UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

WORK-HOME CONFLICT OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE ACCRA METROPOLIS

BY

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

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WORK-HOME CONFLICT OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS IN BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE ACCRA METROPOLIS

LETITIA BRAY

2010
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation 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 Signature: ……………………………… Date: ……………………….

Candidate’s Name: Letitia Bray

Supervisor’s Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor’s Signature: ……………………………… Date: ……………………….

Supervisor’s Name: Mr. S.K. Atakpa
ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to find out the problems women administrators face as they perform work-home roles. The study investigated the nature of the conflict and gender roles that conflict with their participation in educational administration. The study also tried to identify the support the female administrators get from their family members as they perform their dual responsibilities and how to manage work-home conflict. The study employed the descriptive survey design. The purposive and random sampling techniques were used to draw a sample size of 125 from the population of 400. The sample size was made up of female heads of public and private basic schools in the Accra Metropolis. The main instrument used for data collection was the questionnaire which had 43 items, made up of both open-ended and closed-ended items. The return rate achieved in the distribution and collection of the questionnaire was 96%. The findings of the study revealed that women work after official hours to get work done. They confirmed that delegation of some aspect of their jobs to subordinate helps to promote efficiency. The study further revealed that although women get support from family members in the performance of their duties in the home, they sometimes leave their official work to attend to family problems and vice versa, hence the difficulty to combine their roles. On the other hand the study revealed that women administrators are able to manage work-home conflict. Recommendations made include the training of women in administrative positions on how to manage role conflict efficiently and effectively.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In undertaking a research work of this nature, I used a good number of books, journals and periodicals by other writers. I owe each one of them a heavy debt of gratitude. I gratefully acknowledge the special and untiring assistance, guidance and suggestions received from my supervisor Mr. S.K. Atakpa of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, University of Cape Coast.

My special thanks go to the staff of Accra Metropolis Directorate, Statistics Division of the Ghana Education Service for their assistance. I am indebted to the respondents whose relevant information contributed to the success of this work.

Finally, I am extremely grateful to all personalities from whom I got information to make this dissertation complete.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents and my children Wendy and Hubert for their support and encouragement.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

In the past, women played little role in the development and organization of schools. This stemmed from the fact that in traditional African societies, marriage and housewifery limited the access of women to formal education. The place of the African woman was the home, theirs was to cook and bring up children, and they were not as free as men. Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) is of the view that women tended to become economically limited because men provided money for running the home while the women run the home.

Although they are often referred to as the weaker sex, they are in effect the bedrock of society. Women are capable of performing management roles and functions effectively and efficiently just as men do. They also have the talents and capabilities of contributing effectively towards nation building.

Education which aims at preparing the individual’s mind so that he will be internally consistent and harmonious with himself, also equips the individual with knowledge, skills attitude and values to make him function properly in the society. Education also equips the individual to bring about useful changes in society. Therefore for education to achieve these goals there is the need for effective and efficient leadership in schools.
According to Musaazi (1982) leadership is the process of influencing the activities and behaviour of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation. Stoner and Freeman (1992) also observe that leadership is the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. Leadership involves other people, subordinates or followers. These subordinates help to define the leadership status and make the leadership process possible by accepting directions from the leader. Leadership also involves an unequal distribution of power between leaders and subordinates. Although subordinates are not powerless they can shape the activities of the group in different ways, yet, the leader usually has more power.

Leadership is the embodiment of the ability and willingness to act on ones beliefs. According to Florence Howe (as cited by Rogers, 1998) a leader is someone who knows how to control ones personal life and who has a vision of possibilities for other lives. This presupposes that the leader works to make that vision visible to others, to share it, without trampling on other persons, but engaging them to work for that vision as well.

Another aspect of leadership which is also important is the ability of the leader to influence the behaviour of subordinates for the achievement of set goals and objectives. The concept of leadership which hinges on working with, and through people to achieve the goals of an institution holds true for the school situation.

Considering the importance of education in nation building and development, the school administrator has a major task to perform. The
instructional leader, that is, the head of the school sees to the teaching and learning process in the school by supervising instructions.

Also he is expected to be the central decision maker of the school, solve problems and also foster innovation. He must also be the link between the school and its community as well as the wider society. Hall (1996) explains that professional success in education cannot be measured exclusively in terms of career success, but in terms of successful outcomes for children’s education. A woman or a man heading a school which always register poor academic achievement is failing its young people and cannot pass as a success story. Being successful means having values about the central purpose of the enterprise. This is the situation in which the female administrator finds herself. This becomes a major task for females because over the years the administrative role of schools has been considered the preserve of men. There has been a “glass ceiling” which women come in contact with when working up the corporate ladder (Morrison & Glinow, 1990).

Though opportunities were given to females, internal and external pressures have resulted in a rapid decline in the number of females in the “power positions” of school administration. This is due to the fact that the internal structure of education and day to day practices lead to differences in career patterns that are limited to gender.

Limerick and Lingard (1991) in their research looked at why women do not achieve promotions in schools. They found explanations for the low representation of women in leadership position in education to be that women still
bear the primary responsibility for child rearing and household duties, a factor that leads to interrupted careers. In addition to that, restrictive culture of educational organization and society in general limits what women feel they can achieve.

Limerick and Lingard (1991) stressed that until steps were taken to ensure the equal participation of women in the decision making process at all levels of governance, the national goals of achieving peace, equality and justice will continue to be illusory and romantic. Women representation in senior positions in education is low as compared to men. This is because educational management is viewed as “Masculine”.

In the past, there was the notion that the women’s place in the society was the home. And because of this parents did not find it worthwhile to spend money in educating their daughters to higher levels. Girls were even discouraged from getting “too much” education with the fear that they will not get husbands. This has developed a psychological problem in women in the sense that a lot of females believe that they are not mentally capable of attaining higher levels in education. This situation is gradually changing and women are not only attaining higher levels in education but they are also climbing the leadership ladder.

According to Judy Rosener (as cited in Addaih, 2006), a second generation of women is making way into top management not by adopting the style and habits that have proven successful for men but by drawing on the skills and attitudes they developed from their shared experience as women. This stems from the fact that second generation managerial women are drawing on what is
unique to their socialization as women and creating a different path to the top. They are seeking and finding opportunities in dynamic organizations to show that they can achieve results albeit in a different way.

According to Greenhaus and Bentell (1986) work home conflict is defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressure from work and family (home) domain are mutually incompatible. One of them is the inconsistency of multiple concurrent roles. A study conducted by Judy Rosener (cited by Addiah, 2006), revealed that just as many men as women experience work family conflict (although when there are children at home, the women experience slightly more conflict than men). The female administrator whether married or not has a dual role to perform. There is her role as an administrator which is challenging and demanding. She also has her traditional role to perform as a wife, a mother and manager of the home. Such is the dilemma that the female administrator finds herself. Thus, conflict of loyalty often arises. With such conflicts the administrator is bound to falter in one or the other of her roles.

This confirms a study conducted by Klein (1965) which states that working women face dilemma as long as housekeeping largely rest on their shoulders and is considered their primary concern. Hence, conflict of loyalty often arises between their jobs and their domestic duties and this is crux of the study.

**Statement of the Problem**

According to the Population and Housing Census of 2000 women form a greater proportion of Ghana’s population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002). In
spite of this, they are under represented in leadership position although they are seen in all fields of activities. Adoo-Adeku (2004) is of the view that women occupy pivotal position in their family set-ups where they perform multiple roles and tasks in housekeeping, nurturing and as income earners.

In traditional Ghanaian societies women are regarded as homemakers and wives. More Ghanaian women are acquiring higher education and have become very active on the labour market. In Ghana’s education sector most women are in leadership positions as heads of institutions, Directors of Divisions in the Ghana Education Service as well as Metropolitan, Municipal and District Directors. Despite this, they are confronted with the problem of performing their traditional roles as home makers and their new emerging role of administrators. Therefore, the nub of this study is to find out the problems women face as they perform their work-home roles, the extent of the conflicting demands and how these affect their administrative duties as well as their house duties and how the conflicting demands are managed.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to find out the problems women administrators face as they perform work-home roles. It also aimed at finding out the nature of the conflict, and whether there were any traditional or gender roles that conflicted with their participation in educational administration. The researcher also sought to find out whether they got any support from family members as they performed their dual responsibilities. Finally, the study was to find out how the female administrators managed work-home conflict.
Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study.

1. What problems do female administrators face in the course of performing their duties?

2. What is the nature of conflict among female administrators?

3. How do traditional gender roles of women conflict with their participation in educational administration?

4. What support do women administrators get as they perform their dual roles?

5. How do female administrators manage work-home conflict?

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would contribute to knowledge. Particularly, it would contribute to the body of literature relating to women in leadership. Suggestions made as a result of the findings of the study might help accelerate efforts being made to close the gender gap in leadership participation at all levels especially in educational administration.

The findings of the study would also inform the general public about the capabilities of female administrators irrespective of their traditional roles. The findings of the study might serve as a basis for similar studies to be conducted in future. The study would enlighten prospective female administrators about possible work-home conflict problems they are likely to encounter as they aspire to positions of responsibilities in educational administration.
Delimitation

The study was confined to female heads of basic schools in the Accra Metropolis. Accra Metropolis was chosen because there are a lot of public and private schools and accessibility was easy. The study did not cover all heads of schools. This is because the study was based on only female administrators in basic schools in the Accra Metropolis.

Limitations of the Study

The study had its limitations. A comprehensive study using all female administrators of public and private basic schools and other sectors of the economy could have been possible and revealed more if time had not been an imposition. However, the findings can be generalized for all females in administrative positions.

There were very few books available on women in educational administration. The researcher found it very difficult to compile the literature related to the topic because much had not been done on women in administration in Ghana. The scope of the study did not help the researcher to generalize the findings of the study.

Another limitation was that some respondents were not cooperative. The researcher had to go to their schools several times before the questionnaire could be retrieved.

Organisation of the Rest of the Study

This is a study on work-home conflict of female administrators. It seeks to research into the problems the administrators face in performing their duties,
nature of the conflict, support they get and how the conflict can be managed. The study is divided into five chapters.

Chapter one of the study is the introduction which is made up of the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. Other areas treated under the chapter are delimitation, limitations and the organisation of the study. Chapter two contains a review of the available literature related to the study. Chapter three outlined the methodology for conducting the study. This includes the desing, the population and the sample, the instrument and the procedures for the collection and analysis of the data. Chapter four deals mainly with the actual analysis of data collected and a discussion of possible reasons for the occurrences of the result. Chapter five consists of the summary, conclusion and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This related literature reveals what has already been written about women who want to climb the ladder into administrative position, and the various challenges they encounter along the way. Women in these administrative positions are faced with work-home conflict as they strive to balance their dual role.

The literature is reviewed under the following headings:

1. Women in leadership
2. Women in the labour force
3. Gender sensitivity and stereotyping
4. Role conflict of the female administrator
5. Management of work-home conflict

Women in Leadership

Some traditional African women played leadership roles in society and influenced society greatly. Yaa Asantwaa of Ghana, the queen mother of Ejisu in Ashanti and Zhinga Queen of Matamba in Angola are outstanding examples. The placement of women in leadership position over men generates status reversal conflict, particularly for men with traditional attitudes towards the role of women with the consequential negative impact on the men’s performance.
Women have become the focus of international programmes and conferences. In 1972 the United Nations (UN) General Assembly proclaimed 1975 as International Women year to be devoted to women issues to achieve equality for women and to ensure the full integration of women in total development.

Women who have become leaders or heads of institutions have successfully broken the barriers that traditionally stand in the way of women seeking career advancement. They have gone beyond the great divide. They have also broken the “glass ceiling” and have taken up leadership positions with the additional possibilities for power and influence they bring (Beck and Steel, cited in Hall, 1996). While it is true that traditional leadership theory is based on male models of competition, there are significant indications that change is underway. As society change female values of inclusion and connection are emerging as valuable leadership qualities.

Women are now trying to reach high positions in organizations and institutions in Ghana. Examples are the former Director General of Ghana Broadcasting Corporation, Eva Lokko, Heads of Internal Revenue Service, Immigration, and the Insurance Commission, former Managing Director of Ghana Commercial Bank, Mrs Obeng Ansong, former Director General of Ghana Education Service Rev. Ama Afo Blay. Apart from these Ghanaian women in leadership position there also women ministers, District Chief Executives, as well as women parliamentarians, although the number is insignificant as compared to men, it is quite encouraging. Recently, some women have been appointed to
responsible positions and these include civil servants as Chief Directors as well as the appointment of Mrs. Georgina Wood as the first female Chief Justice in the Republic of Ghana. This clearly indicates that women can occupy high positions in our country.

According to Carter (1988) women lack self confidence and the tendency to underrate their own abilities have clearly inhibited them from competing with men where they feel the odds are against them. She further went on to say that many women have wanted to do traditional feminine jobs and few have aspired to get to the top. Surveys of girls’ school leavers and women graduates show clearly that most of them chose to look for clerical or shop work or at high educational level for teaching, nursing or social work. Women have tended to be less ambitious than most men.

According to Addiah (2006) a study conducted revealed that women are of the view that behaviours and beliefs that underpin their leadership style come to them naturally. This is attributed to two factors: women socialization patterns and career path. The study further revealed that in some parts of our world, men and women receive different signals of what is expected of them. Women have been expected to be wives, mothers, teachers and nurses. In all these roles they are supposed to be cooperative, supportive, understanding, gentle and to provide service to others.

Akure (1994) argues that the absence of women in leadership position is due to differential specialization of women and men. Women are socialized to believe that paid work is done in addition to work in the home. On the other hand
men are often more competent than women and these have given them the opportunity and confidence to often move up the administrative ladder.

Collard (1995) also affirmed that women in teaching constitute majority of the work force, yet they cluster in positions of limited power. He is of the view that the explanation for the low participation of women in leadership has been explained historically, socio-culturally, psychologically and organizationally. He went on further to say that historically, teaching is seen as a nurturing role, socio-culturally, there are stereotyped customary expectations held by men and internalized by women. Psychologically, existing human theory does not take into account women’s experiences and characteristics such as compassion and need for connecting with others and organizationally, he said, there are structures of opportunity and power, disproportional distribution of males and females in particular roles.

According to Dapaah (1988) Ghanaian women face a lot of constraints in management and therefore gave some reasons why Ghanaian women rarely get management positions. One main constraint was that women who find themselves in management positions find that they are supposed to be in a man’s world and therefore faced with the problem of having to prove themselves. This makes such women feel that they have to put in more effort than their male counterparts. Then, “there is the lack of ambition on the part of many Ghanaian women because once they have attained a certain level in management where they feel comfortable, they do not want to rock the boat” (p.6). This is because they feel they have already achieved more than enough for women. She further
stresses that employers are also reluctant to promote women to higher positions involving more responsibilities because they believe that women cannot cope. Lack of interest in females pursuing education to higher levels according to her is another constraints as this had in the past been considered the preserve of males. As for access to authority American women have also made some strides. In 1940 many firms explicitly prohibited women from occupying managerial position.

By the 1970’s, with women flooding the labour market and the number of managerial jobs expanding dramatically, unprecedented numbers of women were entering the ranks of management. American women have increased their representation in management ranks from 18 percent of all managers in 1970 to 40 percent in 1990. These figures indisputably show that thousands of women are gaining access to jobs that usually confer organizational power (Richardson, Taylor & Whittier, 2001).

Despite the fact that there are gender biases against women, it has been cited that women posses the qualities to be the superior sex (Lair, 1980). Developmentally, men are more physically vulnerable and susceptible to stresses, both prenatally and perinatally (Jacklin, 1974). Women live longer, cope with stress better and are more open and expressive (Henker & Whalem, 1989). Women leaders not only maintain feminine features such as warmth and openness but also exhibit “masculine” qualities such as rational assertiveness and independence (Betz & Fitzgerald 1987).
A study conducted by (Edson, 1995) indicates that “despite all the obstacles for women trying to advance in a largely male area, these female educators continue to be committed, resilient and for the most part successful.

**Women in the Labour Force**

According to Evans (as cited by Ostergaard, 1992) global estimates in the 1980’s suggested that the total female labour force had doubled since 1950 with women constituting one quarter of the world’s industrial labour force and around two-fifths of its agricultural labour force. These in turn are generating a larger demand for and supply of women’s labour. In addition, decreasing fertility in some regions, reduced mortality and increasing rural-urban migration are both pushing and pulling more women into economic activities outside the household sphere.

Joekes (1987) emphasises that studies of women in society have shifted in the past forty years. Early writings revolved around women’s traditional roles and centered on their position in the family in “primitive” societies. Men’s and women’s roles were considered essentially complementary. Narrow in focus as they were, such works were not intended to investigate the broader social and economic milieu nor even to consider economic aspect of different types of social organizations. During the 1970’s the academic literature moved away from studying women in the family towards examining their activities outside the domestic setting and investigating their place in social and economic relations. Women’s domestic role in rearing children and managing household resources is considered to be of central value to society. Women are systematically
disadvantaged in economic and social terms hence this qualifies them for special consideration in all projects and programmes, not just in a separate category of women only projects.

The contribution of women’s labour and enterprise in the informal sector is also acknowledged, despite these activities often falling into a gray middle ground between the extremes of formal fully recorded production on the one hand and the household sphere on the other. Prospects for both men and women have also improved with regard to literacy and education, which also contribute in a major way to greater realization of human potential.

Education is moreover, a vital precondition for a fully productive life in the modern world. According to Joekes (1987), the picture of development since 1950 in this area, in fact, has some very positive features. But in this case, women are firmly disadvantaged. There is considered disparity in educational provision for men and women. Though, improvement has been made much remains to be done to bring about equality, between the sexes. Killien and Brown (as cited in Swanson-Kauffman, 1987) assert that in America, women comprise an increasing proportion of the paid labour force, primarily, owing to the growing involvement of married women (McLaughlin and Melber, 1986). In one-half of all married couples, both partners are employed (Lein, 1984) and in 12% of families, married women are the primary wage earners (Keane, 1985). They contended that parenthood can no longer be viewed as a culturally sanctioned deterrent to working outside the home. In 1984, two of every three married women with children between 6 and 17, and over one-half of all married women
with children under 6 were employed. Unmarried women with children are even more likely to be employed (MaLaughlin and Melber, 1986).

According to Momsen and Kinnaird (1993), women’s general work involves both monetised and monetised tasks both of which are crucial in household survival and rural development. Through the performance of such monetized tasks women contribute more to the household economy than their male counterparts.

Women’s real contribution to the economic and social life of the country deserves more attention than hitherto acknowledged. Ostergaard (1992) maintains that women in development movement whether in its scientific, political or popular form has definitely drawn the world’s attention to the fact that women represent powerful human in development that has over the years gone on unnoticed. They perform the major part of the world’s labour and that they do so under very underprivileged conditions.

She further went on to say that women’s activities are spread over various sectors of society, productive as well as reproductive. Women’s role in biological reproduction and the bearing and nursing of babies is self-evident. It is a false stereotype, however, that because it is the “biological nature of women to bear children, it is a natural biological outcome” that for their lifetimes women should be obliged to do the entire house keeping and domestic activities.

In all homes, the sexual division of labour encompasses both reproductive and productive activities. But the workload connected with the domestic activities, which maintain or reproduce daily life are mainly allocated to women,
while the more extroverted and distant income-generating activities are allocated to men. This distribution of labour and of the rights to dispose of the income in cash or kind which results from that labour is clearly of a social and not of a biological nature.

Women are not new in the workforce. They have always worked in one way or the other in or out the home. Also the number of women in organizations has grown significantly over the past decade and their representation is increasing. The modern women whose right and respect depend on education rather than birth rights are superseding the traditional elite among women. Some women are now doctors, lawyers, teachers, bankers and politicians (Asiedu Akrofi, 1978).

In many societies in the world, women have ascribed traditional roles. These roles are dictated by the societies in which they find themselves.

Greenstreet (1971) made an inquiry into the Ghanaian traditional society and states that, it is based on a subsistence economy in which division of labour exist between men and women. “The main functions of women were 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).

The majority of women around the world works long hours and contributes significantly to production and family income. Dahlstrom and Liljestrom (as cited in Dahlstrom, 1967) conducted an inquiry into the changing roles of men and women and observed that the women’s most important role is widely considered to be that of caring for the home and children. Hence, working
outside the home is secondary, something that could only be undertake when the children have become older (as cited by Dzinyela and Agezo, 2000).

Most women are educated, more employed and employed at higher levels today than ever before, but they are still largely in “Pink-Collar jobs. According to the American Association of University Women (2003) Educational Foundation report, women at work, “women have achieved parity with men in obtaining degrees and are more likely to work in managerial and professional careers today”. While women are increasingly likely to enter the paid labour force, they will probably continue to be presented with lower status service occupations, and that is just not good enough. Today the structure of global human resource has changed, a large number of educated women join the labour market and they play multiple roles.

On women’s commitment to employment, Evans (as cited in Ostergaard, 1992) asserts that the real and perceived family burdens of married women are often cited by employers as reasons for their perception of female labour as more unstable and less committed than male labour. Women workers are thought to take more time off for domestic duties and to leave the labour force at particular points of time such as at marriage or child birth. Employers are therefore less motivated to employ, train or promote women. However, there is little evidence to support these views. A study conducted by Evans (as cited in Ostergaard, 1992) demonstrated that the stability of Indian female labour has shown that women are less prone to leave their employment for better jobs. Studies on absenteeism in the organized sector show that the rates for males and
females are fairly similar. One study found that female absenteeism was usually related to family responsibilities and male absenteeism to alcoholism which is arguable a more serious problem for employers.

Another study on the age profile of the female labour force shows that in India (unlike in most developed countries) women’s participation rates in the labour force rise up to the age of 30 and then more gradually peaking at the age of 45. In other words women’s greatest involvement in the labour force coincides with their years of child bearing and rearing. This reinforces the need to improve social infrastructure such as child care.

**Gender Sensitivity and Stereotyping**

Gender refers to the social role of being a female or male. It also places the individual in the social structure, establishing where and what we are in social terms. It also lays the framework within which we gain our identities, formulate our goals and carry out our training.

Gender, is social relationship between man and woman in which women have been systematically subordinated. Men and women play different roles in society, with their gender differences shaped by ideological, historical, religious, ethnic, economic and cultural determinants (Whitehead, 1971).

According to Williams (1984), gender refers to social, psychological and cultural attributes of masculinity and femininity. Gender pertains to the social learned patterns of behaviour and the psychological and cultural attributes of masculinity and femininity. Gender pertains to the social learned patterns of behaviour and the psychological or emotional expressions of attributes that
distinguish males from females. Williams, (1984) argues that, “gender refers to psychological attributes, characteristics and behaviour that are acquired within a social context and that are related to the social meanings of sexual categories in a given society” (P. 72). She further states that males and females are distinguished not only by their biological sex, but also by behaviour, as for example the kinds of clothes they wear and the kinds of work they do and so on. She continues to project that such differences where they exist, are social constructions that can vary greatly from one culture to another.

Ostergaard (1992) refers to gender as the qualitative and interdependent character of women’s and men’s position in society. Gender relations are constituted in terms of the relations of power and dominance that structure the life chances of women and men. Thus, gender divisions are not fixed biology, but constitute an aspect of the wider social division of labour and this in turn is rooted in the conditions of production and reproduction reinforced by cultural, religious and ideological systems prevailing in a society.

In short, the concept of gender makes it possible to distinguish the biological founded sexual differences between women and men from the culturally determined differences between the roles given to or undertaken by women and men respectively in a given society. The first are unchangeable, like a destiny. The latter are workable and may be changed by political and opinion shaping influences.

Most of the early researches under the content of gender stereotypes concentrated on personality traits associated with women and men. Yet, it is
obvious that many other domains are also linked to gender in most people’s mind. Indeed, a person in the street would likely invoke sports hobbies, occupations and a range of other domains in which sexes were believed to differ. Stereotypes of gender could be differentiated on the basis of the role behaviour, physical characteristics and occupational status. However, the dimensions are interrelated to the extent that information about one dimension can influence inferences about other dimensions suggesting that the network of beliefs are interwoven.

Eagly (1987), Eagly and Steffen (1984, 1986) postulate that stereotypes have emerged and have been sustained because the social roles that women and men play are different. Donelson (1999) is of the view that women have been more likely than men to be home makers and child raisers, while men have been more likely than women to be breadwinners.

According to Moser (1986) stereotypes based on gender have historically placed women in a nurturing submissive role, while men are seen as the dominant, more aggressive gender. Stereotypes of men and women are derived at least in part from observing individual in their societal positions that is men are more likely to assume the occupational role and women are likely to assume the domestic role.

Moser (1986) identifies three roles of women, which are reproductive, productive and managing roles. Reproductive role comprises the child bearing or rearing responsibilities and the domestic tasks undertaken by female representatives to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labour force.
It includes not only biological reproduction but also the care and maintenance of the work force.

Productive role comprises work done by females and males for payment in cash and kind. It includes both market production and exchange value, and subsistence home production with an actual use value but also a potential exchange value. For females in agricultural production this includes work as independent farmers, peasant wives and wage workers.

The community-managing role comprises activities undertaking wholly by females at the community level as an extension of their reproductive role. This is to ensure the provision and maintenance of their scarce resources of collective consumption such as water, healthcare and education. It is voluntary and unpaid work undertaken in free time.

Attempt by women to enter educational leadership positions have been met with obstacles ranging from sex roles, stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination in the past. Thus, an unfair opinion had already been formed about the performance of women that they cannot perform as their male counterparts. The stereotypical women was perceived to be lacking traits such as leadership ability, competitiveness, self-confidence, aggression and ambition, all of which are considered desirable for managers. Research also indicates that female administrators are often stereotyped as irrational, delicate and irresolute in challenging work situations (Chang & Chang-Mc Bride, 1997). Women clearly face a number of stereotypes and biases and many of these negative ideas are most likely affect the degree to which they accepted as leaders in organizations.
and society. Some of the preconceptions about women unfortunately affect how they are accepted and appraised and many scholars believe that such stereotypes are the bases of the glass ceiling hence their low performance.

Skepticism over women’s role in organizations may also negatively affect leaders’ perception. Women are likely to have more difficulty than men in obtaining the same role legitimacy as leaders and the many negative stereotypes and biases directed at women managers may make it difficult to overcome such skepticism. The placement of women in leadership position over men generates status reversal conflict, particularly for men with traditional attitudes towards the role of women with the consequential negative impact of the men’s performance.

On the contrary, Amadiume (1987) assert that the fact that biological sex did not always correspond to ideological gender meant that women could play roles usually monopolized by men or be classified as ‘males’ in terms of power and authority over others. As such roles were not rigidly masculine or feminized; no stigma was attached to breaking gender rules. Furthermore, the presence of an all embracing goddess focused religion favoured the acceptance of women in statuses and roles of authority and power.

In contrast, western culture and the Christian religion brought by colonialism carried rigid gender ideologies which aided and supported the exclusion of women from the power hierarchy, whether in government or the church in the modern society. This rigid gender system meant that roles are strictly masculinized or feminized and breaking gender rules therefore carries a stigma. Amadiume (1987) contended that in the west, as a result of the rigid
gender system women wielding power tend to be seen as reclassified or present themselves as “manly” or “man like.”

Safilias-Rothschild (1974) contends that past experiences in almost all cultures show that women’s biological and social roles confined them to the home. Women everywhere were seen as home makers’. Similarly, despite the growing awareness among women of their rights, they are still held back by social, economic and cultural constraints. In virtually all cases women continue to bear the double burden of family responsibilities and work in addition to the difficulties of daily life which many face. This place them in a position of inferiority and marginalization in their occupational life and in a continuous state of over work (ILO, 1995).

**Role Conflict of the Female Administrator**

According to Killien and Brown (as cited in Swanson–Kauffman, 1987) Women’s lives are affected by the roles they assume as well as when and in what sequence and combination they assume these roles. They contended that while past generations of women organized their lives primarily to meet family-related objectives, many women today are interested in meeting both personal and career objectives.

According to Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) roles are the result of expectations of others about appropriate behavior in particular position. Role conflict is described as the psychological tension that is aroused by conflicting role pressures. Role theory suggests that conflict occurs when individuals engage in multiple roles that are incompatible (Katz & Kahn, 1978).
Work-home conflict can be time-based, strain-based or behavior-based (Greenhaus & Bentell, 1986). Time-based conflict occurs when the role pressures stemming from the two different domains compete for the individual’s time. For example, requiring employees to work late with little notice might make it difficult for employees to meet family obligations, like picking up a child at day care.

Strain-based conflict occurs when the strain experienced in one role domain interferes with effective performance of role behaviours in the other domain. For example, a father who is anxious about his child’s illness might not be able to fully concentrate on his job as copy editor, causing him to make mistakes in his work.

Behaviour-based conflict is described as conflict stemming from incompatible behaviours demanded by competing roles. For example, a manager in financial service firm might be expected to be aggressive, unemotional and hard driving, but these same behaviours in the family domain would most likely lead to conflict with family members. Time-based conflict, the most common type of work-home conflict, is based on the scarcity hypothesis. This hypothesis suggests that the sum of human energy is fixed and that multiple roles inevitably reduce the time and energy available to meet all role demands, thus creating strain and work-home conflict (Marks, 1977).

Female leaders are frequently praised for their ability to work more effectively with subordinates, increase their prestige with family. It also increases their workload, intensifies their mental stress and aggravates the problems related
to child rearing and household management. In American families, where both the husband and wife are working, they are engulfed in a new set of stresses, especially, since they are ill prepared to cope with them (Thatcher & Thatcher, 1982). They further realized in a research that unless a proper balance is maintained between work and all other aspects of their lives married couples were likely to face conflict and distress.

According to Brew and Ekuban (1991), long period spent on household chores may make women tired and reduce the time available for other activities. They also added that a mother might have to reduce the amount of time she spends on her household duties because of her outside employment. Kanter (as cited in Hall, 1996) asserts that work has been seen to have powerful constraints on family life and identifies five aspect of work, which have important effects on family life and well-being. The first is the relative absorption on an occupation. The occupation leaves less time, emotion and commitment for family life. The second one is the timing of work and its effect on the free time for family activities. The third is the resources, the income and reward which are 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 is another important domain where work influences family lives and behavior. Finally, the emotion aspect of work are strongly linked with the emotion tone one brings home, these may be frustration or satisfaction, burnout or feeling of self-realization.
According to Lai-Tsuei (2000) work–family conflict negatively influences the individual’s physical and psychological aspects because work-family conflict and work stress are increasing among female professionals. This stems from the fact that the condition of stress would burn the individual out and this would lead to withdrawal from the job.

Ayeh (1981) defines stress as the degree of tension, anxiety and pressure experienced by people. It is observed that male teachers are absent less frequently than their female colleagues, and that the frequent nature of female teacher’s absenteeism might in fact be the consequence of their dual role as career teachers and parents primarily for child raising and household management. The combination of the two roles has series of repercussions on their health, efficiency, productively and the upbringing of the child. The combination of work and family roles is thought to be more stressful for women than for men. Staats and Staats (1983) comparing female and male managers and professionals, found that women reported higher levels of stress and stressors, but they were family, not job related. Even as they assume more job-related responsibility family and household demands continue for women. In a study conducted by Walker and Woods (1976) they found out that an employed wife contributed about 41 hours per week to household tasks in addition to hours in the paid labour force; the husband contributed 13 hours to the home.

According to Donelson (1999) while multiple roles generally are advantageous, the demands of work and home life do pose role conflict in lesbians and heterosexual women of all occupations and races; they are more
likely to be dealt with by women than by men in heterosexual couples because although employed life and home life can conflict, often positive as well as negative effects of paid work spill over to life apart from work, and vice versa.

A study conducted by Lai-Tsuei (2000) indicated that among the three components of work-family conflict, work interfering family was in high degree. And among the stressors family involvement and kids’ pressure were in high degree. A study conducted by Woods (1985) and Griffith (1983) on the hazards of multiple roles revealed that women who had more children reported more symptoms of poor mental health. It was also found out that a lack of personal time was the major stressor of women under age 35 and the second major stressor for women over 35.

Baruch and Barnett (1987) assert that multiple roles may be life enhancing in that they provide additional sources of social support, increased skills and heightened self-esteem and well being. They found out that women who had multiple life roles as mothers, wives and employees, were less depressed and had higher self-esteem than women and men who had fewer life roles. However, it is the quality of roles that is important. That is, the greater the quality of a person’s multiple roles, for example, for those having an interesting, challenging job and a happy home life, the greater their self-esteem.

According to Hammer, Allen and Grigsby (1997), work family conflict has been examined from a systems perspective and it demonstrates that one member of a couple’s experience of work-family conflict significantly impact their partner’s experience of work-family conflict.
Combining leadership responsibilities with domestic duties tend to bring inter role conflict among women. This creates a barrier to women’s career development.

Marshal (as cited in Hall, 1996) contends that administrative positions demand nearly total immersion, long hours, many evening meetings and high personal visibility. And for women, the norm conflicts with their domestic role. The role relevance of the spill over effect of work and family roles to this study is distinctly obvious since the study seeks to find the influence of work-home conflict on female administrators.

**Management of Work- Home Conflict**

Work at home is work and needs to be understood as that. Full time homemakers have a job that is not valued. Employed women face the challenge of juggling two kinds of work, a challenge accentuated, for women with children and no partner who helps in the home. House work is necessary and valuable, but it is not valued as “real” work Daniels (as cited by Donelson, 1999). Hochschild (1989) and Weingarten (1978) agree to the fact that most employed women do not give up the job of homemaker; they work at a paid job all day and then come home to a second shift, the work at home. While multiple roles generally are advantageous, the demands of work and home life do pose role conflicts in women of all occupations and this must be managed.

Scott (as cited in Carter, 1988) states that there should be sharing of child rearing and house work between wives and husbands. She further stated that there should be changes in patterns of work which will enable both men and
women to work part-time, work from home, or to move in and out of jobs. She pointed out the need for twenty-four hour free nurseries so that women would have full-time careers, and not interrupt them for their children. Scott was of the view that the state recognises the father’s responsibilities and allows paternity leave when a baby is born, for both parents to be granted time off by employers to look after sick children. She also asserts that a more flexible career structure that would enable people take several years off work without risking permanent loss of a similar job and damaging the possibility of future promotion should be encouraged. In a study conducted by Greenstreet (1971) on employment of women in Ghana, she pointed out that both private and public day nurseries exist to cater for the children of working mothers and other women. Working mothers should make good use of the facilities so that they could work effectively to reduce stress.

The delegation of work, a process of dividing up the total work and giving part to subordinates, is a way of managing work-home conflict. Musaazi (1982) explains that unless the headmaster or principal undertakes this deliberate and planned distribution of authority to his deputy, heads of departments, teachers and housemasters, he discovers soon that his own tasks are becoming unmanageable and that he is losing effectiveness. The most important benefit of delegation is that workload is reduced and tasks are performed quickly and efficiently. The most important benefit of delegation is that workload is reduced and tasks are performed quickly and efficiently.
Summary

The percentage of women, including mothers in the labour force has been increasing. Women’s level of education also has increased and more and more women are entering professions than in the past.

Women have become pragmatic about their occupational values, but without a decrease in domestic values or concerns about helping people. Their plans about family and work roles are highly intertwined. Many women work because they need or want the money, but they also benefit psychologically from work and feel competent at their work, whereas full time homemakers often feel incompetent.

Performing dual roles create problems for the working woman. This brings about inefficiency because it is difficult to handle two jobs successfully. To manage the effect of work-home conflict women with children should look for child care facilities like nurseries, nannies or relatives to take care of their children. Members of family should share work with women working to help them compete with their male counterpart in the world of work.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research procedures used in conducting the investigation. It is made up of the research design, the population, sample, sampling technique and research instrument used to collect data, and how the pre-test was conducted. The different statistical tools employed to analyze the data are also described.

Research Design

The study was conducted as a survey to elicit information from female administrators concerning the problems they face as they play dual roles. According to Kerlinger (1973) survey is best adopted for obtaining personal and social facts, beliefs and attitudes. The descriptive sample survey was used because according to Gay (1987) the descriptive sample survey involves the collection of data in order to test hypotheses or to answer questions concerning the present status of the subject. It is also directed towards determining the nature of a situation, as it exists at the time of the study. The descriptive survey is versatile and practical. It identifies present conditions and points out to recent needs. It provides information on which to base sound decisions. The descriptive survey design was considered the most appropriate for unearthing the role conflict that female administrators face as they perform dual roles.
Population

The Accra Metropolis is made up of eight educational sub metros. The population from which the sample was taken was made up of all female Headteachers of both public and private schools, in the Accra Metropolis.

According to the statistics obtained from the Metro Education Directorate due to the number of schools, each sub metro has been divided into circuits. Public basic schools have 45 circuits while private schools have 44 circuits. This is because there are no private schools in 5 Garrison sub metro. The population was made up of 400 female Head teachers.

Sample

A sample size of 125 out of 400 respondents from schools headed by females were used for the study.

Table 1: Sample Size of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Metro</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ablekuma North</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablekuma South</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashiedu Keteke</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayawaso</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Garrison</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kpeshie</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okaikoi</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osu Klottey</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>125</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Sampling Technique**

The sample random sampling technique was used to select schools headed by females. The simple random sample is a sample technique in which each and every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. Names of schools headed by females in the 8 sub metros were written on pieces of papers. The pieces of papers were folded and put in a container. They were thoroughly shaken and drawn one at a time without looking into the container. When a paper was selected and the name of it recorded, it was thrown back into the container and shaken before the next one was picked. This ensured the equal probability of selecting each name. In the event that the same name was drawn twice, the second drawing did not count. It was ignored and the paper returned to the container. The pieces of paper were shaken again and another draw was made. Drawing and shaking of pieces of paper continued until the needed 125 were selected.

**Table 2: Breakdown of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub Metro</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ablekuma North</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
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<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okaikoi</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Instrument

The instrument that was used for gathering data was a questionnaire. The reason for using the questionnaire was that it gives a quick way of collecting data. It is known to be valid and reliable if well constructed. I developed the questionnaire items herself but their development followed the guidelines suggested by Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990), Best and Kahn (1996), Babbie (1990) among others. This helped to avoid any triviality of the subject, vague wording and poor organisation.

Questionnaire was used to gather information from respondents. The respondents chose from answers provided which were applicable to them. Respondents were asked to express themselves in some cases. A questionnaire was used because it could be given to large number of people at the same time. One set of questionnaire was designed for the female administrators.

The questionnaire was based on the following areas.

1. Background of the Female Administrators – Personal data.
2. Performance of Administrative roles and problems faced.
4. Traditional roles that conflict with participation in educational administration.

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Table 2 cont’d

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Osu Klottey</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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5. Support from family members.


Section A consisted of nine items and was made up of items dealing with demographic data of the administrators. There were also items on professional qualification, rank in the teaching profession, the number of years of teaching and number of years being in administrative position.

Section B consisted of items on the performance of administrative roles and problems faced. This section requested respondents to indicate how administrative work affect their performance and problems they face. This section consisted of nine items.

Section C consisted of 10 items and dealt with the nature of conflict at home and at the work place. Respondents were requested to state what make them leave work for home and to state whether they experience difficulty when they combine administrative work with home and family responsibility.

Section D consisted of 2 items and requested respondents to indicate how their traditional roles as women conflict with their administrative work.

Section E consisted of ten items on support they get from family members.

Section F consisted of three items and requested respondents to indicate other roles they perform in their communities and how they manage work-home conflict.

The questionnaire was mainly made up of close-ended items. These type of questions also provided uniformity of responses and made data processing
easy. However, there were a few open-ended questions which demanded reasons and suggestions.

**Pilot Testing**

I used two circuits in the Ayawaso sub metro for the pilot testing. Twenty respondents from both public and private schools were used to test the validity of the instrument which had been designed.

The pre-testing revealed a few inherent weaknesses in some of the questions which might have distorted the meaning and therefore would not bring out the exact information needed. The responses of the subjects led to the restructuring of a few of the items on the schedules and thus, arrived at the final instrument for use.

**Procedure for Data Collection**

The distribution and collection of the questionnaire was done personally. The Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) issued the researcher with an introductory letter to help establish her identity and seek cooperation of all respondents.

The questionnaires were distributed and collected within three months. Although I had envisaged a shorter period this was not possible for a number of reasons. I had to make several trips, sometimes as many as six to the schools before completed questionnaires were retrieved. Sometimes missing questionnaires had to be replaced. Notwithstanding the problems encountered, the return rate was 96%.
Method of Data Analysis

The data collected were edited and checked for accuracy and authenticity. The completed questionnaires were serially numbered for easy identification and were finally scored and tabulated. Since the study was purely descriptive, descriptive analysis was used. The statistical tools used for analyzing the data were simple percentages, frequency tables and pie charts.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings are presented on the basis of research questions that guided the study. The chapter also discusses the findings in relation to the literature reviewed.

Background of Respondents

Table 3 deals with the age distribution of the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25 – 30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 – 45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 – 55</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 indicates that respondents in the age bracket 35-45 years representing 41.7% were administrators in their reproductive years while only 30 respondents representing 25% were within the 55+ age bracket. This shows that most of the respondents were in their reproductive age and therefore played dual roles. According to Evans (as cited in Ostergaard, 1992) a study conducted on the age profile of female labour force shows that in India, women’s participation in the labour force rises up to the age of 30 and then gradually peak at the age of 45. Women’s greatest involvement in the labour force concides with their years of
child bearing and rearing. This confirms that majority of the women in the age bracket, 35-45 were in administrative position.

Table 4 deals with the marital status of respondents.

**Table 4: Marital Status of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Separated</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that 60 of the respondents representing 50% were married whilst 10 representing 8.3% were widows.

Table 5a deals with respondents having children/dependants.

**Table 5a: Respondents having Children/Dependants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Children/Dependants</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5b indicates the number of children/dependants of respondents
Table 5b: Number of Children/Dependants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Children/Dependants</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 and above</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicates that 120 respondents representing 100% had children or dependants. The majority of respondents (50%) had one to two children while 32 respondents representing 26.7% had between three to four children. Also 23.3% representing 28 respondents had five or more children.

Table 6 indicates types of parents.

Table 6: Type of Parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing Children with Husbands</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that 50% of the respondents managed children with their husbands whilst 60 respondents representing 50% were single.

This finding confirms McLaughlin and Melber (1986) assertion that, parenthood can no longer be viewed as a culturally sanctioned deterrent to working outside the home. They further went on to say that two of every three married women with children between the ages of 6 and 17 and over one-half of
all married women with children under 6 were employed. Unmarried women with children are even more likely to be employed.

Table 7 deals with professional qualification of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post Secondary</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Degree</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 indicates that 50 respondents representing 41.7% had Diploma; 20 respondents had first degree whilst 15 respondent representing 25% had Post Secondary Certificates. This finding supports the assertion by American Association of University Women (2003) which contends that women have achieved parity with men in obtaining degrees and are more likely to work in managerial and professional careers today.

Table 8 indicates respondents rank in the teaching profession.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Supt.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Supt.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Director</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 indicates that most of the administrators were Assistant Directors in the Ghana Education Service. This is represented by 48.3% being 58 respondents. Also, 42 respondents representing 35% were Principal Superintendent. Table 8 clearly indicates that the females qualified to be heads. This is because in the Ghana Education Service teachers on these grades could be administrators.

Table 9 indicates the number years of respondents in teaching.

Table 9: Number of Years in Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 – 25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 35</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36+</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 indicates that 42 respondents representing 35% had been teaching from 26-30 years. It is clearly evident that the respondents were experienced.

Table 10 indicates the number of years of respondents in administrative position.

Table 10: Number of Years in Administrative Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10 cont’d

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 25</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows that women are not new in administration. Respondents representing 35% had been in administrative position between 21-25 years whilst 10% representing 12 respondents had been in administrative position between 1-5 years. This confirms Beck and Steel’s assertion (as cited in Hall, 1996) that women have broken the “glass ceiling” and are therefore taking up leadership position.

Research Question 1

**What problems do female administrators face in the course of performing their duties?**

The purpose of this research question was to find out the problems the female administrators face as they perform their dual roles. Section B of the questionnaire explored the views of respondents on the problems they face as they perform their dual roles. The responses are provided in Table 11.

Table 11 indicates whether respondents work after official hours.
Table 11: Doing Administrative Work after Official Hours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Working after Official Hours</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows that all the respondents answered yes indicating that they all did administrative work after official hours. The following were some of the reasons they gave for working after official hours.

1. Attending to parents
2. Inadequate time given for the submission of reports and other information needed by the District and Regional offices of the Ghana Education Service.
3. Meeting deadlines on information needed by Ghana Education Service.
4. Marking of lesson notes.
5. Preparing returns on capitation grants.
6. Meeting school management committees.

From the above responses it is evident that female administrators used most of their time doing administrative work.

Respondents were asked to state the time they report to work. Table 12 provides the responses.
Table 12: Time Report to Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.30 – 7.00</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.30 – 8.00</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.30 – 9.00</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 shows that majority of the respondents 50% reported to work between 6.30am – 7.00am. Respondents indicated that they got to work early to beat the heavy traffic in the Metropolis.

Respondents were asked to state whether they go on break.

Table 13: Going on Break

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Going on Break</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Often</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table indicates that majority of the respondents 43.3% seldom go on break. Those who run shift found it really difficult to go on break. This is because they are not able to complete their duties for the morning shift and then continues with the afternoon shift.
Respondents were asked to state whether they delegate their duties.

Table 14: Delegation of Duties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delegation of Duties</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 clearly indicates that 90 respondents representing 75% delegated some duties to subordinates. The Table also shows that women administrators cannot perform all administrative duties effectively and efficiently and therefore some aspects of their duties are delegated to subordinates.

**Preparation before going to Work**

The majority of respondents 58.3% (Table 15) of the women said that they were not able to have enough time to prepare adequately before going to work. The respondents contended that they were not able to complete work at home to get enough time to prepare for work outside the home. This confirms Ostergaard (1992) assertion that work load connected with domestic activities which maintain or produce daily life are mainly allocated to women while the more extroverted and distant income-generating activities are allocated to men.

Table 15: Preparation before Going to Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 2

What is the nature of conflict among female administrators?

Research Question 2 sought respondent’s views on the nature of conflict they faced. Items of the questionnaire were used to find the nature of conflict that respondents faced as they performed their dual roles. The responses are presented in Tables 16, 17, 18 and Figure 1.

Respondents were asked to state whether they leave work to take care of family problems.

Table 16 shows that 52 respondents representing 43.3% left work very often to take care of family problems while 10% seldomly did that. It is evident from the table that female administrators in one way or the other left their work to take care of family problems. This confirms a study conducted by Evans and cited in Ostergaard (1992) that female absenteeism was usually related to family responsibilities.

Table 16: Leaving Work to take Care of Family Problems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leaving work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Often</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 indicates responses given on abandon work at home for administrative work.
Table 17: Abandon work at home for Administrative Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abandon work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Often</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 indicates that 52 respondents representing 43.3% abandoned work at home for administrative work, 30% representing 36 respondents and 20 respondents representing 16.7% shared similar sentiments whilst 10% seldomly abandoned work at home. From Table 17, it is evident that although work at home is the primary role of the women, working outside the home cannot be abandoned totally therefore there is a conflict. This confirms Donelson’s (1999) assertion that although multiple roles are advantageous, the demand of work and home life do pose role conflict. She contends that although employed life and home life can conflict, often, positive as well as negative effects of paid work spill over to life apart from work, and vice versa.

Respondents were asked to state the difficulty in combining administrative work with home and family responsibilities.
Figure 1. Difficulty in combining administrative work with home and family responsibilities

Figure 1 indicates that 43.3% of the respondents were of the view that they experienced difficulty in combining their administrative work and work at home. Forty percent also shared the same view while 16.7% said they did not experience any difficulty in combining their work. From the above figure it is evident that combining administrative work and work at home is difficult. And to perform effectively one has to leave one in other to perform the other efficiently. This becomes a problem and therefore role conflict arises.

This finding confirms a study conducted by Killien and Brown (as cited in Swanson-Kauffman, 1987), which revealed that women’s lives are affected by the roles they assume as well as when and in what sequence and combination they assume these roles. They are of the view that while past generation of women organised their lives primary to meet family related objectives many women today are interested in meeting both personal and career objectives. A study conducted by Ayeh (1981) concluded that the combination of two roles has series
of repercussions on women’s health, efficiency, productivity and upbringing of a child.

Table 18 gives the responses on work stress experienced by respondents.

Table 18: Work Stress Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Stress</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 shows that 80 respondents representing 66.7% were of the view that they experienced stress in the performance of their work, while 20 respondents representing 33.3% did not experience stress. The higher percentage of respondents experiencing stress confirms a study conducted by Lai-Tsuei (2000) that work family conflict negatively influences the individual’s physical and psychological aspect. She concluded that work-family conflict and work stress are increasing among female professionals and that if they are always in the condition of stress and there is no proper way to diminish it, then they will burn out and withdraw from the job. Staats and Staats (1983) comparing female and male managers and professionals in a study found that women reported higher levels of stress and stressors but they were family not job related. They concluded that even as they assume more job related responsibility, family and household demands continue for women.
Research Question 3

How do traditional gender roles of women conflict with their participation in educational administration?

This question was to find out whether there were any traditional or gender roles that conflict with women’s participation in educational administration. Respondents were expected to state whether such conflict exist as they participate in educational administration. Responses are given in Table 19.

Table 19 deals with excessive time demands from family members or home duties and conflict of traditional roles and administrative work.

**Table 19: Excessive Time Demands and Conflicts of Roles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excessive time demands</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict of roles</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 shows that there is excessive time demand from family members or home duties. The table clearly indicates that 90 respondents representing 75% experienced excessive time demands from family members or home duties. According to Evans (as cited in Ostergaard, 1992) women workers take more time off for domestic duties and leave the labour force at particular point in time such as at marriage or child birth.
The Table also indicates that all the 120 respondents representing 100% were of the view that their traditional roles conflicted with their administrative work. Safilios-Rothschild (1974) contends that past experiences in almost all cultures show that women’s biological and social roles confined them to the home and women everywhere were seen as home makers. He asserts that despite the growing awareness among women of their rights they are still held back by social, economic and cultural constraints and concludes that women continue to bear the double burden of family responsibilities and work in addition to the difficulties of daily life which many face. This places them in a position of inferiority and marginalization in their occupational life and in a continuous state of over work. Brew and Ekuban (1991) are of the view that long periods spent on household chores may make women tired and reduce the time available for other activities. They contend that a mother might have to reduce the amount of time she spends on her household duties because of her outside employment. Donelson (1999) is of the view that while multiple roles generally are advantageous, the demands of work and home life do pose role conflict.

Research Question 4

What support do women administrators get as they perform their dual roles?

This question was to find out whether the women got any support from family members as they performed their dual role.

Respondents were asked to indicate the support they got and how that helped them in performing their dual roles. The responses are provided in Tables 20 and 21 as well as in Figure 2.
Table 20 states the responses given by respondents.

### Table 20: Support from Husbands Children and House Helps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Husbands</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House helps</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 shows that respondents got some support from their husbands, children and house helps. Seventy respondents representing 58.3% said that they got support from house helps, 25% representing 30 respondents also said that their husbands supported them while 20 respondents representing 16.7% also said that their children supported them. Respondents say their husbands, children and house helps help them with washing of clothes, cleaning the house, marketing and running of errands by children.

Respondents were asked to indicate those who take care of their children while at work.

### Table 21: Taking Care of Children while at Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Siblings</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Mothers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House helps</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care Givers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 21 shows that 30% of the respondents left their children with house helps, 20% with siblings and 25% each left their children with grand mothers and care givers.

Respondents were asked to indicate how sick children are taken to the hospital.

![Figure 2: Taking sick children to the hospital](image)

**Key**
- Husbands
- Self

Figure 2 clearly shows that 96 respondents representing 80% took their children to hospital when sick while 24 respondents representing 20% say that their husbands performed that duty. It is evident from the above figure that female administrators abandon their work to care for their children when they are sick. This finding supports Dahlstrom and Liljestrom finding (as cited by Dzinyela and Agezo, 2000) that women’s most important role is considered to be that of caring for the home and children and that work outside the home is secondary.
Research Question 5

How do female administrators manage work-home conflict?

This question was to find out how respondents manage work-home conflict. The question also demanded that respondents stated the strategies that they had found useful for handling tensions and pressures as they combined their roles. Respondents were also asked to make recommendation for improving working conditions that will maximize their efficiency.

Management of Work-Home Conflict

Respondents gave the following responses on how they manage work-home conflict.

1. Performance of other duties or roles in the community.

![Figure 3. Performance of other duties or roles in the community](image)

**Key**
- Do not perform any duties
- Performance of other duties

83.3%
Figure 3 shows that 83.3% were of the view that they performed other duties in their community or society, whilst 16.7% did not perform any role in their community or society. This supports Baruch and Barnet (1987) assertion that multiple roles may be life enhancing in that they provide additional sources of second support, increased slants and heightened self esteem and well being. They found out that women who had multiple life roles, for example, mother, wife, and employee were less depressed and had higher self-esteem than women and men who had fewer life roles. They concluded that the greater the quality of a person’s multiple roles, for example, having an interesting challenging job and a happy home life, the greater their self esteem.

2. Delegate duties to subordinates at work.

3. Delegate work among spouse, house help and older children.


5. Using time plan.

6. Cooking in bulk.

Respondents were of the view that delegation of duties at both home and their workplace helped them to give of their best. They asserted that, that improved their efficiency in the performance of their jobs. This they said also helped to reduce stress and put them in a better frame of mind to give of their best in their assigned job as school administrators. They indicated that time plan is a very important tool in achieving goals and a well planned time plan helped them to work effectively thereby achieving their set goals in the performance of their
assign duties. The use of labour-saving devices and cooking in bulk also helped them to manage both work at home and outside the home efficiently.

**Discussion of Research Findings**

In this section the findings are discussed. The discussion covers findings on

1. Problems female administrators face as they perform dual roles.
2. The nature of conflict.
3. Traditional or gender roles of women that conflict with participation in educational administration.
4. Support from family members.
5. Management of work home conflict.

**Problems Female Administrators Face as they Perform Dual Roles**

The first research question sought to find out the problems the female administrators face. It was found out that all the respondents representing 100% work after official hours. The majority of the respondents report to work very early to beat the heavy traffic in the metropolis. Majority of the respondents do not go for break because they are not able to complete their duties because of the shift system. It was also found out that the majority (75%) of the respondents delegate some of their duties. On the question of preparation before going to work majority (58.3%) of the respondents confirm that they are not able to prepare adequately before going to work. Respondents indicated that they are not able to complete work at home to get enough time to prepare for work outside. This supports Ostergaard (1992) assertion that work load connected with domestic
activities which maintain or produce daily life are mainly allocated to women while the more extroverted and distant income-generating activities are allocated to men.

**The Nature of Conflict**

The second research question sought to find out the nature of conflict among female administrators. The study revealed that the majority (43.3%) of the respondents leave work to take care of family problems. This finding confirms a study conducted by Evans and cited in Ostergaard (1992) which concluded that female absenteeism was usually related to family responsibilities.

On the issue of abandoning work at home for administrative work, the majority 43.3% of the respondents concluded that although work at home is the primary role of women, working outside the home cannot be abandoned. This finding supports Donelson (1999) assertion that although multiple roles are advantageous the demands of work and domestic life do pose role conflict.

On the statement that there is difficulty in combining administrative work with home and family responsibilities, the majority of the respondents (43.3%) indicated that to perform effectively one has to leave one work in other to perform the other efficiently and this becomes a problem because it leads to role conflict. This finding confirms a study conducted by Killeen and Brown (as cited in Swanson-Kauffman (1987) that women’s lives are affected by the roles they assume as well as when and in what sequence and combination they assume these roles.
A study conducted by Ayeh (1981) concluded that the combination of two roles has series of repercussions on women’s health, efficiency, productivity and up bringing of a child. On the issue of whether respondents experience work stress, the majority of the respondents 66.7% concluded that their work put a stress on them. This confirms a study conducted by Lai-Tsuei (2000) that work family conflict negatively influences the individual’s physical and psychological aspect. She is of the view that work family conflict and work stress are increasing among female professionals and that if they are always in the condition of stress and there is no proper way to diminish it, they will burn out and withdraw from the job. Comparing female and male managers and professional in a study conducted by Staats and Staats (as cited in Swanson-Kauffman, 1987) it was found out that women reported higher levels of stress and stressors but they were family not job related. They concluded that even as they are burden with more job related responsibility, family and household demands continue to burden women the more.

**Traditional or Gender Roles of Women that Conflict with Participation in Educational Administration**

Research question three explored gender roles of women that conflict with their participation in educational administration. The majority of the respondents 75% indicated that they experience excessive time demands from family members or home duties. This finding confirms Evans assertion (as cited in Ostergaard, 1992) that women workers take more time off for domestic duties and leave the labour force at particular points in time such as at marriage or child birth. On the question of conflict of traditional roles and administrative work, the
study revealed that all respondents representing 100% were of the view that traditional roles conflict with their administrative work. This finding supports Safilios-Rothschild (1974) views that experiences in almost all cultures show that women’s biological and social roles confined them to the home and despite the growing awareness among women of their rights they are still held back by social, economic and cultural constraints and they continue to bear the double burden of family responsibilities and work in addition to the difficulties of daily life which many face.

Brew and Ekuban (1991) contend that long periods spent on household chores may make women tired and reduce the time available for other activities. They concluded that a mother might have to reduce the amount of time spent on household duties because of her outside employment. This finding is consistent with Donelson’s (1999) view that while multiple roles are generally advantageous, demands of work and home life do pose role conflict.

**Support from Family Members**

Research question four explored the support respondents get from their husbands, children and house helps. The majority of the respondents indicated that they support them by helping with the washing of clothes, cleaning of the house, marketing and running of errands by children. On the issue of taking care of the children while at work, the majority of the respondents representing 30% indicated that they leave their children with house helps while 20% leave children with siblings and 25% each leave them with care givers and grandmothers. On the issue of whether women in managerial positions take their sick children to the
hospital, 80% of the respondents answered in the affirmative while only 20% leave that duty for their husbands to perform. This finding supports Dahlstrom and Liljestrom finding (as cited by Dzinyela and Agezo, 2000) that women’s most important role is considered to be that of caring for the home and children and that work outside the home is secondary.

**Management of Work Home Conflict**

Research question five sought to find out how female administrators manage work-home conflict, strategies for handling tensions and pressures and their recommendations for improving working conditions that will maximize their efficiency. On the issue of performance of other duties or roles in the community or society, the study revealed that 83.3% of the respondents perform other duties in their community or society. This finding is consistent with Baruch and Barnet (1987) assertion that multiple roles may be life enhancing in that they provide additional sources of second support, increased slants and heightened self-esteem and well being. Majority of the respondents gave responses on how they manage work home conflict and these were performance of other duties in the community, delegating duties, using labour saving devices and cooking in bulk. Respondents contended that delegation of duties both at home and work help them to give off their best. They are of the view that this also reduces stress and put them in a better frame of mind to give off their best in their assigned job as school administrators.

On the question of strategies for handling tensions, pressures and recommendation for improving working conditions that will maximize efficiency,
the majority of the respondents indicated that the use of time plan helps them to work effectively thereby achieving their set goals. They also asserted that the use of labour saving devices and cooking in bulk help them to manage both work at home and outside the home efficiently.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter chiefly summarizes the findings of this research. Conclusions are drawn from the results of the study and recommendations made to help female administrators to manage role conflict efficiently and effectively to improve and enhance their performance of work at both the work place and their homes.

Summary

The study was to find out dual roles performed by female administrators, problems associated with the roles and how to manage the conflicting demands.

The following research questions were used for the study:

1. What problems do female administrators face in the course of performing their duties?
2. What is the nature of the conflict among female administrators?
3. How do traditional or gender roles of women that conflict with their participation in educational administration?
4. What do they support do the administrators get from family members as they perform their dual responsibilities?
5. How do female administrators manage work-home conflict?

The population for the study was made up of 120 female heads of basic schools in the Accra Metropolis. The instrument used for gathering data was a questionnaire. The data collected was analysed through the employment of
frequency tables, percentages and pie charts. The study revealed that women in administrative positions possess the qualification and experience that make them suitable for the position they hold.

**Key Findings**

1. The study revealed that although the women administrators report to work early some hardly go on break and even stay on to work after official hours to get work done.

2. The women administrators confirmed that delegation of some aspect of their jobs to subordinates helps to promote efficiency in the performance of their duties.

3. The study also revealed that women sometimes leave their official work to attend to family problems whilst they also sometimes abandon work at home to do official work.

4. It also came out that women get some support from their spouse, children and house help in the performance of their duties in the home, as wives and mothers to help run the home efficiently.

5. It was also found out that some women administrators are able to manage work-home conflict by delegating duties, using labour-saving devices, using time plan and cooking in bulk.

**Conclusion**

From the findings it could be concluded that women administrators find it difficult to manage work-home conflict effectively, although some employ tools such as delegation of duties, time plan and others. They are of the view that the
effective use of some of the tools help them to perform their roles as administrators and home makers efficiently to achieve their desired goals.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings from the study the following recommendations are made to help women in administrative positions to manage their dual roles efficiently and effectively and also encourage other qualified women to take up administrative jobs to promote the image of women in the world of work.

1. Women in administrative positions should be trained on how to manage role conflict.
2. House helps should also be given training in home management to help them take care of homes of career women.
3. Child development centres should be encouraged to extend their closing time to help women administrators who work for long hours to use their facilities.
4. The effective use of time plan must be recommended for administrators to help reduce stress.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

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Cape Coast
Ghana
July 31, 2007

Our Ref. EP/1448/245

The Director
Accra Metro Office
Ghana Education Service
Accra

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, Latitia Bray is a graduate student of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the University of Cape Coast. She requires some information from your outfit for the purpose of writing a Dissertation as a requirement of M.Ed degree programme.

I should be grateful if you would kindly allow her to collect the information from your outfit. Kindly give the necessary assistance that she requires to collect the information.

While anticipating your cooperation, I thank you for any help that you may be able to give.

Yours sincerely,

Mr. V. M. Akilam
Asst. Registrar
for Director
APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for Female Administrators in Basic Schools

This section seeks to find out information on work-home conflict of female administrators.

Please answer the questions objectively and truthfully. Information provided will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and is for academic purpose only.

Please tick (✓) or provide answers as required. Thank you.

SECTION A

Background of Respondents

1. Age range
   25-30
   35-45
   45-55
   55+

2. Marital Status
   Single
   Married
   Divorced or Separated
   Widowed

3. Do you have any children or dependants?
   Yes
   No
4. State the number of children or dependants

- None [ ]
- 1-2 [ ]
- 3-4 [ ]
- 5 and above [ ]

5. What type of parent are you?

- Single parent [ ]
- Managing children with husband [ ]

6. What is your highest professional qualification?

- Post Sec. [ ]
- Diploma [ ]
- First Degree [ ]
- Master’s Degree [ ]

7. What is your rank in the teaching profession?

- Superintendent [ ]
- Senior Superintendent [ ]
- Principal Superintendent [ ]
- Assistant Director [ ]

8. For how long have you been teaching?

Specify number of years ..................................................

9. How long have you been in administrative position?

Please specify .................................................................
SECTION B

Performance of Administrative Roles and Problems Faced

10. Do you do administrative work after official hours?

Yes [ ]

No [ ]

Why? .................................................................

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

11. How many hours do you do in a week?

1-5 hours [ ]

6-10 hours [ ]

11-15 hours [ ]

Above 15 hours [ ]

12. What time do you normally get to work?

Please specify ............................................................

13. Do you get to work on time?

Yes [ ]

No [ ]

If no, why? ............................................................

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

14. What time do you normally leave the work place for home? .................

15. Do you normally go out on break when you are at work?

Very Often [ ]

Often [ ]
16. Does your official duties make you travel out of your work place?

- Very Often [ ]
- Often [ ]
- Sometimes [ ]
- Seldom [ ]

If seldom, why? ………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

17. Do you delegate some of your duties to subordinates?

- Yes [ ]
- No [ ]

If no, why? ………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

18. Do you have sufficient time to prepare adequately before going to work?

- Yes [ ]
- No [ ]

If no, give answers ………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
SECTION C

Nature of Conflict

19. How often do you have to leave and take care of family problems?
   Very often [  ]
   Often [  ]
   Sometimes [  ]
   Seldom [  ]

20. What sort of problems make you have to leave work for home sometimes?
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………

21. How often do you abandon work at home for administrative work?
   Very often [  ]
   Often [  ]
   Sometimes [  ]
   Seldom [  ]

22. Are you able to concentrate on your work when a family member is sick at home?
   Yes [  ]
   No [  ]

23. Do you experience difficulty when you combine your administrative work with home and family responsibility?
   Yes [  ]
   Sometimes [  ]
24. How does this difficulty affect your administrative work?

………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………

25. How does this difficulty affect your family responsibilities?

………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………

26. How often do you experience any of the following whilst at work?

Periods of fatigue (when you cannot get going)

Very often [ ]

Sometimes [ ]

Seldom [ ]

27. Being emotionally exhausted?

Very often [ ]

Sometimes [ ]

Seldom [ ]

28. Do you experience excessive time demands for your administrative work?

Always [ ]

Occasionally [ ]

Rarely [ ]

If rarely, why ………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………
SECTION D
Conflict of Traditional Roles and Administrative Work

29. Do you experience excessive time demands from family members or home duties?
   Always [ ]
   Occasionally [ ]
   Rarely [ ]

30. Does your traditional role as a woman conflict with your administrative work?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]
   If yes how? ...........................................................
   ..............................................................................
   ..............................................................................

SECTION E
Support Form Family Members

31. Which of these house helps do you have?
   House maid [ ]
   House boy [ ]
   Cook [ ]
   Washer man [ ]
   Driver [ ]
32. What duties do your children perform at home (if any)?

- Washing of clothing [ ]
- Cooking [ ]
- Sweeping [ ]
- Weeding [ ]
- Marketing [ ]

Any other (please specify) .................................................................
........................................................................................................

33. Does your spouse, if any help with the home?

- Yes [ ]
- No [ ]

If no, give reason ...........................................................................
........................................................................................................

34. How often do you cook at home?

- Very often [ ]
- Often [ ]
- Sometimes [ ]
- Seldom [ ]

If seldom, why? ...........................................................................
........................................................................................................

35. Do you go out for marketing?

- Yes [ ]
- No [ ]

If no, why .........................................................................................
36. How often do you wash clothing at home?
   Very often [  ]
   Often [  ]
   Sometimes [  ]
   Seldom [  ]
   If seldom, why? .................................................................
   .........................................................................................

37. How often do you do cleaning in your home?
   Very often [  ]
   Often [  ]
   Sometimes [  ]
   Seldom [  ]
   If seldom, why? .................................................................
   .........................................................................................

38. Who takes care of the young children, if any, when you go to work?
   House help [  ]
   Husband [  ]
   Siblings [  ]
   Any other (please specify) ....................................................
   .........................................................................................

39. Who takes time off to send sick children to the hospital?
   Self [  ]
   Husband [  ]
40. Which of the following labour and time saving devices do you use at home?

- Blender [  ]
- Food mixer and processor [  ]
- Washing machine [  ]
- Pressure cooker [  ]
- Any other (please specify) …………………………………………………
  …………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION F

Performance of Other Roles in the Community and Management of Work-Home Conflict

41. Do you perform any other duties or roles in your community or society?

- Yes [  ]
- No [  ]

42. What strategies have you found useful for handling tensions and pressures as you combine your roles?

  …………………………………………………………………………………
  …………………………………………………………………………………

43. What will you recommend for improving working conditions that will maximize the efficiency of family administrators?

  …………………………………………………………………………………
  …………………………………………………………………………………