FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO UNDER REPRESENTATION OF FEMALE TEACHERS IN HEADSHIP POSIITIONS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN KENYA: A SURVEY OF ELDORET MUNICIPALITY

BY

CATHERINE CHELAGAT BARMAO

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIRMENT FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY STUDIES
MOI UNIVERSITY

OCTOBER 2011

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this is my original work and has not been presented for an award. No part of this document may be reproduced without the permission of the author and/or Moi University Dept. Educational Management and Policy Studies.

Declaration by the Student

Catherine Barmao _____ _____

EDU/PGA/26/2008 Signature Date

Declaration by Supervisors

The thesis has been submitted with our approval as Moi University supervisors;

Dr.Jonah Kindiki _____ _____

Head of Department (H.O.D) Signature Date

Senior lecturer

Moi University

Mr. B.W.Kyalo _____ _____

Lecturer Signature Date

Dept of Management & policy studies

Moi University

DEDICATION

This thesis is lovingly dedicated to my children Denis, Felix, Mercy, Allan and especially to my husband Jonah K Tarus. My greatest personal accomplishment has been my family. It has been through their understanding and encouragement that I have been able to succeed in my educational endeavors.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BPFA-Beijing Platform for Action

CEDAW- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

CIDA-Canada International Development Agency

GAR-Gross Admission Rate

GER-Gross Enrolment Rate

GDP-Gross Domestic Product

H I V-Human Immunodeficiency Virus

ILO-International Labour Office

TAC-Teacher Advisory Centre

TSC-Teachers Service Commission

UN-United Nations

UNICEF-United Nation Children's Fund

UNECFA-United Nations Economic Commission for Africa

UNFPA-United Nations Fund for Population Activities

UNHCR-United Nation High Commissioner for refugees

UNDP-United Nations Development Program

UNESCO-United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization

MEO-Municipal Education Office

MDGs - Millennium Development Goals

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The assistance, support, encouragement, trust, and sponsorship of many people have made it possible for me to complete my studies. I appreciate every single person who has offered his or her help on how to go about this study and for going through the thesis tirelessly. Without their help it would have been hard to complete this thesis in its present form. Special thanks also go to my supervisors Dr J.Kindiki and Mr.B.W Wambua for sparing their valuable time to guide and ensure that the thesis was complete. Further my gratitude extends to Mr. Shadrack Saina and all Lecturers of Department of Educational Management and Policy Studies, Moi University.

I appreciate the support, inspiration, spiritual and encouragement from my parents John and Eunice Barmao Chebii, brothers and sisters Everline and Rael Barmao. Their words enabled me to complete this study within stipulated time. I also register my indebtedness to my husband Jonah who sacrificed an enormous amount of his time so that I could pursue my personal dreams. Without his time, dedication, devotion, financial and emotional assistance, this endeavor would not have come to pass. Lastly, to all those individuals though not mentioned here, whose contribution made this study a success.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools and to further establish whether the criteria required in the appointment of teachers in headship positions was met by both male and female teachers. This study was guided by socialization theory to hierarchical gender prescriptions which gave three distinct theoretical traditions that help, understand sex and gender. Descriptive survey was adopted for the study. The study used both quantitative and qualitative technique where quantitative relied on the principle of verifiability while qualitative involved description. The study employed stratified and simple random sampling techniques. A sample of 105 respondents from 10% of the target population was used where 2 were Municipal Education Officials (TAC tutors), 8 head teachers, 80 teachers and 15 committee members were randomly selected in Eldoret Municipality. Data required was collected using questionnaires and interview schedule. The questionnaires were administered to teachers and committee members whereas interview schedule was administered to head teachers and TAC (tutors).Descriptive statistics of means frequencies, percentage was used to analyze data. The findings of this study would help educational institutions in the development of promotion, recruitment and appointment strategies for women aspiring headship positions. It would also assist educational policy makers to better understand some of the gender related factors contributing to under representations in the educational management and find remedies. The study found out that the major cause of under representation of women in headship positions as lack of support from the family level to the national level and that unfair promotion criteria contributed to under representation of female teachers in headship positions further eliminating negative gender stereotype in schools was seen to help change societal perception towards women in headship positions. The study recommended that appointments and recruitment procedures be transparent in order to avoid inconsistencies and blame game and frequent training on leadership skills to be reinforced by the Ministry of Education.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction to the Study

This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions and assumption of the study significance of the study, scope of the study, limitation, theoretical framework and operational definition of key terms.

1.1 Background to the problem

The target of Millennium Development Goals(MDGs) was to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and at all levels not later than 2015.Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW),Article 2(a) called on the governments to embody the principal of equality of men and women in national constitution. Article 2(f) called for the abolition of existing laws, regulation, customs and practices that discriminated against women. Article 3 stated that, parties should take in all fields in particular the political, social, economic and cultural field and all appropriate measures including legislation to ensure full development and advancement of women for the purpose of guaranteeing them to exercise the enjoyment of human rights and freedom on the basis of equality with men. In almost all areas the threshold one third representations of women had yet to be realized (Association of media in Kenya, 2005).

Merger (1999) argued that, globally women had entered the workforce in unprecedented numbers in the past decades but they remain heavily concentrated in certain occupation,

did not occupy position of authority and traditional impediment to occupational mobility had been reduced enormously in the past several decades and significantly changes continued to occur in the status of women. Women had on the other hand begun to enter lower and middle level managerial position in greater numbers but it was at the uppermost echelons that societal power remains overwhelmingly male.

According to Koontz and Weihrich (1988), opportunities for women occupying leadership position was increasing but career advancement depended on the functional area, industry or on particular company. Women were likely to be found at upper levels of management in areas such as personnel or public relation with the large number of married women in the workforce, an increasing number of companies had recognized the stressful situation of dual career couples through more flexible policies, career planning, personnel selection, placement and promotion. Cole (2002) further argued that, women were still under-represented in middle and senior management roles and that they faced difficulties in breaking into what is still very much a male preserve that is 'the glass ceiling', an analogy to describe the subtly transparent barrier that prevented women from gaining access to the more senior roles in their organization.

According to Grogan & Brunner (2005), women must be present in leadership positions in education systems worldwide to provide a gendered perspective on educational change and development, and to ensure social justice through gender equity at leadership and decision making levels. It was imperative that women are actively involved in leading

educational change given the vital role that the education system of a country plays in both national development and the development of a gender equal society.

For women to be active participants in the change and development process, they must be present and provided with the necessary skills and understanding needed to participate effectively in educational leadership and policy-making at both school and national levels (Young and McLeod, 2001).In developing countries the presence of women in leadership roles contributed to sensitivity within schools for the well-being of adolescent girls and provided girls beginning to consider career choices with role models of women decision-makers and leaders and to address issues of social justice by providing gender equity between adults within the education profession (Brown and Irby, 2005). In Kenya despite the government stride to elevate women in their position, they are still largely faced with negative stereotype attitude towards their entry into certain profession which had traditionally been held by men (Suda, 1991).

Inadequate representation at leadership level limits the extent to which women are able to make policies and take decisions about female education as head teachers, college principals, vice-chancellor and registrars. Leaders are influenced by the society around them by existing ideologies, customs and practices hence the predominance of male policy makers slowed down the pace of change (Onsongo, 2000).These pre-conceived notions about the sustainability of men and women for particular occupation restricted or excluded most women from entering high stature and more lucrative fields of employment such as senior position (Suda, 1991).According to Report of the proceeding

of third Teacher Education Conference (1994) the broad educational policies on the other hand are based on the philosophy of equal opportunities for all citizens. This was reiterated in the national goals of education which stated that, education was to promote social equality and foster a sense of social responsibility within the educational system, which further provided equal educational opportunities for all (boys and girls, men and women).Goals of education also stated that education was to provide opportunities for the fullest development of individual talents and personality. Teachers Service Commission (TSC, 2005) further believed in the principle and practice of equal employment opportunities. The non-discriminatory policy applied to matters of admission, employment or service in educational programmes or activities it operates. It prohibited discrimination in the selection, compensation, promotion and condition of employment on the basis of sex (http://employee .the Chicago school .edu /resource content 5/0/2/0/9/0/document/hr-policy2008-equal-mployment.pdf).

According to Reform Agenda for Education Sector in Kenya(1999)the national policy on appointment, deployment and training of head teachers of schools in Kenya of 1999 stated, that the system of promoting teachers to institutional headship had been a matter of debate with the argument that the people appointed to headship were not necessarily the most qualified but those who were known to senior education officers and relatives of politicians and high ranking people in government who could influence such appointments. According to (Wanjoma, 1997) whereas the policy on recruitment, promotions and appointments was very clear there were gaps on equal representation of male and female in leadership positions hence women were the minority group in

situations where decision making was concerned. Dipboye(1978) argued that, in many countries however, concerns about gender disparities in education had focused on student performance, particularly "in terms of under-achievement of girls, differences in access at various levels of schooling, dropout rates in subjects taken and these had evoked a range of explanations and policies around gender gaps in educational outcomes". According to Coleman (1994) the question of gender disparities in the management structure of schools and colleges had received little attention, despite the fact that "there was recognition in education of both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women brought to management". Coleman (1994) further argued that, in the area of educational management, women remained glaringly under-represented in primary school headship positions while (Simiyu,, (1990) and Juma and Ngome, 1999) noted that, there were many factors which contributed to the low representation of women in key positions, not least, patriarchy.

Gentry (1996) assert that, in both developing and developed countries, women continued to be under-represented in decision- making and leadership in several areas. The consequence of this gender gap indicated that women did not participate fully in decisions that shaped their lives, their communities and countries were not capitalizing on the full potential of one half of their societies. However according to Makura (2000) it is a mandatory requirement in Kenya that at least 30 percent of all government employment opportunities be reserved for women and as such the study sought to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship position in primary schools.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In Eldoret Municipality the pattern of representation to headship positions among female teachers revealed under-representation as they accounted for a small percentage of heads of institutions. There are 41 public primary schools in the municipality and the numbers of female head teachers were 10 whereas their male counterparts were 31 (MEO's office). This was a huge disparity of gender and equality despite the fact that female teachers in the municipality were 660 comprising 83% of the entire teaching workforce while the male comprise 17% with their total of 139 (MEO's office). Women in both developing and developed countries have since immemorial been denied promotions to managerial positions which otherwise has been accessible to their male counterparts and this trend of inequality has continued till maturity where we have more men in leadership as compared to women hence there was need to study this problem in order to find out factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in schools and to find out actions needed in order to improve equal participation in leadership positions.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools in Eldoret Municipality.

1.4 Objectives

To find out gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions.

To investigate the effects of social cultural factors on female teacher participation to headship positions.

To determine whether the criteria required in the appointment of teachers into headship positions was practiced in schools.

To establish the stakeholders' perception towards women in headship position.

To establish actions needed in order to improve female teacher participation in headship position.

1.5 Research Questions

What are the gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions?

What are the effects of social cultural factors on female teacher participation in headship positions?

What criteria required in the appointment of teachers into headship position was practiced in schools?

What was the stakeholders' perception of women in leadership position?

What actions were needed in order to improve female teacher participation in headship positions?

1.5 Assumptions of the study

That equality in participation into headship position among teachers would be practiced in the municipality. That the respondent would be genuine in giving the required information. That information found would be utilized by female teachers and other educational institutions.

1.6 Significance of the study

The findings of the present study gave the following rationale, based on the fact that the study was designed to enhance the understanding of the factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools, the findings would help educational institutions in the development of promotion, recruitment and appointment strategies for women aspiring headship positions. The findings would also assist educational policy makers to better understand some of the gender related factors contributing to under representations in educational management and find remedies. The findings would be useful to female teachers in headship positions to improve on their roles as mentors to other young female teachers in the profession. The findings would also have policy implication for various institutions in the government on the need to create gender awareness and promote equality in leadership positions.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The present study sought to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools and it was carried out in Eldoret Municipality where there were forty one public primary schools with a total of seven hundred and ninety nine teachers. The unit of analysis for this study was the MEO's officials (TAC tutors), committee members, head teachers and teachers in the municipality who were believed to have adequate information on factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in schools.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Challenges are inevitable in life and the process of carrying out this study was not complete without them. The members of the teaching fraternity that were chosen to respond to questionnaires were suspicious of why they were being chosen while other members were being left out. To counter this, the researcher assured the respondents of confidentiality as the study findings would be used for academic purpose and to improve on gender equality in headship positions. Further the researcher administered interview schedules to head teachers, and some were uneasy while responding to face to face interview on facts about how they were promoted to headship and how they head schools for fear of releasing their secrets and weakness. To counter this, the researcher assured them of confidentiality and anonymity. Due to financial and time constraints the study did not include all the teachers in the municipality.

1.9 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by socialization theory to hierarchical gender prescriptions by Risman (1998).According to his perspective; he identified three distinct theoretical traditions that helped understand sex and gender. The first difference focused on gendered-selves, whether sex differences was due to biology or socialization. This focus was on the individual level of analysis encompassing social identities in which men mature to be competitive and work oriented while women mature to become nurturing, person oriented and child centered. In terms of gender, the socialization theory suggested that children were taught to behave a certain way according to their sex. Boys were taught to be masculine and girls to be feminine

According to Risman (1998), the second tradition focused on how social structure created gendered behaviour. This approach argued that men and women behaved differently because they filled different positions in institutional settings, work organizations and families hence they took on different gendered roles.

A third theoretical underpinning was the interaction perspective, which emphasized contextual issues such as cultural expectations and taken-for-granted situational meanings. According to Risman (1998), this concept implied that individuals were expected to create differences that were neither inevitable nor essential. This gender differences could therefore be interpreted to mean legitimatization of inequality, as what was female in a patriarchal system was devalued. This theory was used in this study as a guide to explain and understand why male dominate leadership positions despite the fact women may be the majority in most organization but still were underrepresented in leadership positions.

1.10 Operational Definition of key Terms

Career Development: An individual perceived sequence or work-related experience

Documented criteria: Referred to supportive evidence on the standards that were used for judging something. In this study, it referred to supportive evidence for appointment and promotion of teachers.

Equality: State of men and women being equal in terms of holding headship positions.

Equal Opportunities: The right of all persons to participate in and benefits from programs and activities.

Gender: Referred to the socially constructed roles ascribed to women and men, as opposed to biological and physical characteristics.

Gender Equality: Referred to norms, values, attitudes and perceptions required to attain equal status between women and men without neutralizing the biological differences.

Gender Equity: This was fairness in which women and men participated as equals and have equal access to socio-economic resources

Gender roles: These were rights, responsibilities, expectations and relationship of men and women.

Gender imbalance: Lack of fairness towards one gender.

Glass ceiling: It referred to invisible barrier that limited women's mobility.

Global: Something that affected the whole world.

Headship: The position of being in charge of a school by male and female teachers.

Low participation: Female teachers taking part in leadership below what was normal as compared to men.

Mentor: person who gives advice/guidance to another over a period of time to help them in their working life.

School head: A person who was appointed by the legitimate authority to manage a school. It also meant a head teacher of an institution being a male or a female.

Under-represented: This referred to a situation where groups do not have enough people with power to speak for them or help them. In this study, it was used to denote few female teachers in headship positions who had power to speak for others.

Perception: The way somebody sees or understands something or somebody. In this study, it was used to denote the way people see or understand women.

Stakeholders: a person who had an interest in the success of a school. In this study the term referred to parent class representative namely committee members.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presented pertinent literature related to the study. The literature was organized into the following subheadings; Introduction, Women, work and family, the representation of women, criteria required for teachers' to be in the administrative positions, women education and training, women's participation in higher education, women and economic development, Women and political participation, Gender Inequalities in Education, Workplace inequality and Summary of the literature review.

2.1 Women, Work and Family

Women account for at least 45 percent of the total workforce and their participation in the employment world was met with divergent reactions. Whatever the basis of gender roles, it was quite evident that they were not evaluated or rewarded equally in virtually all societies women were subordinates to men (Chefetz and Friedl, 1978). Although in the United States and other modern society's men and women remain concentrated in particular occupational roles, the sexual division of Labour was not rigidly enforced as in the past, and in some cases dramatic change had occurred in recent decades. Certain field remains overwhelmingly female but occupational sex segregation had steadily declined. Gender inequality in education and training, the sex stereotyping of occupations and the undervaluing of women's work were among the obstacles women faced (Reskin and Padavic, 1994; Wootton, 1997).

Tamale (2000) argued that, domesticity ideology was historically and culturally constructed and closely linked to patriarchy that was gender/power relation and the public private divide. This same ideology of patriarchy had drawn an artificial wall to separate domestic private issues from public spheres with latter representing masculinity locus of valued activities, politics and economy whereas the private represented feminity, society and culture where women were trapped ,ruled over by men. The scenario largely explained resource less status, lack of access and control over resources by African as the single most cause of gender inequality. According Tamale (2000) to eliminate gender disparity in education requires that key target to be selected in order to demonstrate progress towards gender inequality and lack of it robbed an individual of a full life and the society of a foundation for sustainable development because education was critical to improving health, nutrition and productivity, thus education is central in meeting the other Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Education affected all types of human's development outcome because besides being a source of knowledge, skills and positive attitude. It promoted better hygiene and increased the use of health service, water and sanitation services (Santosh, 2003).Gender was an organizing principle of social life that affected different level of social reality, not only individual people. Gender roles are learned, negotiated or contested and may vary according to socioeconomic, political and cultural contexts and were affected by other factors (Buchmann, 2000).Over the past few decades many countries have made progress in gender equality in senior management positions, but globally gains in gender equality in decision-making positions outside the political arena had been slow and uneven.

To date, the most powerful and best-paid managerial positions were still out of reach for most women (United Nations High Commission for Refugees UNHCR, 2007). Mukaranga and Kodgi (1997) argued that, gender hierarchy showed in family inheritance laws and customs, valuations of women's work as opposed to men's work and the power to make decisions in society, family, church and social networks. It showed in the opportunities available for development, education, health, nutrition and in general invisibility of the women's work. The hierarchy was generally acceptable by both genders and was not normally questioned. It is general enough to apply across nations, cultures and time periods with the underlying presumption that changes in the status of women would become apparent in development only over a longer time period.

Obura (1992) observed that, despite a theoretical commitment to egalitarian principles by most contemporary governments, women and girls in particular continued to suffer subordinates status vis-à-vis men and boys in all societies. Gender inequality manifesting itself in institutionalized prejudice, stereotyping, discriminatory practices and violence was justified in referring to religious, biological psychological, cultural and economic explanation.

2.2 The Representation of women

Globally women access to top leadership position is still severely restricted though they frequently matched or exceeding their male counterpart in terms of formal qualification and technical know-how. Indeed it is in the world of corporate business that the glass

ceiling had proved most impenetrate with a mere 2-3 percent of top jobs in large corporation held by women (International Labour Office Geneva. ILO, 1998).

According to Merger (1999) traditionally women have been expected to perform household duties centering on child rearing and domestic functions. Men on the other hand have been expected to leave the home to work with the primary responsibility of supporting the family economically and protecting its members. This traditional arrangement has been brought into question by the entrance of women often as primary breadwinners in significant numbers into mainstream in recent decades. Despite the changed work role of women the gender breakdown of traditional roles had changed radically. Although majority of adult women are in the Labour force, they continued to do the bulk of child care and household task (Wright and Branding, 1992).

Bianchi and Spain (1996) noted that, majority of Americans believed that women today were to work even if they were raising families in order increase the mainstream labour force as full or part time workers, unlike in the past generation. The expectation of most women is no longer that they stay at home attending to domestic chores. The rate of Labour force participation is not the same in all societies of modern world. In less developed societies where religion dictates most societal norms (particularly Muslim countries) there were less female participation than in the western industrialized countries. However in recent decades, economic globalization had drawn many women in the underdeveloped world into the unskilled labour force (Peter and Runyan, 1993; Fuentes and Ehrenreich, 1983).

According to Wanjoma (1997) when considering participation of women in the work force they have traditionally been engaged in unpaid or non-market workday like housework, childrearing and their performance is outstanding. A United Nations reported that, worldwide 66 percent of women's work was unpaid as compared to 34 percent of men's work (United Nations, 1996). Another consistent occupational pattern among societies is that of traditional female roles which are accorded less prestige than those of men. However the kind of work done by women is considered less valuable which should have been rewarded accordingly. It is generally the case that the more women in an occupation the less both female and male workers earn (Reskin and Padavic, 1994).

Employment and national accounts data did not capture non-market activities where women pre dominated and therefore failed to demonstrate the full contribution of women to the household economy and the extent of female work burden. Women in Kenya were "time-poor" because of their dual role in the household economy and the Labour market. On average women work longer hours (12.9 hours) compared with those of men (8.2 hours), yet women earned less because more of these hours were not remunerated (Saito and Spurling, 1994). Women constituted 60.8 percent of unpaid family workers. Some of them who were found in the rural areas of Kenya were burdened with household tasks such as collecting firewood and pounding grains. Only 30 percent of household in Kenya had accessed to piped water supplies and fetching water could account for up to 40 percent of a woman's day, taking from 3 to 5.25 hours (Were and Kiringai,2003).

According to Blackden and Hughes (1993) child care is also an important source of time burden for women in Kenya. Their Labour time and flexibility is therefore constrained than men's hence disproportionate cost borne by women in terms of reproductive work in the household economy, limits the time that they spend on economic activities hence they would have less time to devote to developing their businesses. The 2006 World Bank country's social analysis argued that, women's burden in the economic, domestic and collective spheres has only intensified bringing about a destabilizing effect on household leading to increased tension and violence (World Bank, 2006).

Economic, educational and cultural factors influenced decision-making patterns among the households. The patriarchal system in many African traditions tended to have a profound influence on households' decision-making. The consultations that took place within the household were shrouded by male dominance, which did not provide the female partners with a conducive forum for negotiation. Even in cases where the males had assisted their female counterparts to start a family business, the male spouses were still obliged to meet major capital expenditure for households. The status of the household head also had an influence on decision making (Mwangi, 2002).

2.3 Qualification of Teachers into Administrative Positions

Education played a role in addressing gender disparities through its capability towards enhanced access to education opportunities, and empowerment of women to be able to participate in major economic activities. Parental guidance which is a form of informal

education is also critical especially among communities with retrogressive social and cultural effects (profile of women's socio- economic status in Kenya, 2008).

According to Teachers Service Commission (TSC, 2005), all headship vacancies are advertised and qualified candidates apply for the posts. The TSC agents at the provincial and district levels carry out interviews and qualifying candidates are appointed and promoted to head the schools. Conditions for the appointment include promotion on merit, discipline, must be in Job group "K" and above, must have attended Primary School Management Course (PRISM) and under special circumstances be willing to take up the post (Ministry of Education, 1987). It is also a mandatory requirement in Kenya that at least 30 percent of all government employment opportunities be reserved for women (Makura, 2000).

Appointment of teachers and promotion criteria is guided by the Graduate and the Non-graduate schemes of service where one serves in grades or job groups: ATS III, ATS II, and ATS I 'J', 'K' (Sessional paper 1 2005).Upon promotion to job group K, teachers may be deployed into professional or administrative positions as appropriate. Deployment means placement into a functional position on a horizontal, rather than a vertical scale. Job group 'K', or a graduate according to the TSC regulations, is the minimum deployable grade into headship positions. The regulations are categorical that all administrative posts are deployment positions (Sessional paper 1 of 2005).Conditions for consideration for promotion to professional grades outlined in the TSC Code of Regulations for Teachers (Sessional paper 1of 2005) include:

- Promotion on merit if a teacher has displayed exceptional ability in performance of his/her duties.

- A teacher should have completed not less than three years recognized teaching service within a given grade.

- A teacher who has had a discipline case and is found guilty shall not be considered until he/she has completed two years teaching service after the resumption of duty.

- A teacher who has been re-employed by the commission must complete three years.

- Except under special circumstances determined by the commission, consideration for promotion shall be the teacher's willingness to take up the position immediately and where a vacancy exists.

- The offer of promotion will lapse if not taken within 30 days.

Though the scheme of service and the TSC regulations stipulate the promotion criteria, they are, however, silent on the procedure of selecting teachers on job group 'K' and above for placement into administrative positions. For instance, the documented government policy guidelines on the appointment of head teachers (Republic of Kenya, 2002a) present it as a function of the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). The TSC works in liaison with other stakeholders such as the Municipal Education Office (MEO),

District Education Boards (DEB), and the schools' Boards of Governors (BOG) (Buke, 2007).

The policy guidelines outline the minimum requirements for a teacher seeking to be considered for promotion into administrative positions. The requirements include academic and professional qualifications, special merit on work performance, performance in National examinations and special achievement in co curricular activities and a teacher's professional conduct, moral standing and initiative (Sessional paper 1 of 2005).Promotion of teachers to administrative positions in senior positions is handled at the TSC headquarters. Here the TSC receives identified vacancies from Municipal Education Office (MEO).Having verified established positions within the approved establishment, the TSC then advertises the vacant posts. According to the documented policy, it is observed that the Provincial Education office, District Education Office and Municipal Education Office (MEO) do not seem to have a direct role in the process of recruiting and selecting teachers for deployment into headship positions (Sessional paper 1 of 2002). The TSC has a full mandate to employ and manage the entire teaching fraternity in Kenyan public primary schools, including promoting them to professional and administrative positions. The concern of this study was on the link between the policy as documented and policy as practiced in the school setting. (Sessional paper 1 of 2005).

2.4 Women and Education

According to ILO (1998) women in Kenya have enjoyed access to higher level of education but few of them reached upper management levels. This could be explained by

traditional views on women's role as primary care givers to their children. Women have increased presence in the professional and managerial sector notably in the judiciary, banking and civil service areas as well as the private sector. Increased literacy and higher levels of educational attainment had contributed to advancement. Nevertheless women still were underrepresented.

According to Abagi (1993; 1994); Hughes & Mwiria (1989); Obura (1992) Kenya has faced the challenges of equalizing educational opportunities among boys and girls. Development of a framework to address this pertinent issue had been frustrated however by such constraints as lack of national policy on gender responsive education and social-cultural pressure on the role of girls' vis-à-vis boys in society. Despite heavy investment in education and progress achieved in Kenya's education in general, many children in particularly girls had limited or no access to schooling or fail to complete basic education programmes. A study has shown that girls are under-represented and under achieve particularly in science and technology oriented subject at all levels of education.

The Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) identified education as a human right and essential tool for achieving the goals of equality development and peace. It notes that equality of access to and attainment of educational qualification is necessary if more women were to become agents of change and that investment in formal, non-formal education and training for women and girls as one of the means for achieving sustainable development and economic growth(United Nations Economic Commission for Africa UNECFA,2005).International concerns about the situation of the world's women had

enhanced campaigns for more equitable distribution of the world's resources between men and women. It has been noted, all over the world, that women are underrepresented and generally faced discrimination and marginalization on the basis of their gender (Karim, 1995).

According to the World Education Report (1995), research had shown a long-standing imbalance in participation in formal education by women. One consequence was that the literacy rate of the world's women (71.2 per cent) was significantly lower than that of men (83.6 per cent). Nearly two thirds of the world's illiterate adults were women (565 million), most of who live in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. It was against this background that international campaigns to widen women's access to education had been mounted. Various international conventions had been passed concerning women's access to education. They included the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1962), and the1981 UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).

However, these conventions had seldom been implemented at national levels. Moreover, in spite of laws banning discrimination, it has often been difficult to distinguish discrimination on the grounds of sex from discrimination on other grounds, such as social class, regional difference, race, language or disability. These forms of discrimination exacerbated gender discrimination and cannot be ignored (Onsongo, 2000). The theory on gender inequality on education and its impact on growth had been developed based on

the selection-distortion factor in which according to this theory expounded by Eitzen and Bacanzinn (2003), if one believed that boys and girls had similar distribution of innate abilities, gender inequality in education must mean that less able boys than girls get the chance to be educated and that the average innate ability of those who got educated was lower than it would be the case if boys and girls received equal education.

According to UNHCR (2007) Women still constitute the large majority of the world's illiterate population. In several developing countries, gender gaps in education and literacy persisted. Without equitable access to quality education, women did not have the means to build their knowledge, capacity and skills to access well-paid, formal sector jobs and attain positions of leadership. Unless gender gaps in literacy and education were addressed, the next generation of girls would be similarly marginalized from leadership roles. Other issues in relation to women's access to education were rural- urban disparities in levels and quality of education. Gender role stereotyping was also raised as a concern to be addressed, as it was often reinforced by school curricula that hindered women from taking on leadership roles (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees UNHCR, 2007).

Most organization involved in supporting education and training for girls and women reported that they sought to address all six of platforms strategic objectives which included, intervention range from increasing women participation in mathematics, science and technology at the university level to promoting the retention and participation of women and girls in primary, secondary and university institution,

increasing access to vocational training and reducing illiteracy (Beijing 10th Synthesis Report,2005).Education is viewed as the prime mover of development process in a nation. The link between education, health and fertility provided a way of measuring non –market effects of education. It is a widely accepted major instrument for promoting socioeconomic development as it has been perceived to benefit the society (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1985).

A difficulty in access to education has been considered as the main obstacle for women's progress. Education is the determining factor for women's socio-economic advancement (Mukaranga and Kodgi 1997).According to Beijing 10th Synthesis Report (2005) as women secure more education their political and economical status change in that they are able to participate in both public and private spheres of life. Providing the means through which women could gain access to learning opportunities was a major task for national planners' intent upon improving the lot of women. There are still numerous social, economic and cultural barriers in the way of female advancement. Kwesiga (2002 noted that, education of women is a societal responsibility and all available resources should be harnessed to meet this challenge.

According to Beijing 10th Synthesis Report (2005) educational opportunities had to be accompanied by social and development policies that make it possible for women and girls to take advantage of them. The harsh reality of their lives had been by far the greatest barrier women had confronted in pursuing education and training. A day of exhausting Labour and routine that begins before dawn and ends long after sunset left

precious little time for the pursuit of education. Despite the expansion of education gender disparities in terms of access to education, retention in schools, transition from one level to another, the performance had become pronounced over the years. National Policy on Gender (1999) states that access to education had been affected by a down ward trend in the Gross Admission Rate (GAR) in primary schools and Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in both primary and secondary. At the national level there seemed to be a near parity in education for boys and girls at primary schools.

According to the Policy on Gender and Development (1999) gender gaps is still evident at regional and district level. Although the 8-4-4 curriculum offers same subjects for both sexes, most girls did not perform very well as boys. This trend had denied girls the opportunity to pursue certain course at tertiary level of education (ILO, 1999).It has contributed to low participation of girls and women in science technical profession in the country. Women are inadequately represented in the ministry of education and human resource development's personnel as well as in the teaching force. All these show a considerable gender disparity in the ministry in terms of numbers, position held, benefits and influence.

According to United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, UNECA, Beijing +10 synthesis Report (2005) high level of illiteracy among women is another concern in the country. USA Aid has made African Education initiative a multi-year effort to increase access to quality basic education especially for girls and women. This initiative focused on providing girl's scholarship, improving teachers training and involving communities

in educational Programmes. (JICA) one of the bilateral donors has helped to build and repair elementary schools and also create perspective in the schools which include Programmes that guarantee safe learning environment for girl and develop capacity through training and seminars. UNESCO, UNICEF, and other non-governmental organizations have been conducting research aimed at improving female access to education. Buchmann (2000) reported that the determinant of educational inequality is generally in form by three perspectives which included economic, resource constraints, and cultural perspectives.

According to Lloyd, Mensch, and Clark (2000) each of these perspectives has been used to explain educational decision making in developing countries, and each predicted participation in formal schooling. In the case of Kenya, cultural norms and gender stereotypes did hinder girls' participation in school, where typically mathematics and science was seen as 'boys subjects' while home science was a 'girls' subject'. Buchmann (2000) indicated that although Kenya had high levels of primary school enrollment, data showed that as girls entered secondary school (teenage years) their enrollment began to fall compared to that of boys. Further research indicates that educating women influenced many socio-cultural and socio-economic indicators including health care, infant mortality, and reducing population grown.

Public health studies link maternal education to health indicating that education is pertinent to national development and those inequalities in mortality would be related to the socioeconomic status of the population. In addition, higher levels of education are

inversely related to levels of health and mortality and that the differences in the levels could be partially explained by the social and economic policies (Desai and Alva, 1998; Kunst and Mackenbach, 1994).

2.4.1 Women's participation in higher education

According to profile of women's socio- economic status in Kenya (2008) there are considerable disparities among universities depending on programmes for example the arts-based courses consistently had high female students' representation as compared to male students.

According to UNESCO (1998) enrolment for female students has decreased at the higher levels of education perhaps due to the social and cultural retrogressive factor. Transition to university education is still low hence requires targeted interventions on educational policies on access and retention in order to achieve higher women representation. The effects of low women survival in education system is also evident in the labour market structure where women were underrepresented in most major sectors. The World Conference on Higher Education (1998) recognizes various socio-economic, cultural and political obstacles that continue to impede women's full access to and effective integration in higher education. Article 4 of the World Declaration on Higher Education for the 21st Century is very explicit in its demand for the elimination of all gender stereotyping in higher education and places particular emphasis on the need to eliminate political and social barriers to women's effective participation in policy and decision-making, both in higher education and in society generally (ILO, 1998).

Onsongo (2000) argues that, besides their traditional roles of generating knowledge through research and providing leadership in the development of high level human resources through education and training, universities are expected to assume responsibility for and leadership in the transformation of society with regard to gender roles generally and women's participation in particular. According to Sifuna (2006), a number of issues have been advanced to explain low enrolment in higher education, low secondary school enrolment coupled with high dropout rate of girls greatly reduced the scope for progress in higher education. This rate is estimated to be so high that it resulted in a small number of completers who are eligible for entry into higher education.

Other sets of factors that make university education rather unattractive for women are the high failure rate in certain field like medicine and engineering. A high level of sexual harassment of women students has also been cited by some studies (Subharao, 1994).

Kanake (1998) noted that, social cultural factors from some communities confined women to lower levels of education system. This perception coupled with economic factors led some families to terminate girls' education at the lower levels. Recent studies also revealed that many men tend to shun highly educated females especially where candidacy for marriage was concerned as they are viewed as rude, un co-operative and unable to manage housework. This perception discourages some female graduate from continuing with postgraduate studies at masters and PhD levels. Higher education plays a part in national development and this include the advancement of women.

According to Kanake (1998) women in Africa during colonial period were excluded from various universities that dotted the continent because men's education was accorded higher priority than that of women. A variety of factors included, emphasis on domestic chores, influence of patriarchy, inaccessibility to education and task assigned to them by the norms and custom of the society. Staudt (1981) argue that the development of women is intertwined with the inferior political, social and cultural position in which they found themselves. Higher education helped women to become leaders in society and allowed them to become role models for younger girls. Kanake (1998) asserts that the introduction of innovative methods of instruction using global information technologies and by the fact that higher education is international in character and staff tend to be more mobile than in the past.

According to Sifuna (2006) fewer employment opportunities for women has discouraged them from following courses in higher education. Other factors which prevented them from entering universities included early marriage and family responsibilities, lack of career guidance, inability to assume personal and professional responsibilities. At the present time, women remained seriously under-represented at the higher education level and in professional life in general. In contrast, their male counterparts who achieved similar qualifications and experience generally met with greater careers success and participated fully in management processes. As a result of this imbalance, women are too absent from the management of social change in general.

According to UNESCO (1993) the UN action has been effective in ensuring women and girls' access education, while policy-makers has been sensitized on the rights of women needs to open all levels of education to accommodate their greater numbers. A closer analysis of higher education statistics revealed the different nature of the problem in different socio–economic and socio–cultural contexts affect women as they advance in their career.

2.5 Women and Development

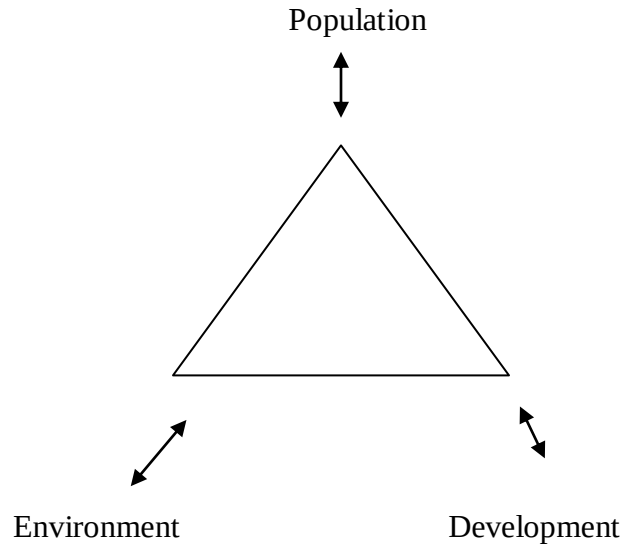
According to AAWORD (2001) the mainstream development thinking today shows that the contribution of women to economic growth and social progress is no longer an issue of controversy. Several studies have established the level of involvement of women in wealth creation in almost all countries. Some studies have attempted to quantify the proportion of wealth generated by women in some countries. The contribution of women in development however has not been matched by re-distribution of the wealth that they help to generate. The process has rather worsened the conditions of women around the globe especially in developing countries (AAWORD 2001).

United Nations Development Program, UNDP (1995) states that male dominate in wealth management in most African societies and the importance of women's access to and control over resources is an integral part of the Agency's recently formulated policy paper on women in development. Gender inequality took its toll on economic and social development everywhere. In 1995 the human development report reminded us that, although every country has made progress in development, women's capabilities is still unequal in the world. In no society today did women enjoy the same opportunities as

men. This unequal status has left considerable disparities between how much women contributed to human development and how little they shared in its benefits.

Young (1988) argues that, involving women at all of development thinking, planning and implementation would make a world of difference not merely to women but to the capacity of society to envisage and carry out planned social change which would permit human kind to live in harmony with nature and itself. To bring women to centre stage would require profound changes in the way that societies conceived of relation between the genders and dismantle of centuries old structures of thought and practice. Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA, 1998) argues that, there is need for full participation of women as equal partners in sustainable development of their societies. The policy had two related elements, the integration of gender equality consideration in all development initiative and involvement of women as equal and active partners in development work. According to United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA, 1992) women are at its very centre, of which the interaction creates a powerful synergy that could enhance or retard the achievement of a more balanced style of development.

Figure: 2.1: Population, Environment &Development Triangle



Source: UNFPA, 1992

UNFPA noted that, the role and the status of women affected each point of the triangle and were in turn affected by them. Women influenced the environment through their management of families, population through reproductive behavior, development through economic and political roles in family and society. Statistically the distribution of women in the Labour force tended to reflect the level of development of a country. However the overall rate of participation could vary simply because of difference in statistical definition and that, in developing countries it would show female activity rates increased or decreased over time without any real difference in the work performed by women being involved. According to Boserup (1970) cultural factors could be taken into account to explain differential sex distribution in the economy especially the sex labeling of jobs and women's attitude towards work and to assess how they performed their task. UNESCO'S recent Social Science research had heightened awareness of women's contribution to the processes of social and economic development. Studies such as

“Women and the Informal Sector (1992) and “Women in Developing Economies” (1993) had shed light of the magnitude of this contribution and, regrettably, on its lack of adequate recognition.

According to UNESCO (1993) research has focused on women in fields such as public policymaking (1990), the media (1987) and their role in transitional economies (1991) thus demonstrating that the reality of their presence fully justified their involvement in decision–making. Mention must be made of the special contribution made by highly qualified women to the social development process - which implied progress towards higher living standards, greater equality of opportunity and basic human rights for all peoples and nations. These had been targeted as the expected outcomes of the Social Development Summit (Copenhagen 1995) and had equal relevance for the goals of 4th World Conference on Women. Equality, development and peace could never be realized while grave social and economic imbalances pertain. A country's social and economic progress as well as its ability to adapt to a changing environment depended largely on the quality of its human resources whose education and training would be sound yet flexible and thus be able to adapt to changing conditions (UNESCO, 1993).

According to World Bank (2004) the prevalence of discriminatory practices constituted a persistent gap between the formal equality of men and women as recognized by national, regional and international legal frameworks, and the substantive equality that they should enjoy;

> *"No country could raise the standard of living and improve the well-being of its people without the participation of half its population. Experience in other countries had shown over and over again that women were important actors in development - to hold them back was to hold back the potential for economic growth" (World Bank, 2004).*

There are several reasons for this links; women played an instrumental role in lifting their families out of poverty through labor force participation. Women are also more likely to invest their earnings in their children, to assume critical and life sustaining responsibilities. Thus, women's empowerment is important for determining a country's economic success and sustainability. The extent to which women and girls benefited from development policies and programs has a major impact on a country's overall development success and growth prospects (World Bank, 2004; Hafkin and Taggart, 2001; Liu and Wilson, 2001).

Moreover, women's participation in the workforce and the associated economic benefits that resulted from this participation engendered nation building and development. In using the term "development", we borrowed from the work of Sen (1999), in which he argued that development was a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy. This differed from theories of economic development, such as growth in gross national product (GNP), technological advances, and rise in personal incomes or social modernization. While GNP and personal income provided means to expand freedoms, Sen also, expanded this notion by including determinants of freedoms, such as health care, education, political and civil rights. Development required the eradication of

sources of oppression, such as; gender and racial discrimination, social and economic deprivation, neglect of public facilities, intolerance or over-activity of repressive states (Sen, 1999).

2.6 Women and Political Participation

African societies largely continue to discourage women with ambition in politics from aspiring to leadership position and their marginalized position is still a shared phenomenon in Africa. The political space like gender is culturally created by society although most governments and political parties have clauses expressing explicitly the concept of gender equality in their manifestos and constitution. Women are known for their immense contribution to socio-economic and cultural development, they still largely remained implementers of decisions made by men as their peripheral position in national institutionalized process of political participation (Wanjiku &Wasamba, 1998).

In 2007, the political parties' Act was passed and provided for 50% chance women representation in party nominations. However, during the previous elections for instance, women were faced with various challenges ranging from physical and verbal violence, especially during the political campaigns (profile of women's socio- economic status in Kenya, 2008).According to Sessional paper 2 of (1996) on gender equality and development, women's bureau addressed pertinent issues concerning women and political participation that the government recognized and is conscious of the tremendous and heroic contribution made by women and men in the political development of the country both during the struggle for independence and in the post independence period.

In this paper it is noted that although women in Kenya accounted for 50.4 percent of the total population and comprised about 60.2 percent of the total voting population and according to the estimate available in 1992, this percentage is not reflected in political participation of women and in strategic decision making, political institution such as parliament, the cabinet, local government, trade union, co-operative societies, district development, committees medical boards, school board of governors (BOG) and political parties.

Statistical trends regarding women's political participation since independence indicated that a lot needs to be done towards the goal of increasing women's involvement. In the period prior to repeal section 2A of the constitution, four (4) women served as elected members of parliament. In the 1992 general election nineteen(19) women aspirants contested parliament seats and only 6 captured the seats which was equivalent to 3.2 percent of the total one eighty eight (188) parliamentary seats. Similarly one hundred and seventeen (117) women councilors contested for local council seats and only seventy eight (78) got in representing 3.9 percent of the total seats in the local authority (Sessional Paper 2 of 1996).

According to UNHCR (2007) currently less than one percent of the executive members in trade union, co operative and parastastals are women. These statistics did not necessarily translate into a just and fair distribution of women in political mainstream especially when their numerical voter supremacy is taken into account. The gender disparity in political participation has serious implication of gender concern in all sectors of

development. A report of the task force on the laws relating to women indicated a more positive trend in appointment of women in high position in the judiciary such as high court judges. In many countries women were under-represented at decision-making levels in most areas of public administration. Women and men have different priorities for developing policies and laws because of their different gendered roles in the household and community, their occupations in labor markets and their access to key resources such as capital, property and credit.

UNHCR (2007) states that women's leadership in the public sector such as the judiciary, is critical for increasing the capacity of public institutions to create policies and laws that respond to the different situations and needs of women. Strategic plan and forward-looking private sector firms recognizes the importance of including women at senior levels of management and to improve their competitiveness. Women managers at the highest levels continue to have a meager share of corporate board and other executive positions around the world. Despite the odds against them, statistics showed that since the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, women are slowly making in roads into male-dominated areas, particularly in political life. In 1995, women represented 11.3 percent of all legislators in national parliament.

According to Sessional paper 2(1996) we still have a long way to go in some sectors such as provincial administration where women are a minority. The political administration is a critical area taking into account the ongoing policy reform bent on devolving power to the local levels for administration to be closer to the people, it is imperative that women

hold decision making positions proportionate in their numerical strength in society on the executive side they are only three women permanent secretaries.

2.7 Gender inequalities in Education

Education is widely recognized as the gateway to economic security and opportunity particularly for girls and women. The foremost factor limiting female education is poverty. Economic in any country plays a key role when it comes to coping with direct cost such as tuition, cost of textbooks, uniform, transportation and other expenses. Wherever, especially in families with many children, these costs exceed the income of the family, girls are the first to be denied schooling. All this despite the fact that educating girls is one of the best investments a society could make. An educated woman has the skill, the self confidence and the information she needs to become a better parent, worker and citizen (Friedman and Marshall, 2004).

According to Jerry&Gerson (2004) girls' lack of access to education isn't always related to scarcity of places in schools. It also emerged from expectations, attitudes and biases in communities and families. Economic costs, social traditions, and religious and cultural beliefs limited girls' educational opportunities. Whatever the underlying reason, having large number of girls outside the formal schooling system brought developmental challenges to both current and future generations.

According to Jerry&Gerson (2004) inability to read, write and calculate complicates girl's efforts to engage in both market-focused production and household activities as

effectively and efficiently as possible. This affected her family's welfare and diminishes her potential contribution to the development of the household, local and national economy. Despite reported progress, there was still a persistent gap between women and men's access to education.

According to Buchmann; DiPrete & McDaniel (2008) in combating the high rate of illiteracy among women and girls remained an urgent global need. Gender inequality was a term that referred to the obvious or hidden disparity between genders. It was constructed both socially through social interactions as well as biologically through chromosomes, brain structure, and hormonal differences. Gender systems are often dichotomous, hierarchical and binary gender systems could reflect onto the inequalities that manifested in numerous dimensions of daily life. Gender inequality stemmed from distinctions, whether empirically grounded or socially constructed.

Jerry&Gerson (2004) cultural stereotypes are engrained in both men and women and these stereotypes are a possible explanation for gender inequality and the resulting gendered wage disparity. Women have traditionally been viewed as being caring and nurturing and are designated to occupations which required such skills. While these skills are culturally valued, they are typically associated with domesticity, so occupations requiring these same skills are not economically valued. Men have traditionally been viewed as the breadwinner or the worker, so jobs held by men have been historically economically valued and occupations predominated by men continue to be economically valued and pay higher wages. Sibbons; Swamfield; Poulsen; Giggard;Norton & Seel

(2000) argue that ,men typically occupy positions of power within the job economy and that due to taste or preference for other men, they share similar characteristics, men in these positions of power are more likely to hire or promote other men, thus discriminating against women. Natality inequality is a situation given preference for boys over girls. Gender inequality could manifest itself in the form of the parents wanting the newborn to be a boy rather than a girl. There were often enough, basic inequalities in gender relations within the family or the household, which could take many different forms. Even in cases in which there were no overt signs of anti-female bias in, say, survival or son-preference or education, or even in promotion to higher executive positions, the family arrangements could be quite unequal in terms of sharing the burden of housework and child care.

According to Buchmann; DiPrete & McDaniel (2008) gender gaps that were widespread in access to basic rights, access to and control of resources, in economic opportunities and also in power and political voice were an impediment to development. The only solution to this was gender equality, which strengthened a country's ability to grow, to reduce poverty and provide its people (men, women and children) a better life. The issue of gender equality then, needed to be at the core of development policies both in national and international arenas. Just because gender inequality was inextricably linked to societal norms, religion or cultural traditions, it should not be either a deterrent or an excuse to gender sensitive development planning. Promoting gender equality in education involved promoting equality in the culture and processes of schooling. Evidence shows that a caring, non-hierarchical and respectful school system not only reduces early school

leaving for both boys and girls, it also promotes positive attitudes to learning, that sustained people educationally in adult life - it encouraged lifelong learning (Kendall, 2006). According to Jerry& Gerson, (2004) gender roles developed through internalization and identification during childhood. From birth, parents interacted differently with children depending on their sex, and through this interaction parents could instill different values or traits in their children on the basis of what was normative for their sex. Education also plays an integral role in the creation of gendered norms.

According to Friedman and Marshall (2004) gender roles that are created in childhood permeate throughout life and helps to structure parenting and marriage, especially in relation to work in and outside the home. Despite the increase in women in the labor force since the mid-1900s, women were still responsible for the majority of the domestic chores and childcare. While women are splitting their time between work and care of the home, men are pressured into being the primary economic supporter of the home. Despite the fact that different households could divide chores more evenly, there is evidence that support that women have retained the primary caregiver role within family life despite contributions economically. This evidence suggested that women who worked outside the home often put an extra 18 hours a week doing household or childcare related chores as opposed to men who average 12 hours a day in childcare activities. In addition to lack of interest in the home on the part of some men, some women may bar men from equal participation in the home which contributed to this disparity.

According to Basic Education Coalition (2004) men are assuming the role of "care giver" more and more in today's society. Education plays a major factor in this. The more education a male or female received, the less likely they are to hold roles within the house distinctly based on one's sex. Males are doing more cooking, cleaning, and household "chores" than they were in the 1950s. Education is universally acknowledged to benefit individuals and promote national development. Educating females and males produced similar increase in their subsequent earnings and expanded future opportunities and choices for both boys and girls. However, educating girls produce many additional socio-economic gains that benefit entire societies. These benefits included increased economic productivity, higher family incomes, delayed marriages, reduced fertility rates, and improved health and survival rates for infants and children.

According to Kane (2004) over the years, education has focused on access and parity and closing the enrollment gap between girls and boys, while insufficient attention has been paid to retention, achievement, the quality and relevance of education. Providing a quality, relevant education lead to improved enrollment and retention, but also helped to ensure that boys and girls are able to fully realize the benefits of education. The primary focuses on girls' access to education could be seen to overlook boys' educational needs. This approach fails to confront the norms and behaviors that perpetuated inequality.

2.8 Work place inequality

According to Biachi and Spain (1996) a powerful trend of the past several decades has been the entrance of women into the workforce in vastly increasing numbers and

percentage. This is especially evident in the United States where a dramatic transformation has occurred within one generation in the Labour force expectation of and for women. It is often assumed that women increased involvement in paid work has been associated with a sharp reduction in workplace inequality, but in reality this is not the case. No longer isolated in domestic spheres, women work alongside with men in offices, factories and other work setting. Several studies have demonstrated that women and men are not treated equally at work even if they possess the same qualification and are hired to perform the same job. Women encountered barriers when they tried to enter the most lucrative and prestigious specialties. 'A glass ceiling' prevented them from reaching the top position (Reskin and Phipps, 1988).

According to Koontz and Weihrich (1988 opportunities for women occupying managerial position are increasing but career advancement depended on the functional area, industry or on particular company. Women are likely to be found at upper levels of management in areas such as personnel or public relation. With the large number of married women in the workforce, an increasing number of companies have recognized the stressful situation of dual career couples through more flexible policies, career planning, personnel selection, placement and promotion. He further noted that women in management could use different leadership style than men, which involve interactive style like sharing information and power apart from inspiring participation and letting people know that they are important. Men in contrast use control of resource and authority of their position to motivate their people.

Cole (2002) argues that, women are still under-represented in middle and senior management roles. The difficulties faced by women in breaking into what is still very much a male preserve that was 'the glass ceiling', an analogy to describe the subtly transparent barrier that prevents women from gaining access to the more senior roles in their organization. Kanter (1977) asserts that, the barriers women face in predominately male occupation could be attributed to their numerical minority in organization. Although men and women would have similar qualification, the organization nevertheless promoted gender differentiation through the mechanism of tokenism.

Women careers often suffer because organizations typically did not accommodate their additional household responsibilities (Hochschild, 1989).According to UNESCO (1993) the programming of career development has always been difficult for women. The important years for career building are also those of child bearing and their family responsibilities could hinder their career advancement. Women are often excluded from selection because they are less aware than men of the "covert criteria" for appointments to executive positions. Barriers to women's participation to decision-making positions included family attitudes, alienation from the male culture, continued resistance to women in management position and inadequate policies and legislation to ensure their participation. At the community level, women are appointed to local committees though there's still a tendency for final decision to be made by men.

Further UNESCO (1993) noted that ,the principal barriers preventing the participation of women in the decision–making arena include limited access to education, especially

higher education, discriminatory appointment and promotion practices, the stresses of dual family and professional roles, family attitudes ,career interruptions, cultural stereotyping, alienation from the male culture and continued resistance to women in management positions, propagation of the glass ceiling syndrome which privileged covert criteria for advancement and absence of adequate policies and legislation to ensure the participation of women.

According to UNESCO(1993) given these obstacles, some solutions to remedy the exclusion of women are wider access to higher education, review of appointment and promotion procedures, provision of legislative and infra-structure support in all professions, provision of special Programmes for women, affirmative action to favour women's access and participation while awaiting a genuine change in attitude towards full gender equality and institutional and governmental support through clear and effective policies which are actually enforced

Yieke (2003) noted that, women at the workplace experience many problems and forms of discrimination. These range from sexual harassment, denial of leave to nurse a sick baby and dismissals when the women became pregnant, to low pay that is not commensurate with the kind of work that the women do, and very long hours of working institutions injurious to their health and well being. The situation is compounded by lack of ways of channeling complaints about these problems and by the fact that the workplace is an area that has traditionally been male dominated, especially at the higher managerial levels where policy issues are discussed. Similarly, promotion for women has

been based less on merit, qualifications, competence or suitability for the work than on the possible sexual favors that a woman is prepared to offer to her male counterparts in management who has the power to influence her fate.

2.9 Summary of the literature review

Kenya, like many African societies is a patriarchal society. Although there are still many gender related challenges facing the country, a few strides in form of policy developments and enactment of key legislation have been undertaken in the recent past geared at gender equality and protection (Profile of women's socio- economic status in Kenya, 2008). From the literature above the problem of gender disparity in education and training contributed to all other gender disparity in employment and top headship positions. The disparity in access to education is execrably linked to traditional roles of women and reproduction. However women's access to education is glaring indicator of their status in the society. The study further revealed that women are confronted daily by a legacy of structures of inequality that retard the pace of their personal development and affords them minimal chances or fails to harness their full potential for development. The study further revealed that women are under-represented in most countries starting from the family level to the national level. It was clear that in situation where decision making is concerned male dominated while women are implementers of these decisions thus revealing the gaps of women under-representation at all levels in our societies hence the study sought to find out why women were under-represented in most organizations.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter entailed the methodology and procedures that guided the study during data collection and analysis of field data. It was divided into the following sections; research design, area of the study, target population, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection, research instruments(questionnaires, interview schedules) validity and reliability of research instruments and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

White (2002) defined research design as a plan and structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence to answer the research questions. Leed and Ormrod (2001) described a research design as the complete strategy of attack on the central research problem.

The researcher employed descriptive survey design because the findings needed to be generalized over a large population. Descriptive survey design is used when collecting information about people's attitude, opinion, habits or any of the variety of education or social issues (Orodho and Kombo, 2002). A survey design provided quantitative and numeric description of some part of population. The study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques where quantitative relied on the principle of verifiability and the researcher wanted to obtain a large body of data or to perform statistical analysis in order to produce results that could generalize the target population, while qualitative involved systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data in order to provide description

on selected issues, hence the researcher used both techniques in order to maximize the strengths and minimize the limitation of each (Kombo and Tromp,2006).

3.2 Area of study

Eldoret municipality is currently the centre of three new districts namely Wareng, Eldoret East, Eldoret west districts. It is cosmopolitan town and teachers who teach in the municipality come from different communities and majority of them are female teachers who happen to be trained equally like men but they are under represented at the top headship positions.

3.3 Target population

The target population of this study comprised of Municipal education officials (TAC) tutors, head teachers, teachers and school management committee as stakeholders. The Eldoret municipality was chosen because female teachers form the majority of the teaching workforce yet they were under-represented in top headship positions.

The Municipal education statistics showing representation of male and female head teachers for the last five years (2007-2011) is shown below.

Table: 3.1: Male and Female Head Teachers for the last five years (2007-2011)

Year	Male		Female		Number of public primary schools
	Freq	%	Freq	%	
2011	31	76	10	24	41
2010	31	77.5	9	22.5	40
2009	32	80	8	20	40
2008	34	85	6	15	40
2007	34	85	6	15	40

Source: Eldoret Municipality Education Department

3.4 Sample size and Sampling techniques

Sampling is a procedure of selecting part of a population on which research was conducted and ensured that conclusion from the study is generalized to the entire population(Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000).The study employed stratified sampling, simple random and purposive sampling. A sample of 105 respondents from 10% of the target population was used where, 2 were Municipal Education Officials (TAC tutors), 8 head teachers, 80 teachers and 15 committee members were selected randomly for the study in Eldoret Municipality. Stratified random sampling process enabled selection of a sample in such a way that identified subgroups to represent in the same proportion of the population. Stratified sampling technique was used to identify subgroups in the population and their proportion which the researcher selected from each subgroup to form a sample. The population was grouped into strata's of officers, head teachers, deputies',

senior teachers, assistant teachers and school management committee members. Since each member of the population had an equal and independent chance of being selected, simple random sampling technique was used to select the representative sample. In this method of sampling, it involved giving a number to every subject or a member of the accessible population, placing the number in a container and then picking any number at random. The subjects corresponding to the numbers picked are included in the sample (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999).

Table 3.2 Sampling frame

Strata		Target population	Sample size
Municipal officials(TAC Tutors)		20	20x10%=2
Head teachers	Male	31	41x10%=4 Male Female =4 Total =8
	Female	10	
Teachers		799	799x10%=80
Committee members		150	150x10%=15
Total		1010	105

According to Patton (2002), 10% of the target population is enough in an expose factor survey study hence the researcher used 10% of the target population to act as the sample size.

3.5 Research Instruments

According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), data collection refers to gathering specific information aimed at proving or refuting some facts. The sources of data that was adopted in this study were primary and secondary. Primary data was the information gathered directly from respondents by use of questionnaires, interviews, discussion and others. It involved creating new data. The researcher therefore used questionnaire and interview schedule to collect information from the respondents. Secondary sources were neither collected directly by the user nor specifically for the user. It involved gathering data that already had been collected by someone else. This involved the collection and analysis of published materials and information from internal source, (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

3.5.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a special document that allowed the researcher to ask a number of standard questions to a large number of people in order to gather information from them. According to White (2002), a questionnaire is an instrument with open ended or closed questions or statement to which respondents must respond.

3.5.1.0 Advantages of Questionnaires

Questionnaires provided cheap means of gathering information (data) from a large number of people. Questionnaires encouraged individuals to provide responses without fear, intimidation or victimization. The use of questionnaires provided easy tabulation and analysis of data.

3.5.1.1 Disadvantages of Questionnaires

The use of questionnaires provided no guarantee that individuals would answer or expand on all the questions. Further questionnaires did not provide any opportunity for respondents to obtain clarification on questions which could appear vague or ambiguous.

3.5.1.2 Interview Schedules

Interview is a direct face to face conversation between the interviewer and interviewee. According to white (2002) an interview provides access to what is inside a person's mind and makes it possible to measure what a person knows hence in depth interview was used to help the researcher discover the underlying motives behind female under representation in headship positions in schools. According to Kvale and Brinkman (2008), a structured interview (a standardized interview or a researcher-administered survey) aimed to ensure that each interviewee was presented with exactly the same questions in the same order. This ensured that answers were reliably aggregated and that comparisons be made with confidence between sample subgroups or between different survey periods. The researcher however used structured interview method in order to get reliable facts from same questions in the same order on factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions.

3.5.1.3 Advantages of structured interviews

The use of structured Interviews gave high reliability of gathered information because each informant was subjected to similar questions. It gave in-depth information about particular cases of interest to the researcher. The use of structured Interviews further

enabled the researcher to get a complete and detailed understanding of the issues of female under representation from the respondents.

3.5.1.4: Disadvantages of structured interviews

Structured Interviews are too formal and the researcher could miss out on some important points that are not included in the questions formulated. Interviews could make the interviewees' feel that they were grilled by the researcher.

3.5.1.5: Administration of Questionnaires and interviews schedule

The researcher administered questionnaires to teachers and stakeholders personally in order to gather their views on factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions The development of research instruments (Questionnaire and interview schedule) were done by examining the research objectives, personal experience, related literature and other attitudinal questionnaire and interview instruments. This was for the purpose of framing items that examined the cruel variable in depth (Cohen; Manion, 1983).In developing the questionnaire items, fixed choice format and Likert type of questionnaires items were used to collect data. The questionnaires were divided into two parts; the first part was used to obtain the background information of the respondents. The second part consisted of statements used to identify gaps between the actual headship roles and the practiced headship roles in schools and other organizations. Further interview schedule was administered to head teachers and TAC (tutors) to ascertain the representation of female teachers in the

municipality, gather some clarifications and discover the underlying motives behind female under representation in schools headship positions.

3.6 Validity and Reliability

Validity and Reliability were measures of relevance and correctness of the instruments or tools used to collect data.

3.6.0 Validity of Research Instruments

According to Patton (2002) validity is the quality attributed to proposition or measures to the degree to which they conform to establish knowledge or truth. Validity has been defined in this study as the degree to which evidence supports any inference a researcher made, based on the data collected using questionnaires and interviews. Mugenda and Mugenda, (1999) defined validity as the extent to which an instrument measure what it ought to measure. It was the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which were based on research results. Wiersma (1991) emphasized that, validity involves two concepts simultaneously namely internal and external validity. Internal validity was the extent to which the results could be accurately interpreted and external validity as the extent to which the results could be generalized to a population. The content validity was the extent to which a measuring instrument provided adequate coverage of the topic under study (Kothari, 1999). Hence the instruments were determined by discussing the items in the instrument with the supervisors from the department and other experts to determine if the items were a representative sample of the skill and traits that comprised the area to be measured (Mutai, 2000). These people were expected to indicate by tick or

cross for every item in the questionnaire if it measures what it was supposed to measure or not and to represent the concept under study.

3.6.1 Reliability of Research Instrument

According to Koul (1993) in enhancing the reliability of the measurement, instruments should always be administered in a consistent fashion and also standardized in its administration. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) defined the reliability of an instrument, as the measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. In order to test the reliability of the instrument to be used in the study, the test- retest method was used. The questionnaires were pre-tested to a selected sample similar to the actual sample under study. 1% of the sample was used comprising of eight teachers to respond to the questionnaire twice within an interval of two weeks. From the two responses collected, Cronbach's Alpha was used to test reliability. According to Allen and Yen (2002) Cronbach's Alpha is a test for a model or survey's internal consistency used to determine the internal consistency of a test or the average correlation of items (variables within the test). A reliability of 0.70 or higher was considered as acceptable reliability coefficient in most research situations. A Cronbach's Alpha with a reliable measure (>0.70) meant that the test was consistent. From the analysis it was found out, that the questionnaires had the same results, alpha value at 0.711 hence the instruments was considered reliable (Appendix v). In this study the reliability was done in order to assess the clarity and to modify the instruments by either adding or dropping some items for the purpose of clarity of meaning and

comprehensibility of each item in the research instruments and to further determine the time needed to complete and get necessary information from them (Kalton, 1983).

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques

All completed questionnaires from the field were cleaned, coded and key-punched into a computer and analyzed. Descriptive statistical analysis included means, percentage, frequencies, range and standard deviation, was used to analyze the data. Descriptive analysis is used largely in the study of distribution of variables. Data interpretations were done by drawing inferences from computed frequencies, means and percentage. The findings were then presented using tables as indicated in chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.0: Introduction

This chapter presents data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of the research findings.

4.1: Introduction

This study aimed to find out factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools. The study was designed to answer the following questions;

What are the gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions?

What are the effects of social cultural factors on female teachers' participation in headship positions?

What criteria required in the appointment of teachers into headship position was practiced in schools

What was the stakeholders' perception of women in leadership position?

What actions are needed in order to improve female teacher participation in headship positions?

4.2: Personal and Occupational Data

The information in this section was an attempt to establish the profile of teachers serving in school headship positions with regard to gender, professional qualification, age, marital status, teaching experience, designation and duration in the present station. The

results were presented as follows; Table 4.1-Gender, Table 4.2-Gender and professional qualification, Table 4.3- Gender and designation of teachers, Table 4.4 Gender and Age, Table 4.5-Teachers marital status and present designation, Table 4.6-Teaching experience and duration in the school.

4.2.0: Frequency and Percentages of Respondents Regarding to Gender in the municipality

The respondents were asked to indicate their gender and the summary of the findings was presented in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Sample Distribution According to Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	15	18.8
Female	65	81.2
Total	80	100

Analysis in Tables 4.1 indicate that 15 (18.8%) of the teachers in the study were male, while 65 (81.3%) were female. The study further revealed that female teachers were the majority of the teaching workforce in the municipality. The total numbers of respondents in this study were 80 teachers. The analysis of this table revealed that women outnumbered men in their total population which should be reflected at the top headship positions in schools. Cole (2002) noted that, women are still under-represented in middle and senior management roles and that they faced difficulties in breaking in to what was very much a male preserve that is 'the glass ceiling', an analogy to describe the subtly

transparent barrier that prevents women from gaining access to the more senior roles in their organization.

4.2.1: Frequency and Percentages of Respondents Regarding to Gender and Academic/ Professional Qualification of teachers

It was of interest in this study to assess respondents' highest qualification in relation to gender. This was to find out whether qualifications affected women and leadership positions in schools hence the analysis in table 4.2 summarizes the results.

Table 4.2: Gender and Academic / Professional Qualification of teachers

Gender	Qualification	Frequency	%
Male	Masters	1	1.3
	Graduate	3	3.8
	Diploma	4	5
	P1	7	8.8
Female	Masters	1	1.3
	Graduate	9	11.3
	Diploma	18	22.5
	P1	37	46.3
Total		80	100

The analysis as shown in Table 4.2 indicated that 15(18.8%) of the teachers in the study are male, while 65(81.3%) are female. In the study it was found out that majority of the respondents were college P1 certificate holders 7(8.8) of men and 37 (46.3%) of women.

The study further revealed that 2(2.5%) of the study were both male and female teachers who had gone an extra mile to attain masters degree while those who had bachelor degree in education among male teachers were 3(3.8%) as compared to female 9(11.3%).

Those with diploma in education were 5% of males and 22.5% of females. The result in Table 4.2 implied that most teachers are qualified to head schools since most of them had the required criteria needed in order to become school head teachers. Teachers with diploma and higher qualification in the municipality are considered qualified to serve as head teachers in schools. This was due to the fact that the minimum qualification for one to be the head teacher in the municipality is diploma which is equivalent to ATS 2 and above. The findings further implied that more female teachers were qualified and were accorded equal chances in education as men. The analysis further revealed that female teachers were the majority and were qualified and could perform administration task just like men.

The findings in this study indicated that there were more female teachers who had attained degrees as compared to their male counterparts. It further revealed that female teachers were qualified to head school as pertains to their academic and professional qualifications. According to TSC Code of Regulations for Teachers (2005) except under special circumstances determined by the commission, consideration for promotion shall be the teacher's willingness to take up the position immediately and where a vacancy exists. The policy therefore is very clear and for the teacher to be appointed requires one

is required to be willing to take up such post whenever there is vacant position to be filled which is not the case in Eldoret municipality.

4.2. 2: Frequency and Percentages of Respondents Regarding to Gender and Designation of teachers

The respondents were asked to indicate their titles in the school. Table 4.3 gives a summary of the analysis.

Table 4.3: Gender and Designation of teachers

Gender	Present designation					
	Deputy head teacher		Senior teacher		Assistant teacher	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Male	5	6.3	3	3.8	7	8.8
Female	4	5	12	15	49	61.3
Total	9	11.3	15	18.8	61	70

The results of this analysis presented in Table 4.3 showed that there are more deputy head teachers among the male 5(6.3%) while female represent 4(5%) despite the fact that they were qualified and the majority of the teaching fraternity. Men who were the senior teachers were 3(3.8%) compared to 12(15 %) of female. Teachers who were legible to be administrators in the municipality were 30% male and female mainly deputy head teachers and senior teachers. The analysis of this table revealed that there was a gender imbalance in the positions of deputyship and that this disparity affected women as they

progressed towards heading schools. From the finding female teachers are unwilling to take up responsibilities of being a deputy head teacher or even senior teacher which often act as a ladder of being a head teacher at long run.

According to Burke & Nelson (2002) workplace segregation was commonly measured by the index of dissimilarity which indicated the proportion of women to men. According to Makura (2000) it is a mandatory requirement in Kenya that at least 30 percent of all government employment opportunities be reserved for women.

4.2.3: Frequency and Percentages of Respondents Regarding to Gender and Age of teachers

Table 4.4: Gender and Age of teachers

The respondents were asked to indicate their gender and age and the results of the findings were summarized below.

Age	Male		Female	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
30-34	6	7.5	19	23.8
35-39	0	0	16	20
40-44	4	5	11	13.8
45-49	1	1.3	12	15
50andabove	4	5	7	8.8
Total	15	18.8	65	81.3

Analysis in Table 4.4, indicated that teachers who were above 50yrs were 4(5%) of male and 7(8.8%) of female. Teachers who were between (45yrs - 49 yrs) were 12 (15%) of female and 1(1.3%) of male. The study further revealed that teachers who were 39yrs of age and below were the majority 41(51.3%). According to the above analysis many teachers were young and capable of becoming head teachers in schools.

Young teachers have been unable to take up headship positions in school so that they can achieve vision 2030 but have entrusted headship positions to older head teachers which cannot be compared to their numbers in the municipality. Parental guidance which is a form of informal education is also critical especially among communities with retrogressive social and cultural effects (profile of women's socio- economic status in Kenya, 2008).

4.2.4: Frequency and Percentages of Respondents Regarding to Teachers marital status and present designation.

It was of interest in this study to find out from respondents whether ones marital status affected them in career development and progression. Table 4.6 summarizes the findings.

Table 4.5: Teachers Marital status and present designation

Marital status	Present designation						Total	
	Deputy head teacher		Senior teacher		Assistant teacher			
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Single	0	0	2	2.5	9	11.25	10	12.5
Married	6	7.5	6	7.5	29	36.25	41	51.25
Separated	2	2.5	6	7.5	15	18.75	24	30
Divorced	0	0	2	2.5	3	3.75	5	6.25
Total	8	10	16	20	56	70	80	100

Analysis in Table 4.5 indicated that most deputy head teachers were either married or separated 4(5%).Senior teachers were all categories of marital status comprising 15 (18.8%).Majority of the teachers 56(70%) were assistant teachers and did not participate in administrative work in the schools. From the findings further marital status affects women as they progress in their career development as they must receive acknowledgement from their spouses before taking up headship task which slows down the pace of change in school headship positions, this also supported by Mackenzie; Sambili & Khayesi (1997) that married women who have excelled academically lacked independence in decision making because they had to seek consent from their husbands which unfortunately some husbands do not grand the consent for their own reasons.

Table 4.5:1 Teachers Marital status and Gender

Marital status	Male(frequency)	%	Female(frequency	%
Single	1	6.7	9	13.84
Married	6	40	37	56.93
Separated	6	40	18	27.70
Divorced	2	13.3	1	1.53

From the above analysis there were many female teachers who were either married or separated 55(84.63). The findings further reveal that marriage affected female teachers as they advance in their career. This is further revealed by their representation in the top headship positions in schools. According to Merger (1999) women had been expected to perform household duties centering on child rearing and domestic functions.

Men on the other hand had been expected to leave the home to work with the primary responsibility of supporting the family economically and protecting its members. This traditional arrangement had been brought into question by the entrance of women often as primary breadwinners in significant numbers into mainstream in recent decades.

4.2.5: Frequency and Percentages of Respondents Regarding to Teaching experience and duration in the school

The respondents were asked to indicate their teaching experience and duration in their present station and the findings were illustrated below.

Table 4.6: Teaching experience and duration in the school

Teaching experience	Duration in the school						Total	
	15yrs and above		14yrs-13yrs		12yrs and below			
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
16yrs and above	12	15	18	22.5	9	11.3	39	48.8
6yrs-15yrs	3	3.8	17	21.3	17	21.3	37	46.3
0-5yrs	0	0	2	2.5	2	2.5	4	5
Total	15	18.8	37	46.3	28	35	80	100

Analysis in Table 4.6 showed that majority of the teachers had the required experience to be administrators 39(48.8%) 16yrs and above. The analysis further showed that teachers who had taught between (6-15yrs) were 37(46.3%). The analysis further indicated that teachers who had stayed in their station for over 15yrs were 15(18.8%) while those who had stayed in their station between 14yrs-13yrs comprised 37(46.3%).Teachers who had stayed for less than 12yrs were 28 (35%).The study further revealed that most teachers were able to head schools because they had the experience and were familiar with their school setting. According Teachers Service Commission Act (TSC) of 1968 experience was considered important in the process of career development and progression however from the analysis experience did not assist female teachers in their career advancement.

4.3 Gender related factors contributing to under representation of women.

Table 4.7: Gender related factors

Causes	Sex	Very large extent		Large extent		undecided		Small extent		Very small extent	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Women lack support from to national level	M	8	10	6	7.5	0	0	1	1.3	0	0
	F	34	42.5	20	25	0	0	9	11.3	2	2.5
	T	42	52.5	26	32.5	0	0	10	12.5	2	2.5
Female teachers are undervalued	M	6	7.5	3	3.8	0	0	5	6.3	1	1.3
	F	21	26.3	31	38.8	0	0	7	8.8	6	7.5
	T	27	33.8	34	42.5	0	0	12	15	7	8.8
Gender stereotype is the cause	M	5	6.3	4	5	2	2.5	3	3.8	1	1.3
	F	22	27.5	19	23.8	6	7.5	14	17.5	4	5
	T	27	33.8	23	28.8	8	10	17	21.3	5	6.3
Split between work and family	M	8	10	5	6.3	0	0	2	2.5	0	0
	F	28	35	24	24	1	1.3	7	8.8	5	6.3
	T	36	45	29	36.3	1	1.3	9	11.3	5	6.3
cultural stereotyping	M	2	2.5	7	8.8	4	5	1	1.3	1	1.3
	F	12	15	30	37.5	7	8.8	13	16.3	3	3.8
	T	14	17.5	37	46.3	11	13.8	14	17.5	4	5
Lackof`professional commitment by women	M	0	0	5	6.3	2	2.5	3	3.8	5	6.3
	F	5	6.3	4	5	4	5	16	20	36	45
	T	5	6.3	9	11.3	6	7.5	19	23.8	41	51.3

As indicated in the analysis in table 4.7,when asked whether women lacked support from family to national level,It was noted that 42 (52.5%) of the respondents agreed to a very large,26(32.5%) agreed to a large extent while 2(2.5%) supported it to a very small extent.The analysis further revealed that both male and female agreed that women lacked the required support needed for them to progress in their careers starting from the family to the national level.

When asked whether female teachers were undervalued because of African culture,27(33.8%) of the respondents supported the statement to a very large extent while 34(42.5%) supported to a large extent.7(8.8%) supported to a very small extent. It was further noted that both male and female teachers agreed with it.The issue of being undervalued is also supported by Lipman-Blumen(1984)of which he argues that women were followers,good in carrying out decisions and following others initiative. Further Tamale (2000) agreed that domesticity ideology is historically and culturally constructed and is closely linked to patriarchy where women are trapped and ruled over by men.

The respondents were further asked to indicate whether gender stereotype was one of the factors contributing to underrepresentation among women.The findings revelealed that 27(33.8%) supported to a very large extent,23(28.8%) also supported on a large extent further 5(6.3%) supported to a very small extent. According to Jones &Montenegro (1982) many women have internalized the traditional gender stereo type to such an extent that they feel inferior and suffer guilt and shame when they have society's belief

in male led organization and stereotype contributed to the gender imbalance in school leadership.

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether the split between work and family obligation adversely affected women`s promotion,It was noted 36(45%) supported on a very large extent further 29(36.3%) agreed to a large extent while 5(6.3%) refuted it.

When asked whether cultural stereotyping leads to underrepresentation in most organization 37(46.3%)supported to a large extent while 4 (5%) refuted it.Saito and Spurling (1994) supported this issue that women in Kenya were "time-poor" because of their dual role in the household economy and the Labour market moreover earned less because more of these hours were not remunerated. Further Greyvenstien (1996) supported that a woman's place is assumed to be restricted to the home where she is a wife, child bearer and homemaker whereas men are taken to be breadwinners and provided for family units.

The respondents were further asked whether lackof` professional commitment by women contributed to underrepresentation 41(51.25%) supported the statement to a very small extent while 5(6.3%) supported it to a very large extent.According to Shakeshaft (1989) the under representation of qualified women in leadership positions has created a gender gap that existed not only in education but also in many areas of the workplace. Society has determined that only male' make good leaders, therefore it continued to deny easy access for women seeking leadership roles because they did not fit the norm.

Women who sought leadership positions faced barriers and many times gave up because they became overwhelmed in dealing with obvious barriers.

4.4 Effects of social cultural factors on female teacher participation in headship positions

Table 4.8: Effects of social cultural factors

Statement		Very large Extent		Large extent		Undecided		Small extent		Very small extent	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Societal attitude and values	M	2	2.5	3	3.8	1	1.3	4	5	5	6.3
	F	2	2.5	19	23.8	1	1.3	18	22.5	25	31.3
	T	4	5	22	27.5	2	2.5	22	27.5	30	37.5
Discrimination of Women	M	2	2.5	5	6.3	0	0	1	1.3	7	8.8
	F	11	13.8	25	31.3	4	5	18	22.5	7	8.8
	T	13	16.3	30	37.5	4	5	19	23.8	14	17.5
Family role affected women	M	4	5	3	3.8	0	0	5	6.3	3	3.8
	F	15	18.8	18	22.8	3	3.8	22	27.5	7	8.8
	T	19	23.8	21	26.3	3	3.8	27	33.8	10	12.5
Spouse attitude	M	0	0	2	2.5	1	1.3	5	6.3	7	8.8
	F	1	1.3	16	20	4	5	9	11.3	35	43.8
	T	1	1.3	18	22.5	5	6.3	14	17.5	42	52.5
Dual role affected women	M	4	5	3	3.8	0	0	3	3.8	5	6.3
	F	14	17.5	30	37.5	2	2.5	10	12.5	9	11.3
	T	18	22.5	33	41.3	2	2.5	13	16.3	14	17.5
Gender stereotyping	M	4	5	5	6.3	0	0	3	3.8	3	3.8
	F	11	13.8	19	23.8	3	3.8	15	18.8	17	21.3
	T	15	18.8	24	30	3	3.8	18	22.5	20	25

Analysis in Table 4.8 gave the frequencies and summaries of the findings on gender and leadership in relation to socio-cultural beliefs and its effect on female teacher participation in headship positions. As indicated in the above analysis, when the respondents were asked to respond to the fact that societal attitude and values affected female teachers, 30 (37.5%) of the respondents supported to a very small extent, while 4(5%) supported to a very large extent. According to Jones & Montenegro (1982) many women have internalized the traditional gender stereotype to such an extent that they feel inferior and suffered guilt and shame when they have society's belief in male led organization and stereotype contributed to the gender imbalances in school headship positions.

When asked whether women were discriminated against in all realms of society 13(16.3%) supported to a very large extent 30(37.5%) supported to a large extent while 14(17.5%) supported to a very small extent. According to Sibbons; Swamfield;Poulsen; Giggard; Norton & Seel (2000) discrimination plays out with networking and in preferential treatment within the economic market where men who typically occupy positions of power within the job economy, due to taste or preference for other men because they shared similar characteristics are more likely to hire or promote other men, thus discriminating against women.

The respondents were further asked to indicate whether women tend not to progress in their career due to the role they play in the family. There were divided feelings among the respondents on this issue nineteen (23.8%) supported to a very large extent 21(26.3%) to a large extent while 10 (12.5%) supported to a very small extent with the statement.

According to Jerry and Gerson (2004) supported this issue that women have traditionally been viewed as being caring and nurturing and are designated to occupations which required such skills. While these skills are culturally valued, they are typically associated with domesticity, so occupations requiring these same skills are not economically valued.

When asked whether spouse attitude affected women as they advance in their career 42 (52.5%) of the respondents supported to a very small extent with the statement while 1(1.25%) supported the statement to a very large extent. Owen (1991) supported that women in some culture found it difficult to exert authority over males and they still suffer from the myth that women are too emotional or too illogical for senior management or best suited to the domestic maintaining aspect of administration. Further Suda (2002) agreed that men are commonly rated higher than women on traits associated with competence and Instrumentality such as leadership.

When asked whether dual role affected women in career development 18(22.5%) of the respondents supported the statement to a very large extent 33(41.3%) to a large extent while 14(17.5%) supported to a very small extent. Wanjoma (1997) supported that the kind of work done by women was considered less valuable which should have been rewarded accordingly. The respondents were further asked whether gender stereotype affected women15 (18.8%) supported on a very large extent 24(30%) to a large extent while 20(25%) supported to a very small extent with the claim. According to Gupton and Slick (1996) women lacked both professional mentor and professional support which contributed to the under representation of women in the leadership position.

4.5: Criteria required in the appointment of teachers in headship position

Table 4.9: Criteria required in the appointment of teachers in headship

Statement	Sex	SA		A		U		SD		D	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Education policy provided equal opportunity	M	7	8.8	5	6.3	0	0	1	1.3	2	2.5
	F	32	40	23	28.8	0	0	5	6.3	5	6.3
	T	39	48.8	28	35	0	0	6	7.5	7	8.8
The conditions needed in the appointment not practiced	M	4	5	5	6.3	1	1.3	3	3.8	2	2.5
	F	21	26.3	18	22.5	4	5	12	15	10	12.5
	T	25	31.3	23	28.8	5	6.3	15	18.8	12	15
Female teachers had not attended PRISM	M	0	0	1	1.3	1	1.3	5	6.3	8	10
	F	11	13.8	13	16.3	11	13.8	11	13.8	19	23.8
	T	11	13.8	14	17.5	12	15	16	20	27	33.8
Unfair promotion was the cause	M	9	11.3	3	3.8	2	2.5	0	0	1	1.3
	F	29	36.3	24	30	3	3.8	5	6.3	4	5
	T	38	47.5	27	33.8	5	6.3	5	6.3	5	6.3
Female teachers not conversant with trends in education	M	0	0	0	0	1	1.3	8	10	6	7.5
	F	3	3.8	7	8.8	2	2.5	24	30	29	36.3
	T	3	3.8	7	8.8	3	3.8	32	40	35	43.8
Women had less education	M	1	1.3	1	1.3	0	0	5	6.3	8	10
	F	5	6.3	6	7.5	5	6.3	24	30	25	31.3
	T	6	7.5	7	8.8	5	6.3	29	36.3	33	41.3
Female teachers were discriminated	M	1	1.3	4	5	0	0	5	6.3	5	6.3
	F	10	12.5	6	7.5	7	8.8	14	17.5	28	35
	T	11	13.8	10	12.5	7	8.8	19	23.8	33	41.3

Analysis in Table 4.9 presents frequencies of the respondents on the criteria required in the appointment of teachers in headship positions and the findings were summarized below. When asked whether education policy on recruitment and promotion of teachers provided equal opportunities for both male and female 39(48.8%) strongly agreed, 28(35%) agreed while 7(8.8%) refuted showing that there was equal opportunities for both sexes. The TSC has a full mandate to employ and manage the entire teaching fraternity in Kenyan public schools, including promoting them to professional and administrative positions (Republic of Kenya, 2005b). Coleman, (1994) on the hand acknowledged that the question of gender disparities in the management structures of schools and colleges had received little attention, despite the fact that "there was recognition in education of both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women bring to management".

The respondents were asked to indicate whether the criteria required in the appointment of teachers in headship positions was practiced in the municipality and it was noted that 25(31.3%) strongly agreed, 23(28.8%) agreed, 12(15%) refuted it. According to TSC code of regulation(2005)the requirements include academic and professional qualifications, special merit on work performance, performance in National examinations and special achievement in co curricular activities and a teacher's professional conduct, moral standing and initiative while Sessional paper 1 of 2005 promotions of teachers to administrative positions in senior positions is handled at the TSC headquarters.

The respondents were asked to indicate whether female teachers had not attended a primary school management course (PRISM) 11(13.8%) strongly agreed, 14(17.5%) agreed while 27(33.8%) disagreed with the statement. According to Ministry of Education manual (1987) conditions for the appointment include promotion on merit, discipline, must be in Job group "K" and above, must have attended Primary School Management Course (PRISM) and under special circumstances be willing to take up the post.

The respondents were further asked whether unfair promotion procedure was the cause of under representation 38 (47.5%) strongly agreed, 27(33.8%) agreed, while 5(6.3%) disagreed with this statement. It was clear that both male and female teacher' responses were in line with each other and that there was unfair promotion procedure contributed to under representation of female teachers to headship positions in schools. According to Onsongo (2000) in spite of laws banning discrimination, it has often been difficult to distinguish discrimination on the grounds of sex from discrimination on other grounds, such as social class, regional difference, race, language or disability. These forms of discrimination exacerbated gender discrimination and cannot be ignored.

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether female teachers were not conversant with trends in education 32(40%) strongly disagreed, 35(43.75%) disagreed, while 3(3.75%) strongly agreed with the statement. According to TSC (2005) the Municipal Education Office (MEO) or District Education Office (DEO) is mandated to facilitate teachers' professional growth by way of availing to them educational documents on

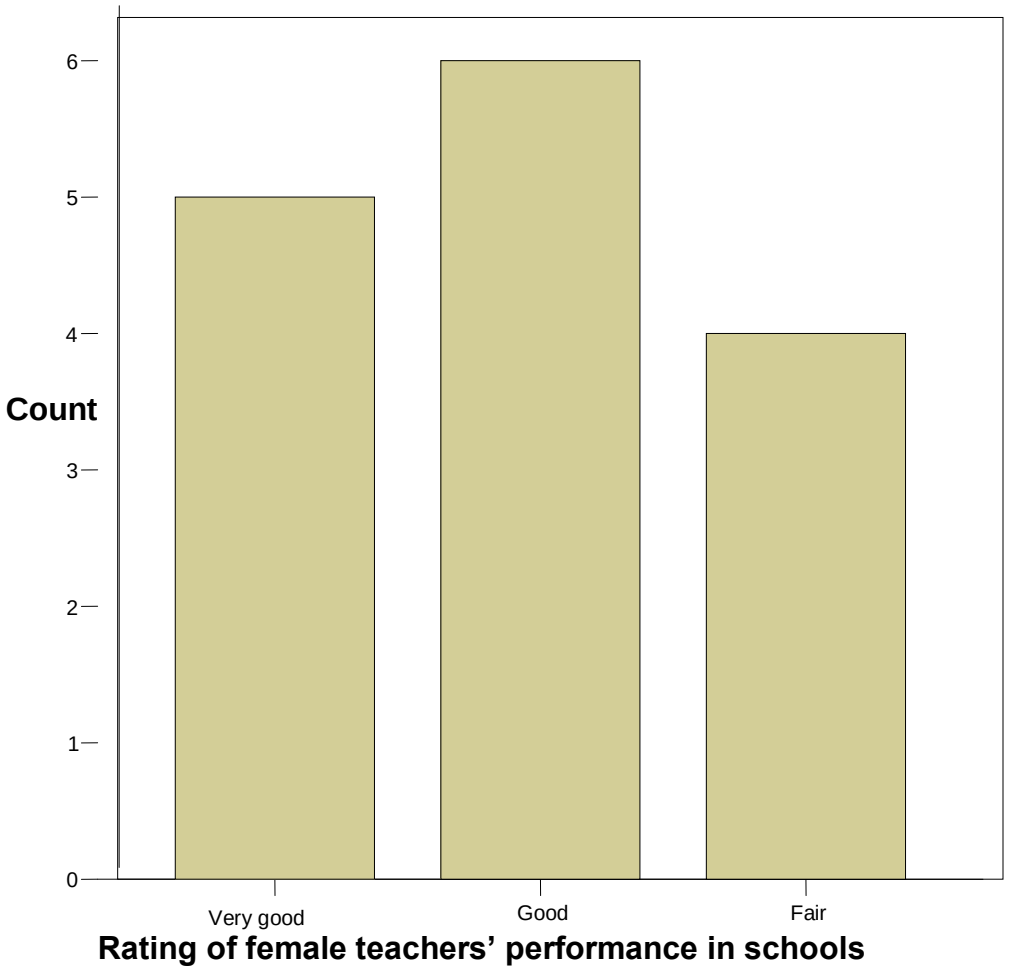
teaching and educational management; offering teachers the opportunity to attend relevant administrative and professional training courses, workshops, seminars and educational tours; and developing resource centers for teachers in their schools.

When asked to respond whether women had less education, 29(36.25%) strongly disagreed, while 33(41.25%) disagreed, while a small percentage of 6(7.5%) strongly agreed. Further in this study revealed that women and men were academically and professionally qualified and that female teacher' academic credentials did not hinder them from heading schools. The respondents were further asked to indicate whether female teachers were discriminated against in headship position in schools 11(13.8%) supported the statement while 33(41.3) disagreed with the statement. The target of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and at all levels not later than 2015(association of media, 2005)

4.6 Stakeholders perception towards women in headship positions

The respondents were asked to indicate how they rate female teachers' performances in their schools and the results of the findings were summarized below.

Figure 4.1: Rating of female teachers by stakeholders in terms of their performance



According to the analysis Table 4.10, out of 15 respondents 6(40%) found out that, female teachers were good, 5(33.3%) rated them as very good while 4 (26.7%) rated them as fair showing that there were divided feelings on how stakeholders perceived female teachers' performance and that most of them appreciated the work done by female teachers in their schools.

Table 4.10: Stakeholders perception of women in headship positions

Statement	Strongly Agree		Agree		Undecided		Strongly Disagree		Disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Male were better administrators	2	13.3	6	40	0	0	5	33.3	2	13.3
family responsibility inhibited women perform leadership task in school	5	33.3	6	40	1	6.7	2	13.3	1	1.67
shortage of experience held women back from top headship positions	2	13.3	5	33.3	0	0	5	33.3	3	20
women usually had low esteem to head schools	4	26.7	2	13.3	0	0	3	20	6	40

As reported in analysis in table 4.10, out of the 15 sampled stakeholders 2(13.3%) strongly supported the fact that male are better administrators than female head teachers while 6(40%) agreed whereas those who disagreed were 2(13.3%). According to Burke & Nelson(2002), workplace segregation was commonly measured by the index of

dissimilarity which indicated the proportion of women to men.When asked to respond to the statement whether family responsibility inhibited women to perform leadership task in school, 5(33.3%) strongly agreed, 6(40%) agreed, while 1 (6.7%) refuted it.

The respondents were further asked to indicate whether shortage of experience held women back from top headship positions, 2(13.3%) of the respondents agreed strongly, 5 (33.3%) agreed while 3(20%) refuted. When asked to respond whether women usually

4.7 Actions needed in order to improve female teacher participation

The respondents were further asked to state the actions in order to improve female teacher participation in headship position.

Table 4.11: Actions needed to improve equal participation to headship positions

Statement	Sex	Yes		No		Total
		Freq	%	Freq	%	
Affirmative action to be used to correct gender imbalance	M	13	16.3	2	2.5	15
	F	43	53.8	22	27.5	65
	T	56	70	24	30	80
Improve job sharing	M	8	10	7	8.8	15
	F	33	41.3	32	40	65
	T	41	51.3	39	48.8	80
Providing special programme	M	11	13.8	4	5	15
	F	29	36.3	36	45	65
	T	40	50	40	50	80
Strengthen mentor system	M	10	12.5	5	6.3	15
	F	34	42.5	31	38.8	65
	T	44	55	36	45	80
Develop network	M	5	6.3	10	12.5	15
	F	25	31.3	40	50	65
	T	30	37.5	50	62.5	80
Redefining staff roles	M	6	7.5	9	11.3	15
	F	31	38.8	34	42.5	65
	T	37	46.3	43	53.8	80
Eliminating negative stereotype	M	12	15	3	3.8	15
	F	45	56.3	20	25	65
	T	57	71.3	23	28.8	80
Reducing resistance	M	8	10	7	8.8	15
	F	34	42.5	31	38.8	65
	T	42	52.5	38	47.5	80
Frequent training	M	12	15	3	3.8	15
	F	48	60	17	21.3	65
	T	60	75	20	25	80

Analysis in Table 4.11 presents the frequencies and percentage of the respondents as pertains to the actions needed in order to improve female teacher participation to headship positions. The respondents were asked to indicate whether affirmative action policies could used to correct gender imbalance and to improve equal participation to headship positions in schools,56(70%) supported, 24(30%) refuted. Makura (2000) supported that it is also a mandatory requirement in Kenya that at least 30 percent of all government employment opportunities be reserved for women. It was further revealed that out of 15 male respondents 13(16.25%) supported, only 2(2.5%) refuted.

The results of this analysis further indicated that, of the sampled population 41(51.25%) supported that improved job sharing could improve female participation while 39(48.75%) refuted. The findings in Table 4.12 also indicated that both male and female agreed that providing special program would improve female teacher participation and were at the same level at (50%). Several studies had demonstrated that women and men were not treated equally at work even if they possessed the same qualification and were hired to perform the same job (Reskin and Phipps, 1988).

When asked whether developing network would improve female teacher participation in headship position 30(37.5%) supported while 50(62.5%) refuted. When the respondents were asked to indicate whether redefining staff roles would improve female participation in headship positions 37(46.25%) said yes, while 43(53.75%) refuted it. When asked whether eliminating negative stereotype would improve female teacher participation 12(15%) of male, 45(56.25%) of female supported, while 23(28.75%) refuted it.

When asked whether reducing resistance to change would improve participation, 42 (52, 5%) of the respondents supported while 38(47.5%) refuted. According to Greene (1985) inequalities and exclusion were maintained by a firm belief in the stereo type accorded to gender roles in society but also by a willingness to accept change towards a more equitable position for men and women. The respondents were further asked whether frequent training would improve female participation and it was noted that 60(75%) of the respondents supported while 20(25%) refuted the statement. According to this analysis most respondents supported that frequent training was necessary in order to improve equal participation in headship positions.

4.8: Interview Findings

Interview method administered to headteachers and TAC tutors cited several factors ranging from social cultural, family role, gender stereo type, phobia, inferiority complex, and lack of confidence as some of the gender related factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions. Some cited that female teachers shy away from responsibilities and faced negative gender stereotype. When asked whether marital status affected female teachers in their career development Most of them cited that they put marriage and family first and that heading schools would break up their families hence they took up the responsibilities after their children were fully grown up. Head teachers and TAC tutors interviewed about their views on the appointment of head teachers, apparently most of them acknowledged that there was a policy but not practiced in the municipality. Some female head teachers interviewed claimed that there was tribalism, nepotism and corruption of which they had to use money or fulfill sexual

demands from the personnel interviewing teachers in order to be the head teacher hence this discourages many from aspiring for these posts when advertised. Further the female teachers interviewed claimed that they shy away from responsibilities and this affected them as they progress in their careers. When asked whether management course was vital in their appointment they claimed that female teachers had attended management course and that there were other hidden factors blocking them from heading schools. Interview findings also supported this statement that unfair promotion procedure contributed to female under representation in schools.

When asked whether there was equal representation of teachers in the municipality, the study showed that women were the majority of the teaching workforce but were underrepresented at the top positions this was reflected by the document analysis given by the municipal education office. Head teachers and TAC tutors interviewed about their views on the appointment of head teachers, apparently most of them acknowledged that there was a policy but not practiced in the municipality. Some female head teachers interviewed claimed that there was tribalism, nepotism and corruption of which they had to use money or fulfill sexual demands from the personnel interviewing teachers in order to be the head teacher hence this discourages many from aspiring for these posts when advertised. TAC (tutors) and head teachers interviewed on their views on whether they received back up from the stakeholders, they cited that they were supported but not hundred percent subject to how K.C. P.E exams performed and how their schools was ranked according to performance in the municipality.

When asked about the actions needed in order to improve equal participation in headship position, interview findings revealed that if promotions, appointment were to be done on merit then this could help to improve equal participation in headship positions. They further suggested re-considering quota system, capacity building, encourage female teachers to vie for such positions, encourage mentor system, change the culture and creating gender awareness at all levels further the ministry of education to provide of special Programmes for women, affirmative action to favour women's access and participation while awaiting a genuine change in attitude towards full gender equality, institutional and governmental support through clear and effective policies in schools.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents summary of the findings, conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for further research

5.1: Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools. The study also sought to find out the gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions and determine whether the criteria required in the appointment of teachers into headship positions was practiced in schools as stipulated by TSC. The study further established the stakeholders' perception towards women in headship positions and it further sought to find out actions needed in order to improve equal participation in headship position in primary schools.

5.2 Discussions of the findings

Discussions of the finding were illustrated as per the research questions and objectives and were stated below;

5.2.0 Gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions

The study found out that the gender related factors' contributing to under representation of women in school headship was lack of support from family to national level.From the

statistics female teachers under representation was not only common in Eldoret municipality but a general trend in most Kenyan urban schools. Most female head teachers interviewed argued that headship responsibilities required time which was limited to them because of the role they played in the family hence marriage and motherhood had been seen to slow down the process of career advancement among them hence affirmative action would help improve inequalities in leadership positions.

5.2.1 Effects of social cultural factors on female teachers participation in headship positions

The study found out that dual role of women in families as mothers and wives had contributed negatively towards their career progression as they were seen as care givers but not leaders and this had affected them in their career development. Interview findings further revealed that women put family and motherhood as first priority hence missing out on leadership tasks in schools.

5.2.2 Criteria required in the appointment of teachers into headship positions in schools

The study found out that Education policy provided equal opportunities for both male and female in terms of recruitments and promotions but from the findings women were still unable to access top leadership due to unfair promotion procedure and the element of male preference at the top positions in schools. Those interviewed claimed that, the policy on recruitment and promotions was well stipulated but not clearly followed in the municipality further, the practice was usually marred by inconsistencies, favoritism, unfair procedure and discrimination hence this had contributed to under representation of

female teachers to headship positions in most schools. Further in the study female teachers were qualified academically and professionally just like men and were capable of heading schools despite the fact that inequality still exist in promotion and career advancement. It also indicated that women learned and performed just like or even better men academically.

5.2.3 Stakeholders' perception towards women in headship position

The study further revealed that societal perception towards women in headship positions played a key role in the appointments of leaders in schools. According to the study, stakeholders' rated female teachers' performance as good and were capable of performing tasks just like men. TAC (tutors) and head teachers interviewed agreed that they were supported by stake holders subject to how their schools performed in national exams irrespective of gender. From the above study, women performed tasks just like men hence eliminating negative gender stereo type would help increase female teacher participation to headship positions in schools.

5.2.4 Actions needed in order to improve female teacher participation in headship position

The study findings revealed that although family and motherhood was the main cause of under representation, it was however noted motherhood was the kingpin that helped any country to grow economically and to have adequate manpower needed for the success of any nation thus policy makers to ensure equality in all circles and to reconsider flexibility

of policies to suit both genders. From the findings further, frequent training on leadership skills could help improve female teacher participation in headship positions in schools.

5.3 Conclusion

Based on the findings, the following conclusions emerged;

That low participation of female teachers in headship positions was attributed to lack of support starting from the family to national level hence low career progression of women. Dual role of women in families as mothers and wives had contributed negatively towards their career progression as they were seen as care givers but not leaders. The educational policy on recruitment and appointments provided equal opportunities for male and female however the finding in this study revealed that unfair promotion procedures and discrimination affected women as they advance in their career. Findings in this study further revealed that societal perception towards women in headship positions played a role and that eliminating negative gender stereotype could help increase female teacher participation to headship positions. The research revealed that frequent training on leadership skills could help improve equal participation in headship positions.

5.4: Recommendations

From the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made;

- Affirmative action to be put in place in order to correct gender imbalance and to guarantee women opportunities for participation in school headship positions and policy making.

- Establishing support system and accommodation of flexible working hours in school institutions would help women learn how to balance between the dual role and leadership tasks.

- The policy makers to ensure that appointments and recruitment procedures transparent in order to avoid inconsistencies and blame game.
- Policy options to be formulated to mitigate the marginalization of women in order to reduce negative gender stereo type and to increase female teacher participation to headship positions.
- Frequent training on leadership skills to be reinforced by the Ministry of Education.

5.5 Suggestion for further research

It was of interest to note that many respondents agreed that family obligation and motherhood contributed to a slow pace in career advancement for women and as such these were the areas for further research:

Importance of affirmative action in improving female teacher participation into leadership positions.

A study of similar nature in middle colleges can be of great help.

Mainstreaming gender issues in recruitment and promotion procedures

Impact of frequent leadership training skills on teachers' participation to headship positions.

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Appendix I

Teachers Questionnaire

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers' in headship position in primary schools. This questionnaire was to be completed by teachers.

SECTION A

Personal and Occupational Data

Instructions

Please fill in the appropriate answer in the space or tick (√) in the space provided

1. Gender Male ( ) Female ( )

2. Age

( ) 50 and above ( ) 49-45 ( ) 44-40 ( ) 39-35 ( ) 34-30

3. Marital Status

( ) Single ( ) Married ( ) Separated ( ) Divorced ( ) Other

4. What is your professional qualification?

( ) Masters Level ( ) Graduate ( ) Diploma ( ) P 1

5. For how long have you been teaching?

( ) 16yrs and above ( ) 6-15yrs ( ) 0-5yrs

6. What is your present designation?

( ) Deputy Head teacher ( ) Senior teacher ( ) Assistant teacher

7. How long have you been in this school?

( ) 15yrs and above ( ) 6-14yr ( ) 12yrs and below

Section B: Gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions.

Table 4.7: Gender related factors

8a) The following items relate to gender related factors contributing to under representation of women in school headship positions. Some of the reasons are cultural or social. Please tick the statement that agrees with the understanding of the problem.

STATEMENT	Very large extent	Large extent	Undecided	Small extent	Very small extent
Women lacked support from the family level to national level					
Female teachers were undervalued because of the African culture					
Gender stereotype was one of the causes of under representation among women					
The split between work and family obligation adversely affected women's promotion					
cultural stereotyping					
Lackof`professional commitment by women					

Effects of social cultural factors on female teacher participation in headship positions

8b).The following items on the effects of social cultural factors on female teacher participation in headship positions contributed to under representation in headship positions.

STATEMENT	Very large extent	Large extent	Undecided	Small extent	Very small extent
Societal attitude and values					
Women were discriminated against in all realms of society					
Women tend not to progress in their career due to the role they play in the family					
Spouse attitude					
Dual role affected women in career development					
Gender stereotyping					

Section C: Criteria required in the appointment of teachers into headship positions

The following items relate to the criteria required in the appointment of head teachers in schools, please tick the statement that agrees with the situation in your school.

STATEMENT	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Disagree
Education policy on recruitment and promotion of teachers provided equal opportunities					
The conditions needed in the appointment was not practiced in the municipality					
Female teachers had not attended a primary school management course(PRISM)					
Unfair promotion procedure was the cause of female under representation					
Female teachers were not conversant with trends in Education					

Women tend to had less education					
Female teachers were discriminated against					

Section D: Actions needed in order to improve equal participation to headship positions.

What policy actions do you think could be done in order to improve female teacher participation in headship positions in the municipality?

Affirmative action policies to be monitored ☐

Improved job sharing ☐

Providing special programmes on career planning and opportunities ☐

Strengthening a mentor system within educational administrative preparatory progress ☐

Develop women network of relationship ☐

Redefining of staff roles and responsibility ☐

Eliminating Negative Gender Stereotypes ☐

Reducing resistance to change ☐

Frequent training on leadership skills ☐

Thank you for taking your time to complete this questionnaire.

Appendix II: Stake holder‘s Questionnaire

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship position in schools. This questionnaire is to be completed by committee members.

Section A: How do you rate female teachers ‘performance in your school?

Please fill in the appropriate answer in the space or tick (√) in the space provided

1. How do you rate female teachers’ performance in your school?

( ) Very good ( ) Good ( ) fair

Section B: Perception towards women in headship position in the municipality

2) The following items relate to the stakeholders’ perception towards women in headship position, please tick the statement that agrees with situation in your school.

STATEMENT	S A	A	U	S D	D
Male head teacher were better administrators than female head teachers.					
Family responsibilities inhibited women perform leadership tasks in schools.					
Shortage of experience held women back from top headship positions					
Women usually had low esteem to head schools					

Appendix III

An Interview Schedule for Municipal Education Officers (TAC tutors) and Head teachers

All information will be kept confident

1. What is your marital status? Do you think this status affects your career development?

2. What is your Educational qualification?

3. How does one qualify to be the head teacher in the municipality?

4. Do you think there is a criteria required in the appointments of teachers into headship positions in the municipality?

5. In your opinion, what are some of the gender related factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in schools?

6. Do head teachers receive the back up from the stakeholders?

7. What is the representation of both men and women in teaching and administration in Eldoret Municipality?

8. In your opinion, do you think the appointment of head teachers in the municipality justified?

9. What do think are the actions needed in order to improve female teacher participation in headship positions?

Appendix IV: Introductory Letter

Catherine Chelagat Barmao,

Moi University,

Faculty of Education,

P.O Box 3900,

Eldoret.

November, 2009

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/ Madam,

I am a second year student of Moi University pursuing Master of Philosophy degree in Educational Administration. I am carrying out a research on

"factors contributing to under representation of female teachers to headship positions".

This is in partial fulfillment of the requirement of the award of the degree. I therefore request you to complete the attached questionnaire. The information given will be treated confidential and that it will only be used for the intended purpose.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation

Yours faithfully,

Catherine Barmao

EDU/PGA/26/2008

APPENDIX: V: Reliability Statistics

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Gender	98.25	206.467	.116	.710
Age	95.75	198.333	.365	.700
Marital	97.88	207.317	-.018	.713
Profqualificat	96.19	207.363	.000	.711
Experience	98.06	204.863	.244	.708
Designation	97.19	207.363	.000	.711
Duration	97.50	215.067	-.565	.724
Wolacsupport	98.13	181.583	.637	.677
Feundervalued	97.50	179.200	.699	.673
Genderstereo	97.56	192.929	.368	.696
Famobligation	96.44	152.529	.269	.753
Sexstereotyp	97.19	198.829	.221	.705
Malebetter	95.69	194.496	.410	.696
Femlacselconf	96.88	196.917	.239	.704
Womdiscrimin	97.06	185.396	.568	.683
Familyrole	96.75	191.933	.395	.695
Womdislkresp	96.13	207.717	-.054	.720
Studelacment	96.88	191.983	.318	.698
Dualrole	97.38	182.250	.600	.679
Felackmentors	96.81	181.629	.496	.683
Educatpolicy	98.31	209.429	-.102	.721
Condntpractic	98.00	205.600	-.017	.722
Femntprism	96.50	194.000	.268	.701
Unfairpromotio	98.19	213.496	-.229	.726

Femleseducat	96.56	201.863	.088	.713
Femntcontrend	96.13	190.383	.507	.690
Femdiscrimin	96.38	194.383	.253	.702
Kenypolitwil	96.94	193.796	.235	.704
Affirmaction	98.88	201.717	.398	.704
Improvejobsh	98.56	203.463	.256	.707
Specialprgramm	98.75	207.667	-.038	.713
Strementsyst	98.69	200.496	.451	.702
Womnetwork	98.50	209.333	-.159	.716
Elimingendrst	98.88	205.450	.123	.710
Redefingstarle	98.63	199.050	.557	.700
Redrestochge	98.75	199.800	.504	.701
Frequtraining	98.94	207.529	-.028	.713

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.711	37