An Assessment of the Prerequisite Conditions and Stakeholders’ Attitudes towards Women Leadership in Primary Schools in Eldoret Municipality, Kenya

Catherine Barmao

Department of Educational Management and Policy Studies, Moi University; P. O. Box 3900-30100, Eldoret, Kenya.

Abstract

This paper analyses whether the conditions required in appointment of teachers into leadership positions in schools are met by both male and female teachers, and the perception of various education stakeholders towards women leadership based on a study conducted in Eldoret Municipality. The study was guided by socialization theory to hierarchical gender prescriptions which gave three distinct theoretical traditions that help, understand sex and gender. Descriptive survey adopted for the study and used both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The study employed stratified sampling, simple random and purposive sampling. A sample of 105 respondents from 10% of the target population were used where 2 Municipal Education Officials (TAC tutors), 8 head teachers, 80 teachers and 15 committee members were purposely selected for the study from 15 public primary schools randomly selected in the Municipality. Data was collected using questionnaire and interview schedule. The questionnaire was administered to teachers and committee members whereas interview schedule was administered to head teachers and TAC (tutors). Data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Frequencies, percentage and Chi-square (x²) were employed in the analysis. It was established that women were not discriminated against in headship position but other obstacles, like unfair promotion procedures, gender stereotyping and rigid career path ways hinder women most. The author recommends that the educational policy should provide equal opportunity for male and female and that the conditions required in the appointments and recruitment should ensure that they eliminate discrimination. The study is significant to female teachers in headship positions as it calls on the need to improve on their roles as mentors to other young female teachers in the profession. It also contributes to the ongoing studies on the place of women in leadership and development.

Keywords: assessment, prerequisite conditions, stakeholders, attitudes, women leadership, primary schools, Eldoret municipality, Kenya.

INTRODUCTION

African societies largely continue to discourage women with ambition in politics, among other sectors of life such as education, from aspiring to leadership positions and their marginalized position is still a shared phenomenon in Africa. The political space, like gender, is culturally created by society although most governments and political parties have clauses expressing explicitly the concept of gender equality in their manifestos and constitution. Women are known for their immense contribution to socio-economic and cultural development, they still largely remain implementers of decisions made by men as their peripheral position in national institutionalized process of political participation (Wanjiku & Wasamba, 1998). In 2007, the Political Parties’ Act was passed and provides for 50% chance women representation in party nominations. However, during the previous elections, for instance, women were faced with various challenges ranging from physical and verbal violence, especially during the political campaigns (Institute of Economic Affairs, 2008). Sessional paper No. 2 (RoK, 1996) on gender equality and development, women’s bureau addresses pertinent issues concerning women and political participation and asserts that the government recognizes and is conscious of the tremendous and heroic contribution made by women and men in the political development of the country, both during the struggle for independence and in the post-independence period. In the Sessional paper (ibid.), it is noted that although women in Kenya account for 50.4 percent of the total population and comprise about 60.2 percent of the total voting population, according to estimates in 1992, this percentage is not reflected in women in political participation in strategic decision-making in political institutions such as parliament, the cabinet, local governments, trade unions, co-operative societies, district development committees, medical boards, school boards of governors (BOG) and political parties.

Statistical trends regarding women’s political participation since independence indicate that a lot
needs to be done towards the goal of increasing women’s involvement. In the period prior to repeal of section 2A of the Constitution, four (4) women served as elected members of parliament. In the 1992 general election nineteen (19) women aspirants contested parliament seats and only 6 captured the seats which is equivalent to 3.2 percent of the total hundred and eighty-eight (188) parliamentary seats. Similarly, one hundred and seventeen (117) women councillors contested for local council seats and only seventy-eight (78) got in representing 3.9 percent of the total seats in the local authority (Sessional Paper No. 2, RoK, 1996).

Currently, less than one percent of the executive members in trade unions, co-operatives and parastatal companies are women. These statistics do not necessarily translate into a just and fair distribution of women in political mainstream, especially when their numerical voter supremacy is taken into account. The gender disparity in political participation has serious implications of gender concern in all sectors of development. A report of the task force on the laws relating to women indicate a more positive trend in appointment of women in high position in the judiciary such as high court judges. In many countries women are under-represented at decision-making levels in most areas of public administration. Women and men have different priorities for developing policies and laws because of their different gender roles in the household and community, their occupations in labour markets and their access to key resources, such as capital, property and credit (UNHCR, 2007).

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

Nevertheless, there is still a long way to go in some sectors such as provincial administration where women are a minority. The political administration is a critical area taking into account the ongoing policy reform bent on devolving power to the local levels for administration to be closer to the people, it is imperative that women hold decision making position proportionate in their numerical strength in society on the executive side they were only three women permanent secretaries (Sessional paper No. 2, RoK, 1996).

Women’s Participation in Higher Education

There are considerable disparities in universities depending on programmes; for example, the arts-based courses consistently have high female students’ representation compared to male students. In general, enrolment for female students decreases at the higher levels of education perhaps due to the social and cultural retrogressive factor. The fact that transition to university education is still low requires targeted interventions on educational policies on access and retention in order to achieve higher women representation. The effects of low women survival in education system are also evident in the labour market structure where women are underrepresented in most major sectors (Institute of Economic Affairs, 2008).

The World Conference on Higher Education (UNESCO, 1998) underlines as a key function of higher education the enhancement of participation and role of women in higher education. The conference recognizes various socio-economic, cultural and political obstacles that continue to impede women’s full access to and effective integration in higher education. Article 4 of the World Declaration on Higher Education for the 21st Century (UNESCO, 1998) is very explicit in its demand for the elimination of all gender stereotyping in higher education and places particular emphasis on the need to eliminate political and social barriers to women’s effective participation in policy and decision-making, both in higher education and in society generally (ILO, 1998).

Besides their traditional roles of generating knowledge through research, and providing leadership in the development of high level human resources through education and training, universities are expected to assume responsibility for and leadership in the transformation of society with regard to gender roles generally and women’s participation in particular (Onsongo, 2003). According to Sifuna (2006), a number of issues have been advanced to explain low enrolment in higher education. Secondary school enrolment coupled with high dropout rate of girls greatly reduces the scope for progress in higher education. This rate is estimated to be so high that it results in a small number of completers who are eligible for entry into higher education. Other sets of factors that make university education rather unattractive for women are the high failure rate in certain field like medicine and engineering. A high level of sexual harassment of women students has also been cited by some studies (Subbarao, 1994).
Kanake (1998) asserts that social cultural factors from some communities confine women to lower levels of education system. This perception coupled with economic factors lead some families to terminate girls’ education at the lower levels. Recent studies also reveal that many men tend to shun highly educated females especially where candidacy for marriage is concerned. Most of them view such women as rude, unco-operative and unable to manage housework. These perceptions are also said to discourage some female graduate from continuing with postgraduate studies at masters and PhD levels. Higher education plays a part in national development and this includes the advancement of women. Women in Africa during colonial period were excluded from various universities that dotted the continent because men’s education was accorded higher priority than that of women. A variety of factors included, emphasis on domestic chores, influence of patriarchy, inaccessibility to education and task assigned to them by the norms and custom of the society. The development of women therefore is intertwined with the inferior political, social and cultural position in which they find themselves (Staudt, 1981).

Higher education helps women in two ways: it enables qualified women to become leaders in society and allows them to become role models for younger girls. University planners, restricted by a lack of resources and by the priority given to basic education, have many obstacles to overcome if they are to provide access to courses, provide the necessary finding and diversify the number of courses available. These tasks have been complicated by the introduction of innovative methods of instruction using global information technologies and by the fact that higher education is international in character and staff tends to be more mobile than in the past. The fact that there are fewer employment opportunities for women also discouages them from following courses in higher education. Other factors which prevent them from entering universities include: a) early marriage and family responsibilities; b) lack of career guidance; and c) inability to assume personal and professional responsibilities (Kanake, 1998).

Kanake (1998) further asserts that women who enter universities tend to follow courses in arts and social sciences for lack of competence in mathematics and science. Women are thus often excluded from senior positions in the field of technology. At the present time, women remain seriously under-represented at the higher education level and in professional life in general. In contrast, their male counterparts who achieve similar qualifications and experience generally meet with greater careers success and participate fully in management processes. As a result of this imbalance, women are too absent from the management of social change in general. As long as such under representation persists, the trained human resources of a country are not being utilized to optimal effect. The past 20 years have witnessed significant - but not sufficient - enrolment of the female population in higher education. This progress has certainly been due in part to specific strategies which have focused attention on the inequalities to be redressed.

UN action has been effective in ensuring that women and girls access education as policy-makers are being sensitized on the rights of women and on the need to open all levels of education to accommodate their greater numbers. A closer analysis of higher education statistics reveals the different nature of the problem in different socio-economic and socio-cultural contexts affect women (UNESCO, 1993).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
In both developing and developed countries, women continue to be under-represented in decision-making and leadership in several areas. The consequence of this gender gap is that women do not participate fully in decisions that shape their lives and their communities and countries are not capitalizing on the full potential of one half of their societies (Gentry, 1996). However in Eldoret Municipality, the patterns of representation into headship positions among female teachers reveal under-representation as they account for a small percentage of heads of institutions. There are 41 public primary schools in the Municipality and the numbers of female head teachers are 10 whereas their male counterparts are 31. This is a huge disparity in terms of gender equality despite the fact that female teachers in the municipality are 660 comprising 83% of the entire teaching workforce while the male comprise 17% with their total of 139 (MEO’S Office, 2010). Eldoret Municipality, like other municipalities in Kenya, reveals more female teaching workforce but low participation into top headship positions in schools due to a problem that starts at an early stage in life where girls are discriminated against and the trend of inequality continues till maturity where more men are in leadership compared to women. As such, there is need to find out the factors contributing to under-representation of female teachers to headship and to find ways to improve equal participation in leadership positions.

Work Place Inequality
A powerful trend of the past several decades has been the entrance of women into the workforce in vastly increasing numbers and percentage. This is especially evident in the United States where a dramatic transformation has occurred within one generation in the Labour force expectation of and for women (Biachi & Spain, 1996). It is often assumed that women’s increased involvement in paid work has
been associated with a sharp reduction in workplace inequality, but in reality this is not the case. No longer isolated in domestic spheres, women work alongside men in offices, factories and other work settings. Several studies have demonstrated, however, that women and men are not treated equally at work even if they possess the same qualification and are hired to perform the same job. Women encounter barriers when they try to enter the most lucrative and prestigious specialties. A glass ceiling prevents them from reaching the top position (Reskin & Phipps, 1988).

Opportunities for women occupying managerial positions are increasing but career advancement may depend on the functional area, industry or on particular company. Women are likely to be found at upper levels of management in areas such as personnel or public relation. With the large number of married women in the workforce, an increasing number of companies have recognized the stressful situation of dual-career couples through more flexible polices, career planning, personnel selection, placement and promotion. They assert that women in management may use different leadership styles than men, which involves interactive styles like sharing information and power apart from inspiring participation and letting people know that they are important. Men in contrast use control of resource and authority of their position to motivate their people (Koontz & Wehrich, 1988).

Women are still under-represented in middle and senior management roles. They still face a lot of difficulties in breaking into what is still very much a male preserve, that is ‘the glass ceiling’ - an analogy to describe the subtly transparent barrier that prevent women from gaining access to the more senior roles in their organization (Cole, 2002). Kanter (1977) argues that the barriers women face in predominately male occupation can be attributed to their numerical minority in organization. Although men and women may have similar qualifications, the organization nevertheless promotes gender differentiation through the mechanism of tokenism. Women careers often suffer because organizations typically do not accommodate their additional household responsibilities (Hochschild, 1989).

The programming of career development has always been difficult for women. The important years for career building are also those of child bearing and their family responsibilities may hinder their career advancement. Women are often excluded from selection because they are less aware than men of the “covert criteria” for appointments to executive positions. Other important barriers to women’s participation in decision-making include: (a) family attitudes; (b) alienation from the male culture and continued resistance to women in management position; and (c) inadequate policies and legislation to ensure their participation. At the community level, women are appointed to local committees though there’s still a tendency for final decision to be made by men (UNESCO, 1993).

The principal barriers preventing the participation of women in the decision-making arena include: 1) limited access to education, especially higher education; 2) discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; 3) the stresses of dual family and professional roles; 4) family attitudes 5) career interruptions; 6) cultural stereotyping; 7) alienation from the male culture and continued resistance to women in management positions; propagation of the glass ceiling syndrome which privileges covert criteria for advancement; and absence of adequate policies and legislation to ensure the participation of women. Given these obstacles, some solutions to remedy the exclusion of women are: 1) wider access to education, notably higher education; 2) review of appointment and promotion procedures; 3) provision of legislative and infra-structure support in all professions; 4) provision of special Programmes for women; 5) affirmative action to favour women’s access and participation while awaiting a genuine change in attitude towards full gender equality and 6) institutional and governmental support through clear and effective policies which are actually enforced (UNESCO, 1993).

Yieke (2003) asserts that Women at the workplace experience many problems and forms of discrimination. These range from sexual harassment, denial of leave to nurse a sick baby and dismissals when the women become pregnant, to low pay that is not commensurate with the kind of work that the women do, and very long hours of working institutions injurious to their health and well being. The situation is compounded by the lack of ways of channelling complaints about these problems and by the fact that the workplace is an area that has traditionally been male dominated, especially at the higher managerial levels. Yieke (2003) further argues that women are severely disadvantaged in the workplace and this problem is compounded by lack of means and avenues to channel their grievances. The workplace, as is the case for most public spheres, has traditionally been male dominated, especially at higher management levels where policy issues are discussed. Similarly, promotion for women has, in many cases, been based less on merit, qualifications, competence or suitability for the work than on the possible sexual favours that a woman is prepared to offer to her male counterparts in management who have the power to influence her fate.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The study was conducted in Eldoret Municipality using a limited, but justified, number of respondents.
It is possible that the findings on whether or not female workers meet the conditions set for leadership in schools as well as the stakeholders’ perception of women in leadership in secondary schools may not be generalisable to other places in Kenya owing to different regional challenges. Nevertheless, the study provides a framework through which scholars can conduct similar studies and recommend for appropriate solutions to the problems facing female teachers in Kenya.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
The study was conducted in Eldoret town. The town is a major centre for industrial, commercial and agricultural activities. It has a well established infrastructure and a good geographical climate liked by many (Republic of Kenya, Uasin Gishu Development plan 1997-2001). It is cosmopolitan town and teachers who teach in the municipality come from different communities and majority of them are female teachers who happen to be trained and posted there by the teachers service commission (TSC). The author employed descriptive survey design because the findings needed to be generalized over a large population. A survey design provides quantitative and numeric description of some part of population. The study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques.

The target population of the study comprised Municipal education officials (TAC) tutors, head teachers, teachers and committee members as stakeholders. The Municipality was chosen because female teachers are the majority of the teaching workforce yet they are under-represented in top headship positions. This study employed stratified sampling, simple random sampling and purposive sampling. The research population was grouped into strata’s of officers, head teachers, deputies’, senior teachers, assistant teachers and committee members. Since each member of the population had an equal and independent chance of being selected, simple random sampling technique was used to select the representative sample. Purposive sampling techniques was used as the author targeted a group of people believed to be reliable and would provide information with respect to the objectives of the study. The author, therefore, used a representative sample of 105 respondents of which 2 were Municipal Education Officials (TAC) tutors, 8 were head teachers of which 4 respondents from each group of male and female head teachers, 80 teachers and 15 committee members from 15 public primary schools. The author used a different percent to calculate representation of head teacher in order to have equal representation of both male and female head teachers.

The study used questionnaire and interview schedule to collect information from the respondents. All completed questionnaire from the field were cleaned, coded and key-punched into a computer and analyzed. Both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics included means, percentage, frequencies, range and standard deviation. The Chi-square test ($\chi^2$) was employed to determine the significant differences between the observed frequencies of responses from the respondents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Conditions Required in the Appointment of Teachers

The respondents were asked to state whether or not the conditions required in the appointment of teachers was practiced in the Municipality and findings were as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1 presents frequencies of the respondents on the conditions required in the appointment of teachers into headship positions and the findings were summarized below. When asked whether or not education policy on recruitment and promotion of teachers provided equal opportunities for both male and female, 39(48.8%) strongly agreed, 28(35%) agreed while 7(8.8%) refuted the statement showing that there were equal opportunities for both sexes. The question of gender disparities in the management structures of schools and colleges has received little attention, despite the fact that “there is recognition in education of both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women bring to management” (Coleman, 1994, p. 117).

The respondents were asked to indicate whether or not the conditions needed in the appointments of teachers to headship positions were not practiced in the Municipality. Twenty-five (31.3%) of them strongly agreed; 23(28.8%) agreed that conditions are not practiced in the municipality, 12(15%) refuted with the statement. Most head teachers and TAC tutors interviewed about their views on the appointment of head teachers, apparently, acknowledged that there was a policy but not practiced in the Municipality. Some female head teachers interviewed claimed that there was tribalism, nepotism and corruption of which they had to use money or fulfil sexual demands from the personnel interviewing teachers in order to be the head teacher hence this discourages many from aspiring for these posts when advertised. According to Burke and Nelson (2002), women today want to be economically active but still encounter a ‘glass ceiling’. This glass ceiling means women can see the opportunities for leadership but are obstructed by the mythical beliefs and philosophies to advance these opportunities.
The respondents were asked to indicate whether or not female teachers had not attended a primary school management course (PRISM), and 11(13.8%) strongly agreed, 14(17.5%) agreed while 27(33.8%) disagreed with the statement. The findings from those interviewed claimed that female teachers had attended management course and that were other factors blocking them to head schools. The respondents were further asked to state if unfair promotion procedure was the cause of under-representation; 38(47.5%) strongly agreed, 27(33.8%) agreed with the statement while 5(6.3%) disagreed with this statement. It was clear that both male and female teacher’ responses were in line with each other and that there was unfair promotion procedure contributing to under representation of female teachers to headship positions in schools. Interview findings also supported this statement that unfair promotion procedure contributes to female underrepresentation in schools.

The respondents were further asked to indicate if female teachers were discriminated against in headship position in schools; 11(13.8%) supported the statement while 33(41.3) disagreed with the statement. Interview findings revealed that female teachers dislike responsibilities as they are not discriminated in schools where some head. When asked whether or not Kenya has a political will for women in leadership, 12(15%) strongly agreed, 16(20%) disagreed with the statement. Most of the TAC tutors and the head teachers interviewed on whether or not there was a relationship between political party and appointment of head teachers claimed that ethnicity and political patronage play a key role. Leaders are influenced by the society around them, by the existing ideologies, customs and practices hence the predominance of male policy makers slows down the pace of change (Onsongo, 2003).

### Stakeholders Perception towards Women in Headship Positions

The respondents were asked to indicate how they rate female teachers in their schools and the results of the findings were as summarized in Table 2 below. According the findings, out of 15 respondents, 6 found female teachers good, 5 rated them as very good while 4 rated them as fair showing that there is divided feelings on how stakeholders perceived towards female teachers and that most of them appreciated the work done by female teachers in their schools.

As reported in Table 2, out of the 15 sampled stakeholders, 2(13.3%) strongly supported the fact

---

**Table 1: Conditions required in the Appointment of Head Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education policy provide equal opportunity</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditions needed in the appointment not practiced</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female teachers have not attended PRISM</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfair promotion is the cause</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female teachers not conversant with trends in education</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women have less education</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female teachers are discriminated</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya has a political for women in leadership</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:** SA: Strongly Agree, A: Agree U-undecided SD: Strongly disagree D: Disagree

The respondents were asked to indicate whether or not female teachers had attended a primary school management course (PRISM), and 11(13.8%) strongly agreed, 14(17.5%) agreed while 27(33.8%) disagreed with the statement. The findings from those interviewed claimed that female teachers had attended management course and that were other factors blocking them to head schools. The respondents were further asked to state if unfair promotion procedure was the cause of under-representation; 38(47.5%) strongly agreed, 27(33.8%) agreed with the statement while 5(6.3%) disagreed with this statement. It was clear that both male and female teacher’ responses were in line with each other and that there was unfair promotion procedure contributing to under representation of female teachers to headship positions in schools. Interview findings also supported this statement that unfair promotion procedure contributes to female underrepresentation in schools.
that male are better administrators than female head teachers while 6(40%) agreed whereas those who disagreed were 2(13.3%). According to Burke and Nelson (2002), workplace segregation is commonly measured by the index of dissimilarity which indicate the proportion of women to men. When asked to respond to the statement whether family responsibility inhibit women perform leadership task in school, 5(33.3%) strongly agreed, 6(40%) agreed with the statement while 1(6.7%) refuted. Chi-square was used to determine whether there was a relationship. It was noted that there was no significant relationship at 5% significance level between women family responsibilities and their performance in leadership task. ($\chi^2=7.333$, df=4 $p=0.119$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male are better administrators</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family responsibility inhibit women perform leadership task in school</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of experience holds women back from top headship positions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women usually have low esteem to head schools</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents were further asked to indicate whether or not shortage of experience holds women back from top headship positions; 2(13.3%) of the respondents agreed strongly, 5(33.3%) agreed while 3(20%) refuted with the statement. Chi-square test calculated to determine whether or not there was a relationship between teaching experience and female teachers’ participation into leadership positions. There was no significant relation between stakeholders’ perception and whether shortage of experience holds women back from top headship positions. When asked to respond whether or not women usually have low esteem to head schools, 4(26.7%) strongly agreed with the statement, 6(40%) refuted the statement. The TAC (tutors) and head teachers interviewed on whether they received back up from the stakeholders, cited that they are supported but not hundred percent subject to how KCPE exams performed and how the school was ranked according to performance in the municipality. Finn et al. (2000) argue that if the inferential statistics yield a value of 0.05 or less then the result is said to be significant, it is unlikely to have occurred by chance. Similarly, if $p$ is greater than 0.05 then the result is said to be not statistically significant and the result obtained in the sample is likely due to chance.

The education policy provides equal opportunities for both male and female in terms of recruitments and promotions but from the findings women are still unable to access top leadership due to the fact there is male preference at the top positions in most organizations. According to Sibbons et al. (2000) discrimination plays out with networking and in preferential treatment within the economic market where men who typically occupy positions of power within the job economy, due to taste or preference for other men because they share similar characteristics are more likely to hire or promote other men, thus discriminating against women. The difficulty in access to education has been considered as the main obstacle for women’s progress. Education is the determining factor for women’s socio-economic advancement (Mukaranga et al., 1997). Women have traditionally been viewed as being caring and nurturing and are designated to occupations which require such skills. While these skills are culturally valued, they were typically associated with domesticity, so occupations requiring these same skills are not economically valued (Jerry et al., 2004).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings in this study further revealed that women were not discriminated against in headship position but there are other obstacles like, unfair promotion procedures, gender stereo type and rigid career path ways hinders women most. Women leaders had done exemplary work such that the vicious circle of negative sex biasness had been reduced and that people are building confidence towards female head teachers. Those interviewed claimed that the policy on promotions was well stipulated but not clearly followed in the Municipality further the practice was usually marred by inconsistencies, favouritism, unfair procedure and discrimination hence this had contributed to underrepresentation of female teachers to headship positions in most schools. This study revealed that female teachers were qualified academically and professionally just like men and were capable of heading schools despite the fact that inequality still exist in promotion and career advancement. It also indicated that women learned and performed just like or even better men academically.
The stakeholders’ rated female teachers as good and were capable of performing tasks just like men. TAC (tutors) and head teachers interviewed agreed that they were supported by stakeholders if they performed well in exams irrespective of gender. Cultural stereotypes are engrained in both men and women and these stereotypes are a possible explanation for gender inequality and the resulting gendered wage disparity. The educational policy provides equal opportunity for male and female and that the conditions required in the appointments and recruitment to ensure that they eliminate discrimination, tribalism and corruption in order for male and female to compete effectively for the top positions in school and to be based on merit so as to bridge the gender gaps and promote gender equity, and equality in school leaderships. The Ministry of Education should, therefore, formulate strategies to promote women and give them first priority whenever there is a vacant position to be filled. The appointments and recruitment procedure should be transparent in order to avoid inconsistencies and blame game.

REFERENCES


