GENDER DISPARITIES IN APPOINTMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL HEAD TEACHERS IN NYERI CENTRAL DISTRICT IN NYERI COUNTY, KENYA

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E55/CE/15594/2008

A RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT, POLICY AND CURRICULUM STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENT OF THE AWARD OF MASTER OF EDUCATION (ADMINISTRATION) OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY.

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DECLARATION

This research project report is my original work and has not been previously published or presented for the award of a degree or diploma in any other university.

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DEDICATION

This project report is dedicated to my children Dennis and Njeri. The report is also dedicated to all female teachers who aspire to be head teachers in Nyeri Central District and Kenya in general.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all those who through discussion, ideas, encouragement and support helped me carry out this research and write this report. I am thankful to my supervisors Dr. F. Itegi and Mr. Kiranga Gatimu whose encouragement guidance and support enabled me to develop and understand the subject of this project from the initial to the final stage.

A special acknowledgement goes my dear husband, Mr. Kirira for his constant encouragement; this helped me to stay focused throughout my studies. Our children Dennis and Njeri inspired me to keep on, a special thank you. Special thanks go to Mr. Perminus Githui and Mr. Ceasar Mwangangi for typing and correcting typographical errors. I would also like to acknowledge the District Education officer, the head teachers and all the female teachers in Nyeri Central District who participated in provision of information without which this project could not have been realised. Acknowledgement also goes to all and sundry who in one way or another contributed to the success of this work.

Above all, I thank God Almighty for being my steadfast source of strength and hope throughout the study.
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BOG. Board of Governors
DEO. District Education Officer
MOE. Ministry of Education
PDE. Provincial Director of Education
QUASO. Quality assurance and Standards Officer
SPSS. Statistical Package for Social scientists
TSC. Teachers Service Commission
UK. United Kingdom
UNESCO. United Nations Science and Cultural Organization
USA. United States of America
ABSTRACT.

Gender disparities have been a critical issue in the developing countries including Kenya. Gender disparity is not limited to any specific field of life and education is no exception. Either gender should have equal access to power and resources; because women and men bring in different styles of management to education, under-representation of either gender in educational management and leadership positions would have negative implications on government policies. For instance if women are under represented the girl child would lag behind in education due to lack of positive female role models. Women teachers would also lack mentors, the scenario cyclic and self perpetuating. This study investigated social cultural factors, organizational factors and personal factors that cause gender disparities in appointment of primary school head teachers in Nyeri Central District, Nyeri County. Various scholarly works that are related to factors causing gender disparities in educational management were reviewed. Descriptive survey design, utilizing a population of 538 primary school teachers was used. A sample of 34 respondents was selected by simple random sampling. The sample size was determined using the sampling formula by Nassiuma (2000) for populations whose underlying distribution is unknown. The study looked at factors such as social-cultural factors, personality factors and organizational factors that tend to hinder or promote career advancement of men and women in primary school headship positions. Data was collected by use of a self scoring questionnaire consisting of 29 items that are both open and closed ended questions. Piloting was carried out in two schools which were not included in the study sample. Data was analyzed by use of the computer package, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The analyzed data was presented in form of frequency polygons, pie charts, bar graphs and frequency tables. The results of this study provide essential information on what can be done to make gender equity considerations a worthwhile under taking in the educational management of primary schools. Findings from this study may influence the policy makers, educationists, teachers and parents to review the current status and come up with more practical intervention to improve participation of all. The government through the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labour and the ministry of Gender and Development, may use these research findings in evaluating and strengthening their contribution towards policy implementation and legislation. The nation as a whole may use these research findings in tapping the human potential of either gender to the benefit of all. Administrators and managers may also use the findings of this study in making gender sensitive decisions in recommendations for appointments or in actual appointments and thus ensuring that only the very competent ascend to positions of management. Workers in the education sector may also make use the findings to boost the morale and job satisfaction once it becomes evident that all have equal chances in career advancement.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

World wide, changes are taking place in the education arena that is opening windows of opportunity for more women to move into educational administration. While this development has brought a lot of benefits, many women have found that some unpredictable barriers still exist. Wesson (1998) adds that this is particularly true in communities that still have strong traditional structures, male chauvinism, gender stereotypes and or generalized prejudices against women. Therefore, it becomes essential that strategies favorable for advancing gender equity in education management need to be reactivated and energized. It becomes essential that women in administration be active mentors to others in community.

The scarcity of women in the role of secondary principal is a phenomenon worldwide (Coleman 2001). While women make up at least one-half of secondary teachers, they are the minority in secondary administrative positions (Morris 1999; Coleman 2001; McLay and Brown 2001). This international pattern is supported by statistics from New Zealand, Australia, the USA, the UK, Germany, Africa, Central America, and India (Coleman 2001). These professionals in the field of education must recognize that gender plays a role in how or if women obtain secondary school headship. Coleman (2003) suggested that three norms exist related to gender and leadership: (1) Orthodox leaders are male; (2) Leadership style is stereotypically ‘macho’; and (3) Theorizing about leadership has a tendency to marginalize gender.

Rusch and Marshall (1995) explained the perpetuation of these phenomena as gender filters, which are shared understandings among professional administrators, whether male or female, that silence the ideas and individuals that might disrupt the privilege of dominance such as the notion that secondary principals need to portray the ‘macho’ leadership style to resolve discipline issues (Growe and Montgomery 1999; McLay & Brown 2001). Jean-Marie and Martinez (2007) suggested that the landscape of today’s society dictates that women must be convinced that they can succeed as secondary principals. Increasing the number of women in secondary positions sets the stage for an administrative pool that is more reflective of the overall composition of educators working in secondary settings and ensures role models and networks of support for those who aspire to formal leadership positions. Williamson and Hudson (2001) observes that
changing the landscape for women in secondary school leadership positions involves understanding how leadership preparation programs can prepare women to resist socialization to old or traditional norms when they are inducted into positions and, instead, embrace democratic, participative leadership styles which research shows women tend to favor.

West (1997) observes that education reform brings a new governance structure, modifies leadership practices, and emphasizes accountability for results. In the midst of this evolution, the impact of gender in positions of educational management is becoming all the more apparent, with the negative consequence of failure to tap women’s potential for the benefit of all. Most administrators (both men and women) are aware of the pitfalls in gender labeling; there are many examples of differences. For instance, a strong assertive male leader is respectfully known as the "boss," a woman with those same traits may be described with an altogether different label. Additionally, a man might be seen as goal directed, a woman as pushy; a man is described as passionate, a woman as over-emotional; a man is seen as a shrewd negotiator, a woman as conniving.

Bateson (1996) emphasized that change represents an ongoing adjustment and adaptation to new contexts and is not something that will ever be done once and for all. Equity and equality should be regarded in the same manner. Advancement in these areas requires continuous effort. New contexts require strategic action. Educational administration is at the apex of systemic school reform. The context of schools has changed significantly since 1990. If equity in employment, advancement, and retention of highly qualified school leadership is where we want to go, we must rethink and reactivate a plan to get there. Conditions are right to adapt, adjust, and advance the cause of equity and quality.

Gupton and Slick (1996) conducted a research in the United States (USA) of America and found that women often believe that in order to be hired for administrative positions they must be better prepared than men therefore, more women than men educational administrative aspirants may seek higher education. The comparatively lower percentage of women employed in positions of education management cannot therefore be attributed to a lack of qualification. More women than men are entering the applicant pool but it remains unexplained why more men are hired.
In developing countries such as Cambodia, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Nepal, Uganda and Zambia there are some political and social processes that have some impact upon changing women's situations in work. Contemporary women's movements in India, Lebanon, Egypt and Kenya have challenged male dominated structures in their countries and gender inequalities. They have strived for the introduction of gender-sensitive policies and programs so as to improve the lives of women in their countries. Concurrently countries such as Pakistan, Yemen, Morocco, and the Gambia have developed large scale programs for increasing the number of women teachers and education managers with varying degrees of success. A major aim in Pakistan education is by 2005 is gender equality and the empowerment of women (Kirk, 2004), and Kenya have made measurable progress towards equality of women in the political realm (Nzomo, 1997). Interesting, despite the concerted efforts towards this noble goal Mikell (1997) observes that men still have a higher access to management positions in many occupational sectors within developing countries in Africa and Asia. Similar trends have been documented in educational systems within developing countries. Women hold 14% of school administration positions in Korea, 13% of the principals in China, half of the school heads in Trinidad and Tobago and the majority of school management roles in Singapore (Moriss, 1999). Even in Muslim countries like Turkey there are reports of women in educational leadership positions, although the power is in the hands of school boards that are still held by men only. To sum up economic, social and political trends in many developing countries reflect a potential trend towards greater numbers of women gaining administrative position in school albeit existence of illegitimate barriers.

Godder and Chris (1997) observe that although a majority of educationists in Kenya are women there are only 15% of women in education administration. The dismal participation of women in education management is of great concern since it is a pointer that the girl child would have no voice to champion her plight in the decision making organs of the country. The under representation of women in education management would mean fewer and fewer role models in education management.

The already mentioned gender disparities in education management have not spared Nyeri Central District. Table 1 and table 4, shows the gender distribution of various management positions in the district. At the primary school level women teachers consists of 76.7% of the total number of teachers but only 40% of women are head teachers, at the secondary school level
women teachers make 50% of the population and only 41% of the principals are women. The situation is no better among officials of the ministry of education.

1.2 Statement of the Problem
The importance of women representation in positions of management cannot be gainsaid. Empowered women are beneficial at the national, community, family and individual level herself. They are able to effectively engage in economic activities and thus contribute to national economical development. At family level, empowered women reduce fertility rates, bring up healthier children, better educated children, and reduced infant and maternal mortality rates. According to the Government of Kenya (2007) report, at the society level women participate more in development activities as well as in political and economic decision making processes. However it has been observed that there are very few women in the educational management positions. Gender inequality exists within educational management. Although a majority of teachers in Kenya are women, only 15% of women are in education administration. Godder and Chris (1997) state that the dismal participation of women in education management is of great concern since it is a pointer that the girl child would have no voice to champion her plight in the decision making organs of the country. The under representation of women in education management would mean fewer and fewer role models in education management.

The total number of teachers in Nyeri Central District is 538, of which 412 are female and 126 are male. However, out of the 42 primary schools, there are only 17 female head teachers against 25 male head teachers. Women therefore comprise a striking 77% of teachers in primary schools, but contribute only a paltry 40% of the head teachers. This study intended to investigate, factors hindering women accessing management positions in primary schools in Nyeri Central District, Nyeri County.

1.3 Purpose of the Study
The purpose of this study was to investigate the underlying causes of gender disparities in appointment into positions education management in primary schools in Nyeri Central District.

1.4 Objectives of the Study
This study was guide by the following objectives.
1. To determine social cultural barriers to women’s careers advancement in education management among primary schools in Nyeri Central District.

2. To determine personal factors that causes disparities in appointments into positions of educational management in Nyeri Central District.

3. To identify if gender policies are employed in appointment into positions of education management in Nyeri Central District.

4. To establish measures that can be taken to improve the situation.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to answer the above objectives, the study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What were the social cultural barriers to women’s careers advancement in education management among primary school teachers in Nyeri Central District?

2. What were the personal factors that caused disparities in appointments into positions of educational management among primary school teachers in Nyeri Central District?

3. What were the gender policies considered in appointment into positions of education management among primary schools teachers in Nyeri Central District?

4. What measures can be taken to improve the situation?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The importance of gender equity in all sectors of education cannot be gainsaid. Research has long established the impact of mentors in guidance, role models, and the influence of professionals and the attainment of national goals in the development of any country. It is imperative therefore that when barriers exist hindering the career advancement of any genders the overall development goals of the nation may be undermined. This results from the failure by the system to tap and nurture the full potential of its citizens to the benefit of all. As a result, few concrete and deliberate efforts have been made which aim at correcting gender disparities in the affected areas. In order to address the causes of disparities in education management in primary schools in Nyeri Central District, detailed studies are required to address the existing barriers in career advancement. This study may therefore help in providing information that could be useful in ensuring equal opportunities for either gender in joining positions of education management. Findings from this study may influence the policy makers, educationists, teachers and parents to
review the current status and come up with more practical interventions to improve participation of all. The government through the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labour and the ministry of Gender and Development, could find this study useful in evaluating and strengthening their contribution towards policy implementation and legislation. Administrators and managers may also use the findings of this study in making gender sensitive decisions in recommendations for appointments or in actual appointments and thus ensuring that only the very competent ascend to positions of management. The findings of this study may also help women workers in the education sector to boost their morale and job satisfaction once it becomes evident that all have equal chances in career advancement.

1.7 Scope of the Study
The study was conducted in Nyeri Central District, Nyeri County. The study looked at factors such as social cultural barriers in career advancement of women, gender policies considered in appointments and the motivation that drives women to join positions of education management in primary school in Nyeri Central District.

1.8 Limitations of the Study
The study was likely to encounter a number of limitations which could have impeded the research objectives. The main limitation of the study was attributed to the sample size and generalization of research findings. There are over 30,000 primary schools in the country that are spread out in different cultural backgrounds, all of which are expected to be subjecting their teachers to different cultural/gender stereotypes. Therefore, there is need for adequate assessment of the factors leading to this disparity. The main limitation of the study was, the study limited itself to only one district, and for more conclusive results all the districts in the country should be studied. Consequently the findings of this study cannot be generalized to areas other than Nyeri Central district. The study was not able to cover the opinions of the parents and the members of school management committee from other regions.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study
This study was based on the following assumptions; that the criteria used in employment and promotion of all players in the education sector in Nyeri Central District was the same, gender disparities existed in appointment into positions of education management, that teachers in different schools were subjected to the same procedure in case of appointments into positions of
leadership. That all teachers had acquired the appropriate skills of leadership after attaining the desired minimum job group and work experience. There were a number of measurable aspects that hindered the advancement of women into leadership position in education and that the respondents would provide reliable and accurate responses.
1.10 Definition of terms

In this section, operational definitions of terms are presented as used within the context of this study.

**Barriers:** Situations, events, assumptions, prejudices etc that are covertly or overtly implemented, consciously or unconsciously such that they impede the achievement of some set objective

**Education management:** The act of running, controlling education institution(s)

**Educational management:** Principals of secondary schools, head teachers of primary schools, staff in the PDEs and DEOs office

**Educational administration:** The activities undertaken in an educational setup or institution in order to plan, organize and run the institution

**Empowering women:** Establishment of social structures that ensure that women will make and implement decisions which will be respected by all.

**Gender inequalities:** The existence of an unfair advantage of either men or women in the society in terms of distribution of resources or opportunities.

**Gender discriminative:** Unfair treatment or denial of rights to an individual or groups of individuals on the basis of being male or female

**Gender disparity:** Unfair representation of either men or women

**Gender-sensitive:** Acting, implementing or doing things with a caution that men and women are different and hence cautious to be fair to both

**Leadership:** The state or the ability of being in control, guiding and making other people implement a specified set of programs.

**Under representation:** Having less than the expected number of a particular group being included in comparison with the group’s population.

1.11 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that was used to guide this study is the feminist theories, which means that it has drawn from various feminist theories that attempt to explain women underrepresentation in society. Education management provides one of the most notable examples of the persistent nature of discrimination (Ewing & Forrest, 1989).

The under-representation of women in leadership positions within education management has received considerable theoretical and empirical attention (Lovett & Lowry, 1988). As a result, a myriad of frameworks have been applied in an effort to better understand why this overwhelming
trend persists. Some of these specific theoretical realms include feminist theories (Aitchison, 2005). While these theories aid in the understanding of the disproportionate number of men and women at the organizational level, they do not address the emotional and cognitive processes of women as they encounter unequal acceptance and treatment within the male-dominated domain. Thus, it is crucial to better understand the individual responses to such adversity, particularly to the extent that such responses may unconsciously aid in the perpetuation and maintenance of what appears to have become the status quo (i.e., the lack of females as leaders) in education. Specifically, females may respond to the everyday language and symbols used to reinforce the ideological gender beliefs held by society at large and within the education management context in such a manner as to self-limit themselves through the unconscious formation of identities consistent with ideological stereotypes and patriarchal dominance.

Feminist theory aims to understand the nature of inequality and focuses on gender politics, power relations and sexuality. While generally providing a critique of social relations, much of feminist theory also focuses on analyzing gender inequality and the promotion of women's rights, interests, and issues. Themes explored in feminism include discrimination, stereotyping, objectification, oppression, and patriarchy.

Feminism is largely motivated by or concerning the experiences of women, especially in terms of their social, political, and economical inequalities. One institutionally predominant type of feminism focuses on limiting or eradicating gender inequality to promote women's rights, interests, and issues in society. Another opposing type of modern feminism focuses on earning, and establishing equity by and for women, vis-a-vis men, to promote those same rights, interests, and issues, regardless of gender considerations. Liberal feminism seeks no special privileges for women and simply demands that everyone receive equal consideration without discrimination on the basis of sex. Liberal feminists would seek to remove barriers that prevent equal access for women to jobs not only to provide economic equality but to provide access to higher-paying jobs for women. In contrast to liberal feminism, social feminism believes that the social shaping of technology have often been conceptualized in terms of men, excluding women at all levels. Socialist feminist reform suggests that the allocation of resources for development should be determined by greatest benefit for the common good. Postmodern feminist theories points out that there is no behavior or meaning which is universally and cross-culturally associated with
either masculinity or femininity, that what is considered masculine in some societies is
considered feminine or gender-neutral in others. It is not that gender difference does not exist but
that it is manifested differently in different societies. Therefore, addressing the gender gap in
employment based upon an assumed "woman's perspective" is problematic as there are as many
different "women's experiences" as there are types of women.

1.12 Conceptual framework

Figure 1. Model of interaction of variables

Figure 1. Was developed from the literature review and the theoretical framework. It illustrates
the interaction of the three sets of variables, namely independent, extraneous and dependent
variables. The independent variables are individual factors, cultural factors, social factors and
organizational factors which are likely to influence appointment of women to positions of
educational management (dependent variable). However, intelligence, level of education,
experience and religious factors are extraneous variables that may influence the appointment of
women to management but the researcher will not focus on those factors.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter reviews the literature in educational management as it relates to women and examines policies and social cultural aspects that influence appointments into positions of educational management. It is divided into five sub topics:-

2.2 Concept of gender in education
Women represent half of the World population and therefore human rights and equity issues demand that they be involved at all stages in policy making. Women have untapped talents and they may bring alternative perspective to the management arena. Kanake (1997) observe that women in education and managerial posts are very few in all regions of the world both developing and developed countries. Anker (1986) agrees with this view and adds that in 1982 only 23.3% of administrators and managers in U.S.A. were women, as compared with 11.3% in Europe. Although the situation has improved gender gap still exists to date. In Africa study shows only 6% of administrators are women. The low representation of women among Administrators means that women do not have significant role to play in the decision making process. Dirasse (1991) adds that top level decision-making in both private and public sector organization throughout Africa have been the sole preserve of men. In Kenya, although the status of women in the labour market is a phenomenon that has been adequately studied, an examination of the gender representation at all levels of decision making reveal that there is a huge gender imbalance. For instance out of the seven public universities only one is headed by a woman, the vice-chancellor-Kenyatta University Prof. Olive Mugenda. In the tertiary institutions we have less that 10% headed by wom~n. Kariuki (2007) observes that the under-representation of women in education management is even more pronounced in primary and secondary school’s leadership.

According to Ridgeway (2001) “gender” refers to the social roles, responsibilities, and behaviour created in our families, our societies and our cultures. The concept of gender also includes the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviour of both women and men (femininity and masculinity). For example: “Men as income earners”, and “Women as child caregivers”. These roles and expectations are learnt and passed on from one
generation to the next. It is not biologically predetermined, nor is it fixed forever - they can be changed to achieve equity and equality for both women and men.

Vianello (1990) observes that looking at education through a "gender lens", ministry officials, teachers, parents, and often girls and boys may not think that they are biased in terms of gender, and they may be quite truthful as this is what they believe. It is difficult to see a "problem" when it has become a normal, ingrained part of their lives. But asking such a question as: "What would happen if girls were taught how to build radios and boys were taught how to sew?" can lead the individual to reflect, reconsider, and look more closely at their own assumptions. We can begin to see how traditional gender roles and norms can affect what, and how, our children learn. The concept of gender is therefore vital, because it leads us to understand that men and women, boys and girls perform different roles and have different experiences, knowledge, talents and needs. It is only through understanding these differences that educational policies, programmes and projects can identify and adequately meet the different and diverse learning and training needs of men and women, boys and girls. Ernest (2003) further adds that the strategic use of distinct knowledge and skills possessed by both is the key to achieving gender equality and realizing their full human rights. Gender equality in education is the ultimate goal: Ensuring gender equality for girls and boys means that they have equal opportunities to enter school, as well as to participate in, and benefit from the range of subjects or other learning experiences offered in classrooms and schools. Through gender-sensitive curricula, learning materials, and teaching-learning processes, girls and boys become equally equipped with the life skills and attitudes that they will need to achieve their fullest potential, within and outside of the educational system, regardless of their sex.

Since 1975, knowledge of the status of women and men, respectively, has increased and is contributing to further actions aimed at promoting equality between women and men. In several countries, there have been important changes in the relationships between women and men, especially where there have been major advances in education for women and significant increases in their participation in the paid labour force. The boundaries of the gender division of labour between productive and reproductive roles are gradually being crossed as women have started to enter formerly male-dominated areas of work and men have started to accept greater responsibility for domestic tasks, including child care. However, changes in women's roles have been greater and much more rapid than changes in men's roles. Ernest (2003) states that in many
countries, the differences between women's and men's achievements and activities are still not recognized as the consequences of socially constructed gender roles rather than immutable biological differences.

Kenya has policy and legal bases for advancement of equality between men and women in education at all levels. Legislative developments such as the Education Act and a Children's Act of 2001 incorporate the right to education for all Kenyans. The Education Act sets a broader framework for attainment of the right to education in the country, which is further articulated in details in the Children's Act. Education Act also addresses obstacles such as Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting that hinder attainment and completion of education. The two statues are complemented by a number of other education-related statues, including University of Nairobi Statutes. In the year 2003, a National Conference on Education and Training (NCET) was held by key players in the education sector to review performance in the education sector. One of the findings was that despite a general increase in school enrollment, the education sector was still faced with issues of access, equity and equality. Pursuant to recommendations of the National Conference on Education and Training (NCET), the government developed Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research [hereinafter, the Education Policy], setting its objectives: to provide every Kenyan with basic quality education and training including 2 years of pre-primary, 8 years of primary and four years of secondary/technical education; and the realization of universal access to basic education and training to ensure equitable access to education and training for all children, among others, noting that education is necessary for the development and protection of democratic institutions and human rights. The Ministry of Education has developed Gender Policy in Education to address central issues related to gender and education. The purpose of the Policy is to provide a road map to Ministry of Education and stakeholders towards the achievement of Gender Policy. It aims at ensuring that girls and boys, men and women participate equally in the learning and management of education at all levels.

Kenya has made great strides towards attainment of equality between men and women in employment through a number of legislative measures and reforms. The following is an elaboration of the measures taken, so far. Legislative measures: Legal prohibition of discrimination in employment - In the year 2007, Kenya passed a new Employment Act, No. 11
of 2007 which took effect on December 27, 2007 and replaced the old employment law. Section 5 (3) (a) of the Act prohibits discrimination in access to employment and in employment security on the basis of sex, among others. Under section 5(4) of the Act, an employer who discriminates against an actual or prospective female employee on the basis of sex commits an offence and is liable to punishment. In section 5(3)(b), the new Employment Act also outlaws discrimination in respect of training, promotion, terms and conditions of employment or other matters arising out of employment.

Promotion and guarantee of equality – section 5(1) (a) and (b) of the law obligates the Minister of Labour, labour officers and the Industrial Court as newly constituted to promote and guarantee equality of opportunity in employment in order to eliminate discrimination in employment. Employers have the responsibility to eliminate discrimination in any employment policy or practice. Affirmative action measures that are consistent with the promotion of equality or the elimination of discrimination in the workplace shall not be considered as discriminatory.

Vision 2030 states that gender mainstreaming will be introduced in all government policies, plans and programmes to ensure that the needs and interests of each gender are addressed. There will also be a deliberate effort to recognize and acknowledge the various ways in which women make a contribution to the economy and the society as a whole to increase awareness in all ministries and government agencies. Furthermore, the operationalization and strengthening of gender divisions in all ministries and state corporations will be implemented to aid the gender mainstreaming process.

2.3 Personal barriers that contribute to women, under-representation in education management.

The perspective of individual barriers looks to women as the cause of their under-representation because it argues that women are not assertive enough, don’t want power, lack self confidence, are unwilling to play the game or work the system, don’t apply for jobs and even when in a job, they don’t apply for frontline positions (Tallerico & Burstyn as cited in Growe and Montgomery, 1999). However research by Ruderman (as cited in Neidhart & Carlin, 2003), suggested that some women in management carefully assess career decisions in the light of their own values and beliefs. For these women the barrier was not lack of confidence, but rather an informed choice based on knowledge of what is important to them personally and the extent to which they
are authentic. Another individual barrier is *other directedness*. Women are generally more concerned than are men about how they are perceived by others in their group. Other individual barriers according to Cubillo (1999) include: the tendency among women to avoid where they risk facing hence a reluctance to voice their opinions; excess responsibilities and fear of conflict and loneliness; self-doubting; and a different (feminine) style of management.

### 2.4 Social-cultural factors that lead to women under-representation in the education sector

Different explanations have been offered for under-representation of women in top-levels of education management. This includes traditional values concerning the role of women in the home and the family, socialization, sex role, stereotyping, societal attitude towards women’s higher education, historical factors (Vianello, 1990). The belief that men and women possess different characteristics typical to each gender is widely held in almost all social settings, home, school workplace and wider community (Cohwill, 1989). According to these socially desired behavioural standards, women are described as passive, submissive, cooperative, hurting, gentle, tactful, humanitarian, dependent, emotional and sensitive gender stereotyping in educational leadership results in the exclusion of women from leadership position. Tradition attitudes towards gender equality are major culprits in barring women into elected office. Stereotyping about women and what they can or cannot do seems to lock out many women aspiring leadership positions in educational administration. Glaser (2007) echoes this view by asserting that gender based stereotypes continue to play part in decision making. In her view, a woman with a family may not be considered for an overseas position on the assumption that her husband would not leave his current job to join her. Women who recently have had children may not be considered for promotions because their priority is taken to be their children. This sex stereotyping continues to bar competent women from climbing educational management ladder.

Cultural stereotypes and preconceptions about women’s roles and capabilities are among the major barriers to the advancement of women. Stereotyping occurs frequently in organizations and creates prejudices and therefore flawed impressions about male and female leadership capabilities. These false impressions are a major reason why women are not chosen for top leadership positions, and why a gender leadership gap exists. The heart of the dilemma has two components. The first is the stereotype of the male leader: that is, good leaders must be aggressive, decisive, rational, objective, ambitious and competitive. This is because leaders have
traditionally been male and they have valued such characteristics in their leaders. This preconception often makes women appear to be ill-suited to be leaders. Secondly, women who display some or all of these attributes themselves are often perceived by men and many women to be overly aggressive, instead of assertive, and therefore are not popular (Neidhart & Carlin, 2003).

According to Livingstone (2004), societies often equate stereotypical masculine traits with images of competence and leadership, and women then pay the price. The result is that women who are tough, confident, and decisive are diminished as bitchy, strident, and insensitive. By the same token, women who are sensitive, relational, and warm are discounted as weak, passive, and too nice. Either way, women are seen by many as unfit for leadership roles. This is because women leaders are perceived as never just right. If women act consistently with gender stereotypes, they are considered too soft, if they go against gender stereotypes, they are considered too tough.

Otieno (2001) states that women often face higher standards than men leaders and are often rewarded less for the same post. Often they must work double hard to achieve the same level of recognition as men leaders for the same level of work and to prove they can lead. When women exhibit traditionally valued leadership behaviours such as assertiveness, they tend to be seen as competent but not personable or well-liked. Yet those who do adopt a more stereotypically feminine style are liked but are not seen as having valued leadership skills.

Ernest (2003) states that the work and life balance can be major barrier for the advancement of women to senior executive positions. This is partly because of the pressure of family responsibilities. Decision makers often assume that women (mothers) have domestic responsibilities that would make it inappropriate to promote them to demanding positions. But even more important about the impact of family care, the argument is that it leaves women much less time for socializing with colleagues and building team work, and maintaining professional and organization networks. Yet studies of career paths of fast-track managers show that time and effort devoted to building social capital, that is, to socializing, politicking, and interacting with outsiders can be important to their advancement. Cubillo and Brown, (2003) states that unfortunately for women, the influential networks are composed mainly of men and their activities are more often than not based on female themes. Women thus continue to be the
ones who interrupt their careers, take more days off, and work part-time. As a result, they have fewer years of job experience and fewer hours of employment per year, which slows their career progress and reduces their earnings.

2.5 Organizational barriers to equal representation of women in education management

Cohwill (1989) reports that research on the influence of gender in organizations reveals the following: Women who constitute 51% of the world population occupy less than 10% of the world’s top managerial positions. Men are mainly in charge of decision making (managerial) positions while women tend to fill subordinate and service jobs. Throughout the world, women on average earn 75% of what men occupying the same jobs and having the same expertise earn. Women tend to climb the hierarchical ladder much more slowly than men do; women start at lower levels and advance much more slowly than men. They tend to remain longer at each subsequent post and conclude their careers at much lower levels. Men may begin working at higher levels, stay less time at each position and conclude their careers at higher levels. Women tend to carry out over 95% of the general service jobs in organizations. These jobs tend to be less prestigious with lower salaries attached to them. Gender impact on management and leadership styles, and affects the culture of the organization.

According to Ridgeway (2001) gender in an organization can be expressed in multiple forms. Some are more obvious while some subtler. These forms are usually accepted as given and as the natural way of doing things. Thus, they are not even questioned or viewed as problems. However gender affects an organization at every one of its working levels: in its culture, structure, processes and procedures in its systems, infrastructure and belief. Likes so many other factors that impeded the advancement of women, human resource policies and practices often have been developed and administered by males for men without due consideration of the needs of women. Schein (1973) states that the processes for career planning, management of high potential people, task force assignments, capacity building and training, compensation, flexible schedules, and provision of adequate and affordable child care facilities do not respond adequately in most large companies and organization to the needs of women especially with families or other compelling needs.

Furthermore Powell (2003) states that organizations often favour men for key line positions and overseas assignments as well as for highly visible task forces. Management development,
capacity development and education (training and professional) programmes usually ignore the study of issues more specific to women, perhaps in part because women are often not given equal access to these internal and external programmes. Of particular significance are the linear career path practices that leave limited career flexibility. While this policy affects both women and men, it obviously represents a much larger hurdle for aspiring women managers. Often, corporate cultures further reinforce the handicaps many women feel in striving for equal opportunities for development and advancement. These include: ways of corporate socialization; the internal language and vocabulary; speaking and acts; working hours; the ways that people get value recognition; capacity building and training; the corporate role models to emulate; and other organization culture. This is often termed as 'the ways we do things here'. This is all heavily influenced by males and tends to perpetuate dominant traditions. Unquestionably, respecting and promoting feminine values and needs in the workplace would require serious changes in many corporate cultures. Kariuki (2007) states that according to the International Labour Office, corporate culture is a fundamental reason for women’s absence from management and leadership positions in large companies.

That leadership is conceived of in stereotypically masculine terms has been well documented in the literature for years (Eagly & Karau; 2002; Schein; 1973; Heilman, 1989). This notion has tended to persist, despite the somewhat greater representation of women in leadership roles and despite little compelling evidence that gender inherently offers a significant advantage, particularly in business settings (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Vecchio, 2002). Women executives report that gender based stereotypes continue to be a significant barrier to their advancement, although they note some improvement in recent years (Catalyst, 2003).

The bias toward a masculine model of leadership becomes especially pronounced in the corporate executive suite. Here, men have always greatly outnumbered women, and men and women alike tend to eschew feminine behaviour. This because it conflicts with and, perhaps, threatens time-honoured ideas about what is perceived to be good leadership. For senior executives especially, job expectations tend to have gender expectations. The result is that the behaviour of male and female executives turns out to be more similar than it is different (Barnett & Rivers, 2004; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; McNatt, 2000). However, like behaviour does not equate to like treatment. Men in society at large are more likely to be perceived as having higher
status and being more competent than women. Such group-based evaluations inevitably infiltrate the executive suite, embedded as it is in the wider culture, benefiting men and penalizing women, whose success contradicts the expected order.

As the seat of power, the executive suite is closely guarded. Biernat (2003) demonstrated that gender-linked expectations become even more pronounced in such settings. At lower levels, women’s performance may be evaluated more leniently: the perception is that after all, she would be really good at that level. This leniency effect is less likely to occur when judgments are made for recruitment (hiring) and promotion. When it comes to picking the senior team, women will be seen categorically as less able than men to succeed in (male-defined) executive roles. This shifting of standards model of stereotyping, as Biernat (2003) named it, may explain why gender bias is particularly problematic as women ascend to the higher corporate levels.

Institutional barriers to women ascension to educational management arise from the policies and practices governing recruitment, placement and promotion in various government institutions of power. There appears to be discriminatory policies to women’s progress in organizations and companies. Grant (1988) noted that women deserved equal opportunity in early childhood as well as in higher education, and equal access to all types of jobs, training and development. If discriminatory policies are removed, women then would be able to compete with men for leadership positions and other senior jobs. Such policies seem to be ingrained in the Kenyan constitution, as implied by Achieng (1998) in an article on the history of women and gender in Kenya. She implied that women groups in Kenya were pressing for the recognition of women’s rights in the constitution. Discrimination against women in personal decisions involving promotion, selection and supervision were also rife in Kenya (Chelimo, 2007). Women principals in Kenya have therefore to battle with some policies such as women heading girls’ schools only. Until recently, most women principals had male deputies. Most communities around schools would also prefer male school principals to female ones. Hansot and Tyak (1981) give male dominance as another barrier to women progress. School leadership is often defined in masculine terms. Many principals are described as being ‘stronger’ and ‘detached’ while women counterparts are described as being “soft” and “emotional”.

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Women who ascend to power are seen as intruders to a male dominated world. Women leaders often suffer isolation and often have to contend with challenges emanating from parents and Boards of Governors. As Kariuki, (2007) observed, women who succeed in traditionally male fields are often judged as either competent or unfeminine, or incompetent and feminine. Limited mentorship is another barrier to women ascension to power. There is a dearth of men and women willing to mentor women (Engen, 2007). Men leaders tend to give female leaders’ lower rating than do other women and male subordinates and tend to have lower acceptance of female supervisors as role models (Javidan, 1995). Women seem to be their own enemies in leadership because rarely do they look up to their fellow women as mentors. Gichuhi (2007) states that, this may be partly because of their traditional orientation to be submissive to male leaders and their husbands, but not to their fellow women.

2.6 Glass Ceiling
The term glass ceiling refers to many barriers that can exist to frustrate a qualified woman’s rise to the top management of an organization. These barriers are artificial and invisible, providing a view to the top, but also providing a ceiling on how far a woman can go. When a glass ceiling exists, men occupy a disproportionately high percentage of the higher ranks in a career field, while women tend to be overrepresented in its lower ranks (Sincoff, et al., 2006). Therefore the ‘Glass-Ceiling’ is the most important reason for women’s under-representation in leadership-positions (Ernest, 2003). Glass ceiling is therefore an effect of individual, organizational and socialization barriers and exists in its strongest forms denying women opportunities to gain access into top management positions. Cubillo and Brown (2003) staes that while it is true that more women, now than ever before, are slowly chiseling through the glass barrier to take on leadership positions, one can hardly claim to hear glass ceilings shattering around us. The question one asks is whether it is possible to shatter the glass without hearing it break!
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter discusses the methodological procedures used in data collection and analysis. The discussion include; the location of the study, target population, sample and sampling procedures, research design, piloting data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Design of the Study
This study adapted the descriptive survey research design. The descriptive survey method of research is a process of collecting data in order to test hypothesis or answer questions concerning the status of the subjects in the study. Orodho (2010) states that this method can produce statistical information about aspects of education that interest policy makers and educators. According to Ogula (1988) survey is efficient method of collecting data regarding characteristics of the population, current practices, conditions or needs. Lorelloio and Loreson (1971) observes that descriptive research is concerned with the conditions that exists and practices that prevail, believes and attitudes that are held, processes that are ongoing and trends that are developing. In this study, it was appropriate since it sought to find out associations with certain occurrences outcomes and types of behaviour. Specifically; the factors that lead to gender disparities in appointment of education managers in Nyeri Central District, Nyeri County. According to Lockesh (1984), descriptive research studies are designed to obtain pertinent and precise information concerning the status of a phenomenon and whenever possible to draw valid general conclusions from the facts discovered.

3.3 Location of the Study
The study was be carried out in Nyeri Central District which is situated on the southern slopes of mout Kenya, approximately 150 kilometres from Nairobi. The district was curved out of the larger Nyeri District, it borders Mathira, Tetu and Othaya and Mukurweini.

3.4 Population of the study
The target population comprised of all female teachers in Nyeri Central District primary schools who have attained at least P1 professional qualifications and are employed on permanent and pensionable basis by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). Therefore teachers who were employed on contract basis and those employed by the boards of governors or school
management committees were not included in this study. The population is spread over a small geographical area; it was assumed that there are no regional variations in terms of population characteristics; the population was taken to be homogeneous.

Table 1. Population of primary school teachers by gender in Nyeri Central District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Males</td>
<td>No. of Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of primary school teachers by gender</td>
<td>126 (23.3%)</td>
<td>412 (76.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of primary school head teachers' by gender</td>
<td>25 (59.5%)</td>
<td>17 (40.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. DEOs office Nyeri Central District

3.5 Sampling Procedures and Sample size

In order to determine the sample size of teachers from primary schools to be drawn from the 538 teachers in the study area, the study adopted a formula from Nassiuma (2000) using the coefficient of variation for estimating a sample size, n, from a known population size, N.

\[ n = \frac{NC^2}{C^2 + (N-1)e^2} \]

Where \( n \) = sample size

\( N \) = population, 538 for teachers in this case.

\( C \) = Co-efficient of variation, assumed to be 30% for survey research.

\( e \) = Standard error, assumed to be 0.05 in this case substituting these values in the equation, estimated sample size (n)

\[ n = \frac{412 \times 0.3^2}{0.3^2 + (412 - 1)0.05^2} \]

\[ = 33.8 \text{(approximated to 34)} \]
Using the formula, the study utilized a sample of 40 female teachers. Nyeri Central District is geographically small; it was assumed that there are no regional variations in terms of population characteristics. Since the population was taken to be homogeneous simple random sampling was used to select 40 respondents. This was done after obtaining a list of all the female primary school teachers from the district education office. The teachers were listed from numbers 1 to 412, and then using tables of random numbers, 40 participants were selected. This method ensured that each member of the population had an equal chance of being selected and that the sample was adequately distributed among the primary school teachers in the district. Cohen and Manion (2000) states that because of probability and chance, the sample contains subjects with characteristics similar to the population as a whole. Hopkins and Glass (1996) add that a randomly drawn sample is useful if the researcher wishes to make generalisations because it seeks representativeness of the wider population.

3.6 Research Instruments

The research instruments aimed at collecting information on the personal, social cultural, organizational barriers that influenced appointments into position of educational management in primary schools in Nyeri Central District. Data was collected using two sets of instruments, a questionnaire for the female teachers and an interview schedule for the district education officer. The questionnaire consisted of 29 items, it consisted of four sections; section one sought to gather information on the teachers’ biographical status while sections two, three and four gathered information on the personal, social cultural, organizational barriers that influenced appointments into positions of headship. The district education officer’s interview schedule consisted of seven items and sought information on; biographical data, number of primary school teachers in the district, criteria used in headship appointment, gender considerations and an opinion on which gender is better in educational management.

Questionnaires were preferred for collecting data because in such questionnaires, the questions, their wordings and sequence are fixed and identical to all respondents. This had the advantage of obtaining standard responses to items in the questionnaire items thus making it possible to compare between sets of data (Wilson & Mc Lean, 1994). The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting information, providing structured, often numerical data, can be
administered without the presence of the researcher and it is often straightforward to analyze (Wilson & McLean, 1994).

3.7 Validity of the research instruments

Kasomo (2000) states research instruments can be validated by seeking expert opinion. In this study, experts from the School of Education, Kenyatta University validated the research instrument. They checked on face, construct and content validity to ascertain whether the instrument was accurately representing the variables under study in line with the purpose and objectives of the study. The final instrument was then revised in the light of their comments.

3.8 Reliability of the research instruments

The research instruments were piloted on 10 teachers from two schools in the district which were not included in the final sample. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), piloting helps to ascertain that the instrument for collecting data is free of pitfalls and mistakes that would surface in the main data collection process. Piloting also helped to ensure that the test items had a high degree of validity and reliability. Adjustments were made on the instruments in order to make them more appropriate before the fieldwork began. After piloting the internal consistence procedure was used to determine the reliability of the instrument. This was determined from scores obtained from a single test administered to a sample of subjects. A score obtained from one item was be correlated with scores obtained from other items in the instrument. Finally Cronbach Alpha Reliability coefficient value was computed to determine how items correlated among themselves (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). A reliability coefficient of 0.70 and above was considered appropriate for this study.

3.9 Data collection procedure

Before proceeding to collect data from the selected respondents, the researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Department of Educational Administration, Planning and Curriculum Development and then sought permission to conduct the study from the National Council for Science and Technology. Permission was also sought from the District Education Office in Nyeri Central District. A research permit was also sought from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology after which the researcher visited the participating respondents in their schools in person. The researcher introduced herself to the head teachers of the selected schools and sought their consent to carry out research in their schools. The researcher explained about the objectives
of the research to the respondents and requested their cooperation and guaranteed confidentiality
for any information offered. The researcher then arranged to administer the questionnaires to the
respondents. The questionnaires were self scoring and the respondents were asked to complete
themselves. For accuracy and consistence of the information, the respondents were given thirty
minutes to fill in the questionnaires. The researcher then collected the filled questionnaires.

3.10 Data Analysis
Kerlinger (1973) defines data analysis as categorization, ordering, manipulation and summering
of data to obtain answers to research questions. Descriptive data analysis was used and involved
descriptive statistics. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) Programme – was used to
analyze questionnaires. The study used frequencies and percentages because they easily
communicate the findings to majority of the readers (Gay, 1992); frequencies easily indicate the
number of times a response occurred. Percentages were used to compare the sub groups that
differ in proportion and size. In this study responses from various participants were used to
support the conclusions that were drawn from the findings of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction
This chapter analyses the data that was collected and officers the interpretation of the results from the findings collected from the sampled respondents. Data was collected from sampled female teachers from Nyeri Central District in Nyeri County. The respondents whose responses were received included 38 teachers and one district education officer. This study had targeted 40 teachers out of which a total of 38 respondents fully participated. This was 95% of the group which is a good representation.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents
This section describes the demographic characteristics of the respondents in the study area. Such a description is important in providing a clear understanding of the respondents and institutions included in the study and which may have influenced the results based on the objectives of the study. The demographic characteristics covered in this section are marital status, age and teaching experience of teachers.

4.2.1 Marital status of teacher respondents
It was important to establish the marital status of the teachers' respondents and the results are presented in figure 2.

![Figure 2. Marital status of teacher respondents]

Figure 2 indicate that majority of the respondents, 72.97% were married, 18.92% are single, 8.11% widowed and 2.70% did not respond to this questionnaire item. In agreement with the majority of the teachers the district education officer also indicated that he is married. Marital status is likely to have an effect on women representation in position of management. Married women would most likely prefer to stay with their families in order to attend their family
responsibilities which they are culturally bound to. Perhaps they would like to avoid the demands associated with leadership which would involve more time for the institutions they work for. Cubillo (1999) states that the tendency among women to avoid leadership may be due to reluctance to avoid conflict and excess responsibilities.

4.2.2 Age bracket of teachers

When asked about the age bracket of the respondent, the responses are provided in figure 3.

![Figure 3. Age bracket of principals](image)

Figure 3 shows that majority of the respondents, 47.37% fall in the age bracket 45-54 years. This is followed by 36.85% of the respondent who said that their age bracket is between 35-44 years. The age bracket of 25-34 years had 15.79% of the respondents. The study established that district education officer was in the age bracket 55-60, this indicates that the district education officer is older than most of the teachers and can according to the African culture command the respect of teachers by virtual of age. These results can be attributed to the fact that the TSC have frozen recruitment of teachers and only replaces those who leave the service either by natural attrition or resignation. Consequently younger teachers are relatively fewer than the older teachers.

4.2.3 Teaching experience of respondents

The research investigated the work experience of the teachers and the results are tabulated in Figure 4.
Figure 4. Teaching experience of teacher respondents

Figure 4.4.1 indicates that majority of the respondents 42.11% had a working experience of above 20 years. Also 23.68% of the respondents had a working experience of 16-20 years, 21.05% and 7.89% of the respondents had a teaching experience of 11-15 years and 6-10 years respectively. Only 5.26% of the teachers had a working experience of 1-5 years. The reasons why most teachers have a long teaching experience is probably due to the fact that the TSC temporarily stopped employing teachers in 2004 and only replaces those who leave the service. This was necessitated by the demand for higher salaries by the teachers union which the government adjusted in favour of the teachers amid protests that the treasury could not afford to foot the higher wage bill. As a result the government froze new recruitments. Again the retirement age for all teachers was increased from 55 to 60 years, this have contributed to having more teachers in the upper age brackets while diminishing those in the lower age brackets. Experienced teachers are likely to be better in delivery of classroom content, more conversant with school procedures and certainly qualified for leadership. It therefore remains a puzzle why women are not appointed. Otieno (2001) states that women often face higher standards than men leaders and are often rewarded less for the same post.

4.3 Personal barriers to appointment of women to positions of educational management

This section represents the findings of female teachers’ under representation in educational management positions in respect to the personal factors. Factors such as the ambitions for headship positions, relocating to different geographical location and opinion about promotions awarded by TSC are discussed.
4.3.1 Ambitions of becoming a head teacher

The research investigated the ambitions of teachers to become head teachers and the results are tabulated in table 2.

Table 2. Ambitions of becoming a head teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ambition for headship</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates that majority of the respondents 68.4% had no ambitions of becoming head teachers as compared 31.6% who would like to become head teachers. The high number of female teachers having no ambition for headship positions in primary schools is probably a major factor that contributes to women under representation in educational management. It is paramount that to be appointed into any position, one has to be ambitious. The female teachers seem to be complacent with inferior positions and may therefore be unlikely to go out and compete with the males even in situations where a position is vacant. Ambition is necessary to provide the drive to apply for positions and attend interviews. Since ambition for headship among female teachers in Nyeri Central District is lacking it is probable that male teachers looking for positions of headship face less competition and therefore get over represented. This agrees with the research findings of Growe and Montgomery (1999) who found out that one of the causes of women under representation is as a result of women unwillingness to play the game of the work system, don’t apply for jobs and even when in a job they don’t apply for frontline positions.

4.3.2 Relocating to different geographical location

The study also investigated the opinion of teachers towards relocating to a different geographical location upon appointment to positions of headship. Their responses are tabulated in table 3.
Table 3. Relocating impacts negatively for female teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relocating impacts negatively</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 indicates that the majority of the teacher respondents, 76.3% felt that the possibility of relocating to a different geographical location impacts negatively for female head teachers. The indication that most female teachers are reluctant to relocate to a different geographical area may imply that they would probably prefer to operate from the comfort of their homes, perhaps with their families. This response indicates that if a vacancy for headship is available a significant number of female teachers would be reluctant to apply if it would entail moving to a different area. This would result in fewer women applying, which implies fewer women appointed and hence under representation. These results are in harmony with the findings of Otieno (2001) who observed that the socialization process confines women to socially determined behaviours. Girls learn household chores while men are socialized to be more adventurous. Probably the women teachers are reluctant to move to different geographical locations because of their obligations to their families. It is also observed that most of the teachers are over 35 years of age and therefore have probably settled down in the neighbourhood of their schools with their families.

4.3.3 Opinion about promotions awarded by TSC

The study investigated the opinions of teachers about the promotions awarded by their employer, the TSC. The results are tabulated in Table 4.

Table 4. Opinion of teachers about promotions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers opinion about promotions</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 indicates that majority of the teacher respondents, 54.1% are of the opinion that the TSC system of awarding promotions is fair, 36.8% felt that it is poor. Only 7.9% felt that the system of promotion is a good one. The district education officer indicated that the criteria employed in the appointment and promotions of teachers were purely through oral interviews. These responses indicate that the female teachers have considerable faith in the method used by their employer in appointments into positions of headships. It is therefore apparent that their failure to be in leadership is not a protest to a system that may seem as overtly unfair but due to other underlying factors. Despite the fact that the district education officer cited the consideration of appointment of head teachers as based purely on competence, qualification and experience, the indications are that there was a significant numbers (37.8%) of the respondents who mistrust the process of appraisal; perhaps this is an indication of corrupt practices attributed to the ministry of education officials.

4.4 Social cultural barriers to appointment of female teachers

The social cultural barriers to female teachers’ appointment into positions of educational management were also investigated. These factors contribution to women under representation in headship positions is discussed. These are: gender issues, opinion on whether male teachers were better suited for headship as compared to the female teachers, family responsibilities, whether male administrators preferred to hire other males, opinion on emotional state of female head teachers, whether female teachers have the ability to take the pressure of being effective head teachers, lack of family support on female headship, involvement in informal networks and opinion of teachers on the effect of female headship on family stability.

4.4.1 Gender issues in appointment of head teachers

The study sought the opinion of the respondents as to whether they felt gender issues are taken into account in appointment of head teachers. The results are tabulated in table 5.

Table 5. Consideration of gender issues in appointments of head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender consideration</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 indicates that majority of the teachers, 59.5% are of the opinion that gender issues are not taken into account in appointment of head teachers as compared to 39.5% who felt that gender issues are taken into consideration. The district education officer indicated that no gender considerations are taken into account in appointment of head teachers. Failure to put into consideration of gender issues means that there are no quotas reserved or allocated in terms of gender; the males and females are left to compete on equal footing. Such an arrangement have inherent weaknesses in that it fails to address the disadvantaged position of the female teachers, and consequently results in their under representation. It is important that affirmative action be implemented in appointment of head teachers so as reflect not only the population demographics but also be in line with specific sectoral gender distributions. Chelimo (2007) observed that failure to put into place gender issues is tantamount to discrimination against women in decisions involving promotion, selection and supervision. West (1997) observed that impact of gender imbalance in educational management is becoming more and more apparent, with the consequence of failure to tap women’s potential for the benefit of all.

4.4.2 Males are better suited for headship than females.

The study investigated the teachers’ opinion as to whether male teachers were better suited for headship as compared to the female teachers. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Males are better suited for headship than females.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male are better suited for headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates that majority of the respondents 71.1% were of the opinion that males teachers are not better suited for headship as compared to female teachers, 26.3% of the respondents were of the contrary opinion. These responses indicate that female teachers do not perceive themselves as incapable of headship. Indeed they overwhelmingly negated the view that males are better suited for headship. The female teachers have confidence in their ability in management; this is perhaps an indication that they have out grown the traditional gender stereotype which relegates
women into positions that are subordinate to the males. According to the district education officer, the government's position is that it gives equal opportunities when advertising for these positions. The Ministry of Education takes into consideration the following in appointment into positions of headship; competence, qualification, willingness and experience.

4.4.3 Impact of family responsibilities on careers of women head teachers

It was important to establish whether the family responsibilities impact negatively of the careers of head teachers. The results are tabulated in table 7.

Table 7. Family responsibilities impact negatively on careers of women head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family impacts negatively on female heads teachers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 indicates that majority of the respondents 63.2% were of the opinion that family responsibilities impacted negatively on careers of women head teachers, 36.8% were of the contrary opinion. This is probably due to the fact that headship comes with added responsibilities which require spending more hours in school, being in school early, leaving late and liaising with the district education office among others. It is an involving task. For female teachers who may be expected to perform the household chores such as taking care of their families and other domestic responsibilities there is no doubt it can be overwhelming. The situation in the home may be more demanding if the teacher is a nursing mother, have school going children, lacks a supportive husband or is a single parent. These results agree with the research findings of Neidhart and Carlin (2003) who observed that women's identities and roles have been traditionally associated with the domestic scene while men's roles have been associated with paid employment as well as becoming public and industrial managers.

4.4.4 Male administrators and hiring of head teachers

The study sought to investigate if male administrators preferred to hire other males into position of headship as compared to female teachers. The results are presented in table 8.
Table 8. Male administrators tend to hire other males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males administrators tend to hire males</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was clearly indicated that 52.6% of the respondents felt that male administrators tend to hire other males into positions of headship while 44.7% were of a contrary opinion. Again the traditional gender stereotypes that tend to put females in positions where they are subject to males are probably contributing to female teachers' feelings of discrimination in appointments. The fact that most of the education administrators, school management committee members and BOG are men, may make the female teachers attribute failure to be appointed to the fact that the positions of power are already occupied by males, some of whom may harbour prejudices against women. Morris (1999) reports most of the school boards are controlled by men and therefore gender disparities in educational management may also affect hiring.

4.4.5 Emotional state of female head teachers

The study investigated whether females are too emotional to be effective head teachers. The results are tabulated in table 9.

Table 9. Females are too emotional to be effective head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females are too emotional for headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 indicates that majority of respondents 83.8% are of the opinion that female teachers are not too emotional to be effective head teachers only 16.2% were of the contrary opinion. The female teachers outrightly rejected the notion that they are too emotional to handle the challenges
of headship. Perhaps this due to the fact that to be an effective head teacher, what is required are skills in management and competence, therefore so long as issues are handled in a professional manner, emotions will have no place. The female teachers are perhaps saying that being emotional is not a preserve of the females alone, men too can be emotional. Livingstone (2004) reported that societies often equate gender stereotypical masculine traits with images of competence and leadership. By the same token women who are sensitive, rational and warm are discussed as weak, passive or emotional.

4.4.6 Pressure of being an effective head teacher

The study investigated whether female teachers have the ability to take the pressure of being effective head teachers. The results are provided in Table 10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females cannot take pressure for headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results clearly indicate that majority of respondents, 92.1% felt that females can take the pressure of headship only 7.9% were of a contrary opinion. Despite the gender stereotypes women feel that they are equally capable to take the pressure of being effective head teachers, this is probably due to the emergence of several women role models in the society who tend to negate the traditional beliefs which regard women as weak. On the other hand women in Nyeri are more aware of their potential, capability and community acceptance to take up positions of leadership in different fields including educational management. Therefore the female teachers perceive themselves as competent and capable of running schools just as their male counter parts. These research findings are in agreement with Ernest (2003) who stated that, where there have been major advances in education for women and significant increases in their participation in the paid labour force, the status of women has increased and is contributing to actions aimed at promoting equality between women and men.
4.4.7 Rationality and objectivity of being effective head teachers

It was also important to investigate if females are rational and objective enough to be effective head teachers. The results are presented in table 11.

Table 11. Females are not rational or objective enough to be effective head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female are not irrational for headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 indicates that majority of respondents 84.2% were of the opinion that females are rational and objective enough to be effective head teachers, only 15.8% were of the contrary opinion. Most of the female teachers believe that women are rational and objective enough to be effective head teachers; this is probably due to the fact that women are now competing favourably with men in academic arena, positions of leadership and even in politics. These results indicate that the women are liberated from the traditional and cultural thought patterns which tend to portray females as inferior to men in terms of their cognitive and social competence. The female teachers perhaps perceive making rational and objective decisions as having little to do with gender but other factors such as training, experience and a strong personality.

4.4.8 Motivation of being head teacher

It was important to investigate whether many people believe that female teachers are less motivated on the job because of family responsibilities. The results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Female teachers are less motivated due to family responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females are less motivated due to family responsibilities</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results indicate that majority of the respondents 55.3% are of the opinion that the family does not make the female teachers less motivated, 44.7% were of the contrary opinion. Care for
the family is perhaps a major concern for women; therefore they would rather forgo career advancement if it is to interfere with the responsibilities of running their homes.

4.4.9 Impact of lack of family support on female headship

It was important to investigate if family understanding and support impacts negatively on the career of female head teachers and the results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Lack of family support impacts negatively on female headship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lack of family support affects female headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 indicates that majority of the respondents, 71.1% were of the opinion that lack of family support impacts negatively on the career of female teachers, 28.9% were of a contrary opinion. The live of every individual is closely intertwined with ones family responsibilities. Perhaps one major motivation of keeping a job is to get resources or income to support ones family. The female teachers in this case would rather decline headship if is deemed to interfere with the family responsibilities. On the other hand family members who are dependent or benefit directly from the female teacher would expect her to perform all the domestic chores in her home as dictated by the social cultural settings in which they live. In such cases the family members may be reluctant to support her endeavour for headship position. It is already a concern that Nyeri women are engaging their husbands in physical confrontations due to the men failure to take family responsibilities and yet they don’t want to support their working class women, particularly those who show interest in leadership. Ernest (2003) states that the work and life balance can be a major barrier to the advancement of women to senior positions. This is partly due to the pressure of family responsibilities.

4.4.10 Involvement in informal networks and appointment into headship

The study investigated the opinion of the respondents on females lack of involvement in informal networks and appointment into headship, the results are tabulated in table 14.
Table 14. Lack of female involvement in informal networks and career in headship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lack of involvement in informal networks reduces chance of headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>68.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results indicate that majority of the respondents, 68.4% were of the opinion that lack of female teachers involvement in informal networks impacted negatively on chances of a career opportunity in headship, 31.6% were of the contrary opinion. Perhaps these responses suggest that being involved in informal networks widens the circle of friends; one tends to be acquainted with many people some of whom are in positions of authority, getting to know a lot of people and being known stirs popularity and perhaps fame which can be a positive feature when attending an interview. A person who is popular stands an added advantage as opposed to a person whom the interview panelists have never had about. The fact that female teachers are usually at home attending domestic chores, when their male counter parts are more active in social events may be working towards their under representation in leadership positions.

4.4.11 Female headship and family stability

The study investigated the opinion of teachers on the effect of female headship on family stability. The results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Female head teachers end up with broken homes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Head teachers end up with broken homes</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>97.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing system</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results indicate that majority of the respondents, 76.3% were of opinion that headship does not break homes for the female head teachers; only 21.1% of the respondents were of a different opinion. It is very unlikely that family break down can result simply of account of being appointed into headship. So long as the home and the school continues to function smoothly as
expected by the players in the two arenas it is doubtful that negative aspects of one can spill over to the other. Probably the teachers are beyond the traditional stereotypes that female heads teachers end up with broken homes. Ridgeway (2001) observed that the social roles, responsibilities, and behaviour created in families, societies and cultures includes the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviour of both women and men (femininity and masculinity). For example: “Men as income earners”, and “Women as child caregivers”. When these roles and expectations are not implemented as expected the family is seen as broken or at least dysfunctional.

4.4.12 Female teachers and interest in headship
The investigated whether female teachers are interested in headship and the results are presented in table 16.

Table 16. Female teachers are not interested in headship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female teachers are not interested in headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 indicates that majority of the respondents, 55.3% were of the opinion that female teachers are not interested in headship as compared to 44.7% who were of the contrary opinion. It is probable that family responsibilities, relocating to a new work station among other factors may be contributing to the reluctance of female teachers seeking positions of leadership. This apparent lack of interest by female teachers in Nyeri central district certainly contributes to their under representation.

4.5 Organizational barriers to appointment of female teachers into headship
The study investigated several organizational barriers that contribute to women under representation in educational management. Some of these factors are: opinion of the teachers as to whether female heads are effective disciplinarians, whether female teachers lack mentorship to join positions of leadership, whether college education and teacher training addressed the unique needs of female administrators and whether communities have as much confidence on female head teachers as compared to male head teachers.
4.5.1 Female heads and maintenance of school discipline

The study investigated the opinion of the teachers as to whether female heads are effective disciplinarians. The results are tabulated in table 17.

Table 17. Females are not effective disciplinarians

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females are not effective disciplinarians</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>81.6</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 indicates that the majority of the respondents 81.6% were of the opinion that female are effective disciplinarians, 10.5% were of the contrary opinion. 7.9% did not respond to this questionnaire item. Again the teachers are operating independent of the traditional stereotypes that tends to depict them as weak and incapable of handling discipline in schools. These indicate that the female teachers are capable of maintaining discipline in schools. They are effect disciplinarians. Maintenace of discipline is esential if the smooth running of the school programmes is to be attained. Consequently the female teachers are capable to run schools effectively. A small proportion of respondents felt that female teachers may not be effective disciplinarians, perhaps this is due to the fact that females are considered somehow motherly, linient and more accomodating. These attributes may tend to work against taking a firm stand on discipline issues.

4.5.2 Consideration of female teachers for headship

We also investigated whether female teachers are considered not considered for headship because of the belief that they are less suited for the demands of the job. The responses are in Table 18.
Table 18. Females are not considered for headship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females are less suited For headship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 indicates that 55.3% of the respondents were of the opinion that female teachers were not considered for headship because of the belief that they are less suited for the demands of the office of the head teacher. 42.1% of the respondents were of the contrary opinion. Probably the fact that women are discriminated against and because they are relegated to subordinate positions in the society accounts for the feeling that they are not considered for headship. There is no doubt that the fact that most since most administrative and managerial positions are occupied by men, it likely that some of the occupants may still be looking at women as incapable of leadership in line with the traditional and cultural stereotypes that perceive women as weak. These findings agree with Livingstone (2004) who observed that many societies often perceive women as unfit for leadership roles. If women act consistently with gender stereotypes, they are considered too soft, if they go against gender stereotypes, they are considered too tough.

4.5.3 Teachers prefer male head teachers

The study also investigated whether teachers preferred male head teachers compared to female heads. The results are presented in table 19.

Table 19. Teachers prefer male head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers prefer male head teachers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 19 indicates that 50.0% of teachers felt that teachers prefer male head teachers, 47.4% were of the contrary opinion while 2.6% of the respondents failed to respond to this questionnaire item. Perhaps the preference of male head teachers as compared to female head teachers may be attributed to feminine jealousies so prevalent among women. Women are always in competition with each other and with their leader. It is probable that as a result of this female teachers will feel more at home with a male head teacher as opposed to a female head. Again the traditional role modeling of leadership may account for the female teachers’ preferring males as their leaders in favour of females.

4.5.4 Female head teachers and support of subordinates

We also investigated the respondents’ opinion as to whether female head teachers were accorded support by their subordinates. The results are in table 20.

Table 20. Female head teachers lack support of subordinates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subordinates do not support female heads</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results indicate that majority of the respondents 68.4% were of the opinion that female head teachers are accorded support by their subordinates, 28.9% were of the contrary opinion while 2.6% did not respond to this questionnaire item. This indicates that women head teachers cannot be intimidated by their juniors, they capable asserting their authority to perform administrative duties. The women administrators are not weak and are capable of implementing administrative and policy matters within their jurisdiction without fear of intimidation from those below them. This is in agreement with the findings of Growe and Montigomery (1999) who observed that the landscape of today’s society dictates that women can succeed as administrators.

4.5.5 Female heads and support of other female teachers

We also found it important of female head teachers were supported by female teachers. The results are tabulated in Table 21.
Table 21. Female heads lack support of other female teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female teachers don’t support female heads</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21 indicates that majority of respondents, 63.2% were of the opinion that female head teachers lacked support of other female teachers, 34.2% were of the contrary opinion while 2.6% did not respond to this questionnaire item. A large percentage of women feel that female head teachers may fail to get the support of female teachers. Edison (1989) supports this view and states that women often fail to voice concern about the negative attitudes of other women, jealousy, competition and lack of support from women educators in positions of power. Kanter (1977) also agrees with this view and adds that women in leadership positions often had difficulty with other women who do not perceive them as real power wielders.

4.5.6 Communities confidence on female head teachers

The study investigated whether communities have as much confidence on female head teachers as compared to male head teachers. The results are tabulated in table 22.

Table 22. Communities lack confidence in female heads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communities lack confidence in female heads</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>68.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22 indicates that majority of the respondents, 68.4% were of the opinion that communities lack confidence in female head teachers while 31.6% of the respondents were of the contrary opinion. The lack of confidence in women head teachers is probably due to the cultural and traditional stereotypes. In the community there are many people in the community which have illiterate, some no more than basic education while others have not travelled widely. Such
categories of people are unlikely to appreciate the changing roles of females; they are most likely operating in the traditional cultural mind sets which have little appreciation of the females. Based on this background, it is not surprising that a large fraction of the community members will lack confidence in female heads. This is in agreement with Wesson (1998) who observed that in communities that still have strong traditional structures, male chauvinism, gender stereotypes and or generalized prejudices against women exist.

4.5.7 Teacher training and the needs of female head teachers

The study investigated whether college education and teacher training addressed the unique needs of female administrators. The results are presented in Table 23.

Table 23. College education does not address the needs of female heads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College education does not address needs of female heads</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 23 indicate that 52.6% of the respondents were of the opinion that college education and teacher training did not address the unique needs of special needs of female administrators, 44.7% were of the contrary opinion while 2.6% did not respond to this item. College education is no doubt equips all teachers with important administrative and leadership skills that enable them to work in diverse settings. However it is apparent that the training in college does not address the unique gender related challenges that men and women are likely to encounter as they perform their duties. This state of affairs probably results in women assigned leadership positions facing difficulties that are all too evident. Bateson (1996) observed that educational administration is at the apex of systematic school reform and that change represents an ongoing adjustment and adaptation to new contexts and is not something that can be done once and for all.

4.5.8 Female teachers and mentorship to join leadership positions

The study investigated whether female teachers lack mentorship to join positions of leadership. The results are in Table 24.
Table 24: Female teachers lack mentorship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female teachers lack mentorship</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>false</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24 indicates that 55.3% of the respondents were of the opinion that female teachers lacked mentorship to join positions of leadership while 44.7% were of the contrary opinion. Mentorship is important in preparation of individuals for any future roles they be expected to perform. Mentorship is usually not structured but occurs in the context of carrying out duties under the guidance of an experience and respected expert. When female carry out their duties they need other senior females who have attained expertise to admire. Women are underrepresented in positions of education administration and as such there are few role models and mentors to emulate, as a result the aspiration for headship by the female teachers is not nurtured. Wesson (1998) observed that it is essential that women in administration need to be active mentors to others in community.

4.5.9 Female teachers lack role models in leadership

The study investigated whether most women teachers did not join positions of leadership due to lack of female role models in education administration. The results are tabulated in table 25.

Table 25: Female teachers lack female role models in education leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Females teachers lack female role models</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25 indicates that the opinion as to whether female teachers lack role models in education leadership is divided right in the middle with 50% supporting the idea while 50% were of the contrary opinion. The opinion of the teachers is divided right in the middle; this is probably due to the fact that despite their being under representation in educational management there are still other areas where women are portraying success in leadership. This is in line with the findings of Jean-Marie and Martinez (2007) who observed that overall composition of education
administrators ensures that role models and networks for support for those who aspire to leadership positions are lacking. Williamson and Hudson (2001) also observed that leadership positions involves understanding how leadership preparation programs can prepare, socialize, induct and resist traditional norms and equip the potential leaders with democratic and participative leadership practices.

4.5.10 Criteria for evaluation of female head teachers

The study investigated whether female head teachers are evaluated on a more stringent criterion as compared to their male counterparts. The results are tabulated in Table 26.

Table 26. Female candidates for headship are evaluated more stringently

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female candidates are evaluated more stringently</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>97.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 26 indicates that majority of respondents 52.6% were of the opinion that female head teachers are not evaluated more stringently as compared to the male head teachers, 44.7% were of the contrary opinion while 2.6% did not respond to this questionnaire item. Gupton and Slick (1996) conducted a research and found that women often believe that to be considered for administrative positions they must be better prepared than men.

4.6 District Education Officers Response

The study also sought the response of the district education officer on issues pertaining to gender disparities in appointment of primary school teachers into positions of educational management. The study established that the district education officer is married in the age bracket 55-60 years and had 20 years experience in educational management. The total numbers of teachers in the district were 538 of which 126 were male and 412 were female, however the composition of the head teachers of primary schools in the district was 43 male and 26 female. The study established that the criterion used in appointment of headteachers was through oral interviews and that promotion was based on competence, qualification and experience. The study found out
that gender considerations are not taken into account by the education office in appointment of head teachers. However the education officer was of the opinion that the government gave equal opportunity in consideration of school headship. From the responses of the District Education Officer it appears by virtue of his long experience and age he is likely to understand the needs of the teachers, the community and the schools well. It is evident that female teachers are grossly under represented in headship positions; male teachers who account for 23% of the teacher population in the district hold 62% of headship positions. The criteria used in appointment of head teachers fails to take into account the disadvantaged status of female teachers hence contributing to more under representation.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
This study aimed at finding out the causes of gender disparities in appointment of primary school head teachers in Nyeri Central District, Nyeri County. The study was guided by the following objectives; to determine social cultural barriers to women’s careers advancement in education management among primary schools teachers, to determine personal factors that causes disparities in appointments into positions of educational management, to identify if gender policies are employed in appointment into positions of education management and to establish measures that can be taken to improve the situation. Two questionnaires were used to collect the needed data from the female teachers and the District Education officer. The study involved a sample of 40 primary school teachers and the Nyeri Central District education officer. This chapter therefore presents the summary of major findings, conclusions reached as well as the recommendations. Areas warranting further research are also highlighted.

5.2 Summary of major findings
The study revealed that there were personal barriers to women’s careers advancement in primary schools in Nyeri Central District. Majority of the female teachers (68.4%) had no ambitions of becoming head teachers. The high number of female teachers having no ambition for headship positions in primary schools is probably a major factor that contributes to women under representation in educational management. The female teachers seem to be complacent with inferior positions and may therefore be unlikely to go out and compete with the males. Since the female teachers are not interested in looking for positions of headship, male teachers seeking for headship face less competition and therefore get over represented.

The teacher respondents felt that the possibility of relocating to a different geographical location impacts negatively for female head teachers. This implies that if a vacancy for headship is available a significant number of female teachers would be reluctant to apply if it would entail moving to a different area. This would result in fewer women applying, which implies fewer women appointed and hence underrepresentation of women in education management.
The study revealed that there were number social cultural barriers to appointment of women into positions of leadership in primary schools in Nyeri Central District. Majority of the respondents (63.2%) were of the opinion that family responsibilities impacted negatively on careers of women head teachers. Headship comes with added responsibilities which require; spending more hours in school, being in school early, leaving late and liaising with the district education office among others. The respondents felt that male administrators tend to hire other males into positions of headship. The traditional gender stereotypes that tend to put women in positions where they are subject to males are probably contributing to female teachers’ feelings of discrimination in appointments.

Majority of the respondents (76.3%) were of opinion that headship does not break homes for the female head teachers. It is unlikely that family break down can result simply of account of being appointed into headship. So long as the home and the school continues to function smoothly as expected by the players in the two arenas it is improbable that negative aspects of one can spill over to the other. Most respondents were of the opinion that females are rational and objective enough to be effective head teachers. The female teachers perhaps perceive making rational and objective decisions as having little to do with gender but other factors such as training, experience and a strong personality. Most of the respondents were of the opinion that lack of family support impact negatively on the career of female head teachers. The live of every individual is closely intertwined with ones family responsibilities. Indeed one major motivation of keeping a job is to get resources or income to support ones family. The female teachers in this case would rather forgo headship if is deemed to interfere with the family responsibilities.

Majority of the respondents (68.4%) were of the opinion that lack of female teachers involvement in informal networks impacted negatively on chances of a career opportunity in headship. The fact that female teachers are usually at home when their male counterparts are more active socially may be working towards their under representation in leadership positions. Most of the respondents were of the opinion that female teachers are not interested in headship. It is probable that family responsibilities, relocating to a new work station among other factors may be contributing to the reluctance of female teachers seeking positions of leadership.
Most teachers (73.0%) were of the opinion that males teachers are not better suited for headship as compared to female teachers. This indicates that female teachers do not perceive themselves as incapable of headship. Indeed they overwhelmingly negated the view that males are better suited for headship. The female teachers have confidence in their ability in management; this is perhaps an indication that they have out grown the traditional gender stereotype which relegates women into positions that are subordinate to the males.

Most of the teacher respondents (81.6%) were of the opinion that females’ teachers are not too emotional to be effective head teachers. The female teachers outrightly rejected the notion that they are too emotional to handle the challenges of headship. Majority of respondents felt that females can take the pressure of headship. Despite the gender stereotypes women feel that they are equally capable to take the pressure of being effective head teachers, this is probably due to the emergence of several women role models in the society who tend to negate the traditional beliefs which regard women as weak.

The research findings revealed that a number of organization barriers to appointment of women into positions of educational management were prevalent in Nyeri Central District. Majority of the teachers were of the opinion that gender issues are not taken into account in appointment of head teachers. The district education officer confirmed that no gender considerations are taken into considerations in appointment of head teachers. Most of the respondents were of the opinion that college education and teacher training did not address the unique needs of special needs of female administrators. This state of affairs probably results in women assigned leadership positions to face difficulties that are their male counterparts may not be having. This would create the impression that the female head teachers are incompetent when compared to the males.

Most of the teacher respondents (54.1%) were of the opinion that the TSC system of awarding promotions is fair. The district education officer indicated that the criteria employed in the appointment and promotions of teachers as based on oral interviews. These responses indicate that the female teachers have considerable faith in the method used by their employer in appointments into positions of headships. It is therefore apparent that their failure to be in leadership is not a protest to a system that is seem as overtly unfair but due to other underlying factors. Majority of respondents (52.6%) were of the opinion that female head teachers are not evaluated more stringently as compared to the male head teachers. The study established that the
criterion used in appointment of headteachers was through oral interviews and that promotion was based on competence, qualification and experience. The study found out that gender considerations are not taken into account by the education office in appointment of head teachers. However the education officer was of the opinion that neither gender is superior in school headship as compared to the other. From the responses of the District Education Officer it is clear that female teachers are grossly under represented in headship positions; male teachers who account for 23% of the teacher population in the district hold 62% of headship positions. The criteria used in appointment of head teachers fails to take into account the disadvantaged status of female teachers hence contributing to more under representation.

Majority of the respondents (55.3%) were of the opinion that female teachers lacked mentorship to join positions of leadership. Mentorship is important in preparation of individuals for any future roles they be expected to perform. Mentorship is usually not structured but occurs in the context of carrying out duties under the guidance of an experience and respected expert. The opinion as to whether female teachers lack role models in education leadership is divided right in the middle. The opinion of the teachers is divided right in the middle; this is probably due to the fact that despite their being under representation in educational management there are still other areas where women are portraying success in leadership.

The majority of the respondents (88.6%) were of the opinion that female are effective disciplinarians. The teachers are operating independent of the traditional stereotypes that tends to depict them as weak and incapable of handling discipline in schools. Most respondents were of the opinion that female teachers were not considered for headship because of the belief that they are less suited for the demands of the office of the head teacher. Probably the fact that women are discriminated against and because they are relegated to subordinate positions in the society accounts for the feeling that they are not considered for headship. Most of the teachers’ respondents (51.4%) felt that teachers prefer male head teachers. Perhaps the preference of male head teachers as compared to female head teachers may be attributed to the fact that women are always in competition with each other and with their leader. It is probable that as a result of this female teachers will feel more at home with a male head teacher as opposed to a female head.
Majority of the respondents (70.3%) were of the opinion that female head teachers are accorded support by their subordinates. This indicates that women head teachers cannot be intimidated by their juniors, they capable asserting their authority to perform administrative duties. The women administrators are not weak, they are capable of implementing administrative and policy matters within their jurisdiction without fear of intimidation from those below them. Majority of the respondents (68.4%) were of the opinion that communities lack confidence in female head teachers. The lack of confidence in women head teachers is probably due to the cultural and traditional stereotypes. In the community there are many people in the community which have illiterate, some no more than basic education while others have not travelled widely. Such categories of people are unlikely to appreciate the changing roles of females; they are most likely operating in the traditional cultural mind sets which have little appreciation of the females.

5.3 Conclusion

The main aim of the study was to determine the causes of gender disparities in appointment of primary school head teachers in Nyeri central district, Nyeri County. The study found that many female teachers faced personal barriers in ascending to positions of educational management in areas such as lack of ambitions for headship positions and reluctance to relocate to different geographical location.

The study also identified social cultural barriers to female teachers’ appointment into positions of educational management as follows; lack of consideration of gender issues in appointments of head teachers, the opinion that family responsibilities impacted negatively on careers of women head teachers, the tendency of male administrators to hire other males into positions of headship, the lack of family support impacted negatively on the career of female head teachers and lack of female teachers involvement in informal networks impacted negatively on chances of a career opportunity in headship.

The study investigated organizational barriers that contribute to women under representation in educational management, the following barriers were identified; female teachers were not considered for headship because of the believe that they are less suited for the demands of the office of the head teacher, teachers prefer male head teachers, female head teachers lacked support of other female teachers, communities lack confidence in female head teachers, college education and teacher training did not address the unique needs of female administrators, female
teachers lacked mentorship to join positions of leadership and lastly female teachers lack role models in education leadership.

5.4 Recommendations
Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations can be made which if implemented would help promote ascendancy of female teachers into positions of educational management.

i. The TSC and the Ministry of Education should put in place policies that promote gender equity in appointments into positions of leadership. Affirmative action should be enacted so that no one gender is under represented into positions of leadership.

ii. The ministry of education; the ministry of gender, children and social affairs as well as the ministry of labour should embark on a sensitization and educational campaign to educate the entire citizenry of the republic on the vital role that can be played by removing the social barriers to women’s careers advancement.

iii. From an early age girls should be encouraged to believe that they too are capable and that they are not just meant to be home keepers. They ought to be made aware that they can compete favourably with men. This can be achieved through provision of the appropriate curriculum and teaching/reading materials. The ministry of gender, children and social affairs should also carry out massive sensitisation programs on the benefits of assertiveness among the female population.

5.5 Suggestions for further research
From the findings of the study, further investigations can be conducted. Therefore the following are suggested for further research.

i. A study can be conducted to determine the causes of communities lack confidence in female head teachers. It would be important to carry out a survey so as to indentify why the female teachers are not trusted by communities.

ii. Again the research found out that college education does not address the unique needs of female head teachers. A needs assessment study should be carried out to develop a curriculum that addresses the professional differences in the needs of female and male teachers.
iii. There is need to carry out a comparative study in another district as this would confirm the findings of this study as well as shed more light on other factors that influence appointment into positions of educational leadership.
REFERENCES.


Bowles, B.D. (1990). The silent crisis in educational leadership. The Education Digest, 55, 12-


Table 27. Distribution of Staff in Management Positions in Nyeri Central District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>No. of males</th>
<th>No. of females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEOs office</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary schools head teachers</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
<td><strong>68</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Education. DEOs office Nyeri Central District
APPENDIX TWO

LETTER OF AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH

Esther Wairimu Mukundi
P.O. Box 821
Nyeri

DEO Nyeri Central District
P.O. Box 20
Nyeri.

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN EDUCATION RESEARCH
AS A STUDENT OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY M.ED PROGRAMME

I wish to request to be granted permission to carry out a research in primary schools in Nyeri Central district. I feel the outcome of the research will enable me contribute to improvement of education management in the district.

Yours faithfully

E. W. MUKUNDI

CC: Dean of Academics Kenyatta University
PDE Central province
All primary Schools head teachers Nyeri Central District
APPENDIX THREE

TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Kindly respond honestly and accurately to questions listed below. Any information that you provide will be treated with utmost confidence and will not for any other purposes other than which pertains to this research.

Biographical information.

1) Marital status
   Married ( )
   Single ( )
   Windowed ( )

2) What is your age bracket
   25-34yrs ( )
   35-44yrs ( )
   45-54yrs ( )

3) Teaching experience
   1-5yrs ( )
   6-10yrs ( )
   11-15yrs ( )
   16-20yrs ( )
   Over 20yrs ( )

Please indicate True ( √ ) or False ( × ) followed by a brief statement in each of the questions 4-29 listed below. You may follow up the answer by offering a brief explanation if you so wish.

Personal barriers to women appointment to positions of educational management.

4) Do you have or have you ever had ambitions of being a head teacher?
   Yes ( )
   No ( )

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

64
5) The possibility of relocating to a different geographical position impacts negatively for female head teachers.

   True ( )
   False ( )

6) What is your opinion about promotions awarded by the TSC into headship of primary schools?

   Good ( )
   Fair ( )
   Poor ( )

7) In your opinion are gender issues taken into account in appointments of school head teachers in your district.

   Yes ( )
   No ( )

Social cultural barriers to appointment of women into positions of educational management.

8) Males are better suited to be head teachers than females.

   True ( )
   False ( )
9) Family responsibilities’ impact negatively on careers of female head teachers
   True ( )
   False ( )

10) Male administrators tend to hire other males to positions of headship
    True ( )
    False ( )

11) Females are too emotional to be effective head teachers
    True ( )
    False ( )

12) Females cannot take pressure of being a head teacher effectively
    True ( )
    False ( )

13) Females are not rational or objective enough to be effective head teachers
    True ( )
    False ( )
14) Many people believe females are less motivated on the job because they are providing other responsibilities for the family
 True ( )
 False ( )

15) Lack of family understanding and support impacts negatively on female head teachers
 True ( )
 False ( )

16) Lack of females' involvement in informal networks impacts negatively on chances of a career opportunity of head teacher.
 True ( )
 False ( )

17) Female teachers promoted to be head teachers eventually end up with broken homes
 True ( )
 False ( )

18) Females are perceived to be less interested in becoming head teacher.
 True ( )
 False ( )
Organizational barriers to appointment of women into positions of educational management

19) Females are not effective disciplinarians because it is believed that they are less suited for the demands of the job.
   True ( )
   False ( )

20) Females are not considered for headship because it is believed that they are less suited for the demands of the job.
   True ( )
   False ( )

21) Teachers prefer male head teachers to female head teachers
   True ( )
   False ( )

22) Female head teachers lack support of subordinates
   True ( )
   False ( )
23) Female head teachers lack support of other females teachers
   True (  )
   False (  )

24) Many communities would not have as much confidence in female head teachers as compared to a male head teacher
   True (  )
   False (  )

25) College education and teacher training do not address the special needs of female administrators.
   True (  )
   False (  )

26) Female head teachers cannot be competent in disciplining male students.
   True (  )
   False (  )

27) Female teachers lack mentorship to join leadership positions
   True (  )
28) Most women teachers do not have ambitions for headship because they lack of females role models in education administration
True ( )
False ( )

29) Female candidates for the head teacher are evaluated on more stringent criteria than male candidates.
True ( )
False ( )
APPENDIX FOUR

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER’S INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Kindly respond to the following questions. Any information that you provide will be treated with outmost confidence and will not be used for any other purpose other than that pertains to this research. Thank you for your cooperation.

1) What is your marital status?
   - Married
   - Single
   - Divorced
   - Windowed

2) In which age bracket listed below do you belong?
   - 25-34 years
   - 35-44 years
   - 45-54 years
   - Over 54 years

3) What is your experience as an educational manager?
   - 1-5 years
   - 6-10 years
   - 11-15 years
   - 16-20 years

4) a) What is the total number of primary schools in your district? .................
   b) What is the total number of male primary school teachers in your district?
      ........................................................................................................................
   c) What is the total number of female primary school teachers in your district?
      ........................................................................................................................
   d) What is the gender composition of head teachers’ in primary schools in your district?
      Male............
      Female ........
5) Please explain the criteria employed in appointment of primary school head teachers in your district?

6) Please explain the gender considerations taken into account by your office in appointment of head teachers for primary schools in your district?

7) In your opinion who seems to be better education manager? Males or females? Please explain your answer.
## APPENDIX FIVE
### BUDGET

Table 28: Budget

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<th>Item(s)</th>
<th>Unit Price</th>
<th>Total cost (Ksh)</th>
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<td><strong>Printing</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>20 copies of Research proposal</td>
<td>600.00</td>
<td>12,000.00</td>
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<td>7 copies of research Project Report draft</td>
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<td><strong>Binding</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>8 copies of Research Project report</td>
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<td>400 students questionnaire</td>
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<td><strong>Others</strong></td>
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<td>Stationery</td>
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<td><strong>GRAND TOTAL</strong></td>
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## Table 29: Work plan

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</table>
APPENDIX SEVEN

RESEARCH PERMIT

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution

Esther W. Mukundi

of (Address) Kenyatta University
P.O BOX 43844, Nairobi

has been permitted to conduct research in

Location

Nyeri Central

District

Central

Province

on the topic; Causes of gender disparities in

appointment of primary school head teachers in Nyeri

Central District, Nyeri County in Kenya.

for a period ending 31st December 2011

Research Permit No. NCST/RR/12/1/SS011/14

Date of issue

17th October, 2011

Fee received

KSHS. 1,000

Applicant's Signature

Secretaray National Council

Science and Technology
Our Ref: NCST/RRI/12/1/SS-011/1437/4

Esther W. Mukundi
Kenyatta University
P. O. Box 43844
NAIROBI

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on “Causes of gender disparities in appointment of primary school head teachers in Nyeri Central District, Nyeri County in Kenya” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Nyeri Central District for a period ending 31st December 2011.

You are advised to report to the District Commissioner & the District Education Officer, Nyeri Central District before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit one hard copy and one soft copy of the research report/thesis to our office.

P. N. NYAKUNDI
FOR: SECRETARY/CEO

Copy to:
The District Commissioner
Nyeri Central District

The District Education Officer