

**WOMEN REPRESENTATION AND PARTICIPATION IN
ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF KABARNET
ZONE, BARINGO COUNTY, KENYA**

BY

MARGARET W. LANGAT

**A RESEARCH THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN HUMAN
RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT, DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT
STUDIES SCHOOL OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

**MOI UNIVERSITY
ELDORET, KENYA**

JUNE, 2013

DECLARATION

Declaration by the candidate

This research thesis is my original work and has not been presented to this or any other university for the award of a degree.

Margaret W. Langat: Signature..... Date.....

Declaration by Supervisors

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as university supervisors

Mr. Nicholas Serem: Signature..... Date.....
 Department of Development Studies
 School of Human Resource Development
 Moi University

Prof. Okumu Bigambo W: SignatureDate
 Department of Communication Studies
 School of Human Resource Management
 Moi University

DEDICATION

I dedicate my thesis to my grandsons: Delvin and Leon who in my old age have made me proud. They should take on the banner and may God bless them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost I must thank my Almighty God for giving me strength and courage to undertake this course. I am also grateful to Moi University whose facilities were there for my use; my departmental lecturers who during my course work made me realize my research problem and my supervisors: Mr. Serem and Professor Bigambo who offered invaluable professional guidance as I did this research paper. My sincere thanks to my immediate supervisor and colleagues in my workplace, for their advice and their unfathomable willingness to stand in for me, my children: Rodgers, Josphat, Freciah and Janice, who reassured me that I would make it to the end and last but not least, I must thank my pastors: Reverend Cherop and Akiru for presenting me to The Lord in prayers.

ABSTRACT

Gender responsive initiatives, such as gender equity advocacy campaigns and studies have been carried out to minimize gender inequality but with little success. The study sought to determine women representation and participation in organizational leadership. It had to find out the stakeholders' views on women leadership, establish why women do not take up leadership positions, assess the benefits of gender equity and establish what would enhance a gender equity culture. The study is set to benefit women aspiring to be leaders as they would be able to identify the constraints involved and work out ways and means to overcome them upon which this study shall provide in its findings. The transformational leadership theory guided the study. To collect data, a survey design was chosen, used questionnaire and an interview schedule which were validated by research experts and their reliability of 0.75 established using Pearson's moment correlation test in a pilot study. From a target population of 660 community representatives and teachers, a sample size of 30% (200) was drawn and stratified, purposive and simple random sampling techniques were used. To analyze the collected data, descriptive and inferential qualitative and quantitative techniques were used. After the analysis, the study's findings were that there were fewer women in leadership positions as compared to men, the stakeholders' perceptions on women leadership were that women can make leaders and they were solely responsible for installing leaders whether men or women, though women leadership qualities are complimentary to men's. From the findings the recommendations were that the stakeholders should ensure that during recruitment or deployment to leadership positions, women are given an equal chance or use the affirmative action to the letter, women should cultivate their self-esteem to be able to compete with men for leadership positions and the executive leaders and other policy makers should be visionary and capture as many gender equity positive benefits to remain afloat. Lastly the study gave a further study on the comparative study of gender level of leadership performance in organizations.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	2
DEDICATION	3
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	4
ABSTRACT.....	5
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	5
LIST OF TABLES	9
LIST OF FIGURES	10
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS	11
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	13
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	4
1.3 Objectives of the study.....	4
1.4 Research questions of the study	5
1.5 Scope and Limitation of the study	5
1.6 Significance of the study.....	6
1.7 Justification of the study	7
1.8 Theoretical Framework.....	7
CHAPTER TWO	9
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1 Overview.....	9
2.2 Organizations’ stakeholders’ perception on women leadership	9
2.2.1 The importance of effective leadership in an organization.....	10
2.2.2 Women qualities, traits and attributes for effective leadership.....	11
2.2.3 Women and effective organizational leadership styles, qualities, skills and roles.....	13
2.2.4 Theories and types of organizational leadership.....	16
2.3 Constraints towards women Leadership	19
2.3.1 Gendered media in organizational leadership.....	19
2.3.2 Glass ceiling and its impact on women leadership	20

2.3.3 The culture's influence on gender equity.....	22
2.3.4 Religious explanation of gender inequality	23
2.3.5 Reproductive role and its appreciation of women leadership.....	24
2.3.6 Self-efficacy and women's aspirations for leadership.....	26
2.3.7 Patriarchal structures and women leadership.....	27
2.4 Benefits from gender equity culture	28
2.4.1 Women role models' contributions to gender equity.....	29
2.4.2 Gender equity by women movements and organizations	30
2.4.3 Policies and programmes towards gender equity.....	32
2.5 Feasible ways of creating a gender equity culture	34
2.6 Summary	36
CHAPTER THREE	37
3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	37
3.1 INTRODUCTION	37
3.2 Area of Study	37
3.3 Research design	37
3.4 Target population.....	38
3.5 Sampling Design and sample size.....	39
3.6 Data collection procedure	40
3.7. Data collection Instrument.....	40
3.8 Validity and Reliability of the research instruments.....	41
3.8.1. Validity	41
3.8.2. Reliability.....	42
3.9. Data analysis and presentation.....	42
CHAPTER FOUR.....	44
4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	44
4.1 An overview.....	44
4.2 Data Findings Presentation	44
4.2.1 Distribution of the target population.....	44
4.2.2 Gender, age, academic qualifications and leadership categories of the participants.....	48
4.2.3 The stakeholders' perception on women leadership.....	52
4.2.4 Stakeholders' participation.	52

4.2.5 Methods used to install leaders	54
4.2.6 The stakeholders' acceptability of women leadership	56
4.2.7 Stakeholders' reasons for supporting or not supporting women leadership	58
4.2.8 Constraints' effect on women representation and participation in organizational leadership.	60
4.2.9 Benefits accrued from gender equity	64
4.2.10. Feasible ways of improving gender equity in organizational leadership...	69
4.3 Qualitative analysis of data collected through interview	74
4.3.1 Stakeholders' perception on women leadership	74
4.3.2 Constraints that are responsible for gender inequality in leadership	75
4.3.3 Benefits that would accrue from gender equity	76
4.3.3 Feasible ways of creating and improving a gender equity culture.....	77
CHAPTER FIVE	78
5.0 SUMMARY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.	78
5.1 Introduction.....	78
5.2 Summary of findings.....	79
5.2.1 Participants' Response	79
5.2.2 Stakeholders' perception on women leadership	79
5.2.3 The constraints' effects on women leadership.....	80
5.2.4 Benefits that would accrue from gender equity culture	81
5.2.5 The feasible ways of creating a gender equity culture.....	82
5.3 Conclusions.....	82
5.4 Recommendations of the study	83
5.5 Areas for further research	83
REFERENCES:	84
APPENDIX A:DOCUMENT ANALYSIS	87
APPENDIX B:QUESTIONNAIRE	89
APPENDIX C:INTERVIEW SCHEDULE	92
APPENDIX D:LETTER OF RESEARCH PERMIT	94
APPENDIX E:BARINGO COUNTY MAP.....	95

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Target population.....	39
Table 3.2: Sample size	39
Table 4.1: Distribution of target population as per gender, leadership categories and academic level.....	45
Table 4.2: Distribution of target population as per gender, leadership categories and age bracket.....	43
Table 4.3: A chi-square test of the effects of gender, academic level and age bracket on leadership	47
Table 4.4: Distribution of participants per gender, age, academic qualifications and leadership categories.....	49
Table 4.5: A chi-square test on the effects of gender, academic qualifications and age on female leadership	51
Table 4.6: Stakeholders' participation by gender and leadership categories.....	52
Table 4.7: Distribution of methods by gender, age and academic levels	55
Table 4.8: Stakeholders' acceptability of women leadership	57
Table 4.9: Stakeholders' reasons for or not supporting gender equity	58
Table 4.10: A chi-square test on the stakeholders' supportive and not supportive reasons influence on women leadership	60
Table 4.11: Distribution of constraints in terms of gender, age and academic qualification	61
Table 4.12: A chi-square test on the constraints and their effects on women leadership	63
Table 4.13: Distribution of positive and negative benefits accrued from gender equity	66
Table 4.14: A chi square test on the benefits that would accrue from gender equity ..	68
Table 4.15: Feasible ways to create equity culture by gender, age and academic levels	71
Table 4.16: A chi-square test for independence to establish associations between women leadership and possible ways to cultivate the culture of gender equity	73

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Leadership participation	53
Figure 2: Positive benefits accrued from gender equity on.....	65
Figure 3: Negative benefits accrued from gender equity on.....	66
Figure 4: Feasible ways to create and promote gender equity culture.....	71

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Advocacy: Arguing for gender equity in every possible, occasion using every possible means in order to bring change and resource allocation necessary for its implementation.

Affirmative Action: Positive discrimination, being gender responsive or sensitive. A policy developed to enhance gender equity.

Attributes: Learnt skills /characteristics/behaviors meant for a certain group of people: either women or men.

Constitution: The system of laws about gender equity, basic principles that a state, a country or an organization is governed by. This study refers to the former and current constitutions of Kenya.

Convention: An official agreement between countries mainly prohibiting gender disparity.

Diversity: Appreciation of a wide range of people that include sex, religion, intelligence, tribe, race, age, talent in organizations.

Gender parity this is a numerical concept referring to equal number of girls, and women, boys and men representation and participation relative to their respective numbers in the population.

Mommy tracks: Reduce women's occupational goals to balance work and family obligations or establish their own business with greater control over working conditions.

Participation: It refers to active involvement in enrolment, retention, progression, performance and transition.

Policy: A policy that takes into account the needs of women, men, boys and girls.

Women also seek to transform the existing gender relations to be more equitable through the redistribution of resources and responsibilities.

Procrastination: Deliberate delay for a cause of action. Gender equity has been deliberately delayed in implementation

Representation: Acting for, women who act on behalf of others in top leadership position in organizations.

Sticky floor: Replaced 'glass ceiling' that locks more women into the lowest levels of the occupational therapy and only very few ascend to top levels.

Tokenism: It refers to the appointment or promotion of 1 or 2 outsiders (women) in the organizations to high positions for display and without great power in the organization.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAWORD	Association of African Women for Research & Development
BOG	Board of Governors.
CBO	Community Based organization
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
DPM	Directorate of Personnel management
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FBO	Faith Based organization
FIDA	Female Information Development association
GFP	Gender Focal Points
IFWL	International Federation for Women Lawyers
IPERSWEC	Investment Program for the Economic Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NGDP	National Gender and Development Policy
NGDC	National Gender and Development Commission
NGDS	National Gender and Development Secretariat
NGI	National Gender Issues
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
NECWD	National Education Centre for Women in Democracy
PTA	Parents Teachers Association
SMC	School Management Committee
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
UNC	United Nations Conference
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Educational Fund
UNWD	United Nations Women's Decade
WCEFA	World Conference on Education for All
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the background information to this study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, justification of the study, limitation of the study and the theoretical framework

1.1 Background of the study

In any organization, gender inequality is so prevalent that a study on gender equity is not only a critical but also a contemporary issue that should be given the attention it deserves because of the current global labor market competitiveness. For an organization to remain afloat there has been the realization of workforce diversity and the human resource (workers) as the most valuable asset in any organization. It has, therefore, become imperative to study about the behavior of women workers in the modern competitive world labor market. Hence, women leadership in any organization would not only be an inevitable study but also a reality to reckon with. Therefore, an insight into stakeholders' views on women leadership, constraints in achievement of women leadership, benefits of gender equity and ways of inculcating gender equity culture women are some of the pertinent issues.

In trying to advocate for gender equity, some international conventions such as Elimination of all forms of discrimination Against Women, Women's Rights, Women in Development, were ratified and even made law in some countries like Kenya. National conferences like United Nations Women's Decade, 1975-1985 have been held. Association of African Women Research & Development centers and women movements like Maendeleo Ya Wanawake have been mounted. Emerging scholarly

theories such as feminist/gender have been perpetuated while strategic and policy frameworks such as National Gender have been developed with an aim of achieving gender equity but with little success.

To realize the Millennium Development Goal Number 3 “promoting gender equality and empowering women by 2015”, some identified gender related interventions have to be developed and women’s equal rights have to be exercised in the household, the workplace and in the political arena. The current constitution of Kenya, (2010 paragraph 27) states that “women and men have the right to equal treatment” and “to give full effect to the realization of the rights”, “the state shall take legislative and other measures to redress any disadvantage suffered by individuals or groups because of past discrimination”. It has gone on to state that it will do this by “implementing the principle that no more than two-thirds of the members of elective or appointive bodies shall be the same gender”. However, Barasa, L. (2011) reported “Women MP’s quota hard to enforce” a controversy on how to achieve the 2/3 gender balance.

Kenya is a signatory to the 1984 Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women which should be domesticated fully. To prove this Odicoh, et al (2002) referred to the former constitution of Kenya for some gender issues: On succession, they said that men have been automatically been elected and nominated to the presidential and his run mate seats, marginalizing women in the process - this translates into a political culture of unfair appointments and succession. In 1963 and in 1992, the Constitution was promulgated and revised by men alone. Hence, while suggesting some opportunities for genuine democratic openings; they instead created governing structures that are male dominated, patronizing and

insensitive to women. However, the same constitution reflects a value system that disempowers women (who constitute a population of over 50%) by allocating only 1/3 representation to them. This inhibits the women's' active contribution in social, political and economic spheres. The Gender Data Sheet (2005) revealed that in 2004, the labor force participation for males was 87.5% while the females' was 78. This meant that the labor force participation for males was not only higher but also improved significantly more than that of females. This may result into fast tracks where women forego motherhood or delay child bearing if there are no arrangements for young mothers or mommy tracks where women reduce occupational goals to balance work with family obligations. In trying to curb these constraints and achieve gender equity, The Annual Progress Report (August 2006) enumerated some organizations e.g. The Women's Bureau, National Gender Commission, National Education Centre for Women in Democracy, Women's Political Alliance-Kenya, that have been established to deal with women issues and particularly gender equity.

Besides, Odico, et al (2002) asserted that in 1997 and 2002 elections, there were deliberate efforts to increase participation of Kenyan women in parliament since in 1997 there were only 9 and in 2006 there were 22. They also confirmed that the Kenyan women have a rich history of struggle to realize fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual. Hence, the 29% participation of women in the constitution negotiations at the Bomas of Kenya, Safari Park, and outstandingly at Ufungamano House, provided a big leap for women but this participation is still lower as compared to the urgency and magnitude of gender equity problem. However there is still a lot of male dominance, and therefore the transformational gender policies need to be readdressed.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Though there has been an indication of upward trend to increase the number of women in decision-making positions, glaring disparities are still there. Equal representation and participation of women and men will ensure that women's experiences, knowledge and perspectives are mainstreamed at all levels of political, social, economic and cultural sectors. The leaders who include principals, deputy principals, heads of departments, head teachers, deputy head teachers, senior teachers and community representatives, are appointed to lead schools by The Ministry of Education. However, according to (Educational Management Information Statistics, January, 2011) Kabarnet Zone of Baringo County, there are more men in top leadership positions while female counterparts are floor sticking.

Some of the universally recorded constraints in gender equality are; glass ceiling, the media, culture, low self-efficacy, reproductive roles, patriarchy structure, religion etc (Bandura, 1987, Kwesiga, 2002 e.t.c.). These constraints are responsible for the different wage, position/occupation and representation and participation in gender leadership in any organization. Thus gender inequality is a deliberate effort that can be done away with and hence the reason for the study. The study then wished to advocate for gender equity by exploring its current situation, existing knowledge, do statistical analysis, give findings and recommendations.

1.3 Main Objectives of the study

The study was motivated by challenges in women representation and participation in organizational leadership. In the world today it is a pertinent issue to overcome gender inequality.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives of the study

- i. To find out the stakeholders' perceptions on women leadership.
- ii. To establish constraints effects on women from taking up leadership position
- iii. To assess the benefits that will accrue from gender equity
- iv. To determine feasible ways to enhance a gender equity culture in organizations.

1.4 Research questions of the study

The following research questions were derived from the objectives of the research which include:

- i. How do women become leaders in schools of Kabarnet Zone?
- ii. Which strategies should be put into place to ensure that constraints to women leadership are done away with?
- iii. What can motivate any organization to have an equal number of women as men in leadership positions?
- iv. What should be done to create and promote a gender equity culture in any organization?
- v. What is the proportion of women leaders to that of men in schools in Kabarnet Zone?

1.5 Scope of the study

The study was interested in investigating on gender equity in organizations. It therefore decided to look into the women workers in organizational leadership and more specifically wished to determine the women representation and participation in

leadership of organizations. The study was conducted between the months of June 2011 to October 2012. The researcher adopted a survey research design.

1.6 Limitation of the study

This study will be limited in that some respondents may fear to fill the questionnaire. This may deny the researcher the opportunity to collect data from some of them, to overcome the problem the researcher may be forced to convince them that the information needed is for education purpose only. Evidently respondents may be suffering from empathy, as they feel that whatever their suggestions, would not be taken seriously and therefore could not see why they should contribute.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study was undertaken to benefit the following:

The government would realize that the gender sensitive initiatives, reforms and strategies that it had developed to combat gender disparities. This is because the study will indicate on how women have not yet taken the 1/3 let alone an equal number of leadership positions as men.

Women aspiring to be leaders would be able to identify the constraints involved and work out ways and means to overcome them. Women activists would also use the findings to promote, develop and advise women into leadership.

Other researchers and scholars would use this knowledge in their efforts to seek further knowledge. The study would be relevant to anyone who looks forward to positive change for women workers and gender equity in organizations.

1.7 Justification of the study

This study was prompted by the Baringo County schools concern that women's representation and participation in organizational leadership is minimal though different efforts have been put in place to eradicate women discrimination. There is also a concern that with free primary and secondary school education, leadership skills will be imparted equally to both boys and girls. Moreover the wish of the researcher to know the underlying problems that hinder women from taking organizational leadership due to discriminative factors and inadequate resources are other issues that led to researching on this topic.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

The study adopted transformational leadership theory developed by Downton (1993). It defines leadership as a process where a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the followers. It relied on empirical test when it asserted that there is very small difference between men's and women's styles of effective leadership. Women use more democratic and participatory styles and therefore more likely to use transformational leadership behaviors that are associated with contemporary notions of effective leadership. According to this theory, to sustain an organization, women's styles for leadership are the best.

This theory was used in order to guide the study on the woman as a worker and a leader in any given organization. The study used the theory's principles, practice or application and critique in relation to the study's topic and objectives. This established a

relationship between the existing frameworks of knowledge and the knowledge gap that the study wished to fill.

This theory helps to understand some of the benefits of gender equity and hence the question; if women workers are endowed with the assets as men are, why the existence of gender inequality? It also assists the study in trying to determine feasible ways of enhancing gender equity and particularly on the critique of effective leadership styles. It therefore makes the study worthy of its course since there is still only a tokenism in women organizational leadership and if the stakeholders are aware that women have these unique and up-to-date qualities styles of an effective leader, why don't they involve more women in organizational leadership?

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter looked into what other researchers and scholars have done on women representation and participation in organizational leadership. The researcher used the existing knowledge to verify how it has affected women leadership in organizations globally, in Kenya and more specifically in the public schools in Kabarnet Zone of Baringo District.

The main themes in this chapter included: the organizations stakeholders' perceptions on women leadership, constraints inhibited women from taking up leadership positions, the benefits that gender equity culture have been able to accrue or would accrue if fully put into place are highlighted and the last theme looked into the feasible ways of enhancing gender equity culture in organizations or institutions. This chapter was able to give an existing insight of what others have done before on the study's problem, its objectives and research questions, their findings and recommendations in order to establish the study's knowledge gap.

2.2 Organizations' stakeholders' perception on women leadership

This theme tried to explore some of the following questions. How do stakeholders view women leadership? Could the stakeholders' perception be contributory to gender inequality? What influenced the stakeholders to install or not install women leaders as compared to men? How did they install their leaders? Did they install women leaders

differently from men? It was therefore imperative to look into the following sub-themes.

2.2.1 The importance of effective leadership in an organization

The study intended to explore what is meant by leadership in organizations and its importance in developing and sustaining the organization by realizing its set goals and objectives. This information would go a long way in helping the study to establish whether women would measure up with men leaders if they took up leadership positions in organization.

Chemers, (2002) defined leadership as the process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. Leadership remains one of the most relevant aspects of the organizational context in setting and implementing agendas, identifying problems and initiating positive change rather than just managing change.

In trying to differentiate leadership from management Kotter, (1990) said that a successful manager must have leadership qualities but a successful leader does not have to be a manager. Torrington, (2005) further expressed that leadership is path finding (doing the right thing) while management is path following (doing things right). Wellington, (1999) asserted that leadership is an indispensable activity which every manager has to perform for directing the people working under him (the ability of a manager to inspire the subordinates to work with confidence and zeal).

Yukl, (2006) attributed the difficulties of evaluating leadership performance to multiple criteria and stakeholders who have conflicting interests. He continued to say that these interests are mere assumptions and beliefs because there is no empirical evidence in their support and are responsible for the gender gap found in leadership. He elaborated this by saying that it is believed that masculinity is a pre-requisite for leadership and therefore for a woman to lead, she must exhibit masculine behaviors. Eagly et al, (1990, 2001, and 2003) in their meta-analysis, empirically observed that though with different styles, women can lead as well as men.

The above has defined leadership, given its importance in any organization, differentiated it from management and finally proved that the stakeholders' beliefs can be countered by empirical evidence that women can measure to men's leadership effectiveness. The study then wants to establish why women are treated unequally and discriminated against in taking up leadership positions in organizations.

2.2.2 Women qualities, traits and attributes for effective leadership

This sub-topic tried to depict how women qualities, traits and attributes could be or not be applicable to effective leadership. This discussion led the study into understanding what influential factors could be used to measure the stakeholders' perception of women leadership. This helped the study to give an answer as to whether women can or cannot lead. It also exhibited some benefits that could be accrued if these women qualities, traits and attributes were synthesized into the appropriate leadership styles, qualities, skills and roles.

Caliper, (2005) said that women are more assertive and persuasive, passive, sensitive, supportive, flexible, have a strong will to take risks and since they portray a caring character, they are able to influence others to their point of view. Men on the other hand are aggressive, competitive, independent and muscular. Kanyoro, (2006) argued that domineering as a leadership style is no longer a popular best practice in organizations and therefore women's traits and qualities are admired for effective leadership. These qualities bring shared participative power, flexibility, nurturance and support of one another especially for team performance and organizational cohesiveness.

O'Brien, (May, 30th 2008) in an IQ test, men and women were shown to have about equal overall learning abilities though girls are good at language while boys are good in math and science and therefore complementally. Park, (2003) said that there are no gender differences in sociability, conformity, achievement, self-esteem, or verbal hostility and the overlap between the distributions is greater than the differences between them. Men's' and women's' qualifications, traits and attributes are ideal for effective leadership as they complement each other. Northouse, (2006) said that transformational leadership does not emphasize on traditional masculine traits but rather highlights feminine and androgynous traits.

If men's and women's leadership qualities, traits and attributes are complementally, why are women given an equal chance to lead and make decisions pertaining the organization? Doesn't an organization stand to lose what the women would offer if they relied on men leaders only? What really influenced the stakeholders' views on women leadership such that they deliberately left them out of organizational leadership?

2.2.3 Women and effective organizational leadership styles, qualities, skills and roles

On trying to relate women with effective organizational leadership styles, the study learnt that leadership styles were first pronounced by behavioral leadership theorists. Lewin et al (1939) had authoritarian, democratic and laissez faire as types of effective leadership styles. He continued to say that the authoritarian style is approved in periods of crisis but fails to win the 'hearts and minds' of their followers; the democratic style is more appropriate in situations that require consensus building and finally, the laissez-faire style is appreciated due to the degree of freedom it provides. Fiedler, (1967) asserted there is no ideal leadership style – all are effective if their leadership fits the situation.

Bearing in mind that any style of leadership depends on the situation, the women traits and attributes can be employed effectively especially where an authoritative and domineering attitudes are not required and the men's could adequately be employed when democratic and participatory attitudes are not required. If men's and women's styles are equally ideal for all leadership situations, what then hinders women from taking up equal leadership positions as men? If women's and men's styles are complementally, what are the stakeholders' attitudes towards women leadership?

Sagimo (2002) gives qualities of a good leader as being visionary, a good planner and organizer, able to guide, direct and control activities, be a role model/mentor/counselor/leader, communicate effectively, inquisitive/concerned, a good arbitrator/mediator/facilitator. He should also be able to motivate subordinates (create

an enabling environment) and display and exhibit virtues of e.g. honesty, frankness, kindness, diligence, flexibility, firmness with fairness, tolerance, confidence, accessibility, creativity, transparency and accountability. According to the TSC (June, 2007), the revitalized head of an institution should have the following qualities as: a team player, have public relations, have integrity, a good role model, have a strong sense of commitment to duty, be a facilitator and be proactive. Sagimo and TSC are in agreement on the effective leadership qualities. Women's qualities fit well with Sagimo's and TSC effective leadership qualities.

The study then explored; if women have qualities of a good leader, these qualities are left unexploited when women do not take leadership positions in organizations they work in. what are stakeholders' perspectives on women leadership if women meet effective leadership qualities? Why don't women take up an equal number of leadership positions as men?

Some of the different and supporting skills to leadership by Sutherland & Canwell (2004) are the ability to show measurable results, to inspire, to have the actuality, illusion of hard work, receive and give respect, ability to add value to the organization's processes, products and services, honestly give out responsibility, accepting and giving rewards associated with this responsibility. Yukl, (2006) added other effective skills as: persuasive, conceptual, diplomatic and tactful, interrelationship, creative and organized. Githiga, (2009) asserted that to be an effective leader, skills must be developed through training. To achieve the educational goal of Kenya, one of the general objectives is to make sure that every student attains leadership skills by the end of the learning period. Fiedler, (1967) asserted that a skill is that one that matches the situation it is applied to.

Having understood the skills that make a good leader and that every Kenyan who has been to school has effective leadership skills, it is just imperative for the study to establish whether there is a correlation between the skills and gender. Best and adequate leadership skills depend on the situation they are applied but not who applies them. If women and men have equally attained these skills and are able to equally apply them appropriately, why are there fewer women in organizational leadership than men? Sutherland et al (2004) enlisted the roles of a leader: a figure-head (who effectively represents the organization or a part of the organization to the external environment), an ambassador (where the leader acts as an advocate or a problem solver), a servant (which is based on the premise that the manager is a servant of the business, its customers, its employees, its products and its services), a maintenance leader (who attends to problem-solving continuous improvement, procedures and practices, and many handle crisis), role-model (who sets standards and attitudes and tries to influence the behavior of those who work in the organization), and ringmaster (who may adopt several different roles, as outlined above, and may have to shift the emphasis as needs arise). Hoopla, (1995) confirms that leaders are recognized by their capacity for caring for others, clear communication, and commitment to persist and though they have authority they must possess adequate personal attributes to match this authority.

The roles that are mentioned above are gender fitting. The study therefore was supposed to explore the reasons why women are then deliberately left out in organizational leadership and if they were equally represented and participated as men, could the organization benefit?

2.2.4 Theories and types of organizational leadership

A general insight into the theories and types of organizational leadership knowledge would help the researcher to understand leadership and relate it to gender equity in organizational leadership. The theories would offer an academic background and principle information for understanding and criticism purposes, while the types would depict how, which, why and when gender equity would be applicable in organizational leadership. Students of leadership developed several leadership theories: the trait theory of 1950s, behavioral styles theory 1960, situational theories 1980 and transformational theories 1990. The study tried to establish if these theories and types of leadership influenced organizational leadership such that no matter what or how many initiatives to eradicate gender disparities or possible benefits accrued from gender equity were established, women did not equal men in leadership or decision making positions.

The trait theory of leadership was developed or improved by: Zaccaro, (2007), Carlye, (1841) and Galton (1869) who tried to determine what made certain people (e.g. Abraham Lincoln, Gandhi and Napoleon) great leaders. Northouse (2007) identified the major leadership traits as intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability which make a leader different from a non-leader. Galton concluded that leadership was inherited and therefore leaders were born not developed. Hence, women who are genetically endowed with leadership should automatically become leaders. The study then wishes to understand the stakeholders' perceptions and also what other factors prevent such women to take up leadership positions in organizations.

Situational leadership theory developed by Spencer (1884) suggests that situations/times produce the person and not the other way round and that what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in largely dependent upon characteristics of the situation in which he functions. Fiedler's situational contingency theory asserts that there is no ideal leader- whether relationship-oriented or task oriented – all depends on the situation. It is just obvious that during the life of any organization, it faces different situations and therefore there should be different leaders who are capable of leading to combat different problems. Why should it be that men are always there to lead even when women would be in a better position to lead in that particular situation? What prevents them from taking up leadership then?

The functional theory according to Ackman & Walton (1986), Mcgrath (1962) and, Hackman & Wageman (2005), leadership is particularly useful in addressing specific leader behaviors expected to contribute to organizational or unit effectiveness and cohesion. There are five broad functions a leader performs when promoting organizational effectiveness: environmental monitoring, organizing subordinate activities, teaching and coaching subordinates, monitoring others and intervening actively in the group's work. A successful leader will always convince his followers by making them understand their vision and mission. The majority of the study's stratum of teachers is women. If one of the functions of a successful leader is being a teacher and a coach, then majority of female teachers should be leaders. Then the study wished to ascertain the stakeholders' perception on women teachers and establish why women teachers could not make leaders equal to the number of men teachers.

In trying to seek past knowledge on types of leadership, several were identified by different people at various times. Fred Fiedler, (1967) defined two general types of leaders: those who tend to accomplish the task by developing good relationships with the group (relationship-oriented) and those whose prime concern is carrying out the task itself (task-oriented). Carlye, (1841) described charismatic leadership as “divinely inspired gift’ which was viewed by theorists as the result of follower perceptions and attributions influenced by actual leader traits and behavior. Burns (1978) defined transactional leadership as where leaders monitor the performance of employees and reward those who perform well and take corrective actions when performance deviates from the standards. Northouse, (2006) asserted that transformational leadership, the leader motivates his followers and focuses on changing attitudes and assumptions of employees and building commitment for the organization. Gibb, (1970) said that formal leaders found in formal organizations (with clear objectives and organizational bureaucratic structure) are assigned or appointed to head administrative positions, earns a salary, enjoys a tenure, behaves impersonally with clients and his entry and subsequent advancement is by merit and seniority. Knowles, et al (1971), said that informal or emergent leaders are either found in formal or in informal organizations (whose objectives may or may not coincide with those of the formal organization but are personal). Instead of the authority of an appointed leader, the emergent leader has self-drive to influence or power to gain co-operation from others. Bens, (2006) equates Team leadership as an alternative of individual leadership to group leadership in which a group uses rotational leadership by sharing power equally on all issues. Hence, each team member has the opportunity to experience the elevated level of empowerment that synergizes staff and feels the shared success. Whether task or relationship oriented, charismatic, transactional, transformational, appointed, emergent or team type of

leadership, there is none that has a gender bias. The difference is on how each approaches leadership and the gender leadership gap still persists.

2.3 Constraints towards women Leadership

The world has changed over time due to the influence of western cultures, globalization, liberal labour market and competitiveness. Kenya and other parts of the world have to compete with the rest of the world and must do whatever they can to remain afloat. They have to diversify their talents and human resource. To be able to do this they must first establish their weaknesses and threats to be able to reinforce their strengths and opportunities. Their human resource must be diversified to tap all possible human assets. Hence, one of the study's objectives was to determine the constraints and establish how they could be contained to improve on gender equity.

2.3.1 Gendered media in organizational leadership

Of late the media is so diverse that with electric power, advanced communication channels, and technology the world has become a global village. Therefore the media is very instrumental in propagating gender equity but why hasn't it been able to eliminate gender inequality and have an equal number of women representation and participation in organizational leadership as men?

According to Anani, (1985) media helps create and reinforce a gender based on traditional views of men and women when often females and males are portrayed differently in television and film according to stereotypes. Boys and/or men are often casted as active and sexually aggressive persons while women are portrayed as quaint, passive and pretty. Julia, (2008) says that men portrayed in 'macho-man' image

disrespects females in order to show and prove their manliness where men do not do house work or care for children. The woman is portrayed sitting around and watching men do things for her because she is helpless and wanting guidance, given advice on how to look attractive to please men, cook for them and presented as sex objects to increase product sales. When media portrays the woman as one who cannot lead but waits to be led by men it discourages women to take a bold step and enter into organizational leadership.

Anani, (1985) gave a solution that more women should be employed in the media and provide requisite training for women to be involved in planning and implementation of what affects them. Hence, many more women have become broadcasters, contributed in bulletins on gender responsive policies and interviews of successful women role models on the media have been mounted. Therefore the media has not been left behind in advocating, lobbying and creating awareness for gender equity.

However, why is gender inequality still persistent? Therefore, the study investigated why women equal representation and participation in organizational leadership has remained mythical. Is media still a constraint and if it is what should be done to eliminate it to pave way for gender equity?

2.3.2 Glass ceiling and its impact on women leadership

This is when there is no apparent reason as to why women cannot take up existing leadership positions in an organization though they measure to men's ability. It clearly depicts itself when there is equal competition between men and women with equal qualifications, skills and experiences for open vacancies. The worst happens when

gender inequality is propagated by men to prevent women from taking these positions just because they are females.

Arthur, et al (2003) says that glass ceiling has other related terms e.g. brass ceiling, stained-glass ceiling, expatriate glass ceiling etc. It refers to situations where advancement of qualified person within the hierarchy of an organization is stopped at a lower level because of some form of discrimination. He continues to define it as 'ceiling' because there is a limitation blocking the upward advancement, and 'glass' (transparent) since the limitation is not immediately apparent and is normally an unwritten and unofficial policy. Catalyst (2003) enumerated some types of glass ceiling barriers which include: different pay for comparable work, sexual, ethnic, racial, religious discrimination or harassment in the work place, lack of family-friendly workplace policies, exclusion from informal networks, stereotyping and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities, failure of senior leadership to assume accountability for women's advancement, lack of role models, lack of mentoring and requiring long hours for advancement.

Hunt, et. al. (2004) said that glass ceiling tends to cripple the working woman from securing and obtaining the most powerful and prestigious jobs in the workplace. This barrier makes many women not only feel not worthy enough to be in these high-ranking positions, but also that their bosses neither take them seriously nor consider them as potential candidates.

De Cenzo, et al (1996) in his study, suggested that an organizational practice such as promoting from within and preparing individuals for top-level positions, will eventually shatter the glass ceiling. He also suggested that if societies put more pressure on corporations, in terms of boycotting products that they sell or not invest in the companies that are inadequately represented by women in leadership, then more cracks in the 'glass' are expected.

TSC EMIS (January 2011), depicts that the female teachers are equally qualified and experienced as the male teachers but due to glass ceiling very few of them ascend to leadership in their schools. With the above knowledge, the study, therefore tried to seek if glass-ceiling has remained a constraint to gender equity. It also tried to determine feasible ways to improve media for gender equity enhancement.

2.3.3 The culture's influence on gender equity

Culture is a way of life and is expressed in dressing, folklore, songs, dances, language, occupations, religion etc. It is passed from one generation to another through socialization and hence the existence of gender roles and stereotyping. Gender inequality has become part of culture and has persevered the age of times. The study was interested in understanding this gender inequality culture in order to determine feasible ways of creating a gender equity culture.

Eitzen, (2000) said that gender roles refer to the rights, responsibilities, expectations and relationships of men and women. Through culture the position of the woman in the society is determined. (Ndungu, April 2010 p.18) asserted that stereotypes are used to explain feminism and said "if one is an independent woman, then one must be morally

inept; and the Victorian tradition stressed that women are weak, cowardly and in need of strong masculine protection.” A proverb like ‘a wife is like a blanket, if you cover yourself with it, you itch and if you throw it away, you feel cold’, means that a woman is only there for convenience, otherwise she is insignificant and does not require much recognition. Northouse, (2006) said that empirical evidence reveals that gender stereotypes can significantly alter the perception and evaluation of female leaders and directly affect women aspiring to leadership positions. Torrington, (2006) asserted that for an organization to remain in the global labor market, it has to diversify its approaches by practicing multi-culture. This would mean engaging workers from different countries, ethnic groups, different gender, languages, religions etc. Though this may be possible, women may only be engaged for service jobs but not for leadership positions.

Therefore, the study implored why diversity as a new dimension of labor market competitiveness does not allow gender equity in organizational leadership. The study also tried to unearth the stakeholders’ views on women leadership in relation to the existing cultural beliefs.

2.3.4 Religious explanation of gender inequality

The biblical creation story has a lot of impact in gender differentiation and status. For example Genesis chapter 1 – 3 tells of the creation and fall of man. God created woman and man to complement each other but since Adam was created first, then Eve was under the dominion of Adam – women are men’s subjects. They both sinned but because Eve sinned first, the woman is blamed for all the calamities and scourges that before man e.g. earthquakes, H.I.V. & AIDS, the floods, and over-population which are

punishments for sin. Kabira, et al (1993) further said that women were punished more by having menstruation and painful child birth and therefore cannot make messengers of God. Hence women cannot lead nor participate in decision-making.

However, in the New Testament (Galatians 3), Paul preached that “there is neither Jew nor Greek, there is neither slave nor free, there is neither male nor female, for you are all one in Christ Jesus” and each one will be responsible for his own sins. Though the New Testament also propagates women’s submissiveness to men, it sheds some light on gender equity.

If each person is responsible for himself, then why is it that religion still inhibits women from leading? The study intended to evaluate why religion should be used to propagate gender inequality instead of gender equity. If the New Testament were to be used, of what benefit would gender equity be in organizational leadership?

2.3.5 Reproductive role and its appreciation of women leadership

This refers to sexual reproduction and reproductive health. The Wangu wa Makeri’s legend explains that women are so weak to lead when they are expectant and lactating and that this period was purposely designed to keep women off from organizational leadership hence propagating gender inequality. With modern technology, is reproductive role still a constraint to gender equity?

De Cenzo et al, (1996) cited a case of companies like General Motors. In trying to enact ‘The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978’, women were given two options; be sterilized and apply for jobs or don’t apply in order not to expose the unborn fetus to

toxic chemicals. Men were not given these conditions though in fertilization, they could also affect the fetus. Women were denied reproductive rights which include education about contraception, sexually transmitted infections, freedom from coerced sterilization and contraception, and protection from gender biased practices such as female genital mutilation. Khasiani, et al (1993) said that women were destined to non-payment for reproductive roles which were done at home and therefore prevented women from paid productive roles found outside home. This meant that women were not exposed to organizational leadership. Kabira, et al (1993) affirmed that even with the new development of having women in productive roles, they still suffer double workload. This implies that women may opt for lesser challenging work like leadership in order to be able to meet the demands of the two roles.

Of late men also have paternity leave but still enjoy being in leadership positions. Women are exposed to family planning methods and can therefore have control of their reproduction. Some organizations have provided day care centers to take care of children as their mothers work and there is also exclusion breastfeeding. Technology is giving women control over their lives by simplifying productive and reproductive tasks by providing telecommuting method of working.

Even with the use technology that eases productive and reproductive roles, women have not taken up equal organizational leadership positions as men. The study tried to establish the stakeholders' views on women leadership and determine feasible ways of overcoming gender inequality.

2.3.6 Self-efficacy and women's aspirations for leadership

Self-efficacy or self-esteem is a motivational drive or physiological need that unless it is fulfilled, the human worker is still in need. Women equal representation and participation in organizational leadership can only be attained if one has self-esteem which can be created in a person through exposure. To some extent women have been exposed to leadership skills. The study, therefore, wished to establish if self-esteem is still a hindrance to gender equity in organizational leadership.

Bandura, (1997) defined self-efficacy as one's ability and will to succeed in specific situations and continued to say that those who believe they can perform well – are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. Northouse, (2006) said that empirical evidence reveals that gender stereotypes can significantly alter the perception and evaluation of female leaders and directly affect women aspiring to leadership positions. This means that culture and religion are responsible for women's low self efficacy. This could also explain why women's organizational leadership chance of 1/3 or 33 % is not yet filled. Women should cultivate high and positive self-efficacy in order to self-actualize themselves into leadership.

Khasiani, et al (1993) said that women movements in Kenya helped women to have self-awareness of their potentiality in leadership. To achieve the educational goal, one of the learning objectives is to attain leadership skills so every learner at every level must be exposed to these skills. Though few, there have been women leaders who have

served as role models and hence exposing other women to leadership. However, women are still fewer than men in organizational leadership.

The study tried to determine feasible ways of enhancing self-efficacy in women for the improvement gender equity. This self-efficacy can only be attained through encouragement and appreciation by others. Therefore the stakeholders are very crucial in building of women's self-efficacy.

2.3.7 Patriarchal structures and women leadership

Organization structures are all about human relationships in order to perform through the processes. Healthy inter-relationships enhance performance but instances of gender inequality in an organization will hinder performance. Therefore patriarchy which depicts men ruling and undermining women brings strained relationships hence gender disparities and organizational poor performance. The study will try to determine if patriarchy has remained a constraint to women taking up organizational leadership and what can be done for it to pave way for gender equity.

Adeline, (2007) defined patriarchy as a social system in which the father or eldest male is the head of the household, having authority over women and children. Visranathan, et al (1997) referred to it as a system of male domination and female subordination in economy, society and culture that has characterized human history to the present day. They continued to give the consequences of patriarchy on women workers in organizations. They were: women have little or no motivation to acquire marketable skills, are prevented from acquiring such skills, are prevented to achieve employment or remuneration that these skills would otherwise command for a man and hence patriarchy systems are detrimental to the rights of women. They also cited that once

patriarchy is established, it percolates through many aspects of life and as long as patriarchy relations persist, there will be a tendency for male workers to assume the leadership positions. Kwesiga, (2002) asserts that no matter what self-esteem or qualification a woman has, patriarchy would prevent her from taking the challenge of leadership. The study therefore had the mandate to establish why patriarchy has remained a constraint to women organizational leadership and what can be done to eradicate it to give in to gender equity.

2.4 Benefits from gender equity culture

The study was interested in accessing existing information on what has been gained through women role models, women movements and organizations, policies and programmes in an effort to eradicate gender inequality. Human resource benefits to organizations are referred to. The positive ones could be assets (competencies, talents, experiences, knowledge, attitudes and abilities), aspiration to be leaders, equity of resources and opportunities, realization of rights and freedoms (to receive and exercise) and reforms of policies, strategies and goals. The negative human resource benefits could be family disintegration (due to role conflict), lack of trust where men feel women do not have experience to lead, when women lead they are suspicious of men and no longer respect their opinions, and if there is resistances to change any organization is bound to collapse. It was then the mandate of the study to unravel why these achievements have not been able to enhance the eradication of gender inequality that still persists. The study was also interested to find out the perception of stakeholders' on women leadership with all the achievements at hand.

2.4.1 Women role models' contributions to gender equity

The more women are represented and participate in organization's decision-making positions, the more gender equity is demystified. Women have taken their place at the table of partnership with men as colleagues and their participation in regional, international and organizational activities means that women can influence decisions at that level and relevant to that region.

Today we have women presidents, prime ministers, senior clergy, corporate bigwigs and several entries in the fortune magazine top 500 list. Kwesiga, (2002) gave examples of Ellen Sirleaf Johnson, Margaret Thatcher, Benazir Bhutto, Hilary Clinton, Wangari Maathai, Oprah Winfrey, Melinda Gates and Sister Mary Teresa who are iconic international figures. Ehrenreich, (May 2004), advocated that it is not enough to be equal or assimilate men when they are acting negatively but women need to create a world worth assimilating into.

(Lucheli April 2010 p.11) exemplified Sarah Akoru the assistant chief for Kainuk sub-location and Josephine Ekal the chief of Lokichar location in Turkana District as some of the 18 women chiefs working in the banditry and cattle rustling prone Northern Kenya Frontier Districts and emphasized that "here women don't just slap, but shoot to kill". According to The Electoral Commission and DPM Compliment Statistics Unit (June 2009), Kenya had 6 ministers, 6 Assistant ministers, 22 in the national assembly, 11 ambassadors/high commissioners, 7 permanent secretaries, 1 provincial commissioner, 33 deputy secretaries, 393 councilors and 1763 lawyers (who include 136 judges). (Kwesiga, 2002 page 30) quoted the late president of Rwanda – Agathe

Uwilingiyimana who said “when women reach this decision-making level, they are in a position to legislate for positive changes from women’s point of view.” If women have proved to be that capable through the known role models, why is getting 1/3 women representation and participation in organizational leadership still a hurdle? The study therefore tried to explore the reasons why women have not been able to take up organizational leadership positions to eradicate gender inequality and have equal representation and participation as men have.

2.4.2 Gender equity by women movements and organizations

These are some of the struggles that have been undertaken to ensure more women workers have been able to impart their human assets, be motivated enough to aspire for leadership positions, achieve gender equity, become aware of their rights and freedom and reforms on retrogressive beliefs and systems to take place.

Khasiani et al (1993) defined women movement as an organized or cohesive group of women who actively seek to promote or uplift their social and economic status. They continued to say that women movements in Kenya used the bargaining power format to question and challenge the social values and structures and political systems that perpetuated gender inequality. Kwesiga (2002) asserted that women have not been silent victims who cannot do anything for themselves, while Jamal (2002), asserted that the status which women have reached has not been achieved due to the kindness of men or due to natural progress, it has been through a long struggle and sacrifice on women’s part. It was only when society needed her contribution during the two world wars, and due to the escalation of technological change that men included women in the workforce.

Shah, (July 1998) has enumerated several international initiatives which have been in the forefront fighting for women's rights: Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (United Nations, 1979), Danish Act of Succession referendum, 2009, Equality Act UK 2010 and Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality (European Parliament). Kwesiga, (2002) mentions African organizations like African Women in Development, Association of African Women for Research and Development while Riria, (1985) identified Kenyan women organizations like Kenya Girl Guides Association (1920), Maendeleo Ya Wanawake (1952), the Mother's Union (1955) Kenya Association of University Women (1965) and many others. These movements have facilitated women to come together and try to list their problems and find solutions to some of them. They not only educate but also protect women's interests. Hence they disseminate information to aspiring women leaders.

Though with a long list of women movements and organizations that have made many women famous and advocating for gender equity, women representation and participation has remained low as compared to men's. (Wageruka 2011 p.2) asked, "If the International Monetary Fund can entrust a woman with the world purse, why wouldn't the two principals entrust a woman with the position of Attorney General?" Therefore the study probed into what could be the cause of gender inequality and solution to gender equality even after the women movements and organizations have contributed a lot to enhance gender equity.

2.4.3 Policies and programmes towards gender equity

Gender responsive initiatives like International, national and regional workshops and seminars, funding from international organizations like World Bank, curriculum development, ratifying of conventions, media bulletins, developing and implementing of policies and strategies, gender mainstreaming and many research studies have all been done to eradicate gender inequality. The study therefore wished to find out why gender equality has not taken precedence.

Kwesiga, (2002) asserted that in lobbying, advocacy and creating awareness, the disadvantages/ costs of gender inequality reflected in economic, health care, maternal mortality and morbidity, gender biased violence, psychological costs were highlighted. The Kenya Broadcasting Corporation has come with 'divas' a program that presents successful women leaders like Ann Njogu the Human Rights fighter on women and violence, Zipporah Kittony and maendeleo ya Wanawake and others. This program encourages young women to aspire to be like these ladies. Women's specific universities like Ahfad University in Sudan and Kiriri University in Kenya is a great initiative where women are trained to be independent thinkers and tries to inculcate a culture of visions and alternatives. National Women's rights organizations such as FIDA, pressurize governments for law reforms where resolutions and policy changes need to be accompanied by appropriate sanctions for defaulters in gender policy implementation.

The Kenyan government has become gender responsive by coming up with The National Policy on Gender and Development. This is consistent with the Government's

commitment to implement the National Plan of Action based on the Beijing platform for Action by being a signatory to 1984 Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women. It has also developed National Policy of Gender and Development (2002), Gender Policy and Education (July 2007) and Millennium Development Goals Status Report (2005) and Vision 2030.

Researchers and women activists have partnered and networked with the Kenya government ministries, FBOS, NGOS and CBOS to mainstream policies, programmes, budgeting, training, capture and analyze data on gender issues. Association of African Women for Research and Development (1995) is an example of organizations put into place to bring all gender equality stakeholders to one table.

The Kenya National Gender and Development Policy (2002) arose from the government's realization that without a coherent and comprehensive overall framework for guiding the different sectors and agencies involved in development, tremendous resources may continue to be lost unless the thrust of mainstream development directly discusses gender concerns. Kwesiga (2002) continues to suggest that collective programmes involving people from every sector will bring faster results than an individual sector acting separately, ignoring the existing overlap and inter relationships. On the other hand Kwesiga (2002) doubted whether there would be sustainability of these interventions because though structures have been put into place roles have been assigned without the necessary tools to do the work. Khasiani (1993) observed that no level of modernization, scientific or technological advancement will elevate the status of women as long as cultural attitudes continue to degrade and demean them.

The study understood that there have been appropriate affirmative interventions put into place though with some challenges that may have slowed down gender equity. It therefore tried to assess the constraints to gender equity and feasible ways of enhancing a gender equity culture so that women can take equal leadership positions as men.

2.5 Feasible ways of creating a gender equity culture

The study would be incomplete and a waste of resources if it never gave suggestions on how to attain gender equity. It was therefore the study's wish to look into the feasible ways that could eradicate the impending gender inequality and in the process create a gender equity culture. National council for population (2003) enumerated some of the feasible ways that could take place to facilitate gender equity or enable to uphold gender equity culture. Some of them are: Research, Legislation, Monitoring and evaluation, Advocacy, Funding and Sensitization. Successful implementation of these ways would require the concerted efforts of all stakeholders who include the government, non-government organizations, community and faith based organizations, donor agencies, leaders and women themselves. The study tried to explore these ways and wished to see their relationship with the gender gap in organizational leadership.

Kabira et al (1993) said that in order to address this complex process – Gender inequality – it is necessary to be aware of all manifestations of the ideology of oppression that is gender biased and work out strategies for demolishing it and creating a new ideology based on gender equity for true democracy. They continued to say that there should be capacity building to all people in order to respond to the needs of women, advocacy and lobbying campaigns to enlist the interest of women and for women to realize their potentiality in leadership. Association of African Woman for

Research and Development (1995) ascertained that there should be research which should inform and identify gaps in the implementation of the gender equity oriented policies. Monitoring & Evaluation Directorate (2006) reported on resource mobilization of human capital, finance and technical knowhow in order to attain this strategy and added to say that a monitoring and evaluation framework should be facilitated through the development of a comprehensive plan of action, assess the progress towards achieving the set goals and objectives, prepare annual reports and any other relevant studies from time to time.

National Council for Population (2003) asserted that partnering, networking and community participation were to advocate, promote and coordinate the implementation of the policy at both national and sub-national levels, review and recommend appropriate changes in women focus and advise the government accordingly, taking into consideration the political, economic, socio-cultural and legal realities in the country. It elaborated by saying that the legal realities would provide legal guidance and facilitating enactment of necessary laws on matters concerning women, revising and enforcing relevant laws to provide adequate protection of women in different circumstances, enacting and enforcing legislation to provide for severe sanctions for people who sexually exploit women.

Having explored some of the suggested feasible ways of combating gender inequality, it wished to find out the stakeholders' views on whether these ways were viable on women leaders and leadership. It also wanted to assess the benefits that could be accrued from gender equity if it was successfully mounted through these ways.

2,5 Summary

This chapter's main topics and sub-topics were the study's attempt to explore the existing knowledge about gender equity and organizational leadership. It was organized from a general view of leadership and narrowed down to the stakeholders views on how and why women made or did not make leaders, assessment of existing constraints that hindered women from taking up organizational leadership positions, the expected benefits that accrued from gender equity and eventually looked into the feasible ways of improving gender equity in order for women to have an equal representation and participation in organizational leadership. The existing knowledge was from authors, researchers, theorists and journalists.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the methodology that will be by the researcher in collecting and analyzing data. It comprises of the description of the population, sample size and the sampling procedures, methods of data collection and techniques of data analysis.

3.2 Area of Study

The study covered public schools in Kabarnet Zone of Baringo Central, District, Baringo County. It was interested in this area because of its unique geographical and demographical features. The geographical features are so diverse that there is the highland as well as the lowland and hence dense and scarce population distribution respectively. It hosts the Kabarnet town which is cosmopolitan while the rest of the zone is like any other Tugen reserve. Kabarnet town was the district headquarter for the larger Baringo, remained the headquarter for Baringo Central District and is envisaged to be the Baringo County headquarter. This zone has the highest number of schools hence more students and teachers as compared to other zones in the district. According to TSC EMIS Form “A” (May 2011), Kabarnet zone had remarkably more teachers than the required TSC staffing norm of 50 children per teacher in primary school level and curriculum based establishment of 9 teachers for a 1 streamed secondary school. It has the highest number of female teachers but with more male leaders meaning that leadership capacity is not commensurate with the number of teachers.

3.3 Research design

The researcher used a research survey design. The basic idea behind survey methodology is to measure variables by asking people questions and then to examine relationships among the variables. In most instances, surveys attempt to capture attitude or patterns of past behavior (Fowler, 1993). The researcher applied this research design because of the following reasons. Surveys are relatively inexpensive because they are able to describe the characteristics of a large population. By using it, a high reliability is easy to obtain by presenting all subjects with a standardized stimulus and observer subjectivity is greatly eliminated. The survey design was adopted because the study is a social science that was meant to use people as the participants and also because the researcher used a sample to infer to the general population of interest.

3.4 Target population

The study's target population was composed of 660 (teachers and community representatives). the women were while the men were. They all formed the stakeholders of the schools in Kabarnet Zone but some were leaders who were supposed to champion the schools daily endeavors while others were non-leaders who were supposed to be the followers. The target population has been presented in table 3.1

Table 1: Target population

Target population	Number
P.T.A	38
B.O.G	29
SMC	186
Secondary School Teachers	83
Primary School Teachers	324
Totals	660

(Source: District Education offices, 2012)

3.5 Sampling Design and sample size

Sampling is a procedure of selecting a part of the population on which research is to be conducted, which ensures that conclusion from the study can be generalized to the entire population (Kothari, 2010). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) 30% of the population is an acceptable sample size in qualitative research. Therefore 30% of the entire target population was picked from each stratum. The sample size of the study was 198 but rounded off to 200. This has been presented in table 3.2. Sampling techniques adopted were stratified and purposive sampling method.

Table 2: Sample size

Target population	Number	Sample size
P.T.A	38	11
Bog	29	9
SMC	186	56
Secondary School Teachers	83	25
Primary School Teachers	324	97
Totals	660	198

Source: the researcher 2012

Sampling techniques adopted in the study stratified, purpose and random sampling. Stratified because the study wanted to capture the different opinions of the levels and categories of the heterogeneous population, purposive enabled the interview to interact with the executive leaders while random sampling gave an equal chance to the rest of the participants.

3.6 Data collection procedure

The study collected both primary and secondary data for schools in Kabarnet Zone, Baringo County. The primary was collected using face-to-face interviews and self-administered questionnaires while the secondary was collected from existing records to establish the number of personnel according to age, gender, academic levels, designations and nomination policies. 190 questionnaires were prepared and administered to the participants. 10 (5%) more than the target participants were prepared and administered to take care of spoilage or not returned. The procedure ensured that the questionnaires were received at the right time in order to give time for clarification and that an appointment with the executive leaders was arranged. The interview schedule was administered to 20 executive members and 20 copies were prepared.

3.7 Data collection Instruments

The data collection instruments were the methods used to collect data from the 200 participants. These were the questionnaires and interview schedules.

Questionnaires were used because questionnaires are simple to analyze and interpret hence making the process efficient (McMillan, 2006). This mechanism also enables researcher to know exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest. They are low in cost and enabled the participants enough time to give well thought answers after discussions among themselves. The limitation of this method however was that a small number were not returned though this was taken care of and therefore did not threaten the validity of the study.

The interview method was able to give more in-depth information which could not be captured through the questionnaire. It also gave instant answers. Its limitations were that it was costly, entertained biased judgment from the participants and time consuming. However it served the purpose of the study and especially because of its open-ended questions which gave varying answers. The document analysis gave already existing information that could not be manipulated and was only necessary for numbers of the participants.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of the research instruments

The confirmation of validity and reliability of the instruments was very crucial in that it ensured that the information collected was appropriate, correct and useful.

3.8.1 Validity

Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed and expected to measure. The instruments were given to the researcher's supervisors and research experts at the Department of Development Studies of Moi University to scrutinize and validate them by way of ensuring that the items were logical and

adequate to collect the desired data and whether they covered all the areas under investigation of the study. The test of the validity was on two aspects: construct validity where the questions were checked for their relevance to or consistency with aspects of women representation and participation in organizational leadership. There was also content validity which was used by the experts to find out whether the items in the instruments were fair representative sample of the specific objectives of the study. They were then modified on the bases of the expert's advice.

3.8.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the instruments ability to give consistency of results at all times it is applied (Kothari, 2010). To determine whether the items in the questionnaire and interview schedule had the same meaning to all participants, provided the same information and establish the time taken to administer the instruments, pilot study was done in sampled schools which were not used in the actual study. The participants were allowed to make comments concerning the clarity of the instruments to enable the researcher to identify sensitive, confusing and biased items so as to revise them. The responses on the piloted instruments were analyzed using the SPSS statistical computer program for re-test and the Pearson's moment correlation in order to establish the consistency and suitability of the instruments.

3.9. Data analysis and presentation

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in this study. Descriptive statistics were important in examining the gender discrepancy in the leadership of the schools under study. Frequencies, percentages and ratios were used to assess the

representation and the position of the majority of the participants on the various variables.

Inferential statistics were also employed to enable the researcher to test the relationship between the responses and the categories of participants and to generalize the findings to the population. Chi-square, a non-parametric statistical test was used since the data collected was categorized as ordinal data.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 An overview

This chapter included presentation and analysis of collected data, interpretation and discussion of the findings. This was later used to give a conclusion and recommendations in chapter five. The study should not only be applicable to women representation and participation in organizational leadership of public schools in Kabarnet Zone – Baringo County but to any other organization which has women as workers.

For the quantitative method of analysis, the questionnaire was subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics while for the qualitative method, the interview was presented in prose form. In the descriptive analysis, frequencies, percentages and ratios were used, while in the inferential analysis, chi-square was used to determine the associations of the independent and dependent variables. For clarification, tables, pie-charts and bar graphs were used to present the data because they depicted the comparison of the findings. A Thematic approach, which heavily relied on the objectives of the study, was used to present and interpret the findings.

4.2 Data Findings Presentation

4.2.1 Distribution of the target population

The study was interested in the target as a base in order to verify how many females as compared to males were leaders, of which age bracket and academic level. The study tried to establish whether gender, age and academic qualifications were a pre-requisite

to leadership installation in any organization. This was also able to verify whether there was gender equity in leadership or not. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 are a presentation of the females and males, leadership categories, age brackets and academic levels.

Table 4.1: Distribution of target population as per gender, leadership categories and academic level

Gender	Leadership	Academic level		Total
		Degree	Diploma	
Females	Leaders	25	92	117
	Non-leaders	44	169	213
	Total	69	261	330
Males	Leaders	45	167	232
	Non-leaders	33	65	98
	Total	78	252	330

Source: Researcher 2012

Table 4.2: Distribution of target population a per gender, leadership categories and age brackets

Gender	Leadership	Age bracket		Total
		20-40	41-70	
Females	Leaders	24	98	117
	Non-leaders	86	127	213
	Total	110	220	330
Males	Leaders	26	206	232
	Non-leaders	34	64	98
	Total	60	270	330

Source: Researcher 2012

From the tables above, there were 232 (35%) male leaders as compared to 117 (18%) female leaders; a difference of 115 (17%). This meant that there was gender disparity in terms of leadership. Women were not given an equal chance to be leaders as men were. 117 female leaders means that for every 1 female leader there were 6 people (1:6) and for every 1 male leader there were 3 (1:3) people: and for every 1 female leader there were 2.98 male leaders. Out of the total 318 female target population only 117 were leaders. This meant that in every 2.7 females 1 was a leader. This meant that there was a lower women representation and participation in organizational leadership.

From table 4.1 above, there were 69 (10%) female and 78 (12%) male degree and above holders and 261 (40%) female and 252 (38%) male diploma and below holders. For those who are degree holders, there were 25 (8%) females as compared to 46(14%) males who were leaders while there were 44 (13%) females as compared to 33(10%) males who are non-leaders. In the diploma and below category there were 92 (14%) females as compared to 187 (28%) males who were leaders while there were 169 (26%) females as compared to 65 (20%) males who are non-leaders. In this category of participants it meant that there were fewer females who were leaders and more non-leaders while there were more males who were leaders and fewer non-leaders. The difference between female and male academic level is 9 (1%) while the difference between female and male leaders is 115 (17%). this shows that for a woman to be a leader, academic qualifications is a prerequisite while it is not necessarily so for a man.

From table 4.2 there were 34 (10%) male non-leaders. There was a female leader and male leader difference 2 (1%) while the non- leader difference is 52 (8%). This may be assumed that the young whether female or male had an equal chance of being a leader. However, in the latter age bracket, there were 93 (14%) females and 206 (31%) male

leaders while there were 127 (19%) female and 64 (10%) male non-leaders. This meant at this age bracket, gender was an issue as there were more men leaders than women. The total number of leaders was 117 (18%) females and 232 (35%) males while non-leaders were 213 (32%) females and 98 (15%) males. This meant that there were more men leaders than women and more women non-leaders than men. There being no equal chance of leadership between females and males, women leadership participation was 1:6 compared to men's which was 1:3. This meant that women's participation and representation was lower than the men's.

Table 4.3 is a presentation of a chi-test that the researcher used to determine the association of gender, academic qualifications and gender on leadership. This would prove further if the dependent variables were criteria for consideration for women leadership in organizations.

Table 4.3: A chi-square test of the effects of gender, academic level and age bracket on leadership

Summary of Chi-Square Tests Results		
Gender (Male, Female) on Leadership (Leader, Non-Leader)		
	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Result 1	1	0.007
Academic qualifications on Leadership		
	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Result 2	1	0
Age (21-40,41-70) on Leadership (Leader, Non-Leader)		
	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Result 3	1	0.232

Source: Researcher 2012

Result 1 (Investigation of independence between Gender and leadership) gives a P-Value of 0.007 which is less than 0.05 implying that there is dependence between the gender of a person and leadership. In other words it is a result portraying a relationship between gender and Leadership. This could be the reason why the proportion of male leaders and female leaders is not the same in that it matters which gender one belongs to become a leader. In practice the proportion of male leaders is higher than that of female leaders.

Result 2 (Investigation of independence between academic qualifications and leadership) gives a P-value less than 0.05 implying that there is dependence between the two variables under investigation. In this case leaders are more in a certain academic group implying that indeed leadership is somewhat determined by the level of academic qualification attained. In this case the few female leaders have almost equal academic level as the men.

Result 3 (Investigation of independence between age and leadership) gave a P-value of 0.232 greater than 0.005 implying that age had no relationship to whether one is a leader or not.

4.2.2 Gender, age, academic qualifications and leadership categories of the respondents

Table 4.5 was a presentation of the distribution of the participants per gender, age, academic qualifications and leadership levels. The use of frequency and percentages was able to depict clear comparisons between the females and males. It was also able to show representation and participation of women leadership compared to that of men.

Table 4.4: Distribution of participants per gender, age, academic qualifications and leadership categories

		Female n=89		Male n=91		Total n=180	
Basic Characteristics		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Age	21-40	40	22	32	17	72	40
	41-70	49	27	59	33	108	60
	Total	89	49	91	51	180	100
Academic qualifications	Degree	31	17	28	16	59	33
	Diploma	58	32	63	35	121	67
	Total	89	49	91	51	180	100
Leadership	Leaders	36	20	53	29	89	49
	Non-leaders	53	29	38	22	91	51
	Total	89	49	91	51	180	100

Source: Researcher 2012

From the above table, it was evident that the difference between the male participants 91 (51%) and female participation of 89 (49%) had a small difference of 2 (1%). This means that though sampling procedure was simple random, it was fair as all genders were well represented. Surprisingly, there were 31 (17%) females and 28 (16%) men who had degree and above. This distribution showed that females had access to education and therefore empowered to organizational leadership. However only 36 (20%) were leaders. This meant there was a gender problem in organizational leadership despite the fact that they had equally been exposed to leadership skills. While academic qualifications are a prerequisite to female leadership, it is not the same for men. Therefore this means gender discrimination. This was what Northouse, (2007) referred to as double standard measurement where women must show greater

competency to be a leader while the men do not to go through this to be a leader. The males' 53 (29%) leadership compared to the females' 36 (20%), means a difference of 17 (9%) which shows gender disparity in organizational leadership. Although the number of female participants 89 (49%) was almost equal to the number of male participants 91 (51%), the female leaders were only 36 which is the same as 1/5 or 20% of all participants and just slightly above 1/3 or 40% of all the leaders while the 53 men leaders almost 1/4 or 29% and over 1/2 or 60% of all the leaders. Of all the participants there were more male 53 (29%) leaders than females 36 (20%) and female non-leaders 53 (29%) while males were 38 (22%). There was 1:5 female and 1:3 Male participation and 1:2.4 female and 1:1.7 male representations. This meant 1 female leader for 5 people while 1 male leader for 3 people and 1 female leader represented 2.4 women and 1 male represented 1.7 men.

This concluded that females were not given the same chance as men to become leaders. What age one belonged did not matter in leadership. This meant gender discrimination as far as organizational leadership is concerned. In order to test the associations, relationships or dependency of age, academic and gender variable with leadership variable, a chi-square test was done. It was meant to show their associations at 1 degree of freedom and at a 0.05 level of significance.

Table 4.5: A chi-square test on the effects of gender, academic qualifications and age on female leadership

Summary of Chi-Square Tests Results		
Gender (Male, Female) on Leadership (Leader, Non-Leader)		
	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Result 1	1	0.256
Academic qualifications on Leadership		
	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Result 2	1	0.555
Age (21-40,41-70) on Leadership (Leader, Non-Leader)		
	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Result 3	1	0.569

Source: Researcher 2012

The P-values generated from Pearson chi-square are all greater than 0.05 indicating that the variables in this are independent of each other. This signified that there were no relationships in terms of proportions, in which case leadership, varies with age, gender and academic qualifications according to the data collected. Of the three variables, gender has a closer relationship with leadership. This means that to some extent gender influences leadership installation and therefore it depends from which gender one belonged to in order to be a leader but academic is also used only if one is a female. The representations above indicated gender disparity between women's and men's participation and representation in organizational leadership.

4.2.3 The stakeholders' perception on women leadership

The stakeholders perceptions on women leadership were crucial in attesting why there was low women representation and participation in organizational leadership. This was one of the study's objectives and therefore to achieve it, it was important to analyze the composition of the stakeholders by identifying who were leaders among them. It was also necessary to look into the methods that were used to install those leaders in order to attest the level of appreciation they had on women leadership. Hence, the study would prove whether the stakeholders were responsible for the gender gap.

4.2.4 Stakeholders' participation.

Out of 190 questionnaires 180 were filled and returned. This was 95% participation/response. This did not affect the study because the 5% that were lost were already catered for during the developing of the questionnaires. From this participation, the study wished to present leadership distribution by gender and ranking by percentages of leaders and non-leaders with the table and figure below.

Table 4.6: Stakeholders' participation by gender and leadership categories

LEADERSHIP	FEMALES		MALES		TOTAL	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Leaders	36	20	53	29	89	49
Non-leaders	53	29	38	22	91	51
Total	89	49	91	51	180	100

Source: Researcher 2012

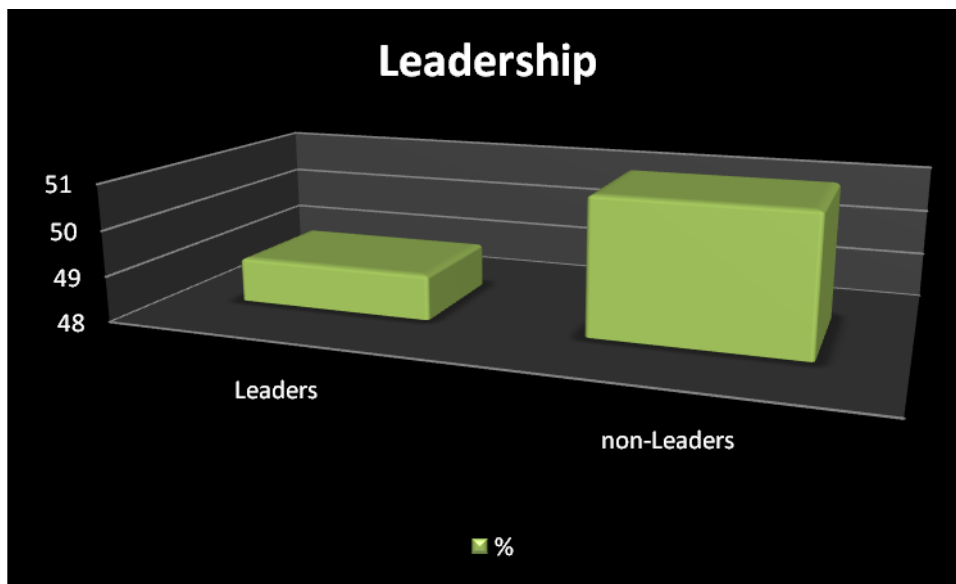


Figure 1 Leadership participation

Source: Researcher 2012

From table 4.6 and figure 1, the participants were 89 (49%) females and 91 (51%) males making a leadership composition of 89 (49%) leaders and 91 (51%) non-leaders.

These two outcomes were coincidentally equal. From this it would have been assumed an equal number of female and male leaders. However, the leaders were 36 (20%) females and 53 (29%) males while non-leaders were 53 (29%) females and 38 (22%) males. This portrayed an interesting scenario in which there were less female leaders

and more non-leaders while there were more male leaders and less male non-leaders. The difference between the female leaders and male leaders is 27 female non-leaders and male leaders is 25 but there is no difference between female non-leaders and male leaders. This meant that women leadership was almost similar to male non-leadership. The ratio of female to male was 1:07 leaders and 1:1.4 non-leaders. To all participants, females were 1: 5 and males were 1:3.4. This meant that if women were the only leaders it would mean 1 woman leader for 5 people but if men; there would be 1 man leader for 3 people. This is an indication of female leadership low participation as compared to the males'. Out of the 89 female participants only 36 were leaders and 53 non-leaders which meant a ratio of 1:3 and 1:2. This meant that for every 3 women 1 would be a leader to represent others but for 2 non-leaders 1 would be required to represent them. Out of the 91 male participants 53 were leaders and 38 non-leaders which meant a ratio of 1:2 and 1:2. This was an indication of a lower female leadership representation but a higher non-leadership representation, a higher male leadership representation and a lower non-leadership representation respectively. This indicated the possibility that women might not have been given the same opportunities to participate in organizational leadership and also to represent other women in leadership. Hence, there was gender disparity.

4.2.5 Methods used to install leaders

While still looking for the stakeholders' perception on women leaders and leadership, there were suggested methods that were used to install leaders in the schools. There was nomination by the parents or other leaders, campaign in order to be recognized and elected by parents and application for existing leadership vacancies and afterwards were invited for interviews. Those who went through the above methods were appointed and

deployed to respective schools as leaders by Ministry of Education or its agents. Others imposed themselves to the schools as leaders of whom some were later appointed.

Table 4.6 depicts a distribution of the different methods used for installation of leaders by the stakeholders. These methods were distributed in age, gender and academic qualifications. It was the intention of the researcher to get this response only from the existing leaders who were practically installed through one method or the other. This added to the authenticity of the study.

Table 4.7: Distribution of methods by gender, age and academic levels

METHODS	GENDER				AGE				ACADEMIC			
	Females		Males		21-40		41-70		Degree and above		Diploma and below	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Nomination □	14	16	29	32	10	11	33	37	14	16	29	32
Application □	10	11	15	17	12	13	13	15	15	17	10	11
Campaign □	11	12	7	9	6	7	12	13	3	3	15	17
Self-imposition	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	0	0	3	3
Total	36	40	53	60	30	34	59	66	32	36	57	64
Grand Total	89 Leaders											

Source: Researcher 2012

From the ranking above it showed clearly that the stakeholders themselves made 97% decision making as to who should or should not be a leader in their school while only 3% imposed themselves as leaders.

When the methods were compared, only campaign had a higher number of females installed than males (12% against 9%). All other methods had more men installed. This was an indication that women needed to campaign and show openly that they really were ready to lead otherwise it was assumed that they were not interested in leadership. This might have also meant that the females who were installed as leaders were those who had high self-efficacy. All the methods favored those who were of 40 years and above than those who were younger and this could be assumed that it is because they are more mature. The application method seemed to favor those who were degree and above holders than those who were diploma and below holders. This may mean that they were confident in either written or oral interviews and they also had documents in form of certificates and testimonials that uplifted their self-efficacy. This method also included females who competed competitively with men because they had academic certificates and testimonials. Since most of the stakeholders were men, they nominated their fellow men whether they had qualifications or not but just because they were men. However, the installation of 36 female leaders only meant that there were other constraints/hindrances besides gender to women leadership that influenced the stakeholders as they installed the leaders.

4.2.6 The stakeholders' acceptability of women leadership

Still pursuing the perception of stakeholders on women leadership, the study was curious to know how many and who was or not for it. This assisted the study in realizing whether gender disparities were initiated and enhanced by the stakeholders. If they were what should be done to mitigate the situation at hand but if they were not

responsible, who is? Table 4.8 presented the findings of the stakeholders as far as women leadership was concerned.

Table 4.8: Stakeholders' acceptability of women leadership

GENDER	WOMEN SHOULDN'T		WOMEN SHOULD		TOTAL	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Female	3	2	86	48	89	49
Male	6	3	85	47	91	51
Total	9	5	171	95	180	100

Source: Researcher 2012

Out of 180 participants 171 (95%) supported the fact that women should become leaders while 9 (5 %) were of the opinion that women should not. The stakeholders' overwhelming support that women should become leaders, leaves no doubt that women leadership is readily accepted by the majority. At 95% level of confidence, the stakeholders believed that women were competitive leaders. Those who did not support women leadership were 3 (2%) females and 6 (3%) males. However, the females and males who supported were almost equal 86 (48%) and 85 (47%) respectively. It was surprising that there were some women who did not want other women to be leaders. Hence this was true when Khasiani (1993) said "women are enemies of themselves". If the stakeholders overwhelmingly accepted women leadership, why then were there only 36 (20%) (see paragraph 4.4 and table 4.6) female leaders out of the total 180 participants? It was then imperative that they accepted but did or did not support them and that was why gender inequality persisted even with their positive attitude. The study looked into the possible reasons why they supported or did not support women leadership.

4.2.7 Stakeholders' reasons for supporting or not supporting women leadership

By trying to look for these reasons, the study was interested in knowing if it is possible to integrate gender equity into organizational leadership comfortably. From the previous result (as shown in table 4.9 above), the researcher investigated reasons as to why a tokenism of 20 % female leadership while the stakeholders had 95% acceptability and only 5% no acceptability of women leadership. The suggested reasons were either positive or negative to show the support or the non support of stakeholders to women leadership respectively. These reasons for supporting ranged from: women like men had acceptable and equal academic qualifications, special women attributes/skills, genetic leadership traits and time availability. The negative reasons that were responsible for the no support were: role conflict between their home cores and organizational leadership (reproductive roles and productive roles), low self-esteem, masculinity or male chauvinism and societal demand. Depending on the opinion of the stakeholders, these reasons should be or not be responsible for gender inequality.

Table 4.9 depicts frequencies and percentages of the stakeholders' supportive and not supportive reasons for women leadership as per their age, academic qualifications and gender of the participants. This in turn was supposed to show if the stakeholders' perceptions were responsible for the gender gap as far as women representation and participation in organizational leadership.

Table 4.9: Stakeholders' reasons for or not supporting gender equity

REASONS	ACADEMIC LEVEL				AGE BRACKET			
	Degree and above		Diploma and below		21-40		41-70	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Qualification	22	10	28	22	20	10	20	22

Attributes	4	3	10	16	7	5	7	14
Traits	3	3	7	8	2	5	8	6
Availability	1	0	1	3	3	1	1	1
Total	30	25	56	60	41	30	46	54
Grand total	86 females + 85 males = 171 (95%)				87 females + 84 males = 171 (95%)			
Not supporting	□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
Societal demand	1	2	1	1	1	0	1	3
Low esteem	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
Role conflict	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Male chauvinism	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total	1	3	2	3	2	0	1	6
Grand Total	3 females + 6 males =9 (5%)				3 females +6 males = 9 (5%)			

Source: Researcher 2012

The positive reasons for supporting scored in the following way: academic qualifications 112(62%). attributes 33(18%), traits 21(12%) and availability 5(3%) and reasons for not supporting were thus: role conflict 1(0.5%), low self-esteem 2(1%), masculinity or male chauvinism 1 (0.5) and societal demand 5(3%). Across age brackets and academic levels the support by women 86 (48%) and 87 (48%) was almost equal to men's 85 (47%) and 84 (47%). However their non-support had a difference of 50% as women's non-support was less by half men's. Bearing in mind that female leaders were only 36 (20%), the stakeholders having accepted women leadership by 95% and the positive reasons having scored 95%, it means that the stakeholders' perception on women leadership is hampered by forces beyond the negative reasons. Were it not for these forces, the stakeholders would have installed women and men as leaders equally. A chi-square test to show if the stakeholders' views on women leadership were influenced by the supportive or not supportive reasons has been presented by table 4.10. The influence was an indicator of the extent of integration of women into organizational leadership.

Table 4.10: A chi-square test on the stakeholders' supportive and not supportive reasons influence on women leadership

REASONS	Value	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
qualifications	112	1	.329
traits	21	1	.014
attributes	33	1	.846
availability	5	1	.600
Men mistrust	2	1	.500
Change resistance	5	1	.700

Source: Researcher 2012

From a cross tabulation of reasons and leadership and in reference to the level of significance at 0.05, the P-values generated are greater than 0.05 except for traits reason which has a significance (of 0.014). This is an indication that there were no associations between the existence of these various reasons and the kind of support accorded to whether women should be leaders or not. This is quite true in that if there was any association then there would be no gender gap in organizational. The trait reason's relationship with women leadership is very clear from its meaning in that the 12% women leaders must have been from leadership families. Having found out that the supportive and not supportive reasons were not responsible for the gender gap in organizational leadership, the study went further to suggest other constraints that could have been responsible.

4.2.8 Constraints' effect on women representation and participation in organizational leadership.

The participants were subjected to seven feasible constraints of which they were expected in their opinion choose the one they strongly felt was responsible for gender

inequity. These constraints were negative publication from the media, glass ceiling, culture that had endured all times, religion that prefers women's submission to men, reproductive roles that limits women's time, lack of self efficacy (women feared challenges and criticism that go along with leadership) and patriarchy that enhances male domination. Out of 180 participants 4 did not choose any of the given constraints. Therefore there were 98 % participation and 2% no participation. The non- participation on the constraints was due to the fact that there were those who did not support women leadership and therefore for them, constraints were inapplicable or felt there other constraints beside the suggested ones.

Table 4.11 presents the seven constraints. To establish the effect of the constraints on women leadership, gender, age and academic qualification of the participants were also presented. This was to establish the extent of each constraint's effect on women leadership and also if there were other constraints that could be of more effect than the seven. Depending on the participation, it would be determined the constraint that is most detrimental to women leadership and therefore more attention would be given to it if an equal number of women to men in organizational leadership would be a reality.

Table 4.11: Distribution of constraints in terms of gender, age and academic qualification

CONSTRAINTS	GENDER				AGE				ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION			
	FEMALES		MALES		21-40		41-70		DEGREE & ABOVE		DIPLOMA & BELOW	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Media	3	2	7	4	3	2	7	4	4	2	6	3
Glass-ceiling	23	13	17	9	20	11	20	11	15	9	25	14

Culture	35	19	36	20	23	13	48	27	22	12	49	27
Religion	2	1	4	2	2	1	4	2	0	0	6	3
Patriarchy	5	3	3	2	6	3	2	1	5	3	3	2
Low self-efficacy	15	8	17	9	14	8	18	10	11	6	21	12
Reproductive role	5	3	4	2	3	2	6	3	1	0.5	8	4
Neither	1	0.5	3	2	1	0.5	3	1	1	0.5	3	1
Total	89	49	91	51	72	40	108	60	59	33	121	67

Source: Researcher 2012

The participation was as follows: media 10 (6%), Glass ceiling 40(22%), Culture 71 (39%), Religion 6 (3%), and Patriarchy 8 (4%), Low self-efficacy 32 (18%), Reproductive role 9 (5%) and those who thought there was no constraint 4 (2%). Culture scored the highest and the lowest ranking was where participants felt that there were no constraints or that there were/was other constraint/s besides the seven. Gender views on the constraints were 49% by females while the males were 51% (a difference of 2% meaning that they held almost similar opinions). Women and men equally felt that culture was the most inhibiting. In both age brackets, glass-ceiling had a response of 20 (11%) meaning that both had a similar feeling but had divergent opinions on the rest of constraints. The younger bracket had a response of 40% while the older's was 60% on culture. Though, for both brackets culture was the strongest hindrance, they differed in response because the young belong to a modern mixed and dynamic culture which has ousted the traditional static culture which some of the old still belong to. The two academic categories attested to the existence of hindrance but at different degrees. Those with higher qualifications had 33 % participation and those with lower had 67 %. The diploma and above holders believe that the quality of papers would determine promotions and leadership positions but culture, religion, glass ceiling or media would

have minimal influence. Those with lower academic qualifications believe that constraints like culture and glass-ceiling could greatly influence ones leadership position despite ones academic qualifications.

Table 4.12 presents a chi-square test used to depict the association of the constraints to women leadership. Once the association is established, the beneficiaries of the study would come up with logistics of combating them. If no association was to be established, then other barriers to gender equity would be investigated.

Table 4.12 A chi-square test on the constraints and their effects on women leadership

CONSTRAINTS	VALUE	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Media	0.078	1	.038 <0.05
Glass-ceiling	1.204	1	.032 <0.05
Culture	1.968	1	.011 <0.05
Religion	0.144	1	.006 <0.05
Patriarchy	0.195	1	.047 <0.05
Reproductive role	0.105	1	.042 <0.05
Self-efficacy	0.221	1	.018 <0.05

Source: Researcher 2012

Table 4.12 gives a summary of a chi-square test results which gave P-values lower than 0.05. As a result these results were an indication that the constraints mentioned had strong associations with women being leaders or not. It is also true that they are responsible for gender inequality in organizational leadership. The strongest association is religion followed by culture and the weakest is patriarchy followed by reproductive role.

4.2.9 Benefits accrued from gender equity

The study had an obligation to remain cost-effective and had therefore to weigh the positive benefits against the negative ones ensuring an equal number of women and men in organizational leadership . This was very necessary not only for the study but also for organization's initiatives that would be mounted to enhance gender equity. If there were positive benefits accrued from gender equity, any organization would readily have more women in leadership in order to remain afloat but if not the organization would rather have status quo.

The positive benefits included: human assets in terms of competencies, talents, experience, skills, knowledge, attitudes and abilities, equity in terms of equal opportunities, and resources to both females and males, aspiration of women to be leaders after their role models or mentors, realization of rights and freedoms which every individual is supposed to receive and exercise and reformation of policies, strategies and goals that have been bypassed by time. The negative benefits included: family disintegration due to role conflicts, men no longer trust women leaders as they think they are inexperienced while women, after leading men, are suspicious and have no more respect for men's opinions. These lead to resistance to change and could contribute to any organization's collapse due to leadership conflicts and gender biasness.

Figure 2 and 3 and table 4.13 present the ranking and distribution of the benefits: if negative benefits outweigh the positive ones, then there is no point of ensuring more women in leadership positions. All initiatives towards this goal should be diverted to

other more viable projects. However, if vice versa, more research should be done, more funding and more time should be spent in perpetuating it.

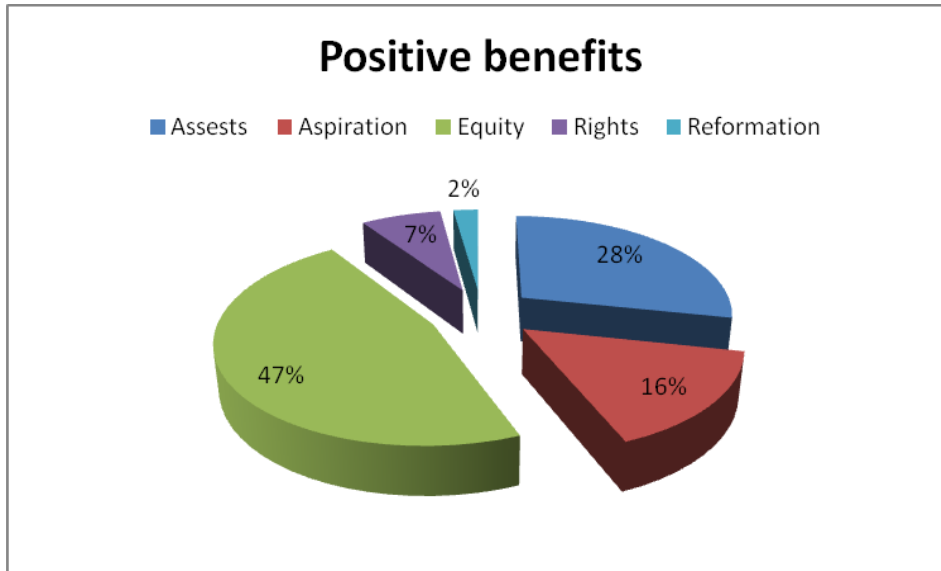


Figure 4.2 Benefits accrued from gender equity on positive benefits

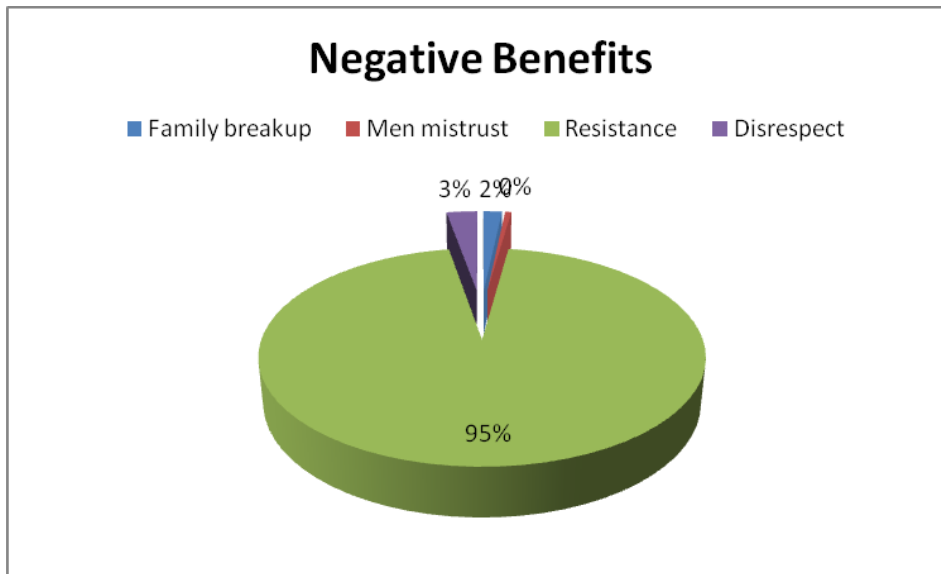


Figure 4.3 Benefits accrued from gender equity on negative benefits

Source: Researcher 2012

Table 4.13: Distribution of positive and negative benefits accrued from gender equity

POSITIVE BENEFITS	GENDER	AGE	ACADEMIC

	Females		Males		21-40		41-70		Degree and above		Diploma and below	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Assets	27	15	24	13	26	14	25	14	19	11	32	18
Aspiration	14	8	14	8	6	3	22	12	8	5	20	11
Equity	44	24	40	22	33	18	51	28	25	14	59	33
Rights	0	0	4	2	3	2	1	0.5	3	2	1	0.5
Reformations	1	0.5	3	2	2	1	2	1	0	0	4	2
Total	86	48	85	47	70	39	101	56	55	31	116	66
NEGATIVE BENEFITS		□		□		□		□		□		□
Family breakup	1	0.5	2	1	1	1	2	1	3	2	0	0
Men mistrust	2	0.5	0	0.5	2	1	0	1	1	0.5	1	0.5
Women disrespect	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	1	1	0
Change resistance	1	0	0	0.5	1	0.5	0	0.5	1	0.5	0	0
collapse	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.5	0	0
Total	6	3	3	2	6	3	3	2	7	4	2	1

Source: Researcher 2012

From figures 2 & 3 and table 4.13, there were 180 participants of who 171(95%) gave positive benefits and 9(5%) gave negative benefits. The 9 were those who did not support women leadership and others who accepted women leadership but saw neither positive nor negative benefits that would accrue from gender equity. From the pie charts above, the positive benefits participation scores were thus: equity 84 (47%), assets 50(28%), aspiration 29 (16%), rights and reformation had each 4 (2%), the negative benefits scored as follows: family breakup 4(2%), resistance 2 (1%), men's mistrust and women's disrespect had each 1 (0.5%), collapse 1 (0.5). This meant that the positive benefits outweighed the negative ones and therefore studies and initiatives to

enhance gender equity should continue with more vigor. There were three major positive benefits: equity, assets and aspiration otherwise all other benefits scored less than 3%. The female 48% and male 47% opinions of positive benefits were almost equal. This meant that the participants appreciated more the positive benefits that would be accrued if more women became leaders. However, they had divergent opinions in the age brackets (21 – 40 39% and 41 – 70 56%) and academic levels (degree and above 31% and diploma and below 66%). It meant that the older and those with lower academic qualifications were more appreciative of the positive benefits than the young and with higher academic qualifications. As for the opinions on the negative benefits that would accrue out of gender equity if maintained, it was surprising that the women, the young and the more qualified had a response than the men, the older and the lower qualified. Those were the ones who thought that gender equity is not necessary and advocated for status quo.

Table 4.14 is a presentation of a chi-square test on the association between benefits and gender equity. If the benefits showed any association with women leadership, it would mean that they were responsible for the gender gap in organizational leadership. If they showed no association, then it would mean that they could be used as motivators to enhance gender equity.

Table 4.14: A chi square test on the benefits that would accrue from gender equity

POSITIVE	Value	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
----------	-------	----	---------------------

BENEFITS			
Asset	51	1	.130
Aspiration	20	1	.620
Equity	84	1	.580
Rights	4	1	.500
Reforms	4	1	.500
NEGATIVE BENEFITS	Value	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Family breakup	3	1	1.000

Source: Researcher 2012

The chi-square test to show association between gender equity and positive benefits or negative benefits was computed in-order to investigate whether the two variables were independent or dependent on each other. It was important to note that the above table gave a summary of the results carried out between the independent variable women leadership and a single dependent variable at a time. All the results obtained were greater than 0.05 which implied that there was no association between the benefits and women leadership gap in organizational leadership. The results of the other negative benefits were unobtainable. In essence these benefits were not responsible for gender parity but were motivators towards gender equity.

4.2.10 Feasible ways of creating and improving gender equity in organizational leadership

The study would be incomplete without getting views and opinions of the way forward in achieving gender equity. The suggested ways were legislation in which gender equity

would be made law in which implementation of gender equity policies and strategies would no longer be left to the discretion of top management of any organization and disregard or negligence of the same would be punitive through laid down procedures. There would also be strict monitoring and evaluation of all gender responsive initiatives' implementation and any funds made available in order to enhance responsibility, accountability and transparency. Funding should be made available and adequately to implement and support gender responsive initiatives. Sensitization, creating awareness and benchmarking should be done from the grass roots to the topmost and for all people including men and women of all ages and walks of life. Advocacy, lobbying campaigns and mainstreaming should be carried out at every opportunity. Organizational best practices for example initiating day care centers, use of modern technology and introducing telecommuting, contingent employment, multi-skilling and use of flex hours should be enhanced so that organizations can meet global competitiveness.

Figure 4 and table 4.15 were used to present ranking and distribution of the feasible ways to ensure that more women became leaders. The outcomes in these presentations were able to depict the viability of every variable. This also showed whether the variables were attainable or not and at what level they would assist in installing and maintaining the idea of having an equal number to men in organizational leadership.

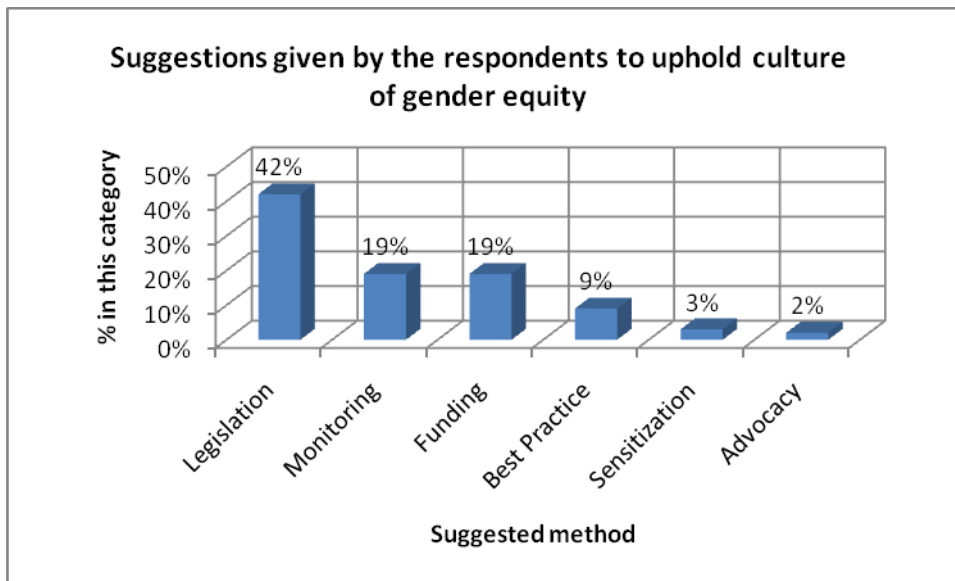


Figure 4 Feasible ways to create gender equity culture

Source: Researcher 2012

Table 4.15 Feasible ways to create equity culture by academic levels, age and leadership categories

Possible suggestions shared by the participants	ACADEMIC		AGE		LEADERSHIP	
	DEGREE AND	DIPLOMA AND	21-40	41-70	LEADERS	NON-

	ABOVE		BELOW								LEADERS	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
LEGISLATION	22	12	54	30	31	17	45	25	35	19	41	23
MONITORING	11	6	24	13	17	9	18	10	16	9	19	11
FUNDING	13	7	22	12	13	7	22	12	24	13	11	6
SENSITIZATION	2	1	3	2	1	0.5	4	2	1	0.5	4	2
ADVOCACY	1	0.5	3	2	1	0.5	3	2	1	0.5	3	2
BEST PRACTICE	6	3	10	6	7	4	9	5	7	4	9	5
										□		□
TOTAL	55	31	116	64	70	39	101	56	84	47	87	48

Source: Researcher 2012

Out of the 180 participants who took part in the study, 171 (95%) chose their best ways of improving gender equity in organizational leadership. 9 (5%) did not choose because they had already indicated that they were not for gender equity and gave their reasons.

Legislation scored the highest with 76(42%), monitoring and funding tied with 35 (19%) each, best practice had 16(9%), sensitization had 5(3%) while advocacy had the least of 4(2%). This meant that the respondents preferred coercion and guidance by laid down procedures (which if not followed would lead to disciplinary measures) to voluntary cultivation and upholding gender equality.

From table 4.15 it was clear that the participants with diploma and below 116 (64%), of the 41-70 age bracket 101 (56%) had the highest participation. The leadership category showed that the leaders 84 (47%) and non-leaders 87 (48%) participation was almost equal. Sensitization and advocacy had the least participation of 1% and 0.5% respectively This meant that people did not need to be told what gender was or for – they already knew and preferred action to enhance it. It was also surprising that they

preferred 16 (9%) best organizational practice because it was a new concept and hardly practiced in schools. This could have been because it promised democracy and flexibility. This table also showed that if legislation, monitoring, funding and best organizational practices were put into place, there would be addition of women in organizational leadership hence enhancing gender equity in general.

A chi-square test for associations of suggested feasible ways against women leadership in organizations was presented with the table below. If the outcome of the test depicts association of any feasible way suggested, then women leadership would depend on that suggestion. If there is no association, then women leadership would be independent of the feasible way.

Table 4.15: A chi-square test for independence to establish associations between women leadership and possible ways to cultivate the culture of gender equity

Recommendations	Value	df	Asymp.sig (2-sided)
Legislation	6.424	1	.017 < 0.05
Monitoring	4.047	1	.031 < 0.05
Funding	4.423	1	.033 < 0.05
Sensitization	0.257	1	.001 < 0.05
Advocacy	0.612	1	.049 < 0.05
Best practice	0.974	1	.022 < 0.05

Source: Researcher 2012

All the P-Values generated from the Chi-square test were less than 0.05 implying that there was a strong association between each suggested way and gender equity. Since they were unimplemented, they have given way to the gender gap. If implemented it would mean more women would take up leadership positions. They would determine gender equity.

4.3 Qualitative analysis of data collected through interview

This instrument was purposely administered to the executive leaders of the schools. As far as education matters are concerned, these leaders were referred to either by the beneficiaries or by the policy makers and were ever expected to be decision makers, ready and able to solve any problem. So their first hand information was very important to the study because they not only implemented on policies but made them and custodians of the same.

4.3.1 Stakeholders' perception on women leadership

They were all of the same opinion that women should be leaders and to achieve gender equity in organizations, something should be done. They all confirmed that they were mandated by the school stakeholders (the parents, the ministry of education, the civil and elected leaders) to be leaders of their respective schools and surprisingly enough, they had all been in school leadership for more than five years. Ten of them had applied for the leadership position while the rest had been nominated. Each wanted to produce an appointment letter from The Ministry Education.

They had different opinions on why women should lead. Six males confessed that they preferred working under females because they were equally qualified, flexible, perfectionists, good time keepers, good listeners and arbitrators. Another two males said that females would go an extra mile to counsel someone before taking any disciplinary action which might affect him and his family's life negatively. The female leaders reiterated that it is high time women were given a chance to prove they are capable and they went ahead to enumerate stable and performing schools that had been led by women principals. One of them emphasized that women were more available to attend meetings in schools because men were normally engaged elsewhere in order to make sure that there is daily bread and education for the family. The younger and with higher educated said that if women were given an opportunity, they would make better leaders because they are normally very committed, careful and will always identify with the organization. One said women were able to persevere hard times and looked forward to a better tomorrow. They also said that talents were let to waste when women who are inborn leaders were not given a chance.

4.3.2 Constraints that are responsible for gender inequality in leadership

Four of the younger leaders said that the culture and traditions of people should be done away with so that women, who have also gone to school and trained in leadership, should be given a chance to develop their skills. Six older and with lower education said that women have low self-esteem and that is why they don't take up leadership positions. One of the younger leaders cleared that women do not shy off from the jobs but are denied the chances of leading for no apparent reason. The female leaders were emphatic on this by saying that they had made it and therefore every other female can make it. The older leaders said people should share in the reproductive roles as well as

in the productive roles. One of them said that if the reproductive roles continued to inhibit women from taking leadership roles then it will mean there is no need for their education. ‘Should women be condemned to the kitchen forever?’ he asked. Two males said that it is cowardice not masculinity to hinder women from taking up leadership positions. One young man said procrastination is still another hindrance to women taking up leadership positions. The affirmative policies and strategies mounted are never implemented and are carried forward every time. One young man said that impunity is still another problem. People go unpunished even when they exercise sex harassment in the organizations. This contributed to gender inequality because women feared to compromise their dignity to promotions acquired through dubious means.

4.3.3 Benefits that would accrue from gender equity

All the participants acknowledged that there were positive and negative benefits that would accrue from gender equity. Eighteen said that if gender equity is exercised fully, it would bring with it rare assets in terms of experience, skills, ability, knowledge and change of attitudes. They emphasized that if these assets were not exploited just because they belong to females, then it is a loss to any organizations or country. Two degree holders’ men asserted that life had to change and women must be given an equal chance to opportunities and share of resources especially if poverty has to be eradicated in our country. Eight participants reiterated that women had a right to equal chances including leadership positions in organizations. They also asserted that if any organization was going to be competitive and remain afloat in the current labor market, an equal number of women to men must be in leadership positions. Two women said that retrogressive cultures must be done away with and that the unimplemented policies have to be readdressed. Two old men and one young woman said that if patriarchy would be done

with, there would be harmonious interrelationships in the organization and this would translate to better performance.

4.3.3 Feasible ways of improving creating a gender equity culture

When asked what should be done for gender equity to take effect, one female said that there should be gender equity advocacy, benchmarking and lobbying. She said that women should be in the forefront to do this campaign. Some of the male leaders felt that there should be legislation of the affirmative interventions. These should not only include the constitutional 1/3 and above but also make them law. One of them said that if women equal representation and participation in organizational leadership is to be a reality, then there must be mainstreaming in every sector. Another said, 'it doesn't matter what efforts the government, women activists and the international bodies put, there has to be strict monitoring and evaluation, not only on money but also on the policies' and strategies' implementation'. Another leader said that funds must be availed adequately and timely in order to implement gender responsive initiatives. Seven men and three women asserted that unless there is sensitization of all people on gender equity, understanding of its hindrances, benefits and procedures will remain a mystery. One man and two women said that all people should be made aware of women's passive potentials and capabilities so that they and their organizations could gain from them. One woman said that men should be aware that long gone are the days when women were not be allowed to make decisions. One female said that reproductive roles which were mandatory for women, like breastfeeding, should not prevent one from becoming a leader because of the introduction of organizational best practices. These included day care centers, home working and telecommuting and the introduction of flex work. They also did not forget to emphasize on exclusive breastfeeding which

would be beneficial to the organization as the working mother would be uninterrupted and to the baby who would get the best required nutrients timely. Two men and two females who are young and highly educated remembered to say that research must be considered in order to create knowledge for what is missing.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

After the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data was done, this chapter came up with the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. For its layout, the objectives of the study and research questions were used as the themes and sub-themes. The study's literature review was referred to in order to compare and contrast the existing knowledge and the study's findings. The recommendations made were meant to bridge the existing gender gap.

5.2 Summary of findings

From the data collected by use of a document analysis, questionnaire and an interview schedule, presentation, descriptive and inferential statistics analysis and interpretation were done and several outstanding outputs were found out.

5.2.1 Participants' Response

Women did not have an equal chance like men to become leaders. This is because it was found out that out of 660 target population only 117 females were leaders while men were 232 and on the other hand there were 213 female non-leaders but only 98 male non-leaders. This was again evidenced in paragraph 4.2 where out of 180 participants only 36 females were leaders while men were 53 and 53 female non-leaders while only 38 men were non-leaders. Age was not a criterion for leadership but to be a leader, it depended from which gender one belonged to. This was what Northouse, (2007) referred to as double standard measurement where women must show some masculinity besides academic qualifications or age to be a leader.

5.2.2 Stakeholders' perception on women leadership

From 4.3 the stakeholders overwhelmingly accepted that women should become leaders. There was 95% yes to women leadership. Surprisingly, some women felt that women cannot make leaders. The methods used to install those leaders showed clearly that leaders were stakeholders' choice because 95% of the leaders had been installed by the stakeholders. To be installed and remain a leader, one had to be a choice of the followers just like Fred fielder (1967) confirmed that a leader had to have a relationship with the followers that he was leading. Knowles (1971) said that self-imposed leadership would only be found in an informal setting and would rarely be recognized by the stakeholders in a formal setting. This is evidenced by the only 3% self-imposed

installation of a leader. It was also found out that for women to become leaders, they had to aggressively compete with men. Though the best reason for accepting women as leaders was academic qualifications, it was surprising that more females (31) than males (28) had degrees and above but were fewer women (36) than men (53) who were leaders. This meant that since more women had higher academic qualifications than men but not equal in leadership, then academic qualification was not a criterion for leadership. From the inferential analysis only trait that showed that it was not responsible for gender inequality.

Societal demand was the strongest reason given for not supporting women leadership and could be related to culture constraint which strongly hindered women from taking up leadership roles. Referring to Sagimo (2002) and TSC (June, 2007), males and females qualities, traits and attributes were complementary for better leadership performance in any organization. As Kanyoro (2006) said, masculinity or male domination is out-dated while the female flexibility or participatory style of leadership is the in thing in organizations. This therefore explained that, given an opportunity, women are essential leaders in organizations.

5.2.3 The constraints' effects on women leadership

From 4.4 which dwelt with constraints, culture (71) emerged as the most critical hindrance of women taking up leadership positions while patriarchy was the least. From the interview impunity, procrastination and sexual harassment also came up very strongly as impediments to gender equity. From chi-square test religion had the strongest relationship of 0.006. This confirmed what Northouse (2006) said that empirical evidence reveals that gender stereotypes can significantly alter the perception

and evaluation of female leaders and directly affect women aspiring to leadership positions. These constraints are retrogressive and as Kabiro (1993) said, if these constraints continued to be propagated, then gender equity would be difficult to achieve.

5.2.4 Benefits that would accrue from gender equity culture

Positive and negative benefits that could accrue from gender equity if women were equally represented and participated in organizational leadership were suggested. These benefits were expected to be motivators or demotivators for creation or maintenance of a gender equity culture. The positive ones scored 171 (95) while the negative ones scored 9 (5%) and this showed that people valued gender equity. It was surprising that there were more women than men who scored on the negative benefits. This meant that some women were against other women becoming leaders. It was also found out that though these benefits were well known as Kwesiga (2002) quoted Agathe Uwilinginiman who said, “When women reach this decision-making level, they are in a position to legislate for positive changes from women’s point of view.”, but women leadership was still not given the attention it deserves.

From the chi-square test all benefits had no relationship with gender equity gap but if they had been taken seriously, they would have been motivators to the inculcation of a gender equity culture. If gender equity was put on board, organizations would benefit by having varied inputs from men and women and females aspiring to be leaders would be considered without any hindrances from retrogressive constraints.

5.2.5 The feasible ways of creating a gender equity culture

Feasible ways to create a gender equity culture were suggested: While legislation was highly supported 42%, sensitization had the least support 2% and from the qualitative analysis sensitization scored the highest of 50%. This meant that most people were willing to be coerced to accept gender equity while the top leaders felt that what people required to implement gender equity fully was only sensitization. From the chi-square test it was evident that all feasible ways had strong relationships with women leadership and would therefore be used to eradicate gender inequality and women and men in leadership positions equally. Kabira et al (1993) said that in order to address this complex process – Gender equity – it is necessary to be aware of all manifestations of the ideology of oppression that is gender biased and work out strategies for demolishing it and creating a new ideology based on gender equity for true democracy.

5.3 Conclusions

From the findings the researcher concluded as follows;

There were fewer women in leadership positions as compared to men. The stakeholders' perceptions on women leadership were that women can make leaders and they were solely responsible for installing leaders whether men or women. Though women leadership qualities are complimentary to men's and that women were equally academically qualified to make effective leadership. women still had lower representation and participation in organizational leadership. It was also found out that women shied off from these leadership positions. Constraints, especially culture, inhibited women from taking up leadership positions and therefore men qualified or not

took advantage. Since it was found out that the positive benefits out did the negative ones, there is no doubt that any organization that wished to remain afloat would ensure more women in leadership positions. All the feasible ways to the creation and improvement of gender equity were proved viable.

5.4 Recommendations of the study

After the conclusions of the study, the following were the recommendations that depended on the surprises of the findings.

- 1) Stakeholders should ensure that during recruitment or deployment to leadership positions, women are given an equal chance or use the affirmative action to the letter.
- 2) Women should cultivate their self-esteem to be able to compete with men for leadership positions.
- 3) The executive leaders and other policy makers should be visionary and capture as many gender equity positive benefits to remain afloat.
- 4) Organizations should do away with the retrogressive constraints and instead employ the feasible ways of creating and improving gender equity culture.

5.5 Areas for further research

From the study, it was interesting to find out that many participants agreed that women were capable of taking leadership positions in their respective organizations. To be sure that women can lead better or just like men do, “A comparative study of gender level of leadership performance in organizations.” would prove further that gender should never be a criterion for leadership.

REFERENCES

Allyn (1996) et al. *Sociology*, U.S.A: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Association of African Women for Research & Development. (1995). *From strategies To Action*. Nairobi: Association of African Women for Research & Development.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Worth Publishers.

Barasa, L. (2011). *Women MPs' quota "hard to enforce"* Thursday 6th June Nairobi: Daily Nation.

Blake, R. (1964) et al. *The Management Grid; The Key to Leadership Excellence*. Houston: gulf Publishing Co.

Blanchard, K. (2008) et al. *Management of organizational Behaviour: leading Human Resources* 9th Edition, Upper Saddle River NJ: Pearson Education.

- Blanchard, K. (1986) et al. *Leadership & the One Minute Manager* Glasgow: William Cortlines & Sons Co. Ltd.
- Bradford D. (1984). *Managing for Excellence* Edition, U.S.A: Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership*, New York: Harper and Row publishers Inc.
- Caryle, T. (1841), *On Heroes, Hero Worship, and the heroic History*. Boston: MA; Houghton Mifflin.
- De Cenzo A. (1996). *Human Resource management*, 5th Edition. U.S.A: John Wiley & Sons. Inc.
- Fiedler, F. (1967). *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. McGraw-Hill: harper and Row Publishers Inc.
- Githiga, G. (2009). *Effective Church Leadership*, Nairobi: Uzima Publishing House.
- Herbert, S. (1841)). *The Study of Sociology*. New York: D. A. Appleton.
- Lucheli, I. (2010). 'Here women don't just slap, they shoot to kill.' Nairobi: Saturday April 24th page 11 Standard News Paper.
- Kabira, W. (1993) et al. *Democratic change in Africa: women's perspective*, Nairobi: Act Press, African Centre for Technology Studies.
- Khasiani, S. (1993) et al. *The Women's Movement in Kenya*. Nairobi: Association of African Women for Research & Development.
- Kothari, C. R. (2008). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques* 2nd Edition, Delhi: New Age International (P) Ltd. Publishers.
- Kwesiga, J.C. ((2002). *Women's Access to Higher Education in Africa*, Kampala: Fountain Publishers Ltd.
- Ministry of Education (2007). *Policy on Gender in Education*. Nairobi: Government of Kenya Press.
- Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services, (November, 2000). *National Gender and Development Policy*. Nairobi: Government Press.
- Monitoring & Evaluation Directorate, Ministry of Planning and National Development, Government of Kenya, (2006). *Economic Recovery Strategy*. Nairobi: Government of Kenya Press.
- Mugenda O. M. (1999). *Research Methods 1st Edition*, Nairobi: Acts Press.
- National Council for Population & Development (May 2003) *Adolescent Reproductive and Development Policy*. Nairobi: United States Agency for International Development.

- Ndungu, N. (2010). *Let's Celebrate the Power of Women for The Key Roles They Play in Society*, Nairobi: Saturday April 24th page 18 Standard News Paper.
- Northouse, P. (2007). *Leadership Theory & Practice, 4th Edition*, London: Sege Publications Inc.
- Odico A. (2002) et, al. *Women' Minimum Agenda for the Constitution*, Nairobi, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung (FES).
- Sagimo, P. (2002). *Management Dynamics*, Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers.
- Sherman H. (1982). *Sociology: Traditional and Radical Perspectives*, 1st Edition, London: Harper & Row.
- Sutherland, J. (2004). *Key Concepts in Management*, Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan Ltd.
- Teachers Service Commission (2006). *Policy on identification, selection, appointment, deployment and training of heads in schools*. Nairobi: Government of Kenya Press.
- Thakkar, S. (2011) *Are Women Better Leaders Than Men?* 8th, October, Nairobi: Saturday Nation.
- The Bible Society of Kenya. (1997), *The Holy Bible*, Nairobi. Africa Area of Typsetting unit
- Torrington, D. (2005) et al. *Human Resource Management* 6th Edition, England: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Visranathan, (1997) et el. *The woman Gender and Development* Bangladesh: The University Press Ltd.
- Were, G. (1985). *Women and Development in Africa* 1st Edition, Nairobi: Gideon Were Press.
- Williman, D. (2007). *Your Research Project* 2nd Edition, New Delhi: Vistar Publications.
- Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in Organizations*, 6th Edition, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Zaccaro, S. (2008) et al. *Personality and leadership*, West Port: CT; Praeger.

Internet Sources

- Beauvoir, S. (1972). *The Second Sex*
<http://www.marxists.org/reference/subject/philosophy/works/fr/2ndex.htm> Translated
 by HM Parshley, London: Pequine. Accessed on 23rd March, 2010.
- Chemers, M.M. (2002) *Meta-cognitive social and emotional intelligence of transformational leadership: efficacy and Effectiveness*. In Riggio, E. Murphy, J. & Pirossolo (Eds), *Multiple Intelligence and Leadership*. Accessed on: 23rd march, 2010.
- Catalyst (2003). Women in U.S. Corporate Leadership
<http://www.catalyst.org/file/52/women> Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- House, R. J. (1996). “*Path-goal Theory of Leadership: Lessons, Legacy, and a Reformulated Theory*”, *Leadership Quarterly* 7 (3): 323-325. Doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(96)90024-7. Available at: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(96\)90024-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(96)90024-7)
 Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- Human Rights Watch (2010). *Women’s Rights* (<http://www.hrw.org/women>) Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- Ingrid, B. (2006). *Facilitating to Lead*. Jossey-Bass. Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- Jamal, B. (September, 1971). *The Status of Women in Islam*
<http://iaislam.tripod.com/TSOWH.htm>, Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- Knowles, H. et al (1971). *Personality and Leadership Behaviour*, Reading mass.;;
<http://www.worldcat.org/oclc/118832>) Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- Lewin, K. et al (1939). *Patterns of Progressive Behaviour for Experimentally Created Climates*, *Journal of Social Psychology* 10: 271-301 Accessed on: 23rd March, 2010.
- United Nations Millennium Development Goals (2008). “*Goal 3 Gender Equity*”
<http://www.endpoverty2015.org/goals/gender-equity> Accessed on: 24th May, 2010.
- Vedior, (2008). *Women ‘earn less than men across the globe’*,
<http://www.vedior.com/hr-portal/recruitment-news/women-earn-less-than-men-across-the-globe.html?c=3052>.) Accessed on: 21st May, 2010.

APPENDIX A: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

1. How many schools are in Kabarnet Zone?					
Secondary		Primary		Zone	
2. What is the enrolment in the Zone?					
Secondary		Primary		Zone	
3. What is the number of teachers in the Zone?					
Secondary		Primary		Zone	
Female		Female		Female	
Male		Male		Male	
Total		Total		Total	
4. What are the teachers' designations by gender?					
Designations	Females	Males	Total		
Principals					
Deputy Principals					
Heads of Departments					
Head Teachers					
Deputy Head Teachers					
Senior Teachers					
Assistant Teachers					
5. What are the teachers' ages?					
Age Bracket	Females	Males	Total		
21 – 30					
31 – 40					
41 – 50					
51 – 60					
6. What are the teachers' academic qualifications?					
Academic Level	Females	Males	Total		
Doctorate					
Masters					
Degree					
Diploma					
Form Six					

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

To be administered to the teachers, Board of Governors, Parents Teachers Association and School Management Committee Members

- ✓ Do not indicate your name
 - ✓ Tick only one of the most appropriate
-

PART A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

I. Your age bracket

- 21-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61-70

2. Your gender

- Female
- Male

3. What is your current academic level of Education?

- Doctorate
- Masters
- Degree
- Diploma
- Form Four
- Form Two
- Class Eight/Seven

Part B: Participant's Information

4. What is your leadership role in this school?

- S. M. C. Member
- P. T. A. Member
- B. O. G. Member
- Principal
- Deputy Principal
- Head of department
- Head teacher
- Deputy Head teacher
- Senior teacher
- Assistant teacher

5. What method was used to appoint you as a leader in your school?

- Campaign hence elections
- Nomination then appointment
- Application and attending interviews for an existing vacancy
- Self imposition

6. According to your opinion, should a woman become a leader of your school?

Yes No

a. If yes above, why?

- Women’s academic qualifications
- Women’s leadership traits of being patient, nurturing and caring
- Women have acquired attributes in form of leadership skills (listening, counseling)
- Women are easily available to attend meetings as men are busy elsewhere

b. If no above, why?

- Role conflict because women are tied to children and home chores.
- Women have low self-esteem and are afraid of challenges.
- Male chauvinism and masculinity is ingrained in society
- The society does not allow women to lead them

7. What hinders women from taking up organizational leadership positions?

- Negative publications in the media
- No apparent reason as they meet all qualities of a leader
- The culture that has endured all times
- Religion that prefers women submission to men
- Reproductive roles that limits women’s time
- Lack of self-efficacy/self-esteem
- Patriarchy that enhances male domination

8. If women and men would have equal representation and participation of leadership in your school, what would be the likely outcomes?

a. Positive ones

- There will be more assets in terms of experience, skills and knowledge in the school

Women and girls will aspire and work towards being leaders as they emulate women leaders

Gender equity and equality will be exercised in all the organizations

Realization of individual rights and freedoms

Reformation of policies and strategies that are outdated

b. Negative ones

Family breakup

Men mistrust and undermine women in such jobs

Women leaders' disrespect men who are under them

Men's resistance to change to the extent of sabotaging since they have been domineering

The school will collapse due women's lack of relevant experience

9. In your opinion, what should be done to make sure that women occupy equal representation and participation in leadership positions as men in your school?

Legislation of making 50% women representation and participation and create women's' vacancies law in all organizations.

Strict monitoring and evaluation of gender sensitive programmes, initiatives and policy implementation for accountability, transparency and responsibility

Funding should be increased and made available for gender activists and initiatives to be carried out

Sensitization, role modeling and creating awareness of the gender equity necessity

Advocacy, lobbying, empowerment, partnership, benchmarking, networking and community participation.

Initiate best organizational practice e.g. day care centers, flexible work, telecommuting, multi-skilling, contingent employment

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Administered to top school leaders: the principals, head teachers and chairpersons of B.O.G., P.T.A. and S.M.C. members

Part A: Demographic Data

1. Your age bracket

20 – 30	<input type="checkbox"/>
31 – 40	<input type="checkbox"/>
41 – 50	<input type="checkbox"/>
51 – 60	<input type="checkbox"/>
60 - 70	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Your sex

Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. What is your highest Academic level?

Doctorate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Masters	<input type="checkbox"/>
Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
Form Four	<input type="checkbox"/>
Form Two	<input type="checkbox"/>
Class Eight	<input type="checkbox"/>

Part B: Participant’s views

4. What is your leadership designation/role in your school?

5. How did you become a leader of your school:

6. In your opinion, should women become leaders of your school?
 Yes No Neutral
 - a. If ‘yes’ give reasons

 - b. If ‘no’ give a reasons

7. What problems hinder women from taking up organizational leadership positions?

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

8. If women and men would have equal representation and participation of leadership in your school, what would be the likely outcomes?

a. Positive outcomes

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

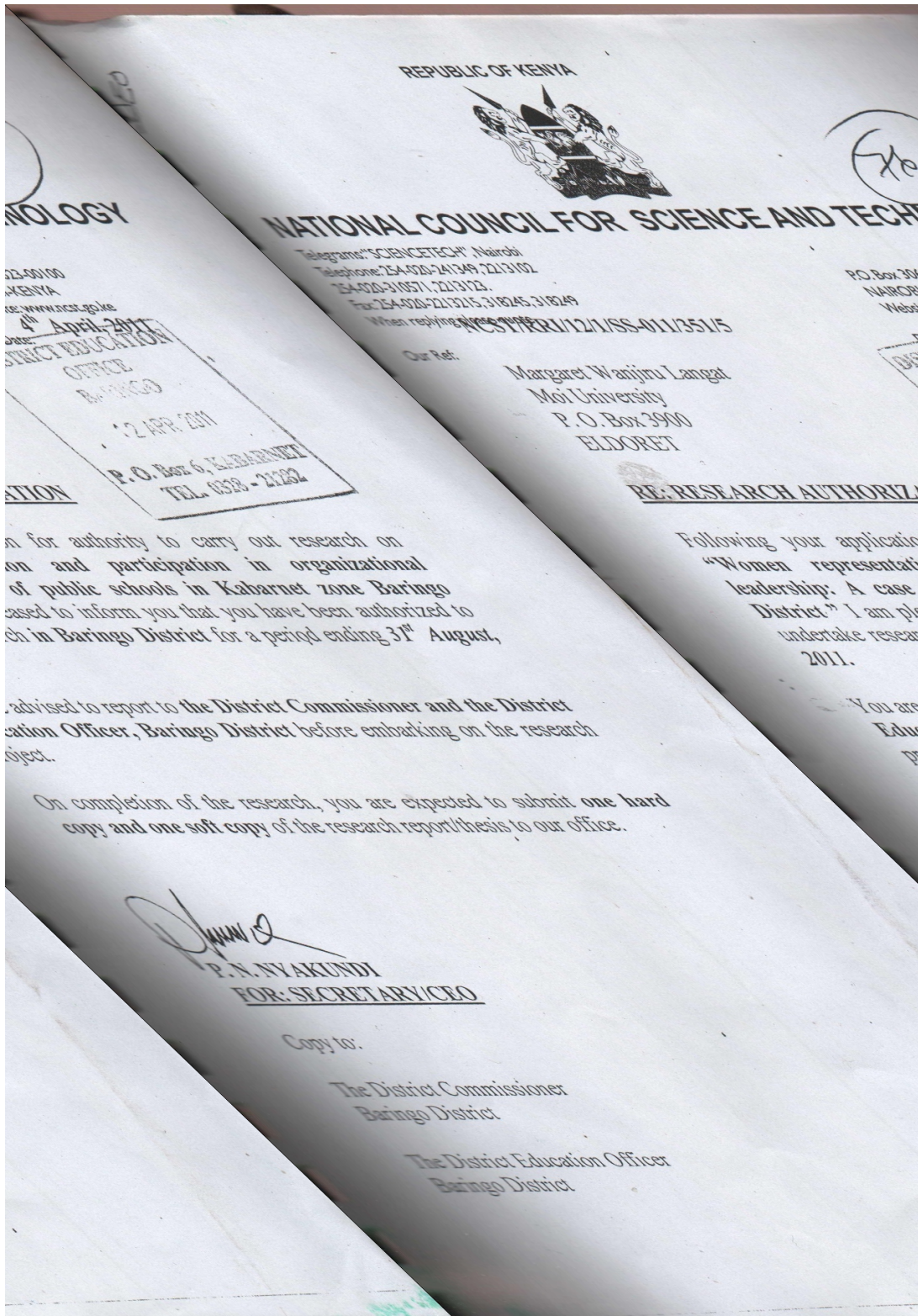
b. Negative outcomes.

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

9. In your opinion, what should be done to make sure that women occupy equal representation and participation in leadership positions as men in your school?

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

APPENDIX D: LETTER OF RESEARCH PERMIT



APPENDIX E: MAP

