manner.

#### **CHAPTER FIVE**

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Fifth Chapter highlights the summary of the study and its findings, conclusions arrived at, and recommendations made including suggestions for further research.

#### Overview of the Study

The study was to find out how Ghanaian Teacher Training College tutors' perceive their female administrators, their level of acceptance and response to their authority and the effect of the female administrators' supervisory activities on the output of staff work.

Results from an earlier research indicated that there were very few women holding administrative positions in all areas in the Teacher Training Colleges (NCWD)(1998). However, in recent times there has been an increase in the number of women who have attained important supervisory positions, starting from the rank of Principal Superintendent to that of Directorship. All the women administrators have first degrees and, in some cases, second degrees. Some of these women are Vice Principals, Heads of Department, Senior Housemistresses or Senior Tutors who are aspiring to administrative positions in their various institutions. It is therefore very likely that in the near future, there will be more women heading Ghana's institutions, especially Teacher Training Colleges.

The research was undertaken to examine the following questions:

- 1. The perception tutors held of women in administrative positions.
- 2. How subordinates accept, respond and relate to the female administrator in their institutions.
- 3. Whether working under the supervision of a female administrator has had any effect on work output or performance.
- 4. What do colleagues and subordinates expect of their female administrators?
- 5. What is the attitude of tutors to a female administrator?

The respondents were made up of 28 male and 24 female tutors of selected Teacher Training Colleges in the Ashanti, Central, Greater Accra, Volta and Western regions, who were under the supervision of female Principals or Vice Principals, Heads of Departments and Senior Housemistresses.

In pre-testing the questionnaire, some tutors of Fosu Teacher Training College were the respondents and the results helped in the redesigning of the questionnaire for the main study. Tutors from the following institutions were involved in the study, Holy Child Training College, Takoradi, Komenda Training College, Komenda, OLA Training College, Cape Coast, Ada Training College, Ada; Accra Training College, Accra; St. Theresa's Training College, Hohoe, St. Louis Training College, Kumasi and Wesley Training College, Kumasi.

Descriptive statistics were applied to arrive at frequencies and percentages of the data. This made it possible to analyse the data as directed by the research questions formulated for the study.

#### Summary of Findings

A number of findings emerged from the study, some of which are similar to findings by Gray and Shein (1996), Powell (1993), Gray (1996), Poskitt (1976), Davies et al (1992). The study revealed from the findings that the subordinates perceived the female administrators as performing well. The administrators were said to be very democratic; they involved members of staff in decision-making on various college matters, including students' functions. The democratic style adopted by the female administrators made the staff feel that they were part of the administration and were thus committed to their duties with the strong feeling of responsibility to carry out decisions to fruition. The administrators delegated and supervised work to make sure they were well performed.

The female administrators were conscious of GES regulations and applied them accordingly. Some of the regulations related to the admission of qualified students, maintenance of college plants and students' observance of regulations. The women administrators were found to be good financial managers. The high moral standing of the women was also noticed when respondents said female administrators were not involved in sexual harassment. They were time-conscious and unbiased. The attitude of the female administrators was found to be bureaucratic and this was so because the females seemed to always want to work by the book.

The perception on relationship was a cordial one among administrators, staff and students. Regular meetings and assemblies were held during which information was relayed to all. Staff welfare was of great importance to the

administrators, just as identified by Halpin (1996), who emphasised on initiation of structures to establish well defined patterns of organisation to enhance work, promote friendship and mutual trust among staff, the female administrators were found to encourage their staff to further their education and improve their academic and teaching skills.

It was the general recommendation of the respondents that more women should be placed in administrative positions in Teacher Training Colleges and other educational institutions, since they acted as mentors and role models for upand-coming females, and introduced a democratic and proactive style of administration. The expectation of respondents was that even though the level of females administering the training colleges was low, the trend was likely to change in the future, as more women study to attain higher educational qualifications and begin to excel. Given the option, most women would like to be in administrative positions if they would not be ridiculed or discriminated against.

Again, it was revealed that working under the supervision of the female administrators had a positive effect on work, improved output and performance of the staff, and this was due to the participatory administrative style the female administrators applied. The women showed appreciation to the staff and were ready to accept constructive criticisms from them and this reflected in students' performance in future examinations.

#### Conclusions

The findings on the study on tutor's perception of women in management position in teacher training colleges in Ghana came out with the following

conclusions. The tutors perceived the women managers as competent and able to take decisions concern the college that raises the standard of both the students and colleges. It was deduced from the study that a cordial relationship existed amongst the colleagues, subordinates and the female administrators. This cordiality was due to the female administrators bureaucratic style of administration, which allows everyone to understand the importance of getting involved with the running of the colleges thus enhancing the climate in the institution.

From the study it was realised that working under the supervision of female administrators was effective and there was an improvement in the output of work in the college, this was because the female administrators were particular with what happened in the colleges and made sure that there was adequate teaching and learning materials available to work with, as well as the institution of good maintenance culture which helped enhance education in the colleges.

From the study it was again deduced that most of the tutors of Teacher Training College were satisfied with their female administrators since they indicated that they were concerned of their welfare and encouraged the tutors to upgrade themselves as well as saw to the good relationship between the college and the community and this went a long way to improve the involvement of the community in the colleges.

The tutors' attitude to their female administrators was welcoming since they had cordial relationship with the female administrators and had frequent staff meetings at which everybody was part of decisions taking concerning the colleges. Majority of female administrators were perceived as capable of effectively manning educational institutions, specifically Teacher Training Colleges. The effective communicative skills of the female administrators, coupled with their participatory management, had a positive effect on staff work output and performance.

Finally it was the general expectation that more women would be appointed to take up administrative positions in higher educational institutions, since the few were generally found to be effective and served as good mentors to young up and coming girls.

#### Recommendations for Practice

The following recommendations have been drawn from the study:

- It is recommended that all women who want to rise to administrative positions be encouraged to go through formal training in recognised universities to acquire sound academic and administrative skills.
- ii. Workshops should be organised by the GES and other recognised organisations for aspiring female administrators, to help in upgrading them and building up their confidence in the performance of their duties.
- iii. The Ministry of Education should organise orientation and periodic training programmes for all newly appointed administrators to help them settle in their new positions.
- iv. Refresher courses and seminars should also be organised for female administrators to address some of the shortfalls in carrying out their

administrative roles in order to improve their efficiency thus making them more effective at their duties.

- v. More qualified females should be put in administrative positions in TTCs and other educational institutions since they act as mentors and role models for up and coming women and young girls.
- vi. The style of female administrators, which was largely perceived to be participatory and democratic should be encouraged. Unlike male administrators who do most of the work themselves, the women involve their staff, thus making them play a part in finding solutions to administrative problems. This positively affects output or performance and also enhances the tone of the institution. It is thus recommended that more female administrators should be positioned in these institutions to raise the image of all women.
- vii. The attitude and behaviour of the society should change towards women administrators. Women should put in more effort at their work places to help erase some of those stereotyped ideas about them, such as they being less competent, only good for house work and seen only to disrupt work with their numerous need for excuses from duty, thus retarding organisational progress.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

It is suggested that future research could be done in the following areas:

 Comparison of administrative practices of male and female administrators by tutors of Teacher Training Colleges. 2. Comparing the administrative behaviours of the formally trained administrator and the untrained and non-professional administrators of Teacher Training Colleges.

#### REFERENCES

- Aburdene, D., & Naisbitt, M. (1933). Women in leadership. In Hudson, J., & Rhea, D (1998) Teachers' Perception in the principalship A current perspective retrieved from: http://www.advancingwomen.com.
- Acheampong, L. (1999). Women and management of educational institutions in the Brong Ahafo region of Ghana. (Unpublished Masters Thesis, Faculty) of Education, University of Cape Coast.)
- Adu, K. (1999). Representation of Ghanaian women in national politics. Ghanaian

  Times August 10, 1995
- Allen, L.A. (1958). <u>Management and organisation</u>. Columbus: Ohio State University.
- Al Khalif, E. (1992). Management by halves: Women teachers and school management. In Benneth, N., Crawford, M. & Riches, C. (Eds.) Managing change in education: Individual and organisational perspective. London: Paul Chapman Publishers.
- Al-Shallan, M. (1990) The Duties and Responsibilities of Primary School

  Headmistress in Riyadh (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of
  Cardiff United Kingdom)
- American Association of School Administrators (1995). Survey: Attitudes toward women as school district administrators. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.

- Anker, R. & Hein, C. (Eds.) (1986). Sex inequalities in urban employment in the third world. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.
- Apter, R. E.(1993) The Female principal. In B. Irby & G. Brown (Eds.), <u>Women executives: voices and visions</u> (pp. 22-26). Austin, Texas: The Texas Council of Women School Executives.
- Ary, D., Jacob, L., & Razaviah, A. (1985) Introduction to research in education 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Asamoah, L. M. (1997). <u>Women in educational leadership in Volta Region.</u>

  (Unpublished Master's Thesis Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast).
- Bell, C. S., & Chase, S. E. (1988) Women superintendents & school board: Their experience and perception of gender issues. <u>American educational research association</u>. Peabody Journal in Press, (5), p 6.
- Bennis, K., & Nanus, L. (1985). Women executives: voices and visions. In Hudson, J. & Rhea, D (1998) <u>Teachers' perception in the principalship-A current perspective</u>. Retrieved from: <a href="http://www.advancingwomen.com">http://www.advancingwomen.com</a>.
- Best, P. W., & Khan, A. (1989) Social research. Chicago: Holt. Rinehart & Winston.
- Bond, S. (1996). Women and higher education management: the problem.

  ABCD. (112).
- Boserup, E. (1970). <u>Women's role in economic development.</u> London: Earthscan Publishers.

- Bolger, N. (1989). The microstructure of daily role-related stress in married couples. In Chenrode, J. & Gore, S. (Eds.). Stress between work and family. New York: Pleum.
- Bishop, S., & Weinzweig, M. (1979). Philosophy and women. California: Wadsworth.
- Blumberg, A. (1989). School administration as a craft. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Brekke, T. (1995). Women-A world report. London: Methuen London Ltd.
- Brew, C.A., & Ekuban, G. E. (1991). <u>Management in living (for senior secondary schools</u>). Acera: Ministry of Education.
- Campbell, R. F., Bridges, E. M., Corbally, J. E., Nystrand, R.O. & Ramseyer, J.A.

  (1971). Introduction to educational administration. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Caldwell, B. J. & Spinks, T. (1992). <u>Leading the self-managing school</u>. London: Palmer Press.
- Chapman, J. (1990) <u>School- based decision-making and management</u>. Lewes: Falmer Press.
- Clerk, J. M. (Ed.) (1998). Women in politics, Retrieved from: http://www.advancingwomen.com.
- Coleman, M. (1995) <u>Leadership in educational management.</u> Glasgow: Bell and Bain.
- Commonwealth Secretariat (1993). <u>Better schools resource materials for school</u>
  <u>heads.</u> London: Commonwealth Secretariat

- Commonwealth conference of women engineers (1991). In Tancred Sheriff, P

  (1991) Women in universities: Some recent developments. A. C. D.

  Bulletin of Current Documentation. (61), p. 16.
- Crawford, N., & Urger, W. (1992 <u>Managing changes in education: Individual and organizational perspectives.</u> London: Paul Chapman Publishers.
- Criswell, M., & Betz, L. (1995). Attitudes toward administrators among school board members: A current perspective. In B. Irby & G. Brown (Eds.),

  Women executives: voices and visions (pp. 28-35). Austin Texas: The

  Texas Council of Women School Executives.
- Curdwood. E, (1978) (p.74) Men and women leadership domain. In V. Hall (1996). Dancing on the ceiling. (p.89) London: Paul Chapman Publishers.
- Dahlstrom, E. (Ed.) (1967). The changing roles of men and women. London:

  Gerald Duckworth and Co. Ltd.
- Dapaah, A.S. (1988). Constraints facing Ghanaian women in management.

  Handout from a workshop; research on women in management, Tanzania.
- Davies, L., & Gunnwardena, C. (1992). Women and men in educational management: An international inquiry. Paris: I I E P Research Report 95.
- Deaux, K. (1976). Psychology today. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Edson, S. K. (1988). <u>Pushing the limits: The female administrative aspirant</u>, Albany State: University of New York Press.
- Evans, K. (1970). Leadership and performance relation to rewards. In K.W. Hoy,
  & C. G. Miskel (1982). <u>Educational administration: Theory, research and practice</u> (2nd ed.). New York: Random House

- Etzioni, G. (1984). Typelogies of organisations. In K. Hoy, & C. G. Miskel (1982). Educational administration: Theory, research and practice (2nd ed.). New York: Random House.
- Falancer, J (1994). Women administrators in Jesuit educational institute. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Fayol, H (1937). Administrative behaviour. In J.C.S. Musaazi (1982). The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. London: Macmillian Publishers House.
- Floyd, L. & Thatcher, B. (1982). Feminist frameworks for the study of administration and leadership in educational organizations. In C. Reynolds
  & B. Young (Eds.), Women and leadership in Canadian education (pp. 3-17). Alberta, Calgary: Detselig Enterprises, Ltd.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1966). <u>Introduction to educational administration</u>. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Fielder, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Filippelli, L. A. (1995). First Female president of a co-educational higher institution. <u>Dissertation Abstracts International. 'A'</u> (10) pp. 13
- Greenstreet, M. (1971). Employment of women in Ghana. <u>International Labour</u>

  <u>Review. 103</u>, (2), pp.117-129.
- Goode, W. J. (1993). A theory of role strain. In S. J. Roxburg, (1994). Women, work and well-being: A consideration of workplace and home contingencies. (p 88) Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto

- Gorton, R. A., & Snowden, P. E. (1993). School leadership in administration.

  Dubgue: Brown Combination Inc.
- Gray, H., & Shein, L. (1996). Gender issues in management training. In J. Ozga.

  (Ed.) Women in educational management. Milton Keynes: Open

  University Press.
- Gupton, S. L., & Slick, G. A. (1995). Women leaders: who are they and how do they compare? In B. Irby & G. Brown (Eds.), Women executive: voices and visions (pp. 6-14). Austin, Texas: The Texas Council of Women School Executives.
- Hackman, D., & Richard, J. R. (1983). <u>Perspectives on behaviour in organizations</u>. New York: Mc Graw Hill Book Company.
- Halpin, A. (1966). <u>Administrative theory in education</u>. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Helgesen, S. (1990). The female advantage: women's ways of leading. New York:

  Doubleday.
- Hoy, K., & Miskel C. G. (1982) Educational administration: Theory, research and practice (2nd ed.). New York: Random House.
- Ho-Ming N. (1990) Women and work: A psychological perspective. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Inove, Y. (1997) Educational and professional attainment for women. <u>Dissertation</u>

  Abstracts International 'A'. (6), p. 24.
- Institute of statistical, social and economic research (1998). Women in public life in Ghana. University of Ghana, Legon

- International Bible Society. (1983) New International Version. East Brunswick, New Jersey: Author.
- Kanter, R. M. (1996). Men and women of the cooperation. In V. Hall (1996).

  Dancing on the ceiling. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Karsten M. F. (1994). <u>Management and gender issues and attitudes</u>. USA: Praeger Publishers.
- Kelly, K., & Nehlin, H. (1982). Silence in the curriculum. In K. B. de Marrais, &
  M. D. le Compte. (1995). The way schools work, a sociological analysis of education. (p. 254) USA: Longman Publishers.
- Koontz, H., & 'O' Donnell C. (1976). <u>Principles of management</u>. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lai, K. (1995). Where do women stand? Retrieved from:

  <a href="http://www.awmc.com/pub/p-">http://www.awmc.com/pub/p-</a>
- Lawler, E., & Porter T. (1967). In R. Owens, (1970). Organizational behaviour in schools. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice- Hall Inc.
- Lewin, R. (1948). United Nations and the status of women. A United Nation review reprint (1961), (8). (p.12) New York: UN Office of Public Information.
- Linton, J. (1996). Women in higher education, some present development. (1998, March). ACU Bulletin of Current Documentation. (1), pp. 57 61.
- Logon, S. (1987). Women in higher education, some present development. (1991, September 14). ACU Bulletin of Current Documentation. (12), p. 54.

- Manuh, T. (1991). The status of research on women in Ghana. A.S.A Conference paper.
- Maxine, C. (1997). Women community college president's agenda. <u>Dissertation</u>

  <u>Abstracts International 'A'.</u> (6), p. 39.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988) Qualitative research and case study applications in education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Murphy, J. (1990). <u>Principals' instructional leadership advances: Educational administration.</u> (1): Conn J. A. I. Press.
- Moser, L.O.N. (1986). Gender planning and development: Theory, practice and training. Hong Kong: Macmillan.
- Myrdal, A., & Klein, V. (1962). Women's two roles: Home and work. London:

  Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Natale (1992) <u>Finding herself: Pathways to identity development in women.</u>

  San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- National Council on Women and Development (1998). Women/Gender issues in management. Accra: USAID.
- Neumann, Y., & Neumann, E. (1990). The support stress paradigm and faculty research. The Journal of Higher Education. (5), p. 14.
- Nott, J. (1995). Women and minorities: <u>Dissertation Abstracts International 'A'</u>. (10), p. 23.
- Nwak, M. (1995). Women in top management in Uganda. Uganda: AAPAM.

- Oppong, C. & Abu, K. (1987). Seven roles of women: Impact of education, migration and employment on Ghanaian mothers. Geneva: International Labour Organisation Publications.
- Osei N. P. (1989). A Study of subordinate perception of leadership effectiveness

  in T.T. C. (An Unpublished Masters Thesis, Faculty of Education

  University of Cape Coast.)
- Perbi, A. (1992). Women in the government service in pre-independence and post -independence periods of Ghana's history. <u>Greenhill Journal</u>. (1), pp. 66-81.
- Pepitone, C. (1965). Role of the administrator in education. New York: Random House.
- Poskitt, E. (1976). Women in higher education 5. New York: University System News. pp. 33-37.
- Powell, F. (1993). In Karsten, M. K. (1994). Management and gender issues and attitudes. (p 88) USA: Praeger Publishers.
- Restine, N. L. (1993). <u>Women in administration: facilitators for change.</u> Newbury Park, California: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Rogers, (1980). The domestication of women: Discrimination in developing societies. London: Tavistock.
- Rowden, R.W. (1994). The role of human resource development in successful small and mid-sized manufacturing businesses. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Department of Educational Policy Studies, Georgia State University.)

- Sarantakos, S. (1993). Social reseach. Alberta: Macmillan Publishers.
- Shakeshaft, C. (1989). Women in educational administration. Newbury Park: C.

  A. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Sisk, H. L. (1977). Managerial effectiveness (3ed). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1974). A handbook of leadership. A survey of theory and research. New York: Free Press.
- Sutton, T. & Moore, L. (1985). Women in educational management. In E. L. V.

  Walters & G. Mason (1995). Women in top management in Africa: The

  Sierra Leone case. (p 77) Nairobi: AAPAM.
- Tancred-Sheriff, P. (1991). Women in universities: Some recent developments

  A.C.U. Bulletin of Current Documentation. (p22-24)
- Tyree, C. L. (1995). Women in education: Are we perpetuating societal attitude.

  by moving toward an androgynous leadership style? In B. Irby & G.

  Brown (Eds.), Women executives: voices and visions pp. 22-26. Austin.

  Texas: The Texas Council of Women School Executives.
- William, J. H. (1984). Women and work: A psychological perspective. Westport.

  CT: Praeger.
- World Bank (1994). Participation of women in higher education Geneva. Author

#### APPENDIX A

#### **QUESTIONNAIRE**

TUTORS' PERCEPTION OF WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT POSITION IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN GHANA

#### **Introduction**

This questionnaire is intended to seek information from both men and women under the supervision of Female Principals and Vice-Principals, Female Heads of Departments and Housemistresses. You do not have to write your name or school address. Information given will be treated as confidential and used mainly for academic purposes only. Thank you.

Please try to answer objectively to each of the following items. <u>Tick, underline, or indicate the appropriate responses.</u> Write out a figure or simple statements where demanded.

SECTION 1: PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS

1.	Indicate	vour	sex.
٠.	majouto	y our	SOA.

a) Male

b) Female

2. Tick your age range as at last birthday

AGE RANGE	<del></del>			
21-25 years old	 		 	
26-30 years	 		 	
31-35 years		-	 	
36-40 years	 <del></del>	<del></del>	 	
41-45 years	<del>_</del>		 	
46-50 years	·	<u></u>	 	
51-55 years	 		 	
Above 55 years old	<del></del> ,		 	
<del></del>	 	<u> </u>	 	

<ol><li>Your highest professional qualificati</li></ol>	3.	3	Your higher	st professional	aualification
---	----	---	-------------	-----------------	---------------

HIGHEST QUALIFICATION	
Specialist	
Diploma	
BA/ B.Ed / BSc Degree	
P.G.D.E	
MA/ MSc/MPhil Degree	
Doctorate Degree	
Others (specify)	

## 4. Your present rank in G.E.S.

RANK IN G. E. S.	
Assistant Superintendent	
Superintendent	
Senior Superintendent	
Principal Superintendent	
Assistant Director	
Director	

5. How long have you worked under a female administrator?

WORK EXPERIENCE	
1-5 years	
6-10 years	
11-15 years	
16-20 years	
21-25 years	
26 and more years	

6. Which of the following are you presently working with ' (You may tick more than one, where applicable)

CATEGORIES of Female Administrators	
The Principal	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Vice Principal	. · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Head of Department	
Senior Housemistress	

# SECTION II: GENERAL PERCEPTION OF YOUR HEMALE ADMINISTATOR(S)

7. As a member of staff in your college you are kindly being asked to express how you appreciate the female administrator in your institution. Read the following items and objectively assess her leadership style.

Tick the appropriate response (For items 7 and 8) 'Always', 'Sometimes' or 'Never' to each statement in the columns provided.

LEADERSHIP STYLE	Always	Sometimes	Never
1. Delegates authority where possible.			
2.Involves others in decisions that			
affect them.			
3. Effectively supervises work of			
subordinates.			
4 Calls staff meeting regularly.			
5. Able to coordinate and involve			
students in community activities.			

8. As a staff member you are kindly being asked to indicate the performance of the female administrator in your institution. Read the following questions and objectively assess her performance on each statement.

Performance Perception of The	Always	Sometimes	Never
Female Administrator.			
1. Courageous in facing problems.			
2. Treats all with respect			
3 Demonstrates the ability to make effective decisions			

•	 	
4. Able to adapt to changing		
situations.		
5. Receptive to constructive		
criticisms.		
6 Willing to work beyond the usual		,
time when necessary.		
7. Skillful at handling disputes		
between groups and individuals		
8. Displays no favouritism		
9. Respects diverse opinions and		}
ideas.		
10. Gets on well with other people.		

9. Read the following questions and objectively rate your perception of the female administrator's work ethics. Tick under the appropriate response to each statement to express your view in the columns provided.

Female Admin. Work Ethics	To a great	To some	Not at all
	extent	extent	
1. Admits qualified students	1		
2. Sees to the regular maintenance of	<del>                                     </del>	<del> </del>	
plants			
3. Promotes cordial relationship	<del>                                     </del>		
amongst personnel			
4. Promotes college/ community			
relationship			

5. Ensures students respect college			
regulations		<u> </u>	
6. Shows interest in staff welfare			
7. Exhibits an open administration			
8. Encourages staff in decision-making			
9. Shows interest in students' welfare			
10. She's approachable			
11(a) Good communication with			
students			<b>i</b> : ;
11(b) Good communication with			
teaching staff			; ; ;
11(c) Good communication with non-			· · · · · — • · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
teaching staff			 
12 Exhibits good supervisory role	<b></b>		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
13. Good financial manager			
	<b></b>		L,

## SECTION III PERSONAL VIEWS OF YOUR COLLEGES ADMINISTRATOR

The following items refer to you, the respondent, personally. Please give your objective responses to each of the questions, in short statements or by ticking the appropriate box.

10. What is the attitude of the female administrator? Is she bossy?

a) Yes b) No

į

## SECTION HE PERSONAL VIEWS OF YOUR COLLEGE'S ADMINISTRATOR.

The following items refer to you, the respondent, personally. Please give your objective responses to each of the questions, in short statements or by ticking the appropriate box.

- 10. What is the attitude of the female administrator? Is she bossy?
  - a) Yes b) No

Give reasons for your
answers
***************************************
11. Would you prefer an increase of women in administrative positions in
Ghanaian Teacher Training Colleges?
a) Yes b) No
Give three reasons for the answer chosen.
i
ii
iii
12. How well do you relate to her?
i
ii
iii
13. What do you perceive are the reasons for the low percentage of women
administrators in education?
i
ii
iii
14. Are you inspired to take up administrative positions?
a) Yes No
Give reasons for your answer.
<b>:</b>

II
iii
15. Has working under a female administrator had any effect on your work
output?
a) Yes b) No
Give reasons for your answer.
i
ii
iii

#### APPENDIX B

#### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION



## Institute for Educational Planning and Administration UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST, CAPE COAST, GHANA

TEL. 042-33824

Ref.

Our Ref.: EP/90/Vol.4/163

Date: August 9, 2001

#### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, Josephine E. Ebe-Arthur is a graduate student of the University of Cape Coast. The is collecting data/information in your College for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement of the programme.

I would be grateful if you could help her collect the data/information from your College. Kindly give the necessary assistance that Josephine E. Ebe-Arthur requires to collect the data.

Thank you.

A. L. Dare (Dr.) Ag. Director

#### DISTRIBUTION

The Principals

Holy Child Teacher Training College

Fosu Teacher Training College

Komenda Teacher Training College

Ada Teacher Training College

Accra Teacher Training College

St. Theresah's Teacher Training College

Ola Teacher Training College

Wesley College

St. Louis Teacher Training College