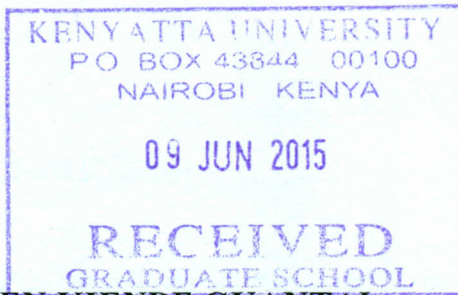


**ORGANIZATIONAL BARRIERS AND COPING STRATEGIES
INFLUENCING FEMALE MOBILITY IN MANAGEMENT OF
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MERU, MACHAKOS AND ISIOLO
COUNTIES, KENYA**



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E83/CTY/11766/08

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR
OF PHILOSOPHY IN THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, KENYATTA
UNIVERSITY**

MAY 2015

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university. The thesis has been complemented by referenced works duly acknowledged. Where text data, graphics, pictures or tables have been borrowed from other works including internet, the sources are specifically accredited through referencing in accordance with anti-plagiarism regulations.



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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my husband Jenaro Guantai and to my daughter Vanessa Lynn whose patience and support enabled me to complete the work. The selfless guidance of my teachers at all levels has gone along way in shaping and inspiring me. May the Almighty God bless each of them abundantly.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BEd	:	Bachelor of Education
CEDAW	:	Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women
DEO	:	District Educational Officers
EFA	:	Education for All
KIE	:	Kenya Institute of Education
KNEC	:	Kenya National Examinations Council
MEd	:	Masters of Education
MDGS	:	Millennium Development Goals
IPAR	:	Institute of Policy Analysis and Research
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TSC	:	Teachers Service Commission
UNO	:	United Nations Organization
UNESCO	:	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization
QUASO	:	Quality Assurance and Standard Officers.

ABSTRACT

The issue of women under-representation in management positions in all sectors including education has aroused scholarly interest globally in recent times. Statistics from the Teachers Service Commission of Kenya (2010) revealed that only 1,178 (24.5%) of the 4,800 public secondary schools in Kenya were headed by female principals. This is way below the minimum of 30% allowed by the Constitution of Kenya (2010). The purpose of this study was to identify and examine the organizational barriers and coping strategies that influenced female mobility to principalship in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties. The key objectives of the study were: to identify the organizational barriers faced by secondary school female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties, to identify the coping strategies that they employed to overcome the barriers and to establish the mechanisms embraced by female principals to remain successful in their careers. The study also tested the null hypothesis that: there was no significant difference between public and private secondary schools in terms of recruitment practices as an organizational barrier faced by female principals. The study is significant in that it may inform the Ministry of Education and Teachers Service Commission on how to institute gender policies in secondary education management so as to conform to the Bill of Rights as stipulated in the Constitution of Kenya promulgated in 2010. The study employed descriptive survey design which embraced both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The study was carried out in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties. The target population for study was, (825) persons comprising (248) female principals, (260) male principals, 263 female deputy principals, 22, DEOs and 22 Quality Assurance and Standard Officers. A sample size of (417) respondents was used for the study. Stratified random sampling was used to select the schools according to the following strata: girls' public secondary schools, girl's private secondary schools, and public and private mixed secondary schools. Data was collected using questionnaires and interview schedules. Content validity was determined by seeking expert judgement from specialist in educational management. Cronbach technique was used to ascertain reliability of the instruments. Qualitative data was analysed thematically while Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The major finding of this study was that organizational practices, culture, lack of mentoring, tokenism and "old boys" networks that locked out female counterparts were confirmed as the main organizational barriers that secondary school female principals encountered as they ascended to principalship in the three counties. Further the study established that additional training and female principals remaining focussed in their work were among the coping strategies that were embraced to overcome the barriers encountered. The study recommends the need to embrace gender mainstreaming within organizations which will counter organizational cultures that are characterized by male dominance and discrimination hence increasing women visibility in top level positions.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The study intended to identify and examine the organizational barriers that secondary female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties encountered as they ascended to management positions and the strategies they used to overcome same. This chapter provides the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose, objectives, research questions, hypothesis, significance, limitations and delimitation of the study. The chapter also presents the theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definition of terms.

1.1 Background to the Study

Inequalities at workplaces among employees especially in managerial positions have elicited much discussion globally (Wirth, 2001). However most of the existing studies tend to focus on social - cultural barriers which affect professional women in their efforts to ascend to management positions without much attention to organizational related barriers and coping mechanisms (ILO, 2004). This was a significant aspect to explore with the increasing evidence that women continue to occupy low managerial positions in the world in almost all sectors including education (Kabaji, 2007, Coleman, 2003). The awareness that women are a vital human resource that can change the quality of society for the better is felt globally but according to the Gender Policy in Education in Kenya (2007:2) there is agreement that girls and women empowerment in general has been affected by inadequate policies and this manifests negatively on women access to management positions. This policy further affirms that one thing that is common to women of all

nationalities is that they are faced with problems of accessing management positions. Tlaiss (2010) reveals that female managers perceive their upward mobility in organizations to be affected by organizational practices, organizational networks and mentoring which interacts with community cultures to create impediments which deter them from progressing upwards.

Historical trends around the world have shown that women have been under-represented at all educational levels globally. For instance, Ouston (1992) found that less than half of the primary schools in England and Wales had female principals, while in secondary schools one in six schools had a female principal. This concurs with a study done in Turkey in 2005 which established that women account for the majority in the teaching profession and yet are under-represented at headship level (Maundu and Warren 2008). The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) (2012) underscore the prevalence of increased feminization of the teaching profession at the lower levels of education, while the senior management and leadership positions in education are taken by men. Coombe, (1993) revealed that women occupied marginalized positions in leadership in most organizations. Jones and George (2004), further show that although there are more women in management than a decade ago, there is a dismal number in top and even middle management positions in most organizations. Neidhat and Carlin (2003), affirm that women have been under-represented in management due to organizational barriers stemming from socialising and stereotyping. They further underscore the current organizational reality being heavily structured against career oriented women making women's upward mobility within institutions internationally unattainable (Ernest, 2003, Neidhat et al, 2003).

According to Tlaiss (2010), the hurdles that women in management positions globally encounter can be so formidable that women sometimes discard the efforts to make it to the top in large organizations. This is manifested by a minimal percentage representation of women in management positions and their fundamental absence from most of the senior jobs, Tlaiss: 2010:48). ILO (2004) further attributes this under-representation to amalgamation of social attitudes and gender inequalities in education and training as being determinants to occupation segregation that makes men and women to be streamlined into different jobs. The ILO report further highlights that it is not enough that men and women have different jobs, but there is also a disparity in the extent to which they are represented in the hierarchies of the positions within jobs universally. Even in the occupations dominated by women, it is important to note that the more skilled and better paid positions are occupied by men (I.L.O, 2004:64). A similar idea is expressed by Coleman, (2003) who reiterates that regardless of women being the majority, few of them find their way up in management positions. It is in the light of this state of affairs that the study sought to investigate the organizational barriers that hindered female teachers from accessing principalship in secondary schools as well as establish the coping strategies that they used to overcome the barriers in the selected counties.

1.1.1 Global Situation of Women in Education Management

There is a gender gap in education management globally yet women are an untapped pool of talent especially at senior levels that could bring diversity to the organizations if harnessed (Monroe, 2005). The enhancement of women in management positions has received varied comments. For instance Schein (2007) documentation holds the view that increasing women's participation in leadership

roles is an avenue for enhancing their rights, freedoms and opportunities for them globally. Lodiaga (1997) laments that in Britain men solely dominate higher ranks in the Ministry of Education and in the university but there are few women in top echelons. The study (Lodiaga, 1997) further found that Women make up only three percent of college heads and five percent of heads in mixed comprehensive schools. Elsewhere in America it was found out that women are under-represented and are outnumbered by men in education management (Lych, 2004).

In spite of the fact that the number of women engaged in the education sector is relatively high, they are poorly represented in educational management profiles in most countries in the world and, as Goddard and Chris (1997) observes, only 15% of women in primary education sector held senior positions. This follows an earlier observation by Dines (1993) that women form a majority in the teaching profession. The United Nations, Education Scientific and Cultural organization (UNESCO, 1999) publication further notes that with hardly any exception, the global picture of gender participation in top levels of educational management is one of men outnumbering women at about five to one at middle level of management and at about 20 or more at senior management levels. This is a feature of educational system in North America and Europe. Women deans and professors are minority groups and women vice chancellors are scarce (Dines: 1993:11).

Reece (2009) argues that the journey for women advancement to positions of management has been characterized by organizational cultural practices and networks which hinder their progression. Tlais (2010) concurs by revealing that women perceive their career progression to be influenced by organizational practices, cultures and networking while mentoring was seen to be less critical. Global statistics

compiled by ILO (2004), which covered countries like Australia, Germany, Greece, Peru, Israel and Singapore reveal that women had low representation in higher levels of management. In a similar study carried out on women management status in 41 countries for which internationally comparable data (1998 – 1999) were available, Wirth, (2001) revealed that in nearly half of the 41 countries, women held between 20 to 30 percent of legislative, senior officials and management positions. Similarly in 16 of the 41 countries which included New Zealand, Poland, Portugal and the United Kingdom, women held between 31-59% of such jobs while countries like Republic of Korea and Srilanka, women held less than 10% of legislature, senior officials and managerial positions showing that the number of women in managerial positions worldwide vary from one country to the next.

The statistics referred to above reveal that women find themselves facing numerous obstacles while they occupy positions which would enable them to make decisions or policies. Global progress data done by ILO (2004) reveals that in 48 countries using the same classification as Wirth (2001), women's share of management jobs amplified by between 1% and 5% in 26 countries between 1996 to 1991 and 2000 to 2002 respectively. This reflects a traditional slow pace at which women are progressing towards achieving the senior management positions. Ruderman and Ohlott (2002) assert that barriers to women in management are found globally and this is made worse as one approaches the apex of the organizational level which is characterised by a more glaring gender gap. Indeed, Berthoin and Izraeli (2003) in an indication of women in management agree that the most critical hurdle for women in management is the persistent stereotypes that associate management with being a male-dominated activity. A worldwide review of status of women in management by

ILO outlines similar barriers associated with biased attitudes towards men in management (ILO, 2004).

Tlaiss (2010) introduces a new concept of discrimination as an explanation to female under-representation that posits that there is slowness in the progress of women into senior leadership positions attributed to discrimination at higher levels of organizations where more power is exercised. Linge (2010) confirms the issue and advocates that women visibility is low as they go up the organizational ladder, thus suggesting hidden discrimination that is contrary to the international conventions like, The Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). The Millennium Development Goals of the UN Declaration in the World Summit on Social Development sought to build egalitarian communities and create societies in which human beings could live together in peace devoid of any gender discrimination. In addition the United Nations Decade for Women launched in 1975, with the Mexico City conference on the theme "Equality Development and Peace" yielded a plan of action which set the agenda of integrating women in all aspects of development (Beijing, 1995; CEDAW, 2003; Tlaiss, 2010).

Oakley (2007) further put the issue of women under-representation into perspective by identifying two categories of explanation illuminating on why women are under-represented in top management positions. These are barriers created by corporate and institutional practices which are created in favour of the recruitment, retention, promotion of male over females while the second classification is linked to behaviour and cultural causes. This indicates that women do not have a level playing ground in terms of leadership recognition compared to men because from all

directions women are surrounded by obstacles which curtail their ambitions internationally.

1.1.2 Women in Education Management in Kenya

Women in Kenya still trail in leadership positions an apparently inherited barrier from our cultural heritage as observed by Kabaji, (2007) who asserts that leaving women out of policy and decision making in the education implies leaving out experiences of half of the country's population. Kanake, (1998) reiterates that promotion of women in high management positions is significantly low and the number sharply declines as one nears the top. This concurs with Barngetuny, (1999) who confirms that women visibility is low as one goes up the organization ladder. This also implies that women are under-represented in senior policy, and decision making positions and it becomes extremely difficult for women when they are expected to implement policies which they were not involved in the formulation, (Otieno, 2001). Notably women teachers in the teaching profession have lacked mentors and that aggravates the issue of under-representation in higher administrative positions even more (Grove and Montgomery, 2005; Gachukia, 2002). Yeke (2002) did a study on the glass ceiling as a reality for women in the corporate sector and identified discursive practices as obstacles which women have to deal with in their upward mobility. The glass ceiling effect is considered as a possible contributor to the gender disparities at the higher ranks of the organizations which become worse as a person's career goes on. Jacob (1997) observed that glass ceiling exists in spite of qualifications or achievements which the women possess.

Wanjama (2002) observes that women are under-represented due to old boys' networks where important decisions are made in their absence. In addition, Wanjama's study also reveals that there were institutional factors among them, structural and organizational ones, gender neutral hiring promotion policies, stiff competition for few posts and inadequate exposure to broader issues of management which played a key role in determining who got to the decision making positions. The implication is that there is gender imbalance in top management positions which favour men. Further, Chacha (2010) notes that women access to higher levels of management is wanting and deserves attention and this is attributed to customary habitual values that emphasise on women's role as wives and nothing more. Mwaniki (2004) differs by observing that women under-representation is a function of institutionalisation and structural bias in the education system that favours men. The study further revealed that there were more males than female teachers who held leadership positions and that there were gender related political and social-cultural factors that hindered women from actively participating in leadership. Saitoti (2007) concurs by noting that it is common knowledge that girls and women empowerment in general has seriously been impeded by cultural, religious practices, inadequate policy guidelines, poverty and lack of community awareness and mechanisms to redress the existing inequalities is imperative (RoK, 2007: 4).

The above argument shows that policies do not favour women and hence Kariuki (2007) observes that leadership terrain in Kenya has been male dominated which appears more pronounced in the education sector that manifests few number of women principals in the highest jobs given on promotion basis. A study by the

Institute of Policy Analysis and Research (IPAR) reveals situations where women scholars are relegated to the periphery in most organizations especially in the traditional female, social sciences, education and discipline. A similar trend is noted in administration where they are similarly few and occupies the lower ranks of education administration (IPAR, 2008). This agrees with Osumbah (2008) who revealed that woman occupied junior positions in management in the Ministry of Education and that organizational factors were identified to be the major obstacle which hindered female teachers from accessing senior management positions. Barngetuny, (1999), and Linge, 2010) found that the visibility of women in their organizations is low and that in the formulation of education policies, the needs of both men and women should be articulated if the education system is going to be representative.

Kombo and Kimani, (2009) further extend the argument that limited education and under-training of women compared to male counterparts presents barriers which makes it challenging for women to attain managerial positions in the civil service in Kenya.

Information provided in the background has revealed that women face various institutional barriers while they try to attain managerial positions as well as when, they are heading the institutions. The background has revealed the situation in various organizations without any specificity to secondary school principals in Kenya. It is against this background that the researcher intended to analyze the organizational barriers facing secondary school female principals in their upward mobility and strategies they used to overcome the same in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties, Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Studies from various parts of the world, Africa and Kenya have continually demonstrated a gender imbalance in management positions in favour of men across all sectors. Consequently, fewer women than men occupy decision making positions. In the education sector, studies have shown that women are under-represented in academic institutional leadership positions that are of managerial nature. For example, in Kenya, women constituted only 24.5% of all public secondary school principals in 2010. Further studies have identified various structural and cultural barriers working within organizations that have resulted to under-representation of women at the senior levels. There are hardly any systematic studies focusing on both the organizational barriers encountered by the secondary school female principals and the coping strategies that these secondary school principals use to overcome them.

Although the Kenyan Constitution (2010) article 27(3) underscores gender equality that should be demonstrated by not less than one third representation of either gender in public appointments, it is important to note that the process of its implementation is located within a history of considerable marginalization of women in leadership as a result of social-cultural factors and organizational barriers. These are intertwined in a combination of social-cultural institutional and community cultures that function interactively to create impediments not only to women's upward mobility to top management positions within secondary schools but also pose challenges to their capabilities of sustaining success when in those positions.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to establish the organizational barriers that influence female mobility in management of secondary schools as well as map out the coping strategies employed to overcome the same in secondary schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties with a view to informing educational practices in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were to:

1. Examine the extent to which background characteristics of principals and deputy principals like gender, age and level of education influenced upward mobility of female teachers to the position of principal.
2. Identify the organizational barriers that female school principals encounter as they ascend to principalship in Meru, Isiolo and Machakos counties.
3. Identify the coping strategies that female secondary school teachers embrace to overcome organisational barriers to principalship.
4. Establish the coping mechanisms that female principals employ to remain successful in their school organizations.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated from the objectives to guide the study:

1. How do background characteristics of principals and deputy like age, gender, school category, and level of education affect female teacher's upward mobility to the management position of principal?

2. To what extent do the various aspects of organizational recruitment practices hinder secondary school female teachers from rising to position of principal in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties?
3. How do organizational cultural practices influence secondary female teachers' upward mobility to management position of principal?
4. To what extent do mentoring, organizational networks and tokenism affect female principal's upward mobility to senior management positions?
5. What coping strategies have female secondary school principals embraced to overcome the organizational barriers they encounter as they ascend to management positions?
6. What coping mechanisms have secondary school female principals embraced to remain successful in their school organizations?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

To further interrogate the organizational barriers and coping strategies that secondary female teachers encountered as they ascended to principalship, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested:

1. There is no significant difference between female principals of public and private secondary schools in terms of recruitment practices as an organizational barrier s female teachers encounter as they ascend to the management position of principal.
2. There is no significant difference between male and female principals in terms of organizational cultural practices as an organizational barrier that hinder secondary school female teachers from accessing the management position of principal.

3. There is no significant difference between public and private schools in terms of coping strategies that secondary school female teachers embrace to overcome the organizational barriers.
4. There is no significant difference between male and female principals in the coping strategies adopted to overcome the organizational barrier on intimidating cultures as an obstacle to upward mobility of secondary school female teachers.

1.7 Research Assumptions

The basic assumptions of this study were:

1. There were organisational challenges facing female school administrators in the education system in Kenya.
2. There were coping mechanisms which enabled female principals to overcome the barriers.
3. That organizational barriers cut across public and private schools
4. That the criterion for promotion was the same for both sexes.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study may provide a wider appreciation of the embedded barriers to women's career development and retention as school organizations will engage in the diversity agenda. This will promote a better understanding of the school organization in terms of facilitating their employee's progress. The findings may assist to enlighten managerial interventions to make school principals better equipped to address the issues faced. The findings may also help school organizations to embrace concerted efforts to support junior female managers to

senior management positions since every society requires equal participation of both men and women for meaningful development. The findings of the study may be useful to various stakeholders in the education sector. It will provide crucial information which will be critical in future formulation and execution of management policies which are gender responsive. The study findings may also help those women managers who are starting their professional life since the findings will shed light on the situation regarding the women managers in the education sector and what their expectations will be.

The findings will also benefit policy-makers and administrators with regard to achievement of gender equity as postulated in the social pillar of the Vision 2030 which outlines that Kenya aims at a just and cohesive society with social equity. This is because the findings will reveal specific nature of barriers which hamper optimum women involvement in all domains especially in management and will also give coping strategies. The findings will offer a gendered analysis on women management issues in Kenya with particular reference to the education sector. The study suggestions for further research will lay the groundwork for future studies by scholars in this area. The findings of the study will also be significant in informing policy formulation process on women empowerment issues. It will propose changes which are supportive to woman's career progress to the top levels of management in education and this will enrich top level management as it will harness all skills brought by women in management.

1.9 Limitations of the study

The study was faced with financial as well as time limitation during field work as the schools that were included in the study were wide spread across the counties. This was however addressed by the researcher getting research grants which lessened the burden. The researcher also faced the challenge of unwillingness of some respondents to fill the questionnaires which was frustrating. However the researcher persistently followed the respondents until nearly all the questionnaires were returned. The study was further limited by the fact that the interviews were conducted during the examination period and most DEOs were constrained by time because of examination administration. It was also difficult to get all the appointments for the interviews as scheduled and that prolonged the data collection period.

1.10 Delimitations of the Study

Although the problem of women under-representation in educational leadership is a national one, the study confined itself to only secondary schools in three of the forty seven counties in Kenya. This limits the generalizability of the findings to other areas and sectors outside the scope of the study. The study also confined itself to only organizational barriers thus leaving out other forms of barriers.

1.11 Theoretical Framework

The theory of gendered organizations as expounded by Acker (1994) is the main theory that was selected to guide this study. The theory states that in spite of feminist recognition that ranked organisations as being important sites for male dominance, most feminist writings assume that organizations are gender neutral. Acker, a liberal feminist observes that organizations are not gender neutral. On the contrary assumptions about gender underlie the procedures and contracts used to operate in organizations and to provide the common sense ground for theorising about them. Their gendered nature is partly masked through obscuring the embodied nature of work, abstract jobs and hierarchies found within the organizations.

Common concepts in organizational thinking assume a universal work image of masculinity that pervades organizational processes, marginalising women and relegating them to the periphery and hence contributing to the maintenance of gender segregation in organizations. The posting of gender neutral and intangible organizational structures and work relations is part of the large scheme of control of industrial capitalist societies which are somewhat built upon a deeply embedded foundation of gender differences.

To further support the study, liberal feminism theory by Melanie Lord was adopted. Liberal feminism is entrenched in the liberal thinking that individuals should be liberated to develop their own interests. It derives its basis in the facts about natural justice, human rights and democracy. It focuses mainly on equal chances of accessing resources for women and men especially in education and in employment. Thus, it supports affirmative action as a compensatory strategy for redressing past

inequalities principally against women and girls. They acknowledge the basic organization of the society but hunt for ways to expand the rights and opportunities of women. Liberal feminists do not think that women must work collectively, but both men and women through their individual achievement can improve on their lives as long as the society removes legal and cultural barriers. In this perspective, it is believed that women are entitled to full legal and social equality with men. It emphasises on the similarities between males and females maintaining that given the same environment and opportunity male and females will behave similarly. The theory further argues that our society perceives that women are by nature less intellectually and physically capable than men and hence it tends to show prejudice against women. Liberal feminists believe that female subordination is ingrained in a set of customary and legal obstacles that block women's doorway to success in the public world and they work hard to emphasize the fairness of men and women through political and lawful reforms.

This theory also underscores that as people interact at various social levels they continue to construct diverse realities due to their differences in sex, class and gender and consequently the male gender begins to have greater influence on the female gender while powerful organizations dominate the less powerful. This creates an arena for inequality and a struggle through which the privileged segments of society manipulate the less privileged hence relegating them to subservient positions. The liberal feminism is therefore a social conflict paradigm that emerged around issues of women exploitation through inequality and the social construction of sex and gender.

This theory informed this study in that it focused on traditional areas of development and on gender relations that marginalized women face. It focused on identical opportunities for women and men and emphasises that women should receive the same opportunities in government business, education and before the law. This will ensure that women are able to achieve positions of leadership. It also places social relations, gender inequality and women's lived experiences at the centre in order to reorient their development discourse. Therefore the feminists' perspective redefines social concepts and global policy issues in order to move women from the margin to the central arena of development. They emphasize on equal opportunity for women and therefore organizations must initiate changes to encourage women participation and also urges organizational planners to rethink as they formulate policies and always plan with the woman in mind to foster their integrations.

Marxist and Radical feminism theories also inform this study. Marxism advocates that resources and social relations determine the modes of production. Human nature is the result of exact modes of production. People are shaped by the general form of society and by each person's placement in the society; they argue that oppression of women arose due to the mode of production that introduced private property. Capitalistic tendencies perpetuate the subordination of women by ensuring that they depend on the men on almost all circumstances. They also concern themselves with policies that favour occupational segregation, low pay, poverty and discrimination. In addition it also advocates that every sphere of a woman's life is full of exploitation facilitated by institutionalized male supremacy. Radical feminism insists that women's subordination is not dependent on other forms of domination like class. They argue that patriarchy is primary as it exists in every aspect of society even in

classless societies hence subordination is deeply implanted in individual psyches and social practices which are more difficult to change than class.

These theories supported the study because they advocate for an inclusion of women in institutional management positions. They explain the gender separation of work which is partially created by organizational practices and inequality between men and women and therefore it is necessary to understand these practices. Organizations are grounds where widely disseminated cultural images are invented. Some characteristics of individual gender uniqueness like masculinity are products of organizational practices. According to these theories there is a need to make organizations more autonomous and more accommodative for both sexes. The theoretical frameworks assist in the understanding of the concept that it is not by choice that women are always at the periphery in the organizational structure. It is notable that gender segregations in organizational behaviour are due to composition rather than the qualifications and capabilities of men and women. The challenges that women encounter in organizations are consequences of their structural positions concentrated on jobs located at the bottom of organizational structures or those that expose them as tokens at the top. As the theories suggests, women are victims of organizational barriers hindering their efforts to get employed as senior managers within organizations and learning institutions. The three theories were selected for complementary reasons.

1.12 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework illustrated below shows the researcher's conceptualization of both the dependent and independent variables. It outlines several organizational barriers which are the independent variables for the study. They include organizational practices, culture, mentoring, tokenism and organizational networks. These organizational barriers when prevalent in organizations lead to the following outcomes: slow and low promotion rates for women, less number of women in top levels, low morale for potential female managers, high turnover rates, status quo, stagnation, resignation as well as women becoming critical to management issues. To overcome these barriers, it is imperative that steps be taken which will enable women's participation in management to favourably compete with their male counterparts for managerial positions within learning institutions. Some of the coping strategies include: the adoption of a promotions criteria with clearly defined quotas for women, employment based on qualifications and competences rather than gender, adoption of affirmative action and Education of women to improve their competitiveness for managerial positions, training, and formation of small informal groupings, exposure and delegation of significant tasks to women managers. These then interplay to have an effect on female mobility in management which was the dependent variable for the study. The interrelationship of the variables is diagrammatically shown in Figure 1.1

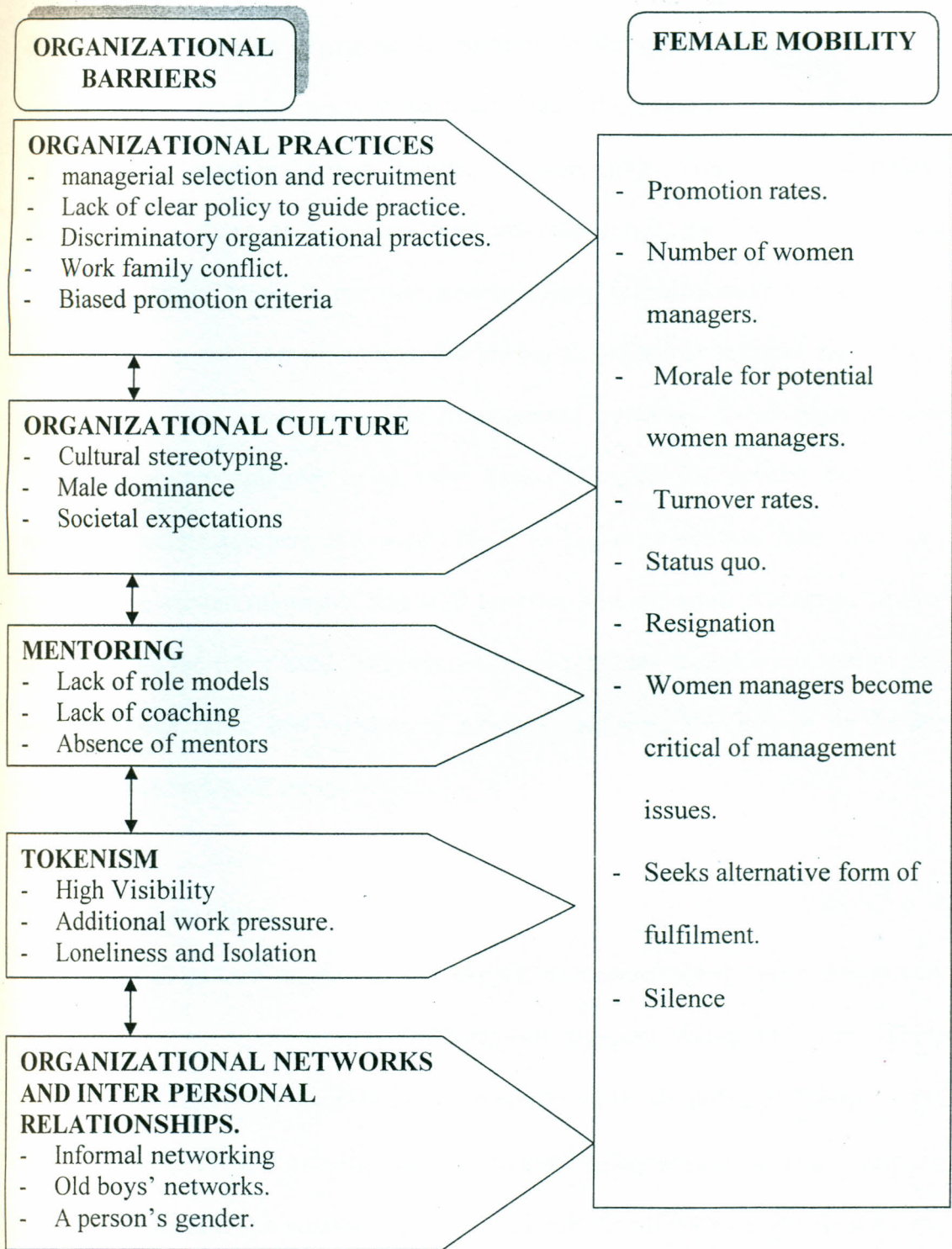


Figure 1.1: A model showing organizational barriers and female mobility in management: Source Author

Organizational practices

Organizational practices determine the mobility of women managers depending on whether organizations are ready to embrace a radical departure from over emphasis on male dominance in various careers. The conceptual framework outlines the various aspects of organizational practices like managerial selection and recruitment procedures, policy to guide practice, discriminatory organizational practices, work family conflicts and promotion criteria as having a double role in either hindering or supporting women access to senior management positions. Good organizational practices are conceptualized to be more likely to trigger the upward mobility of secondary female teachers and would result to higher promotion rates, increased potential for women managers, less staff turnover and increased number of women managers. On the other hand, bad organizational practices would result to slow and low promotion rates, few number of women managers, low morale for female managers and high staff turnover.

Organizational culture

Organizational culture entails aspects like cultural stereotyping, male dominance, societal expectations, and sequence of behaviour, attitudes, values and norms. These aspects act as either key facilitators or barriers to work life policies (Davidson and Burke, 2004) and hence influence upward mobility to organizations. The conceptual framework shows that a positive organizational culture will support female teachers' upward mobility while a rigid organizational culture will promote the status quo.

Mentoring

Organizational mentoring plays a critical role in the advancement of managers as Mentors are considered essential for career advancement as they participate in career advancement of protégés through sponsorship, coaching, role modelling and counselling, Burke and McKeen (2004). The conceptual frame work outlines lack of role models, lack of coaching and absence of mentors within organization as having negative outcome in the upward mobility of women managers. The study conceptualizes that presence of mentors within organization fosters female teachers' upward mobility in the same and the vice-versa is true.

Tokenism

It is a well documented fact that women comprise a small percentage of the management work force (Cleveland, 2000, Powell, 2003) and are thus regarded as having a token status in a male dominated environment The conceptual framework outlines several aspects of tokenism like high visibility, additional work pressures and loneliness and isolation which may have a negative outcome to secondary female teachers upward mobility. The conceptual framework envisions that prevalence of tokenism in organizations will hinder upward mobility of secondary school female teachers.

Organizational Networks and Interpersonal Relationships

The conceptual frame work outlines various aspects of organizational networks and interpersonal relationships like, informal networking, old boys' networks and a person's gender and conceptualizes that presence of these aspects would foster secondary school female teachers upward mobility in school organizations. The study also postulates that absence of the same would hamper secondary schools principals from rising to top positions within schools.

1.13 Operational Definition of Key Terms

This section gives a definition of the significant terms as used in the context of this study.

- Barriers:** These are hindrances which prevent women from attaining high positions in management.
- Coping mechanism:** Deliberate efforts made by leaders to remain relevant and at the helm of their organizations.
- Coping strategies:** These are skills embraced by female secondary school principals to overcome disadvantages in day to day life.
- Gender:** This refers to a description of attributes, roles, activities and responsibilities connected to being a male or a female in a given society. They are socially constructed roles
- Gender inequality:** This refers to discrimination which the female principals encounter in an attempt to occupy senior management positions in schools
- Glass ceiling:** This is a metaphor used to refer to invisible barriers which deter women from reaching higher organizational hierarchies despite their qualifications.
- Stereotyping:** Process of assigning traits to people based on their gender.
- Stereotypes:** These are popular misconceptions about women which are not necessarily correct.

- Manager:** This is the person responsible for planning and directing the work of a group of individuals, monitoring their work, and taking corrective action when necessary.
- Management:** This refers to the running and coordination of the activities of an organization in accordance with certain policies and in achievement of clearly defined objectives.
- Mentoring:** This is the process of looking upon people who have positive impact on an individual.
- Mobility:** This is the upward movement of female teachers in school organizations.
- Organizational barriers:** These are obstacles found within institutional frameworks which hamper women upward mobility. These are like norms and practices entrenched within organizations which hinder secondary school female principals attaining positions of influence.
- Tokenism:** This is minimal women representation in top level management positions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section presents a review of relevant literature on organizational barriers facing women managers as well as the coping strategies. The literature review was organized on the following sub themes guided by the research objectives: historical background of women leadership in the world, organizational barriers to women in management, coping strategies embraced to overcome the barriers, coping mechanisms and a general view of women in education management. This chapter ends with a summary which outlines key emerging knowledge and the relevant knowledge gaps identified which the study sought to fill.

2.2 Historical Background of Women Leadership in Schools around the World

The high school principalship is an intricate and a demanding position. Today's principal, must be conversant with effective decision making, hold strong financial, operational and political leadership skills. In addition the principal must also be equipped with the pre-requisite skills that are critical for improvement of curriculum and instruction (Dana and Bourisaw, 2006). Research has revealed that school principals currently work in environments full of hardships and hence they must be ready to balance administrative teams, school boards, community members, labour unions and family obligations therefore making it a challenging position. In addition the principal must also be prepared to delegate authority to subordinates with specific duties and supervise the implementation of the delegated function (Expertise and Sharp 2004, Patterson, 2007).

Principals are in charge of public secondary schools, and just like in the corporate world, most of these positions are male dominated. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2000), the principalship is regarded as being the most male dominated executive position of any profession in the United States (Glass, Bjork and Brunner 2000). The same trend is observed in other countries as UNESCO (2011) alludes that women as school principals across countries are few and there is a clear pattern to show that proportions of female teachers decreases as one climbs up the education ladder. The report further highlights the reason for the low women representation as being unable to balance management work with domestic responsibilities and unsupportive institutional climate. This concurs with Hoff and Mitchel, (2008) whose study revealed that women in leadership are faced with the dilemma of balancing the societal expectations of women regarding their family responsibilities with that of leadership in a work place. Alston's (2000) observed that in probing the history of hiring in administration, it clear that those women who aspired to higher levels in educational organizations still remained at a disadvantage.

Rossener, (1995) notes that there has been a marked increase in the number of women now serving on senior positions but their absolute number is still small. Rossener further asserts that, it appears the need to actually strive and reach the top for the sake of being at the top, prestige, awe and power it gives may be more important to men than women. The study further highlights that men will continue to have access to the organization elevators while women are forced to take the stairs. This means that by the time women climb up the stairs men have already positioned themselves hence locking them out of senior positions. McGee banks, (2007) further underscore that female leaders may face a dilemma that finds imbalance between

leadership and expected gender roles. Coleman (2003) laments that although the number of women is higher in education compared to men internationally, most of the administrative ranks still remain a preserve male gender. This notion is made clear as research has revealed that some female head teachers perceive themselves as less capable leaders compared to their male counterparts (Kariuki,2007). Women are still not accepted as equals when they reach senior positions and hence attitudes within the organizations are major constraints to women in management. (Humbly and shaw, 1996, Kamau, 2004).

Humbly (1996) goes further to point out that attitudes for both male and females need to change in order for females to be afforded same opportunities and that implies that female leaders work from a point of disadvantage within organizations. This is further put into perspective through a research conducted on expatriate career aspirations and revealed that women are steered from an early age into sex stereotyped occupations and roles, Whitaker and Lane(1990). Historically these occupations have been structured at the lower and middle levels of the organizations for women while for men are structured in top echelons, Brien, (2011).This confirms an earlier assertion that women have moved from the clerical basement to the managerial mezzanine but the door to the executive suite still remain largely closed,Rossener, (1995).This allegory is a clear indication that female leaders in modern organizations are denied access to senior management positions and that is why this study came in to explain if the reason for their disadvantage could be explained by prevalence of organizational barriers within organizations.

Wickham (2007) argued that to fully understand the principalship in high schools around the world and the leading gender within it, it was imperative to review the original structure of teaching profession so as to shed more light on it. Internationally, men dominated the teaching profession in the early 1800s and they worked by themselves in schoolhouses throughout the world. However by the mid-1800s, there was a change in trend in educational employment that developed in line with the emergence of female teachers in the U.S.A. Local and state officials created the domain of school administration, a dominion reserved from the beginning for men. Men were viewed as authority figures that controlled the efforts of women just as it was the norm in the home environment (Blount, 1998). Later in the 1800s, the proportion of male to female teachers was nearly similar, although by the early 1900s, women were the majority in all the teaching positions. The climax came in 1920s, with an overwhelming 86% of all school positions held by women and a meagre, 14% were in the custody of men. (Blount, 1998, Ella Flagg Young, (as cited in Blount, 1998) assumed the principalship of the Chicago Public Schools in 1909 and declared that “Women are destined to rule the schools of every city and Nation,” (Blount, 1998 as cited in Wickham, 2007).

Wickham (2007) further reports that, as male administrators took more control in education globally, male teachers became uncomfortable doing women’s work and either abandoned teaching or sought alternative ways to penetrate the male dominated world of administration. This confirms an earlier assertion that despite the differences in the ways in which women were represented in positions of educational leadership, what became the trend is that educational leaders were primarily male Riley, (1994). Obura (2011) commenting on women under-representation in Kenya

underscore that it is a global experience and avers that the pace of raising the proportion of women in leadership is near to the ground, intermittent, and for it to be reversed it will require a stimulus to attain the goal of equity (Obura,2011: 5).This means that there could be existing a myriad of barriers which deter women from becoming educational leaders and as Eveline (2005) points out that female teachers are always struggling with one obstacle after the other whenever matters of leadership come their way. This also agrees with an observation recorded in one of the local Kenyan daily newspapers, Daily nation, that it has taken women one hundred years to get to leadership positions and it will take them another one hundred years to achieve their equality with men (Daily Nation, of 15th of march 2014).

A similar sentiment was expressed in America that it would take several generations for women to achieve proportional representation at the top of USA business and the period may be longer for other nations(Fortune Marketing Research Report,Deloitte and Tunes LLP,1990).In an attempt to shed more light on women under-representation in school management, Wallace and Banos, (2011) observes that gender equality in educational management is not restricted to countries on the rise but it is also a universal phenomena, women are not able to attain upward mobility in management positions in public and private sectors in the numbers expected and this can be attributed to their engagement in production and work experiences .This means that women are unable to balance the tasks or are overburdened by the responsibilities and this negatively influences their upward mobility.

Hence the causes of under-representation of women in educational management are not identical in different cultures and schooling systems but are a products of

multifaceted interaction between cultural understanding and gender roles, national policies, organizational structures and pressure from the global community that are context specific Sperandio, (2011) This implies that the countries that are able to put the appropriate mechanisms in place will be able to close in the gender gap as far as elevating women in educational leadership is concerned. For instance in the 1990's in Uganda, the government adopted the Affirmative Action Policies that were intended to enhance women's participation in educational leadership, like the Ugandan Constitution of 1995, policies of expanding tertiary institutions and increased funding for girls to facilitate their entry into the universities. In the Kenyan context, the policy of girl's re-entry to save the girls who would otherwise drop out of school is a step in the right direction. This was anticipated to reduce the disadvantages that female leaders encountered hence boosting the shrinking pool of women rising to senior management positions. Ironically, Kagondia (2011) laments that the mechanisms have not translated into gender parity at management levels and observes that some of the major causes for the imbalance are male dominance in recruitment agencies, women self limitations, fear of responsibilities and lack of self esteem, (Kwesiga, 1992, Kagondia, 2011). A similar scenario was encountered in India where regardless of the national gender and women empowerment policy being enacted and entrenched in the constitution, the situation has remained the same.

In Nigeria, being a highly patriarchal society where men dominate all spheres of women's lives Olojede, (2004) established that like in other male dominated societies, the social relations and activities of Nigerian women are governed by patriarchal systems of socialization and cultural practices which favour interests of

men above those of women. This scenario is effectively replicated in Kenya hence the issue of under-presentation is prevalent here and therefore study confirmed that biased organizational practices played a critical role in locking women out of management positions hence relegating them to the periphery in organizations.

Within Kenya's education sector, the situation is not different as statistics from the TSC, (2010) reveal that out of 4800 public secondary schools found in Kenya only 1,178 secondary schools have female principals translating to only 24.5%. This was the same in (2013) where it was confirmed that female teachers are still lagging behind in terms of management positions, TSC image, (2013). This is despite the provisions of the new Kenyan Constitution which provides that no more than two-thirds of either gender may occupy leadership positions (Kenyan Constitution, 2010). This has not been functionally implemented because it is explicit that the process of its implementation is located within a history of considerable marginalization of women. A study done by Obura, (2011) found that despite the high numbers of female teachers in secondary schools, very few attained leadership positions. The study further found out that in the ministries, women comprise 27% of those reportedly involved in policy making, decisions, shaping and originating the policies with the highest concentration being at middle and low levels, Obura,(2011). Obura, further advises that female visibility in senior management positions raises the morale of female staff in the ministry of education but no strategic action has been taken by the woman or anyone to maintain a positive change and hence the status quo.

Despite the fact that laws have been enforced to protect women from discrimination across nations as they advance through the layers of education leadership, there has been a insignificant increase in the number of women placed in the positions of school leadership worldwide (Yoder, 2004). This justifies the undertaking of this study which sought to explain the reason for under-representation through examining organizational barriers that hindered upward mobility of secondary school female teachers.

2.3 Organizational Barriers that Women Managers encounter

The studies on organizational barriers that secondary school female principals encounter takes into cognizance the variables situated on an organizational level, that is, the social, cultural and political conditions that influences leadership (Blackmore, 2005). These variables are situated at an institutional level, such as the institutional history, the organizational structure and the organizational culture which interacts to create impediments that relegates the female gender to the periphery in most organizations (Mills, 2002). This concurs with an idea expressed that increased female visibility in many organizations remains a leaked piped dream due to a myriad of obstacles that they encounter and consequently women are always held back and are not able to access senior management positions, (Joanna and lirein, 2011). Anker (1997), conducted studies on women participation in the formal sector of the economy and found out that women participation in the formal sector was low and that women were being discriminated in terms of occupational segregation. Further the study found out that women experienced vertical segregation where they occupied non-strategic positions in the work place. In a similar trail of thought, Drotse (2002) observed that women seldom reach top levels in the

organization and they do not appear to move up the hierarchy as rapidly as their male counterparts. This confirms an earlier assertion that women have not been in the pipeline long enough (Mattens, 1997). Furthermore Jenny, Grace and Sunday (2011) reiterated that under-representation of women in senior positions is problematic because lack of women in senior positions may indicate to lower and middle level management positions, that aspiring to higher echelons is untenable.

According to Oakley, (2000) the number of women in middle management and lower management has increased rapidly although there are hardly many females who are able to attain the top management levels. Oakley further notes that there could be many reasons which are mostly social-cultural which hinder women from reaching the higher levels. Winnie, (2007) concurs by asserting that social cultural factors, organizational policies, organizational cultures, limited access to advanced education and discrimination in appointments inhibit upward mobility of women in top leadership positions. That is why this study interrogated the organizational barriers.

There are obstacles which prevent females from accessing top positions in the organization and these have been described by the allegory "glass ceiling" and Rossener, (1995) notes that Glass Ceiling has become like a steel cage. Li and Leun (2001) further used the phrase "glass ceiling" to describe the frustrations encountered by career women at every level of the organization who have a focus of advancing, but find themselves clogged up by invisible barriers. The glass ceiling is therefore a transparent barrier that applies to women as a group who are kept from advancing to higher positions simply because they are females. Researchers have suggested a number of variables that appear to contribute to the existence of the glass ceiling and

its effect on women access to management positions. For instance, Linehan, (2001) confirmed that the negative effects of these concealed barriers included blocked promotion, blocked career development, discrimination, occupational stress, and lower salaries all of which are detrimental to upward mobility in many organizations. The glass ceiling effect could be very significant to those people whose careers are affected by it and that is why Merida (2013) asserts that organizations must undertake deliberate mechanisms to be able to break through the glass ceiling if they are serious about increasing women visibility in top echelons of organizations.

Oakley, (2000) observes that in large corporations, women are able to access less than 0.5% of the best remunerated management jobs due to structural and institutional barriers which they have to navigate through. This was further supported by information revealed by Fortune Magazine, (1995) that 97% of senior managers are white and further estimated that 90% to 95% of these senior managers were males. Mwebi and Angelik, (2008) asserts that discriminatory and unethical recruitment practices within organizations deterred many women from applying for leadership positions and female teachers expressed that they encountered problems in all stages of the process of recruitment.

In a survey of more than 8000 teachers in Hong Kong, most male sampled for the study advocated that they found it unthinkable for men to have female bosses (Steve, 2003). Research has revealed that stereotyping people is a natural process related to the mechanism of brain function and Jackson, (2001) confirms that it's a hard wired activity which we cannot control or completely avoid yet it continues to take toll on women in leadership. It could be minimized by diversity awareness and training so

that employees are able to accept each other as affirms Young and Leeds, (2001) whose study observed that awareness was the first stage in changing a situation and further emphasised that it was necessary so as to influence societal norms and provide each gender with an equal opportunity in leadership. Diversity programmes educate employees about organization benefits of diversity and problems of stereotyping. It increases people's sensitivity to equality and motivates them to block in accurate perception arising from ingrained stereotypes. This is a sure strategy which would ensure that women are tolerated by those others who view them as inferior while they are in positions of leadership (Bennet, 1997, Steve, 2003).

Mathur-Helm, (2002) notes that women managers need to recognize the prevalence of subtle discrimination for them to prepare themselves accordingly so that they can successfully reach the climax, which they have aimed for themselves. Merida (2013) also affirms that there is existence of subtle discrimination which is exemplified in various work practices and cultural norms. The study further highlights that discrimination is deeply entrenched in organizations that it is difficult to detect. Research shows that women do not easily gain access to the top executive roles while it is easier for men to attain such levels and this is attributed to the fact that there are hidden barriers which hinder female upward mobility (Mathipa, 2001). Thus research has revealed that regardless of the competences which women education managers possess the society still seems apprehensive about trusting them with leadership positions. This contradicts a popular notion which affirms that when you view the society through both men and women you definitely are able to see more as compared to when you see it through men only (Kibwana, 2009). This justifies inclusion of both genders and made the study viable.

2.3.1 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture entails issues like cultural stereotyping, male dominance, societal expectations, and sequence of behaviour, attitudes, values and norms which acts as either key facilitators or barriers to work life policies (Davidson and Burke, 2004). According to Bennet (1997) an organizational culture comprises its members shared perceptions of issues customary ways of doing things, modes of behaviour and attitudes towards work. Bennet (1997, further affirms that positive aspects of organizational culture are that: it gives employees a sense of corporate identity; assisting in generating commitment to the attainment of organizational goals, provides employees with a frame of reference through which to evaluate issues by influencing individual perspectives and perceptions and stabilises interpersonal organizations within the firm. Bennet further notes that some organizational cultures could also be highly rigid, encourages bureaucracy and inflexibility. Organizational culture depends highly on whether the philosophy and the core values of a given organization entrenches the principle of gender main streaming. This is because most organizational cultures are characterized by patriarchal systems and masculinity which disadvantages the female gender (Davidson and Burke, 2004).

Most of the managerial literature on culture refers to its inclusive properties. It refers to the indefinable part of an organization, which gives it its cohesiveness (Tlaiss, 2010). Cultures represent systems of meaning and signification which may act as a defence against the unknown and a means of providing stability, for example, the role of rituals in people's lives (Bennet, 1997). People form great attachment to their cultures, which explains why there is always a lot of resistance to culture change (Kabaji, 2007). It is interesting to note that cultures prohibits as well as embraces the

cultural stereotype of leaders which is seen as a barrier hindering women from rising to positions of higher management levels (Onsongo, 2002). This stereotyping portrays women as less capable leaders and as having lesser ability than males when it comes to leadership potential. Moreover, it has been observed that women on top leadership often report that their male colleagues sometimes feels uncomfortable or even threatened by their presence and this discomfort emanates from the failure of men to reconcile their traditional values about sex roles they were brought up with and their experience of working with women as peers (Oakley, 2007).

Stereotypes may stop women's leadership development and organizations need capable leaders for the advancement of their organizations but when it comes to women as leaders then gender stereotypes make these organizations to underestimate the capabilities of the females who are able to do as well as their male counterparts, (Anker, 1997, Acker, 1994). Kamau (2004) further agree that female leaders are often faced with societal demands and traditions that males do not encounter like household chores, marriage, children and negative attitudes and these hinder their upward progression in their careers.

Rutherford (2001) notes that in studying organization culture in relation to women in leadership there are several relevant aspects which have to be noted. First is the organizational background which relates to the history, ownership, industry and geographical location, gender awareness which include the attitudes and perceptions on gender relations at the workplace, management style which relates to the decision-making processes, hierarchy, reward systems and work attributes which deter women from accessing leadership positions. Secondly is the Work ideology which is a

relevant aspect of culture and is concerned with the separation of home (private) and work (public) divides. Third aspect relates to informal socializing fora followed by time management which is concerned with duration of working hours and workload per day. Lastly, is the aspect of sexuality which includes such issues as sexual harassment and discrimination based on sexual orientation. The above aspects have been found detrimental to women leadership and women have to chisel through them if they have to make an impact in leadership. Jackson, (2001) observes that when a corporation has more men than women in influential positions the culture tends to adopt attributes that favour the dominant gender and In relation to barriers that impede women's career development, culture is delineated into stereotypes and organizational climate.

Eagly and Karau (2002) notes the inaptness between expectations about women and expectations about leaders forms the prejudice against female leaders. Women are faced with overlapping demands of their roles as women and as leaders. Culturally, the society expects women to be communal, manifesting traits like kindness, concern for others and warmth as compared to men who are more agentic and have more masculine traits such as confidence, aggressiveness, and self-direction. Similarly, Udegbe, (1997) contends that male stereotypes of independence, assertiveness, competence, lower emotional and analytical minds are consistent with the demands of leadership. Udegbe further contrasts these with female stereotypes reflecting dependence, weakness, emotional, nurturance and talkativeness which are not consistent with the functions of a leader. Indeed, relation skills of leadership are associated with lack of power as notes, Ely, (2003) that although this quality is encouraged among women leaders, it is negated as a leadership competence.

Stereotypes about leaders generally resemble stereotypes of men more than stereotypes of woman. Consequently, both Eagly and Karau notes that this places men having usual leadership roles at an advantage and places women leaders, at a disadvantage. Due to these kinds of cultural stereotypes, females are often faced with double blind as they are expected to behave communally and also expected to be agentic as it is the major trait which defines their leadership ability. Chow, (1999) agree to this notion by concurring that women are expected to behave like men and conform to the male norms if they have to be recognised in leadership.

Organizational culture has been studied extensively in the European, American, and Asian literature, and studies have shown that gender inequities in the workplace are the root cause of the discriminatory treatment against women that limits their upward mobility (Davidson and Burke, 2004; ILO, 2004; Schein, 2007). Powell, (2000) notes that in some cases having women managers, is seen as a violation of the social norm of men's higher status and superiority. This scenario replicates itself in Kenya as Monroe (2005) observes that due to socialization men find it unthinkable to accept women as leaders since that would be contrary to the societal norms and expectations. Hence, the way men were socialized, and cultural factors interacted favourably to create impediments which succeeded in locking women out of management positions.

Several studies, notwithstanding the pro-female-manager cultures described in a few empirical studies in Asia and the Middle East (Aycan, 2004; Duehr and Buono, 2006; and Chakrabarty, 2006), highlights the persistent stereotypical view of female managers as more communal with more feminine ways of managing compared to

men, who are described as more competitive and business-oriented. Against these prevailing views, women are perceived to be inadequate as managers (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Jackson, 2001; Kottke and Agars, 2005; Powell et al., 2002). Such barriers still persist in today's modern world and are largely unchallenged despite women's higher educational attainment levels (Schein, 2001; Wood, 2008).

Hearn (2004) asserts that, universities remain incredibly hierarchical gendered institutions. Women who seek promotion to senior management positions discover just how narrowly male-dominated universities continue to be. This gave leeway for this study to establish whether it was the same in the secondary school set up. Husu, (2001) observes women's under-representation, in positions of power and prestige in the educational institutions appears to be a universal phenomenon. This is reinforced by several authors (Bagilhole and White, 2008; Kovacs, 2006; Kloot, 2004) who note that women have made little impact on organizational structures of universities, and hence they have to compete in a hostile environment. The researcher established that the same applied in the secondary level in Kenya where despite existence of a gender policy in education the numbers were dismal in terms of their representation in management positions.

The organization culture has been noted to have exclusion and closure characteristics. Witz (1992) applies the concept of patriarchal exclusion strategies to the professions, using the Weberian concept of social closure. In this study "closure" refers to the process of subordination, whereby one group monopolizes advantages by closing off opportunities to another group of outsiders beneath it, which defined as inferior and ineligible. Witz's sentiments were echoed by Murphy, (2000) who felt

that it is possible to take Weber's idea of social closure and include more subtle, informal kinds of exclusionary practices. The construction of a boundary may include a cultural boundary. This is interpreted to mean that the disadvantaged group is the one that encounters many challenges and in this context the female leaders who are unable to muscle out with men due to societal and cultural constraints.

Thornton (2008) argues that the male culture tends to dominate in organizations and says that, the processes of gender exclusion, via indigenous culture production within organizations are extremely difficult to research and quantify. They must however, be recognized as a crucial element to organizational power and in the allocation of organizational positions. This is consistent with statistics from South Africa which reveal that despite government policy, women are employed only at the middle managerial levels and are seldom encouraged or promoted to the highest levels (Mathipa, 2001). Results by Mathur-Helm's (2002) study, suggested that women remain oblivious to gender discrimination, and are in line with Rosener's (2005) findings, suggesting that many women admit that gender bias is prevalent in the workplace, but do not believe that it affects them. They choose not to perceive or acknowledge the presence of discrimination, and do not believe that gender restricts their opportunities. Mathipa (2001) in a study done in South Africa positively observed that women as members of the society deserve equal treatment because the country's constitution unequivocally stresses that everyone has right to fair practices (Act 108 of 1996) of the South African constitution. Mathipa further notes that not only should women be promoted to positions of leadership but they also need to be uplifted out of their traumatic situation through appointment to senior ranks. This means that deliberate efforts are needed to uplift the female teachers so that they are equal to men in leadership regardless of the retrogressive cultures that work against them.

According to DeMatteo, (2002), challenges facing women managers are being flattened with the emergence of the boundary-less structure. It was noted that in a boundary-less structure, there is free-flowing communication. With this structure, it is easier to gather and disseminate information. Schwartz (2002) argues that with a boundary-less structure, the traits that keep women in low positions will be the same ones that will benefit them. This is not to say that women will be preferred over men. Rather, women may be in a better position to compete with men for the same positions. Research carried out by Anderson (2004) identified four areas of action by management necessary for changing the organization culture which is an impediment to women advancement. These include demonstrating commitment, changing behaviour, communicating ownership and making the investment. The research concludes that training and development are seen as fundamental in this endeavour, both in terms of raising managerial awareness and in educating women themselves. The study also found education to be a powerful liberator which empowered women and built on their leadership potential.

2.3.2 Organizational Practices

Organizations in modern times must embrace organizational practices which favour diverse working populations so as to harness diversity of skills within the labour force, Davidson and Burke, (2004). This is because the world's increasing globalization requires more interactions among people from diverse cultures, beliefs and backgrounds than ever before (Bennet, 1997). Hence there is need for organizations to embrace good organizational practices that favour inclusion of both sexes within their operations. It is significant to take cognisance that when organizations embrace institutional biases and attitudes which deter female managers

upward mobility there is a likelihood of gender imbalance with women taking the lower levels (Wanjama, 2002). Organizational practices also determine the mobility of women managers depending on whether organizations are ready to embrace a radical departure from over emphasis on male dominance in various careers, (Bennets, 1997, Joanna and Lirein, 2011).

Despite the fact that several studies have revealed the efforts of organizations in supporting women advancement, it is explicit that many studies have maintained that nothing has really changed (Singh, 2006, Carli, 2007). Good organizational practices are conceptualized to be more likely to trigger the upward mobility of secondary female principals and would result to higher promotion rates, increased potential for women managers, less staff turnover and increased number of women managers. On the other hand, bad organizational practices would result to slow and low promotion rates, few number of women. While several studies have reported the efforts of leading organizations in supporting women's advancement (Singh et al., 2006), many continue to reveal that nothing has really changed and women continue walking the tight rope in management positions compared to men (Eagly and Carli, 2007).

Negative attitude towards and stereotypes of women in the workplace continue to be reflected in organizational practices through discriminatory managerial recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities, performance evaluation procedures, and promotions (Schein, 2007; Simpson and Lenoir, 2004). This had been observed by Whitaker, and Lane (1990) that indeed stereotyping stalled women's access into leadership position by discriminating them against the male gender. A report on hiring in the corporate sector revealed that there was a high

probability of hiring men compared to women in management positions. In addition to hierarchical differences, functional division of labour between male and female Human Resource (HR) professionals is observed. Simpson et al, (2003) notes that whilst female HR professionals are strongly represented in soft HR fields like training, staff development and recruitment, other fields such as compensation and industrial relations are male domains.

Jamali (2005) similarly found out that Lebanese organizations are discriminatory in their practices in recruitment, professional development, and promotion. These discriminatory practices always work against women leaders who are always dominated by their male counterparts. Although attitudes toward women are slowly moving toward moderate liberalism in the majority of the Arab world in terms of giving women more freedom and allowing them to assume roles in society and the economy, Arab societies are reluctant to discard their belief that women are most suited to the home environment (El-Ghannam, 2002). Consequently, female managers, compared to their male colleagues, appear to be experiencing a lack of support, trust, and opportunities for development. These findings confirm the difficulties that female managers face in advancing to higher levels within the organization and are highlighted by the cluster of women at the junior and middle management levels. The majority of the female managers perceived that when it comes to professional development and promotions women are being measured by the male model of career development. This inability of women managers to get promoted may in part be attributed to the cultural nature of these and the resulting organizational and human resource practices organizations (Omar Davidson, 2001).

Burrell and Hearn (2000) found that human resource management (HRM) practices primarily reflect the interests of the dominant group in the organization and organizations generally have not succeeded in introducing training and development strategies that effectively meet the needs of women. Linehan and Scullion (2001) also found that there were several organizational practices which hindered women career progression. These include recruitment and selection barriers and the formal policies and informal processes of organizations often prevent many women from reaching senior managerial positions. The managers also suggested that many jobs are still seen as “men’s” or “women’s” jobs and this influences the initial intake of a particular gender to organizations. The interviewees perceived that they are still judged on the male model of career development regarding the appropriateness of their “fitness” in organizations. They are assessed overtly or covertly on the male model with respect to selection, promotion and career development.

According to Anderson (2004), if real and effective change is to take place, it has to be at an organizational rather than at an individual level. In the same line, Veale and Gold (2003) observe that to effect basic change across large organizations requires a radical shift in policy at the top in order to make a difference to the culture of the organization, the provision and take-up of training and changes to operational and procedural practices. Meso (2006) argues that equal opportunities policies are not enough on their own to elevate women to leadership position since you can have an equal opportunities policy, you can have all sorts of opportunities, you can raise all sorts of issues, but what you also need is some structures and some training as well. This confirms Tsoka’s (1999,) sentiments that training centres should be established with a bias towards empowering more women in management positions since

education is one of the greatest empowerment tools that fosters acquisition of skills needed for leadership and hence organizations should invest in it.

2.3.3 Mentoring

Organizational mentoring plays a critical role in the advancement of managers as Mentors are considered essential for career advancement as they participate in career advancement of protégés through sponsorship, coaching, role modelling and counselling, (Burke and McKeen, (2004). Mentoring programmes in many organizations are never geared towards women empowerment but instead they perpetuate a male dominated status quo and consequently many organizations have given lip service to the idea of mentorship, Kimani, (2014). Role model view points of organizations are indeed dictated by male status quo and never by qualifications as established by a study launched in (2009) with support of American express which found out that women either underestimate the role the sponsors play in career mobility or fail to cultivate it all together. The study further explained the reasons for this attitude to vary from women's perception that getting forward through connections is inappropriate, to reluctance by both women and senior men to establish a sponsorship relationship because it can be misconstrued as sexual interests.

Mentoring involves transfer of experience and expertise from experienced individuals in an organization to the less experienced. It is often used as a kind of "fast-track" support scheme where one (relatively) senior manager oversees the activity and performance of a junior colleague who is earmarked for rapid progression (Riegle, 2006). The mentoring relationship has been earmarked in the

practitioner and management literature as a fundamental element that supports career success and advancement (Tharanou, 2005). Indeed the use of mentor to back present and future leaders is a powerful tool that may be used to foster more effective school practices (Cullen and Luna, 1995, Pavash and Playko, 1999, Whitaker and Lane, 1990). This concurs with Kimani (2014) who notes that mentors have great insights that would save an organization money and time that would otherwise be wasted reinventing the wheel. It is therefore, explicit that lack of female mentors within the education system especially in the management leadership position is a barrier affecting women's upward mobility in the educational leadership organizational structure as emphasises Catalyst, (2001) that lack of influential mentors for women in management affected their upward mobility.

Furthermore it is ironical that women in organizations lack mentors who promote and nurture their skills and talents and that narrow their chances for success, (Merida, 2013). Based on studies conducted in the USA, employees with mentors have been found to have access to more networks and are able enjoy career satisfaction (Godshalk and Sosik, 2000). In addition they are promoted more frequently, have higher incomes and enjoy higher career commitment (Dockery and Sahl, 2002). Research has also shown that they have reduced turnover rates and are hence an asset to the organization (Macgregor, 2000).

Mentors play a key role to the success of female managers because they help in the improvement of the managers' sense of identity and professional confidence, reduce discrimination, help them get access to information that is available to men, give them decision-making power in organizations and facilitate their managerial

advancement (Ragins, 2000, Allen, et al., 2000). This agrees with Kimani (2014) whose work retaliates that mentors assist employees to identify the unique skills that they can ride on to scale up the career ladder in addition to giving the mentees ideas on what areas to improve on. However, a number of studies have also highlighted the difficulties that female managers face in getting mentors mainly because of women's token status and potential discomfort with cross-gender mentors. (Burke and Karambaya, 2004; Cleveland et al., 2000) In general, absence of mentors has a negative impact on women's career advancement and success because they hardly get role models to emulate.

Thus, much of the literature on mentoring comes from the west and very little has been documented from the African and oriental world and hence the focus on mentoring as a barrier that hinders female teachers progression becomes viable. For example very few studies have investigated the existence or impact of mentoring on the career advancement of female managers in the secondary schools context. In a relatively pioneering empirical study in Oman, Al-Jamali (2006) reported that the absence of role models and mentoring program is a major organizational concern limiting women's access to top managerial positions. It would appear that finding a mentor is difficult for women in this region given that there are not enough women in senior management positions to provide support. Kattara (2005) points out that given men's control in the organization, they are more likely to be mentors. This would suggest that women in this part of the world may miss opportunities for career advancement because they lack female role models. Thus, mentoring relationships can be considered potentially valuable for women's career advancement in this region, as female managers' work in a male dominated environment (Kattara, 2005).

Özkanlı and White (2009) in a study on managing the universities in Turkey found that some women have difficulty getting into senior management, and generally their support or mentoring came from further down the organization than for men. In this study, male and female managers consider that Rectors/Vice Chancellors (VCs) are particularly influential in senior management appointments, with women perceiving this as a barrier. Tischler (2004) argues that one of the most effective tools in overcoming challenges working women face is finding a mentor. The mentor relationship is particularly important for the career development of women as it prepares the woman psychologically for the challenges and how to handle them.

Kattara (2005) underscores that mentoring helps women to meet other leaders both men and women and thus break into the 'leadership rings'. Mathur-Helm (2002) found that majority of women working employees did not have sponsors or access to decision-makers to influence their movement up the corporate ladder. However, a few have ensured their hierarchical ascendancy by engaging with male colleagues and potential sponsors and this deters a huge majority of female leaders who would not wish to be evaluated on a male model.

2.3.4 Tokenism

It is a well documented fact that women comprise a small percentage of the management work force (Cleveland, 2000, Powell, 2003) and are thus regarded as having a token status in a male dominated environment (Oakley, 2007). Studies have further showed the negative mental effects of tokenism for women in the work place, Davidson and Cooper, (2002) and the distressing behavioural consequences of tokenism for women, Cleveland, (2000), Chakrabarty, Powell, (2003).

According to Yoder (2004), tokenism is an organizational barrier facing women managers internationally. Yoder, further notes that the term token has also been used to refer to persons (usually women or minorities) who are hired, admitted or appointed to a group because of their difference from other members, perhaps to serve as "proof" that the group does not discriminate against such people (Yoder, 2004). Tokens are under-represented members in a group and due to their small numbers, the rest of the group puts them in the position of representing their category, whether they want to or not. In his book 'Women and Men in Organizations', Powell discusses how being a token can interfere with performance of the disadvantaged group. Powel asserts that due to their high visibility, tokens face additional performance pressures. This study confirmed this observation by majority of the respondents agreeing that the token status of female managers in school organizations resulted to their high visibility and that made them to feel intimidated in addition to additional work pressures which were not expected of the male gender.

The concept of "tokenism" has been used widely to explain some of the difficulties women face as they enter traditionally male occupations. Tokenism explains women's occupational experiences and their behavioural responses to those experiences in terms of their numerical proportion, suggesting that barriers to women's full occupational equality can be lowered by the hiring of more women in organizations that are highly-skewed male. Tokenism has been identified as the kind of stereotyping that occurs when someone clearly belongs to a minority group, such as the solo technical woman in a group of men. Tokenism leads to the majority group member to treat the single woman in the group as representing all the stereotypical characteristics of the gender (Pilver, 2009). The solo woman sees her work subjected

to much more scrutiny than her male peers and her gender becomes a lens through which her work is evaluated. This leads to the work actions, communication, and performance of the woman to be judged through a stereotypical gender lens (Cleveland et al., 2000). In this context, attitudes that reward men who act assertively as leaders punish women who achieve the same successes and exhibit similar behaviours. This represents a significant barrier to women at the upper echelons of the organization, and their performance evaluations are likely to suffer. Recent research confirms that women are not afforded as much of a repertoire of behaviours when it comes to assertiveness, and that women may benefit from self-monitoring in order to match the style of participants in the situation (Singh et al., 2006).

Kanter's theory of tokenism proposed in 1977, offers one of the earliest theoretical explanations as to why women in male-dominated or gender-typed jobs are consistently denigrated. According to this theory, tokenism occurs when a group is composed of a clear majority group, but there exists a clearly definable sub-group within the larger group. First, Kanter points out that token status leads to increased visibility of a token, and that such visibility may create increased attention as well as greater performance demands. Such demands were hypothesized to lead to either overachieving, to overcome such demands, or underachieving, to remain a non-threat to the majority group members (Oakley, 2000). Second, Kanter describes the contrast that occurs between tokens and majority group members. Kanter speculates that such contrasts would lead to a greater exaggeration of the differences between majority group members and tokens. This exaggeration of differences could then result in the social isolation of the token group members (Metle, 2001). Finally, Kanter describes a process in which the token female's personal characteristics became skewed or

misperceived such that these women would fall more in line with female gender stereotypes. Kanter labels this process as an entrapment, because of the way the female tokens become confined by their gender stereotype (Cleveland et al., 2000).

Perceptions of women in the workplace as 'pets', 'temptess' are incompatible with the image of an ideal, successful, working individual. According to Pilvers (2009), such stereotypes can be extremely detrimental to the working woman. Many women have been found to opt to adhere to these stereotypes rather than challenge them. This type of self-distortion not only has negative consequences to the self, but may also serve to further perpetuate negative stereotypes of women.

Yoder (2004) has speculated that the negative consequences associated with token status may be, in part, caused by the notion that token women were deviating from occupational norms and behaving inappropriately based on gender stereotype prescriptions. An additional potential cause of tokenism as describes Yoder (2004) has to do with the notion that male majority groups become threatened when there is an influx of female minorities into male-dominated occupations. This threat is said to be particularly salient in prestigious jobs where the majority have more to lose. Accordingly, Yoder has also suggested that females who work in more prestigious occupations are likely to experience more disapproval and discrimination. Brown, (2001) in a study in Uganda's education sector noted that the main strategy being used to overcome tokenism has been through affirmative action policies being implemented. The study found that affirmative action takes a range of approaches including: improving the abilities and confidence of women and changing the organizations in which they work.

Noble and Moore (2005) notes that with affirmative action, women become more confident and competitive with increased responsibility, and are willing to assume significant leadership roles. They are able to make a conscious effort to become part of exceptional elite in the organization's hierarchy and believe they can successfully manage both a career and a family.

2.3.5 Organizational Networks and Interpersonal Relationships

The relationships and networks that exist in organizations are important components of organizational activities (Tonge, 2000, Davidson and cooper 2002, and Ogaden, 2001). They have shown that successful organizational networking positively impact on career outcomes, including access to information, social and professional advice, increased job opportunities, promotions and career satisfactions (Green, 2002, Luthans, 2001, Kram and Isabella, 2000). Studies have further highlighted the negative effects of lack of organizational networks on the career progression of female managers, including the lack of professional support, career planning and information sharing (Burke and McKeen, 2004, Cleveland, 2000), lack of interpersonal relationships with subordinates, peers and superiors (Davidson and Cooper, 2002) and exclusion from informal networks such as important meetings (Jackson, 2001).

Organizational networks that exist in organizations are a creation of the male and are a reflection of a male dominated organization as highlights Catalyst, (1990) and Matts, (1995) that exclusion of women from informal channels of communication and networks and counter productive behaviour of male co workers impact negatively on female leaders' career progression. Consequently males are accorded

higher responsibilities as custodians of community values. Merida, (2013) on a study among health workers found out that women in the sector continue and are still being locked out of the informal networks that are important pipeline for promotion. The study further established that men continue to interact with other executives informally to a greater extent than women do. The study sought to establish the status in the education sector.

Organizational networks have a significant place in supporting managers within organizations yet very few studies of women's and men's networks in organizations have been documented. Brass (2005) examined interaction patterns of men and women in one organization and their effects on perceptions of influence and actual promotions. Three types of networks were considered: workflow, communication and friendship. The results indicated that an individual's position in workflow and interaction networks was strongly related to measures of influence. Women were generally less influential than men but were similar to men on many other measures. Women, however, were not well-integrated into men's networks and the dominant coalition, and men were not well-integrated into women's networks. Promotions were found to be related to centrality in department, men's and dominant coalition interaction networks. Interestingly, women's networks more closely resembled men's when their immediate work group included both women and men.

Allocation of resources in some disciplines is clearly gendered and focuses on male values and networks. For example, Van den Brink (2007) demonstrates that the recruitment of professors in the Netherlands in the natural sciences and medical sciences is largely through closed procedures with no open selection process;

whereas in the Humanities, it is more likely to be through open procedures. The gatekeepers or “scouts” in the closed procedures are mostly middle aged men. This gate keeping has the dual function of exclusion and control and at the same time facilitates the distribution of reserves, information and opportunities (Husu, 2004). Laden (2007) found that it also produces “a pervasive culture of negative bias whether conscious or unconscious against women in academia, resulting in a lack of professional support and networking”. The result of this situation according to Bagilhole and White, (2008) is that women are largely excluded from the professoriate in some science disciplines and from the resources and networks that would enable them to build international research profiles, and consequently they are also excluded from access to senior management positions.

Bagilhole and White, (2008) further observe that the low representation of women in administrative positions in education institutions in the United Kingdom and many other European countries demonstrates the effectiveness of this gate keeping.

Brown notes that there still appears to be a gender bias operating in many educational organizations in terms of recruitment to senior management teams. A study by McCurdy (2001) which examined the selection and preparation of school administrators, commissioned by the US National Institute of Education in 1999, specifically examined the selection of school principals for gender bias. The study found that there was an “old boys’ network” operating in many parts of the country, and that this network was responsible for most of the present-day educators in management positions in the USA. Husu (2004) felt that networking for women leaders is a crucial supportive mechanism which can be used to counteract the ‘old

boys' network. Husu, further referred to the old boy's network as a group of men who either schooled together or have worked together and keep track of each other, supporting each other up the corporate ladder at the detriment of women who are viewed as outsiders and are treated as threats.

Britten (2001) reiterates that supportive networks include formal networking, where members are required to pay fees to receive newsletters, and informal networking between members in a community like principals' associations. This is further supported by several scholars noting that networking allows women the means to get advice, moral support and contacts for information. It also provides for constructive ways through which women deal with frustration, sharing feelings about their work and providing encouragement (Crampon and Mishra, 1999, Wesson, 1998).

2.4 Coping strategies to overcoming organizational barriers

As much as there has been and still are several barriers facing female secondary school principals, there are also measures and strategies that women have embraced to overcome these barriers worldwide as noted in the experience of women in male dominated occupations, Joanna and lirein, (2011). This study further notes that women in male dominated occupations encounter challenges and therefore use distinct coping strategies which affect their motivation and retention in those organizations. According to Burke and McKeen, (2004), studies on both networking and mentoring suggest that the same can be used to overcome organizational barriers despite being a barrier at the same time. It has become imperative to deliberately create role models in the leadership positions for women to emulate.

Mathipa, (2001) notes that mentors and peer relationships can facilitate career and personal development. Networking can be useful at all stages in career development, while mentors are particularly useful at the early stages of career development (Wentling, 2003). Peer relationships are different from mentoring relationships in that they often last longer, are not hierarchical and involve a two-way helping. Peer relationships have advantages, particularly since a significant number of women may not have had mentors. Chow, (2001) in study on the situation in Hong Kong proposed that women aspiring to positions in management need to adopt some proactive strategies. At the individual level, a career woman must convey a professional image that reflects expertise, competence, good interpersonal skills, authority, commitment and the ability to deal with stress effectively (Joanna and Lirein 2011). Li and Leun (2001) concurs, that one solution for women might be to establish their own networks to overcome their isolation in a male world. Merida, (2013), confirms that women themselves need to create their own social capital by developing their own networks of support, seeking sponsors within their organizations, secure mentors, promoting themselves and communicating the value that they bring to the work place.

Women's networks can serve as a forum for informal communication, support and mentorship, as well as serving as a counterbalance to men's groups and clubs (Merida, 2013). These networks can play crucial roles in helping women's career planning and development as indicated a Catalyst Report,(1994) that outlined characteristics commonly shared by successful career women as: consistently exceeding performance expectations, effective networking, adopting styles of

leadership that male managers are comfortable with and seeking high visibility assignments.

Leden (2007) argues that a professional network might organize workshops and establish a mentor programme to help female managers to formulate career goals and develop strategies. These networks help female managers to learn strategies which can help create “power bases” within organizations so that they can enhance the ability to control organizational outcomes. This idea is further put into perspective by Tsoka, (1999) who recommends that networking programmes should be established and monitored to prevent discriminatory behaviour against women. There is also the need for organizations to tackle the unconscious bias which is viewed as a powerful tool for change as it allows organizations to move away from polarised debate about discrimination to a discussion of fairness and inclusion. Many organizations have undergone unconscious bias programmes and training designed to create awareness among individuals of their own bias and the impact of their behaviour.

Indeed Binna Kandola, in his work on eliminating bias in organizations identified the key inclusion competences to be: developing people, valuing individuals, championing diversity and strategy diversity focus. Organizations are expected to create spaces for women to speak about their experiences within the organizations as well as provide women with platforms where they can exercise their skills and competencies so that they can get noticed (Lynch, 2010).

Mentoring is widely used as an empowerment tool for women, not only in educational leadership but in many other organizations. This means that mentoring is an effective strategy that could be used to support female managers. It involves a

protégée (mentee) and a mentor (Holloway, 2001; Kilburg, 2007), usually comprising a more experienced colleague and a new principal or an aspirant who learn by observation. There are other models of mentoring that include coaching where upcoming managers are supported all through as they undertake their day to day undertakings Holmes, (2005); Robertson, (2005). According to Robertson (2005), coaching is a professional “reciprocal relationship” between two leaders who help each other to develop their professional skills in leadership.

Holmes (2005) retaliates that mentoring involves coaching the protégé into developing professional skills. Mentors provide support and professional development of skills needed for leadership, causing both the mentee and mentor to reflect on their own skills and behaviour. Although mentoring has been traditionally associated with male protégées and male mentors, whereby men get promoted into management positions, several researchers suggest that mentoring advantages women greatly (Grove and Montgomery, 1999; Holmes, 2005; Mendez-Morse, 2004). For example, Grove and Montgomery (1999) both agree that mentoring is one way to counteract the numerous organizational barriers that women leaders face in educational leadership. Among the advantages that mentoring provides for women include greater access to leadership positions as well as increased salary. Not only does mentoring benefit the woman leader protégé, but also the institution and the mentor. For mentors, the benefits from mentoring a protégé include being able to reflect on one’s own leadership skills, lessening the isolation felt by school principals, and recognition and promotion on the part of the mentor. Institutions, on the other hand, benefit from the constant supply of a pool of women leaders needed by each institution, and their retention. Women protégés feel that they are being

cared for and are being supported in their careers (Enomoto et al., 2000; Grove and Montgomery, 1999).

The leaders therefore have an important part to play in finding out and supporting female role models as the lack of role models reflects lack of women at the top although there could also be reluctance among those who have made it to speak up. Organizational leaders can assist by personally inviting women to play a more active role in gender diversity.

Cromie and O'Sullivan (2001) also note that women managers have adopted a number of strategies in overcoming difficulties related to organizational practices. They are now as well qualified academically as male counterparts; they pursue training opportunities, sometimes in women-only settings, to focus on the women's unique issues. Mathur-Helm, (2002) notes that women reported rapid career growth due to taking advantage of performance appraisal and high staff turnover rates, of which half attributed growth to compassion, hard work and a drive to succeed. The study further found out that a considerable number of women employees achieved rapid career growth by making presentations, by being visible and frequently meeting the board of directors, decision-makers and government. The fora presented to women gave them the confidence they needed to be able to lead their institutions to higher levels.

Schein (2007) asserts that organizations need to work hard to address the barriers that hinder women's advancement to top management roles. The author further underscores that providing of family supports by organizations like flexible scheduling, child and elder care assistance that make it easier for women with family

responsibilities to hold managerial positions may increase the proportion of career women who are interested in holding top management positions. These coping strategies have ideally seen many women managers rise to the top. Rosener (1995) notes that though men and women have complementary or differing styles, emerging trends in human resource practices are recognizing that men and women are learning the strengths of each other's approach and adopting a blend of styles. In the same breadth, DeMatteo (2002) notes that complementary styles are not an accurate reflection of what is evolving in the workplace. The author progresses to affirm that we are steadily moving towards a style that increases options for all managers to move beyond the constraints of stereotypical sex-role expectations.

2.5 Coping Mechanisms for Bridging the Gender Gap

A study done by Ouston,(1992) advised that getting women into top jobs demands strategic planning for it does not just happen through good will or good intentions. According to Joanna and Lirein, (2011), it is critically important to bring more women into the labour force and fully utilize the skills to enhance productivity. They further observe that it was imperative to create the necessary conditions to unlock the full potential of women and achieve higher economic productivity. In other words more than one approach is needed to arrest the existing inequalities in leadership positions in the education profession. A study sponsored by Bank of America on "What holds Women back" reiterated that achieving a balanced "board" requires a pipeline of women progressing through the organization and for this to happen women need to be equipped with the skills and experiences to make them "Board" ready. Organizations therefore need to develop a culture which recognises diverse

talents and values different styles of leadership. The report further notes the need to seal the leaks in the pipe to have more women on board.

Merida, (2013) when addressing the issue of breaking the glass ceiling for women in leadership notes that government has many tools at its disposal to address the current barriers in the work place that hold women back. The study found out that government can act as a catalyst for promoting gender equality perspectives and practices by increasing the awareness of gender inequality as well as enacting government legislations and policies that can dismantle discriminatory practices. In addition monitoring and enforcement of the legislation against gender discrimination must be real if women have to break through the barriers that hold them back. There is need for organizations to deliberately undertake mechanisms to be able to support the female leaders as notes Merida (2013) who underscore that there is need to establish comprehensive organizational specific programmes that address breaking down structural, organizational and cultural barriers that impeded upward mobility of women

Wentling (2003) had earlier outlined in a study what career women pointed as a pre-requisite for career advancement as: additional training, communication skills, leadership skills, strategic management and financial planning. Wickham (2007) asserts that in spite of the organizational barriers, women have succeeded in becoming high school principals by asserting themselves amongst the male counterparts. This agrees with the Gender Development Report on Gender Equality (2012) which reveals that women continue to make progress in closing the gender gap that has existed for generations. Burke and Mckeen, (1994) underscores that

managerial women who participate in frequent number of educational and training activities are more organizationally committed, job satisfied, more visible and have higher career prospects. The study assumes that these women leaders have utilized successful strategies for attaining the chief executive positions in public high schools. Factors that may advance career opportunities for women were specifically cited in the study of the American School principalship (Glass, et al., 2000) like demonstrating an emphasis on improving instruction, knowledge of instructional process, ability to maintain organizational relationships, interpersonal skills and responsiveness to parents and community groups. These were seen as effective coping mechanisms that would be adopted to bridge the gender gap which would then translate to more women accessing management positions.

Grogan and Brunner, (2005) observes that boards hired teachers to be educational leaders rather than managers. They affirm that as more school boards value administrators with backgrounds in curriculum and instruction, women would become more attractive candidates. Other factors that were commonly reported in their findings were: strong interpersonal skills, ability to maintain organization relationships and responsiveness to parents and community. According to Wickham (2007) these researchers believe that women were strong in parent and community relations due to their typical path via the elementary route although sometimes cited as a disadvantage, familiarity with elementary level experience as a teacher, principal and often central office supervisor for elementary education actually prepares superintendents well. For example, they often are more knowledgeable about the fundamental instructional issues of literacy and numeracy important considerations if principals are expected to be instructional leaders. They also have more experience

working with diverse communities of parents and other caretakers who are more involved at the elementary school level than any other level (Wickham, 2007).

This confirms Udegbe, (1997) earlier assertion that some subordinates benefit from working with female superiors because they believe that women have a natural milk of kindness that makes it difficult for them to unleash hardships on the subordinates. This means that enhanced awareness and experience among the leaders could be utilized effectively to assist in overcoming the barriers that they encounter while still in leadership positions.

Vail (1999) believes that as school boards increase their emphasis on student achievement, they are valuing instructional leadership more than finance and business ability. The unofficial traditional route to the school management and administration has been through the school principalship, a position rooted in organizational and financial understanding (Tallerico, 2000). Female administrators who wanted to be candidates for principal position had deliberately served on facilities, finance, and/or construction committees to build up their resumes (Vail, 1999). Boards of education, while emphasizing that the instructional program is important, they also expressed that they never wanted an inexperienced principal in fiscal management and hence the need for principals to make deliberate efforts (Glass, 2000). These three studies indicate that attitudes are changing and women are gaining more access and recognition in the male preserve domains. (Tallerico, 2000). Boards could also help female candidates by not necessarily using professional search consultants for recruiting qualified candidates. Men are more likely than women to think of professional search firms' in promotion of their candidates (Dana

and Bourisaw, 2006). Search consultants may be one of the causes at the root of this gender gap. Until school boards become more interested in seeking a diverse group of candidates, and thus use alternative methods for seeking qualified candidates, the predominately white, male applicant will continue to dominate the pool (Wickham 2007).

All superintendents are more likely to be appointed from outside the district than promoted from within; however, men are twice as likely to be appointed from the outside Grogan and Brunner, (2005). Bell (1988) attributes this to boards' ability to rely upon, to be able to predict, and to trust the principals they hire. Based upon the concept of social homogeneity, male board members continue to find it easier to communicate and therefore to trust male candidates for the principalship. Hiring women more often from the inside suggests a potential shift in social homogeneity should the female candidate be known. More women than men are promoted to principalship from within the organization (Glass, et al., 2000).

There are several other studies that have revealed the coping mechanisms that female managers need to embrace if they have to remain successful in their career. For instance Joanna and Lirein, (2011), pointed that many companies have introduced mechanisms such as parental leaves, part time policies and travel reduction technology to make women to stay on course. They continue to point out that despite there being many barriers that derail women; critical career interventions have increased their numbers considerably. The need for training and accessing additional education have been pointed out to be among the powerful liberators that empower female leaders to stay on course and access management positions Tsoka,

(2001). This is given more support as evidenced by the Ministry of Education in Kenya, in the month of September 4th 2011, launching a new Diploma in Education management programme which is currently being delivered through open and distance flexible learning modes. This programme targets all the principals and head teachers of both primary and secondary schools and it is aimed at equipping them with the proper management skills for them to remain successful in their careers as educational managers. There is also the need to have attitude change for both male and female leaders within organizations so that female leaders are easily accepted as capable leaders within the organizations.

Meshave and Glinaw (2002) noted that embracing a participatory leadership style would make a female leader more acceptable in an organization. This because they hold the view that women are negatively evaluated if they adopt a directive leadership style which is often associated with males. The female leaders are also expected to involve their junior leaders in decision making because the essence of delegation goes along way in assisting to break the subordinate stereotypes of men leadership. Kariuki, (2007) also asserts that women leaders tend to be more assertive and authoritative and this is supported by the fact leadership in the world over is a male dominated terrain and for women to survive they must assert themselves very strongly.

Study conducted on work and family conflict and coping strategies adopted to overcome the same by female managers in Hong Kong revealed that there was a general ineffectiveness of coping strategies being used by women professionals. The percentage of women who attempted to use the positive coping strategies designed

around job changes was low due to the reluctance in negotiating for family friendly organizational policies. Joanna and Lirein, (2011) outlined several coping mechanisms which when embraced by organizations increased their visibility like, removing the structural barriers for women, adopting more flexible working routines and implementing policies that will enable women to survive due to responsibility of family and work conflict. Infact Merida, (2013) suggests ways of eliminating structural barriers within organizations for women who aspire to progress. For instance employees need to establish flexible work arrangements and work life balance policies and create effective pipelines that identify, develop and promote women. There was also the need to develop a leadership development approach that would assist to develop critical leadership skills in women and also assist them to identify and level their strengths and boost their confidence. Similarly, McKinsey, (2012) in his report on “Women making the breakthrough.” shows that organizations are confronting the issue of gender inequality earnestly and are devoting enormous resources towards rectifying the gender imbalance. For example the study established that organizations have instituted training programmes for valuing gender diversity, organizations are changing recruitment patterns to eliminate bias as well as setting specific goals for placing women in senior positions.

2.6 General View of Women in Educational Management

Studies of school administrators in North America, Europe and Australia have shown consistently that women in the teaching force although a majority, are under-represented in leadership positions (Young 1990, Canadian Teachers Federation, 1999). This concurs with Coleman (2003), who observes that education sector is a female dominated profession but apparently managers in education are

predominantly male despite Leith wood, (2004) noting that there is proof of a growing keenness of women in taking up leadership positions in education. The teaching profession locally and internationally is dominated by women but it is surprising how few they are in management positions and in decision making (Davidhzar & Cramer 2000; Stanford et al, 2005; Valentine and Godkin, 2000).

Riley (2004) agrees that despite the differences in the pattern of representation of women in positions of educational leadership across Europe, there is a common phenomena that, educational leaders are principally male. Consequently, women are under-represented at managerial levels in virtually all countries and their visibility declines as we climb up the organization ladder (Linge, 2010). This notion concurs with research studies done in Kenya that reveals that men dominate positions of headship in secondary schools and women appear as a token at the higher levels in the school organizational structures (Enose, Ondigi and Onyango, 2011). This feature has implications not just for women but also raises issues of parity and opportunity as analysts of educational management recognise the disparity between women's numbers in the teaching profession and their representation at higher senior level (Hall, 1999). Hence despite women being the majority and being agents in the development of knowledge, their leadership abilities have been under estimated as confirms Goldon, (1975) who highlights that women are potentially able as men to contribute to education and specifically management yet the policy-makers continue to ignore the importance of women interests and needs especially in their participation in management and decision making. Mbowane, (2001:18) then ponders by asking, " are women given the support, training and exposure they need

to do their respective jobs accordingly or are they just pushed out to satisfy men who do not like working under the leadership of women?"

This study sought to answer Mbowane's question by affirming that there were lack of training opportunities for female teachers as compared with the male counterparts and this was occasioned by lack of a clear policy to guide the schools organizational training. This resulted to absence of training opportunities within the school organizations and thus stagnated their career mobility. The study also found out that in the few instances where training was available female teachers were disadvantaged and further more, school organizations embraced a lukewarm approach towards training. Limerick (2001) revealed that women were nowhere to be seen in senior positions in public institutions. This confirmed an assertion that women teach and men manage (Robbin and Ovando (2002:2) Teaching has usually been seen as an appropriate job for women as Newman, (1994) described this association with a caring profession as one that offers women quasi familiar roles and identifies round a core of male hierarchies and privileges. Interestingly it has also been observed that married females shoulder more of the family chores than their male partners do and their disproportionate share of the housework hence increasing the difficulty of women pursuing careers in school leadership especially when relocation is required (Coleman, 2000; Gill, 1995; Kruse, 2000; Kyriakouss and Saiti, 2006).

The fact that the teaching profession is relatively lowly paid and does not enjoy the same social status as other male dominated professions may partly account for the fact that there are more women than men in this profession, particularly on part-time

and short-time contracts. In addition, women's place in the work tends to be seen in terms of national economic productivity than in terms of equality of opportunity. The qualities of nurturance and selflessness required of the profession are often thought to be more suited for women than for the males. Hence, the high numbers in the teaching profession raises issues of concern particularly on leadership since there is dismal representation of women gender.

Acker (1995) reiterates that the sentiments about teaching as a caring profession ignores the actual amount of work involved in this occupation. Acker further emphasizes that school teaching is work, and the school is a workplace for teachers. This notion explains why even when women occupy senior positions within the educational institutions, they are often branded into the same caring and nurturing roles. Women in middle level management roles in education are often assigned pastoral duties that they are cast in the role of the senior mistresses while the men are given the responsibility for more respectable areas such as curriculum and finance. This is an act of discrimination towards the female gender because at times they have what it takes to undertake even the perceived challenging tasks. Commenting on the implications of such stereotyping for their career progression, Coleman (1996) reports that women are increasingly being aware of the dangers of labelling and are taking steps to avoid these traditional roles. This is because awareness is the first stage in changing any situation. Riria (1982) in a seminar paper presented on women empowerment in Nairobi, observed that no one but woman can liberate the women administrators from being demeaned regardless of their worth in the profession. Regardless of the time, Riria's sentiments have stood the test of time.

Unfortunately, it has not been easy for the women to shed off this quasi maternal role bestowed on them, and penetrate the perceived "masculine" world of management and leadership. That women have proved themselves to be extremely capable educational leaders is without doubt as observed by (Shakeshaft, 1989, Cubillo and Brown, 2003). Discussions on genders differentiation of leadership have focused on the different qualities and styles of leadership for both men and women. Female leaders are known to be transformational, empowering and collaborative style as compared with the male leaders who are directive and authoritarian leaders. However, it is notable that the qualities that female leaders possess are negatively viewed as they are seen as sources of weaknesses.

The debate has progressed further to engage the concept of a genderless leader which, rather than attributing to the different qualities exclusively to any one gender, posits that every good leader is available to both sets of characteristics from which they are able to select the most appropriate for the situation (Singleton, 1993). Whichever model one subscribes to, there is little doubt that many women have a great deal to contribute to the changing practice of educational management in response to the radical global restructuring of education.

The problem that many aspiring women leaders encounter is not in justifying their right to earn their place in senior management among the "great" and "good", but how to gain access to those positions. This becomes even worse because female leaders are always being tested in ways that men are not tested and they are constantly being required to answer basic questions about their abilities but men are not (Women gaining ground in Academia, 1994). While it is true that more women now than ever before are slowly breaking through the glass ceilings barrier to

undertake leadership positions, one can hardly claim to hear the glass ceilings shattering around us (Cubillo and Brown, 2003). While the arguments for gender impartial leadership may make some opponents to women as managers feel less uncomfortable about the threat to their masculine supremacy, it does not ease the entry into the male-dominated field of management and leadership. This means that women must assert themselves in those male-dominated careers and prove their worth in terms of leadership. Blackmore, (1999) observed that women who get into leadership are troublesome. The study further highlighted that strong women are viewed as complicated and dangerous because they trouble principal masculinities and models of management by being different.

This is a clear illustration why women who have leadership potential have been misunderstood. Many times the society treats such women in management positions with a lot of suspicion and hence most of them end up being intimidated (Mathipa, 2001). One way forward to counteract that would be early socialization of children as asserts Nemerowicz and Rose (1997) who notes that increasing the opportunities for all children to take various leadership roles in and out of school should help boys to accept the idea of women as leaders outside the family and the school.

It's important to note that early socialization of children would enable them to accommodate either gender if they occupied positions of authority. Research by Marks et al, (2001), shows that there are possible problems in the educational environment and these may not be favourable to women's management development and education. Indeed, majority of women often lament that there are many obstacles embedded in the school environmental set up which deter them from upward

progression. This notion is supported by Smith (2001) who argues that, while organizational culture and management practices have constantly been identified as obstacles to women's progression and contribution to management, in turn these are mightily influenced by the culture of management education. Examples of this environment are given by Marks et al., (2001) as lack of role models, few female mentors and the lack of a critical mass of women to support each other and to promote them to position of power. This study confirm this assertion by affirming that there were few women mentors because women are always competing among themselves and are always afraid of sharing their limelight with the upcoming ones.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature on organizational barriers that female managers encounter as they ascend to management positions. The literature has revealed that prevalence of organizational barriers hindered female managers from accessing leadership positions globally and locally. The literature also revealed that strategies used to cope with organizational barriers were mainly founded on the need to build, instil and maintain supportive organizational cultures which can improve morale and motivate women managers. The strategies which were geared towards addressing barriers emanated from organizational practices usually involved affirmative action where by policies were put in place to ensure no gender is discriminated against in organizations. The literature has also revealed deliberate coping mechanisms like training, additional education, flexible working routines and assertiveness among female leaders as being effective in bridging the gender gap and increasing their visibility in management positions.

The bulk of the literature reviewed is largely from developed nations with very few focussing on the situation in Africa and particularly in Kenya. This study assumed that African based organizations and institutions have considerable differences from those based in developed countries. This is because of such issues as African culture, poverty levels, governance structures, legal framework, education systems and wage policies among others upon which the organizational activities and practices are based. The study intended to give an African perspective with specific reference to secondary female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties, Kenya. The study also intended to cover issues related to organizational situations. Since most of the studies reviewed focused on social -cultural factors as explainers for female under-representation and few on organizational barriers and the coping strategies, the study intended to fill this gap by analyzing the interface of organizational barriers facing female secondary school principals and strategies they use to overcome with a view of providing solutions through analysis of primary quantitative and qualitative data within the paradigm of descriptive of survey design.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a detailed outline of how the study was executed. It outlines the overall methodological framework. Specifically it covers the research design, locale, variables, population, sampling procedures, sample size, instruments, data collection procedures, validity, reliability, piloting, data analysis and ethical issues.

3.2 Research Design

To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher used descriptive survey design, which combined both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis techniques. Quantitative data was derived from the questionnaires while qualitative data was generated from interview schedule. Gall and Borg, (2010) observed that descriptive survey research involves collection of information from members of a group, students, teachers or other persons associated with educational process. Survey design allowed the researcher to determine the status quo as well as gather facts rather than manipulate variables, (Creswell and Plano, 2006). The design was therefore appropriate for the study since the researcher was interested in establishing the facts as they are with regard to organizational barriers that female secondary school principal's encounter and their coping strategies.

The design also allowed the researcher to describe, explain and examine facts, trends and patterns that emerged from the study. Kerlinger (2002) further observes that descriptive survey research focuses on people, their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motivations and behaviour. This view is also shared by Best and Kahn, (2004) who

further observe that survey addresses points of views or attitudes that are held, processes that are going on and effects that are being felt and trends that are developing. Surveys are also cost effective and have the advantage of reaching a large number of individuals in short time and that is why the design was appropriate for this study (Orodho, 2009; Borg and Gall, 2007). The researcher envisioned that the organizational barriers were entrenched within this purview of survey research as pointed out by Kerlinger and Best and Kahn.

3.3 Variables of the Study

The study has two types of variables: independent and dependent. The independent variables in the study were the organisational barriers that secondary female principals encounter. These are organisational culture, organisational practices, organizational networks, mentoring and tokenism. The dependent variable is female mobility in management.

3.4 Location of the Study

This study was conducted in three selected counties in Kenya namely, Meru, Machakos and isiolo. The three counties had an aspect of both rural and urban setting and therefore gave the study diversity in terms of women representation, social, institutional and cultural comparability. Firstly, Meru County was selected on the basis of having fewer female principals compared to male counterparts. This was the same in the other two counties selected. Secondly, Isiolo was also selected for the study because it was situated in an Islamic dominated region where cultural patriarchy was prevalent and therefore it influenced women mobility in management positions compared to the other two sampled counties. Ecological diversity in the

three counties was also used as a justification as it was apparent that some female principals were unwilling to serve in some parts of the counties that were remote.

3.5 Target Population

3.5.1 Institutions

The target population for the study comprised of two hundred and forty eight, (248) secondary schools headed by female principals in the three counties. The schools were divided into two major categories: public and private schools. The schools were further categorized into: girl's public secondary schools, mixed public secondary schools, girl's private secondary schools and mixed private secondary schools. Specifically the targeted schools per county included: 16 public girls secondary schools, 5 private girls secondary schools, 47 public mixed secondary schools and 10 private mixed secondary schools in Meru County. In Isiolo County, 4 girls' public secondary schools, 1, public mixed secondary school and 1, mixed private secondary school. In Machakos County, 19, girl's public secondary schools, 37, private girl's secondary schools, 55, public mixed secondary schools and 53 private mixed secondary schools. The study also targeted 260 boys' secondary schools which had male principals for comparison purposes. These included: 21, public boys schools, 8 private boys schools, 40, mixed public schools, and 11, private mixed boys schools. This gave a total of 80, schools in Meru County. In Isiolo county, 2 public boys schools, 1 private boys school, 6 public mixed schools and 1 mixed private school. This gave a total of 10 schools in Isiolo. Lastly in Machakos County, 23, public boys schools, 31 private boys schools, 72, mixed public schools and 44, private mixed schools. This gave a total of 170, schools in Machakos.

3.5.2 Respondents

The total number of respondents for the study was eight hundred and twenty five (825) respondents. These included: female secondary school principals, male secondary school principals and secondary female deputies from the three counties. The study also sampled District Education Officers and Quality Assurance and Standard Officers from the three counties. The actual number of respondents that were sampled for the study involved: 11 secondary school female principals from girls public schools, 5 female principals from private girls secondary schools, 45 female principals from public mixed secondary schools and 9, secondary school female principals from mixed private schools in Meru County. It also included, 54 secondary deputy female principals from girl's secondary schools, 3 deputy female principals from private girl's secondary schools, 51 from girls mixed secondary schools and 12 from private mixed secondary schools also in Meru County. The study also included 9, District Educational Officers and 9, Quality and Assurance Officers all from Meru County. In Isiolo County: 3, secondary female principals from girl's public schools, 1 female principal from mixed public secondary school and one from mixed private secondary school. 2, female deputy principals from girls public schools, 5, from private girls schools and one from mixed public were also included in the study. In addition the study also sampled 3, District Educational Officers and 3, Quality assurance and Standard Officers from the same county. Lastly in Machakos county, 14 secondary female principals from girl's public secondary school, 28 female principals from private girls secondary schools, 49, female principals from mixed public secondary schools and 39, from private mixed secondary schools.

The respondents also included, 87 deputy female principals from girl's public secondary schools, 9, from private girl's schools, 17 from public mixed secondary schools and 22 deputy female principals from private mixed secondary schools. The respondents also included 8, District Educational officers and 8, District Quality Assurance and Standard officers. The study also roped in male respondents to compare their upward mobility with female principals. These were: 21 principals from public boy's schools, 8, from private boy's schools, 40 from public mixed schools and 11 from private mixed schools. This gave a total of 80, male principals in Meru County. In Isiolo County, 2, principals from 2 public boys schools, 1 principal from a private boys school, 6 from public mixed schools and 1, from private mixed giving a total of 10 from Isiolo. Lastly in Machakos County, 23 from public boys' schools, 31 from private boy's schools, 72, from public mixed school and 44, from mixed private schools. This gave a total of 170 male principals. Hence the total number of respondents was, 825, as illustrated in Table 3.2 below. It is upon the sample population on which the results were generalized.

Table 3.1: Target Population

County	Respondents	BOYS SCHOOLS		MIXED SCHOOLS		TOTAL
		Public Schools	Private Schools	Public Schools	Private Schools	
Meru	Principals	21	8	40	11	80
Isiolo	Principals	2	1	6	1	10
Machakos	Principals	23	31	72	44	170
Total number of Male Principals						260
County	Respondents	GIRLS SCHOOLS		MIXED SCHOOLS		TOTAL
		Public Schools	Private Schools	Public Schools	Private Schools	
Meru	Principals	16	5	47	10	78
	Deputy Principals	54	5	51	12	120
	DEO	9	-	-	-	9
	QUASO	9	-	-	-	9
Isiolo	Principals	4	-	1	1	6
	Deputy Principals	2	-	5	1	8
	DEO	3	-	-	-	5
	QUASO	3	-	-	-	5
Machakos	Principals	19	37	54	53	163
	Deputy Principals	87	9	17	22	135
	DEO	8	-	-	-	8
	QUASO	8	-	-	-	8
Total number of respondents N						565

3.6 Sampling procedures

This section deals with the sampling procedures and the groups that were sampled included both institutions and respondents in the study. These are discussed in the section below.

3.6.1 Institutions

From the target population of 248 schools which had female principals in the three counties, stratified random sampling was used to select the schools that were included in the study. The sampled schools were divided into two strata: public and private schools. Each stratum was further divided into sub-strata: girl's schools and mixed schools. Thus the study comprised 11 girl's public schools and 5 private girls secondary schools, 45, mixed schools and 9, private mixed. In each of the sub strata over 30 % of the population of schools was randomly selected to be included in the study. The sampling was done in proportion to the population. This sample size was above the minimum acceptable sample size of 20% for a small population as observes Gay, (1992).The sampling also included schools that were headed by male principals in order to get their perception on female teachers upward mobility. There were 260 schools headed by male principals and 30% were picked randomly from the preselected categories to be used in the study. A total of 78 schools were sampled.

3.6.2 Respondents

The respondents for the study included, secondary female principals, male principals, and deputy female principals. In addition, District Educational officers and Quality Assurance and Standard officers were also included. There were a total of 417 respondents. The sampling of each of the categories is described below.

3.6.3 Female Principals

The targeted population of 248 female head teachers was categorized according to either heading public or private schools in the three counties. These female head teachers were further categorized into heading either girl's schools or mixed schools. Simple random sampling was used to determine 30% of the 248 female principals to be included in the study from the various strata. This sampling technique was suitable because it allowed the researcher to avoid bias by giving all the units of the target population an equal chance of being selected (Kerlinger, 2002). The total number of female principals sampled were 76 from the three counties.

3.6.4 Male Principals

The sampled population of 260 male principals was categorized according to either heading public or private boy's schools in the three counties. These male principals were further categorized into heading boy's schools or mixed schools. Simple random sampling was used to determine 30% of 260, male principals in each of the specific strata to be included in the study from the three counties. This gave a total of 78, male principals.

3.6.5 Deputy female Principals

Simple random sampling was used to identify one hundred and seventy eight (178) deputy female principals from the pre-selected strata in the three counties. This was 67% of the total population of female deputy principals in the three counties. The process of determining the deputy principals was the same as that of female principals used above. It was not automatic to pick a principal and a deputy from the same school because some schools had a female principal and a male deputy. In such

a school, only the principal was included. In schools where both the principal and the deputy principals were females, both of them were automatically included in the study.

3.6.6 District Education Officers and Quality Assurance and Standard Officers

The researcher did not draw a sample for the District Education Officers and the District Quality Assurance and Standard officers as their number was small hence the whole population was used for the study. Consequently, the study included all 22 DEOs and 22, QASOs from the three counties. The distribution of the DEOs and QASOs was as follows: 9 from Meru, 5 from Isiolo and 8 from Machakos Counties.

The sampling matrix to show the sample size is illustrated in the Table 3.3

Table 3.2: Sampling Matrix

SAMPLE		BOY'S SCHOOLS		MIXED SCHOOL		Total	%
County	Respondents	Public Sch.	Private Sch.	Public Sch.	Private Sch.		
Meru	Principals	40	15	75	20	150	45
Isiolo	Principals	2	1	6	1	10	3
Machakos	Principals	35	45	104	66	260	78
Total number of Male Principals						420	126

SAMPLE		GIRL'S SCHOOLS		MIXED SCHOOL		Total	%
County	Respondents	Public Sch.	Private Sch.	Public Sch.	Private Sch.		
Meru	Principals	16	5	47	10	78	23
	Deputy Principals	54	3	51	12	120	74
	DEO	9	0	-	-	9	9
	QUASO	9	0	-	-	9	9
Isiolo	Principals	4	0	1	1	6	2
	Deputy Principals	2	0	5	1	8	3
	DEO	5	0	-	-	5	5
	QUASO	5	0	-	-	5	5
Machakos	Principals	19	37	64	53	163	51
	Deputy Principals	87	9	17	22	135	101
	DEO	8	0	-	-	8	8
	QUASO	8	0	-	-	8	8
Total number of respondents n						566	291

3.7 Research Instruments

The data for this study was collected using the following instruments:

- a) Questionnaire for male and female principals on organizational barriers and coping strategies.
 - b) Questionnaire for secondary female deputy principals on organizational barriers and coping strategies.
 - c) Interview schedule for District Education Officers (DEOs) and District Quality Assurance Officers (DQASOs)
- (i) Questionnaire for female and male principals on organizational barriers and coping strategies.**

The first section of the questionnaire explained the purpose of the study and requested the respondents to follow the instructions given by the researcher on the questionnaire. The section also sought to establish background information from the respondents. Section B concentrated on issues touching on the organizational barriers and section C touched on the coping strategies employed by the female principals to overcome the organizational barriers. The questionnaire had both open ended and closed ended questions. The questionnaire was suitable for this study because (Orodho, 2009, Creswell, 2007, Borg & Gall, 2010) underscores that a questionnaire has the ability to collect a large amount of information in relatively quick space of time. Given the vastness of the three counties questionnaires were therefore ideal. They further assert that with questionnaires, questions are standardized and allow the researcher to collect a broad spectrum of views and also seek opinions. The questionnaires therefore allowed the researcher to collect information from respondents who were spread across the counties.

(ii) Questionnaire for Deputy Principals on organizational barriers and coping strategies.

The first section of the questionnaire explained the purpose of the study and sought background information from the respondents. Section B sought information on organizational barriers encountered by female principals as they ascended to senior management positions. Section C addressed the issue of coping strategies embraced by female principals to overcome the barriers. The questionnaire had open-ended and closed-ended questions. The justification for choice of questionnaire as an appropriate instrument to solicit information for this study is justified above.

(iii) Interview schedule for DEOs and Quality Assurance Officers on organizational barriers and coping strategies.

The other instrument that was used to gather information was the interview schedule. The interview schedules for both the District Education officers and District Quality and Assurance and Standard Officers were conducted.

This interview schedule had guiding questions to allow the researcher to probe further. The researcher conducted a face to face interview with respondents so as to establish their perceptions on the organizational barriers and the coping strategies. The questions were structured and hence the respondents were subjected to a similar set of questions.

According to Orodho, (2009), an interview allows for an intensive investigation of a particular topic and it also allows the researcher to probe the respondents further. Rossman and Rallis (1998) also underscore that interviews are true conversations in which the researcher and the participant together develop a more complex understanding of the area under study. This made it suitable for this study.

3.7.1 Validity

Gay (1992) defines validity as the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. Content validity of the research instruments was arrived at through expert judgement (Burns 2000 and Mertens 2005). Experts helped determine the content validity by defining in precise terms the domains of specific content that the test was assumed to represent and then determined how well that content universe was sampled by the test items (Gall, 1996). In this regard, the researcher consulted academic members in the field of educational management for the validation of the instruments. Content validity was used to determine the relevance, comprehensiveness, completeness of the research instruments. This not only ensured increase in the content validity of the instruments but also helped the researcher to remain focused on the purpose of the study. The items in the questionnaires were related to the research questions and the specific objectives of the study and the consensus was that the research instruments were appropriately designed so as to enable the researcher to capture data relevant to the study objectives.

3.7.2 Reliability

After the pilot test, reliability analysis was undertaken. For reliability analysis Cronbach's alpha was calculated by using SPSS. Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure of internal consistency ("reliability"). It is commonly used when there are multiple Likert questions in a survey questionnaire that form a scale and the researcher wishes to determine if the scale is reliable. The researcher devised some questions in a questionnaire which hoped to measure factors influencing female teachers from rising to principalship in secondary school. Each question had a 5-point Likert item from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". In order to establish

whether the questions in this questionnaire reliably measured the same latent variable (factors deterring female teachers from rising to principalship) likert scale was constructed), a Cronbach's alpha was run.

The value of the alpha coefficient ranged from 0 to 1 and was used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous (that is, questions with two possible answers) and/or scales (i.e., rating scale: 1 = strongly disagree, to 5 = strongly agree). A higher value shows a more reliable generated scale. Since, the alpha coefficients were all greater than 0.5, the researcher concluded that the instruments had an acceptable reliability coefficient and hence appropriate for the study. The results shown in the reliability statistics table indicates that the Cronbach's alpha was (0.930), which indicated a high level of internal consistency for the scale with this specific sample. The table on item total statistics presents the value (Cronbach's alpha) for particular items from the scale which indicated the reliability of each.

Table 3.3: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	<u>N of Items</u>
.926	.930	15

The cronbach's alpha was (0.930,) which indicated a high level of internal consistency (reliability) for the scale with this sample. The closer the alpha is to 1 the higher the level of consistency. This falls within the range recommended by Gay, (1992) that any coefficient correlation more than (0.7) was deemed reliable.

3.7.3 Piloting

A pilot study was conducted before the actual research in order to ensure that all the research instruments gave the information needed (Bryman, 2001, Gorard, 2003 and Cohen and Manion, 1994). In this study, two-stage pre-testing processes were carried out as recommended Gorard (2003) and Robson (2002). In the first stage of initial pre-testing, the researcher consulted subject matter specialists and sought the sentiments of the supervisors which were significant in shaping the instruments. They also ensured and enhanced the clarity and flow of items in the questionnaires for all respondents. In the second stage of pilot study, the actual piloting of the research tools was conducted and the responses and comments that were made were to be used to improve the instruments. For instance, through piloting the researcher discovered that gender, county and proper instructions were missing but they were included to enrich the instruments. Piloting also enabled the researcher to discover that some organizational barriers had been repeated but they were removed after the exercise. Piloting was done in four schools selected by the researcher (2 schools from Machakos County and 2 from Meru). They were drawn from the same counties selected for study and hence had similar characteristics but they were not used for the actual study. The purpose of piloting was to ensure that the instruments gave the intended results and where disparities were noted, the instruments were adjusted accordingly.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection was carried out in specific phases as Orodho (2009) notes that there are three logistical phases for conducting a research.

Phase one: This was the pre-field logistics phase. In this phase the researcher laid out the research instruments where the completeness, physical layout, identification and clear instructions were verified. The researcher applied for the permit from the National council for science and technology. The researcher also got the letter of approval from the university to certify that consent had been granted to undertake data collection. The researcher then drew a work plan which showed a detailed implementation plan of action to guide the research process. Training of research assistants was then done because the quality of the data collected depends on the ability of the research assistants to collect accurate data (Gay, 1992). Finally the researcher drew the budget to cater for research expenses which were critical for the success of the study.

Phase two:

This was the field-work logistic stage. This involved actual visits to the selected schools. The researcher made familiarization visits to the research area as well as reconnaissance visits to ascertain the availability of the respondents. The researcher strove to establish a good rapport with the respondents for easy administration of the research instruments. Once good rapport had been created with the respondents, they were issued with a copy of the questionnaire by either the researcher or the research assistants. The duly filled questionnaire was then picked after a period of two weeks. For the interviews, the researcher booked the appointments with the relevant respondents. It is important to note that interviews were conducted by the researcher on one on one with the respondents. In every district, interviews for both DEOs and QASOs were conducted the same day where it was possible, and where it was not, the researcher arranged to conduct the same on a different day.

Phase three:

This was the post-field logistics phase, where the researcher collected the instruments from the field. This phase also comprised the assembling of the research instruments and debriefing of the research assistants. The completed items were sorted ready for analysis.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis was based on the objectives of the study.

1. Objective One, **To examine the extent to which background characteristics of principals and deputy principals influenced upward mobility of female teachers to the position of principal.**

This generated both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data was analysed thematically while quantitative data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

2. Objective Two, **to identify the organizational barriers that female secondary school principals encounter as they ascend principalship in Meru, Isiolo and Machakos counties.** This generated qualitative data which was organized thematically guided by the research questions and analyzed thematically using a log frame. It also generated quantitative data which was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The data generated was presented using various descriptive statistics such as means, percentages and ANOVA. Both types of data were reported interactively and in a complementary manner.

3. Objective Three, **Identify the coping strategies that secondary that female secondary school teachers embrace to overcome the organizational barriers to principalship.** This generated qualitative data which was analyzed thematically.

4. Objective Four, **to establish the coping mechanisms female principals employ to remain successful in their school organizations.** This generated qualitative data which was analyzed thematically using a log frame. A narrative description based on identifiable themes was offered to explain the emerging themes. It is from the analysis that key findings, conclusions and recommendations were made.

The study further tested four hypotheses using the (ANOVA) statistic to compare the significant differences in means between the various groups in the study. This was the most appropriate statistic because it is used to compare significance of difference in means between and among groups of samples which are randomly selected (Fisher, 2005). The means were calculated from the respondents' responses to selected items in the questionnaire that addressed both organizational barriers and coping strategies. The groups that were compared were, public and private schools for both organizational barriers and coping strategies and male and female genders. The hypotheses were tested at a confidence level of (0.05). Further in the case of likert scale a mean of less than 3.0 meant that the respondents were in agreement that the barriers positively influenced upward mobility of female teachers to management positions. A mean of three(3.0) meant neutral while a mean of more than three meant that the respondents disagreed that the barriers presented hindered upward mobility of female teachers.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

This study was conducted in an ethical manner where all the participants at all stages of the study were treated with dignity, respect, and their privacy highly respected. The Kenyan Constitution guarantees each citizen a right to privacy. Bassey

(1999:73) contends that the researcher should have ethical consideration when conducting and reporting research work through ensuring that there is democracy and respect for both the truth and persons involved in a study. To begin with, the researcher acknowledged writings and research work cited in the study, whose findings and sentiments have shaped this study in one way or the other. This was done through proper referencing and citations of all the works used. This eliminated research plagiarism and upheld the integrity of the researcher in the research process.

To ensure privacy and confidentiality of all the participants involved in this study, the participants were requested not to write their names or describe themselves in any manner that would reveal their identity during the process of conducting the study. The researcher ensured that no one could link any data to specific subjects by substituting names with pseudonyms. To further boost the respondents' confidentiality, the researcher ensured anonymity of the subjects to protect them from victimization and public embarrassment of being linked with information given to the researcher.

The researcher ensured that the respondents participated in the study willingly and their withdrawal from the study was respected. The respondents therefore signed a letter of consent which showed that they participated in the study willingly. The researcher also ensured that human rights and public relations were strictly adhered to by strictly following and observing protocol. Mien and Decorum were observed by the researcher upholding good mannerisms while carrying out research. The researcher was confident and conversant with all the questions which arose from the study. Finally the researcher ensured that all appropriate chains of command were followed while in the field (Orodho, 2008, Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003, Konenar, 1992, Constitution of Kenya, 2010).

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings, interpretations and discussions according to study objectives. The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To examine the extent to which background characteristics of both principals and deputy principals influenced secondary school female teachers' upward mobility to principalship.
2. To identify the organizational barriers that female school principals encounter as they ascend to principalship in secondary schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties,
3. To identify the coping strategies that female secondary principals embrace to overcome the barriers.
4. To establish the mechanisms employed by female principals to remain successful in their careers within school organizations.

In order to contextualise the findings, the chapter begins with a presentation of the background characteristics of the respondents followed by objective-based sections that formed the basis of the thematic areas that guided the study. These are:

1. Background characteristics of both principals and deputy principals and how they influenced secondary school female teachers' upward mobility to the position of principal.
2. Organizational barriers that female school principals encounter as they ascend principalship in secondary schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties.

3. Coping strategies that female secondary principals embrace to overcome the organizational barriers to management positions.
4. Coping mechanisms that female principals employ to remain successful in their school organizations.

4.2 Background characteristics of both Principals and Deputy principals on female teachers upward mobility.

The first objective sought to find out how the background characteristics like age, gender, level of education, type of school, length of service and marital status influenced the upward mobility of female teachers to the position of principal.

To address this objective the study used the following research question: How do age, gender and level of education influence female teacher's upward mobility in management positions?

The study sought to establish the age of the principals and deputy principals. The results are reported in Figure 4.1

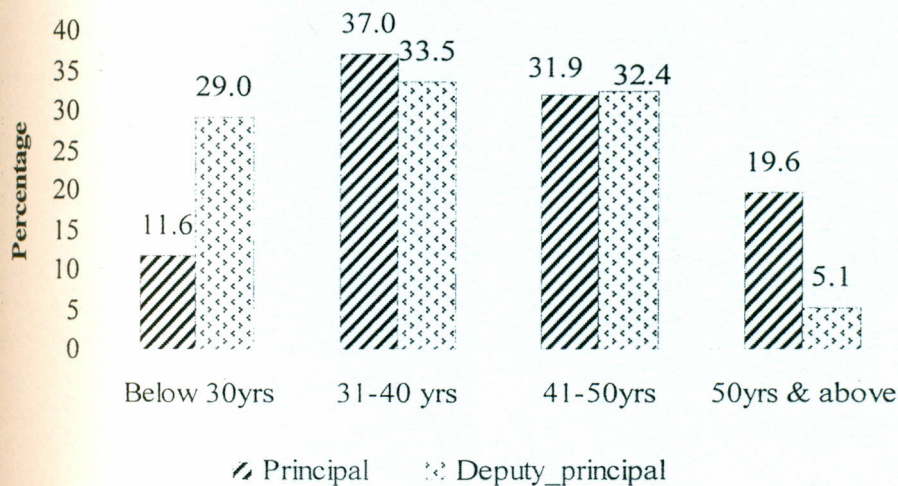


Figure 4.1: Age of the principals and deputy principals

With regard to age, Figure 4.1 reveals that 51(37.0%) of the principals and 59 (33.5%) of the deputy principals were aged between 31 and 40 years while, 44 (31.9%) principals and , 57 (32.4%) deputy principals were aged between 41 and 50 years. Those who were aged more than 50 years constituted 27(19.6%) principals and 9(5.1%) deputy principals respectively. Figure 4.1 also shows that the age blanket that had the highest number of principals and deputy principals was between 31-40 years. Among the principals in this category, there were 23(45.1%) females and 28(54.9% males respectively. This shows that female principals were few in number.

To establish whether the age of principals and deputy principals had any influence on the upward mobility of female teachers to the position of principal, ANOVA was used to compare significance of differences in means between the age of the respondents and the career mobility for female teachers within the organization. This is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: ANOVA on age and career mobility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-value
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers hinders female teachers upward mobility	8.095	3	2.698	1.403	.245
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific hinders female teachers upward mobility	13.269	3	4.423	2.191	.092
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured hinders female teachers from rising to managerial position	12.690	3	4.230	2.189	.092
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged hinders female teachers upward mobility	1.419	3	.473	.268	.849
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualification hinders female teachers from rising to managerial position	3.565	3	1.188	.626	.600
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict hinders female teachers upward mobility	1.435	3	.478	.231	.875

The ANOVA on age and career mobility indicates that all the p-values were above the level of significance (0.05). The p-values were .245, .092, .092, .849, .600, .875 and therefore the study established that there was no statistically significant difference in means between the age of principals and female teachers' upward mobility. This implies that age was not a barrier to career mobility of female teachers.

The study also sought to find out the gender of the principals involved in the study.

This is shown in Figure 4.2.

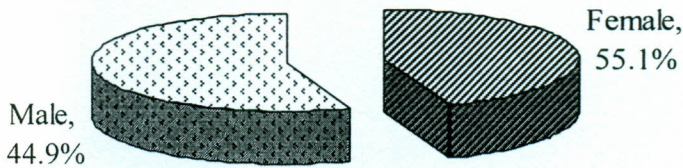


Figure 4.2: Gender of the principals

On the aspect of gender, 76 (55.1%) principals who participated in the study, were females while 62 (44.9%) were males. Though the study was focusing on female principals, it was important to rope in the male principals to capture their perceptions on how organizational barriers affected female teachers' upward mobility in school organizations. To establish the significance of differences in means between gender and upward mobility of female teachers, ANOVA was used. This is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: ANOVA on age and career mobility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-value
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers hinders female teachers upward mobility	.745	1	.745	.382	.538
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific hinders female teachers upward mobility	1.101	1	1.101	.530	.468
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured hinders female teachers upward mobility	1.601	1	1.601	.806	.371
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged hinders female teachers upward mobility	4.066	1	4.066	2.360	.127
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualification hinders female teachers upward mobility	2.105	1	2.105	1.119	.292
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict hinders female teachers upward mobility	.016	1	.016	.008	.930

Table 4.2 shows ANOVA for gender and career mobility of female teachers. The p-values, .538, .468, .371, .127, .292, and .930 were all above the level of significance of 0.05 and therefore the study established that there was no statistically significant difference between gender and career mobility. This indicates that gender of the principals was not a barrier to female teachers' upward mobility. The TSC has provided policy guidelines that have outlined the minimum requirements for a teacher seeking to be considered for promotion. The requirements are: academic and professional qualifications, special merit on work performance and performance in National examinations (TSC, 2005). There is no instance in the policy where gender has been given due recognition.

The study sought to establish the level of education for the principals and deputy principals because level of education is a key criterion used to make decisions on who gets to management positions (TSC, 2005). The principals and deputy principals' level of education is shown in Figure 4.3.

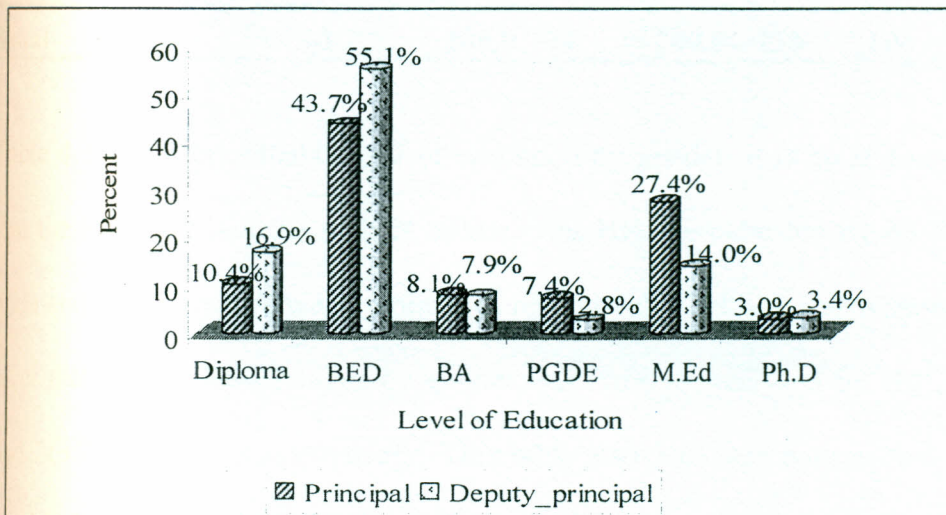


Figure 4.3: Level of Education of the principals and deputy principals

Figure 4.3 shows that, 59 (43.7%) of the principals and 98(55.1%) of deputy principals had B.Ed. degree as their highest level of education. Further the table shows that there were 4, (3.0%) principals who had PhD and 2 (2.8) deputy principals who had PGDE as their highest levels of education.

The researcher sought to establish the level of education by gender to determine which level of education had the highest disparity by gender. The results are shown in Table 4.3

Table 4.3: Principals' level of education by gender

Level of education	Female		Male		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Diploma	8	12.9	6	8.2	14	10.4
BEd	23	43.5	38	43.8	61	43.7
BA/PGDE	4	6.5	7	9.6	11	8.1
BSc/PDGE	4	6.5	6	8.2	10	8.1
MEd/	17	27.4	20	27.4	37	27.4
PhD	2	3.2	2	2.7	4	3.0
Total	61	100.0	74	100.0	135	100

Table 4.3 shows principals' level of education by gender. It is clear from the table that the level that had the highest holders was BEd as indicated by 38 (43.8%) of male and 23(43.5%) of female principals respectively. Table 4.3 also shows that the level that had the least holders by gender was PhD, as indicated by 2(2.7%) males and 2(3.2%) females respectively. This table also indicates pattern that in all the levels of education attainment the male gender was more than the female gender save for the PhD level where the genders were equal.

To establish whether there was any significant relationship between gender of the principals and their level of education, a Chi-Square test was run and the results are captured in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Chi-Square tests between gender and level education

	Value	df	P-value
Pearson Chi-Square	1.283	5	.937
Likelihood Ratio	1.289	5	.936
Linear-by-Linear Association	.127	1	.721
N of Valid Cases	135		

The p-values, 0.937, .936, and .721 were all greater than the level of significance of 0.05, and this implies that there was no statistically significant relationship between gender of the principals and their level of education. The level of education was not a hindrance to upward mobility of female teachers. This however contradicts a view shared by many DEOs who emphasized that acquisition of higher levels of education was an advantage to female teachers who wished to be promoted.

To establish whether the level of education had any influence on female teacher's upward mobility, ANOVA was used to compare the significance of differences in means between the respondents' level of education and career mobility. This is captured in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: ANOVA on level of education and career mobility

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-value
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers upward mobility	17.481	5	3.496	1.849	.108
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific on female teachers upward mobility	8.494	5	1.699	.817	.540
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured hinders female teachers upward mobility	32.515	5	6.503	3.571	.005
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged on female teachers upward mobility	14.425	5	2.885	1.703	.138
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualification on their upward mobility	25.203	5	5.041	2.840	.018
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflicts on female teachers' upward mobility.	11.174	5	2.235	1.106	.360

Table 4.5 shows that the Analysis of variance for all the recruitment practices except one level of education and career mobility had p-values, .108, .540, .138, .018, and .360 which were all greater than the level of significance, 0.05. This indicates that from a principal's perspective, there was no significant difference between the level of education and female teachers' upward mobility. However, the recruitment practice on the intimidating interview panels where the male gender was favoured compared to the female gender had a P-value of .005 which was less than the level of significance of 0.05. This means that there was a significant difference between the level of education and the fact that intimidating interview panels influenced female teachers' upward mobility. This finding confirms Mwebi and Angelik, (2008) who

assert that discriminatory and unethical recruitment practices within organizations deterred many women from applying for leadership positions and female teachers expressed that they encountered problems in all stages of the process of recruitment.

The study sought to establish the distribution of principals from the three counties by gender and the results are captured in Figure 4.4

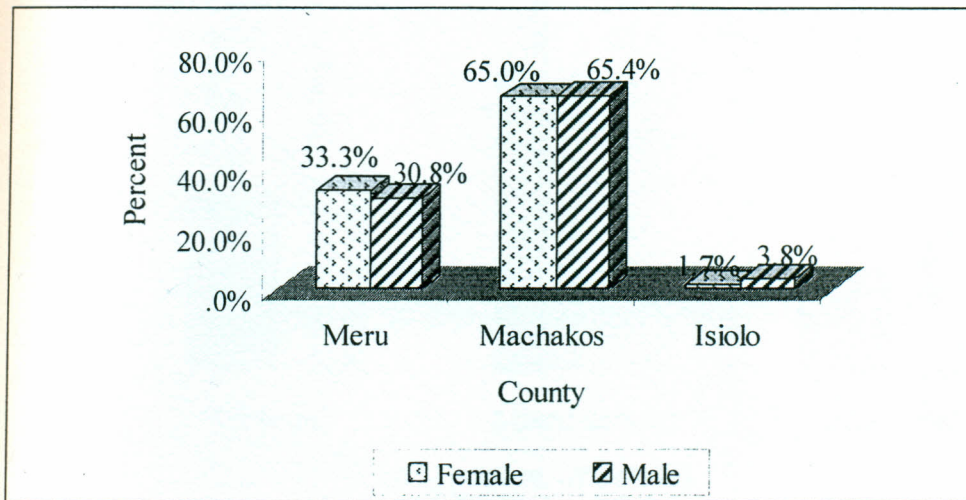


Figure 4.4: Distribution of principal respondents in the counties by gender

Figure 4.4 Shows that there was a near equal distribution of principals by gender in Machakos as shown by a distribution of (65.0%) of females and (65.4%) of males respectively. However Isiolo County had the highest disparity by gender with the male gender being higher than the female gender. It clearly emerged from the interviews that the female principals had unique experiences in terms of upward mobility in the respective counties. In Meru county, majority of the respondents alluded that female principals had to battle it out with the male colleagues who looked down upon them. It was clear that some parts of Meru were still patriarchal and so female principals were still facing opposition. In Machakos county most of the respondents cited unwillingness of the female principals to serve in remote areas

and hence declined promotions. Lastly in Isiolo county most respondents cited insecurity linked to being posted away from the home areas as a major factor which made some female principals to decline promotions in some parts.

The researcher sought to find out the type of schools that were sampled for the study.

This is shown in figure 4.5.

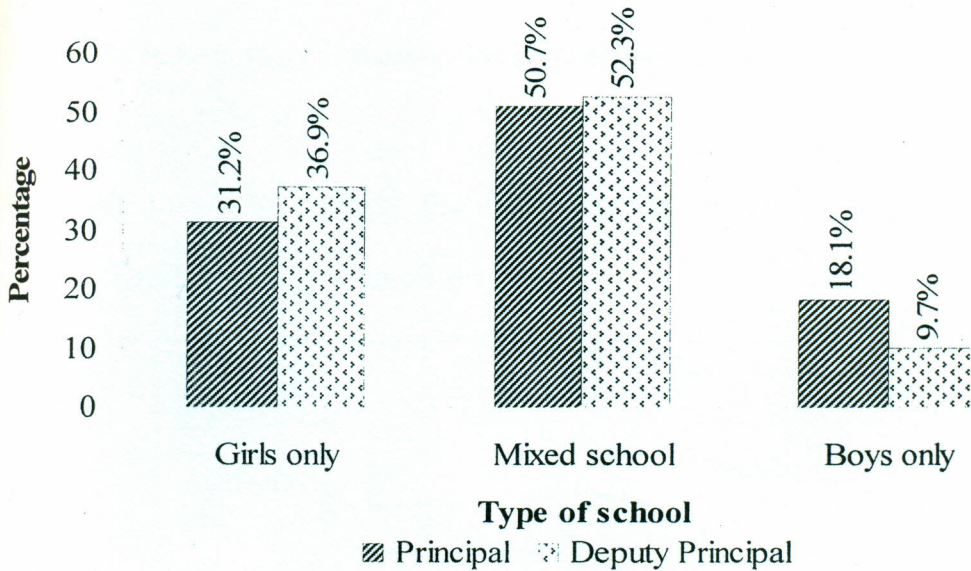


Figure 4.5: Type of School

Most, 70(50.7%) principals and, 92(52.3%) deputy principals who were involved in the study, were from mixed schools compared to 43(31.2%) of principals and 65(36.9%) of deputy principals respectively who were from girls only. There were also mixed schools in the sample and that is why it was critical for the study to establish how these schools embraced female principals who aspired to become heads in those institutions given the policy by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC, 2005) that in a mixed school both gender should be given consideration in the headship of such schools by ensuring that if the head teacher is a male then the deputy principal should be a female. However, the study found out that in some

mixed schools, the female gender was discriminated upon and several District Education Officers observed that the policy was there but what was needed was effective enforcement of the same. TSC (2005,) underscores that while there exists an effective operational policy for promotion of teachers to professional positions, in the Graduate and Non graduate schemes of service; the policy on promotion to headship positions in secondary schools has elicited misunderstandings and conflicts among the stake holders especially where mixed schools are concerned.

The study sought to establish the distribution of principals by gender in mixed schools. This is shown in Figure 4.6

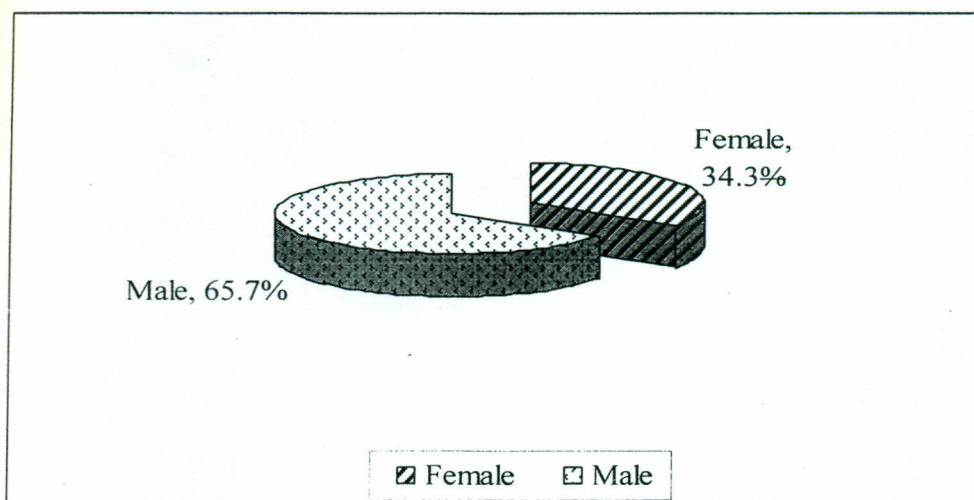


Figure 4.6: Distribution of principal in mixed schools by gender

Figure 4.6 shows that, 46(65.7%) of the principals involved in the study from the mixed schools category were male while only 24(34.3%) were female. This indicates that most mixed schools were headed by males. A similar opinion was expressed by one DEO who reiterated that female principals were few in the mixed schools. The officer cited cultural and society expectations as reason why female principals were rejected in some mixed schools. He said;

I have had an experience in my district where I have posted a female principal to head a mixed school and she was out rightly rejected because the community expected a man and not a woman. In fact I had to stand firm and intervene and of course you expect non-cooperation in such a situation.

This is contrary to the Kenya Constitution of 2010 provision which stipulates that no gender should have more than one third representations in leadership positions. The constitution also says that women and men have right to equal treatment including the right to equal opportunities in political, economic, cultural and social spheres, Constitution of Kenya (2010).

The study also sought to find out the marital status of the respondents. This is captured in Figure 4.7.

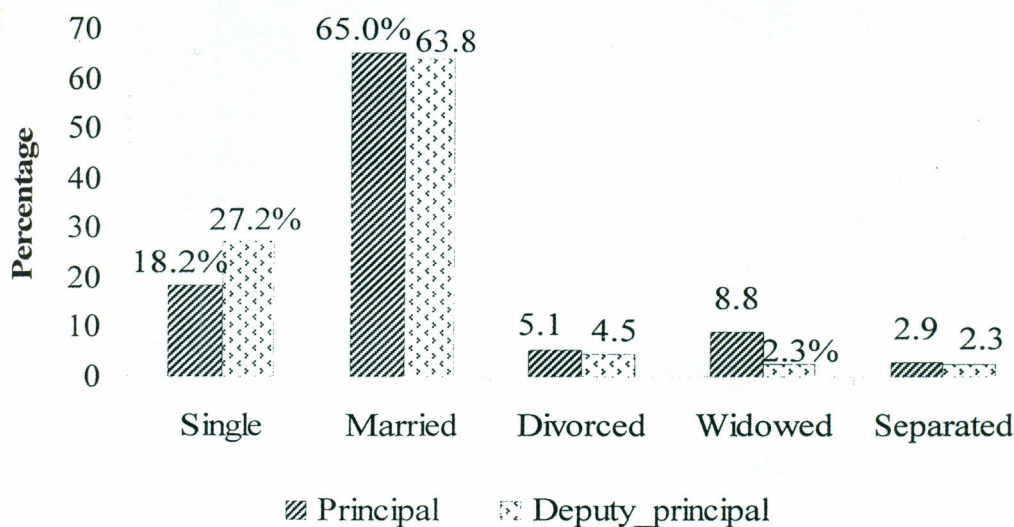


Figure 4.7: Marital status of the principals and deputy principals

Figure 4.7 shows that a vast majority, 89(65%) of the principals and 113(63.8%) deputy principals respectively were married. Among the principals who were married, 38(42.7%) were female while 51(57.3) were males. It was important to

establish the marital status of the principals to establish whether it had any impact on female teacher's upward mobility. The study found out from the interviews that some female teachers turned down promotions if it involved separation from the spouse or family as majority of Quality Assurance and Standard Officers reiterated that female teachers, especially those who were married, turned down promotions whenever they were expected to relocate despite being recommended for the same.

The study sought to find out the religious orientation of principals and deputy principals. The results are illustrated in Figure 4.8.

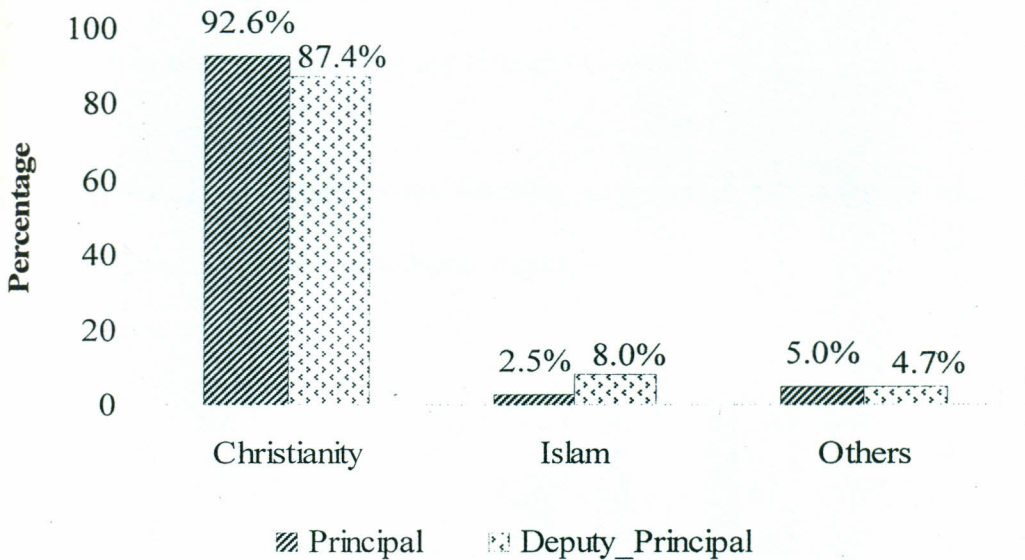


Figure 4.8: Religious orientation of Principals and Deputy Principals

The study findings shows that majority, 112(92.6%) of the principals and 152 (87.4%) deputy principals were Christians. The table further shows that 3(2.5% of the principals and 7(8.0%) of the deputy principals respectively embraced Islam. The study sought to establish whether the Islamic dominated county of Isiolo gave women an opportunity to head the schools. Despite the fact that the TSC does not consider religion as a pre-requisite for promotion, an Article by Islamic Research

Foundation, International on female leadership in Islam found out that from an Islamic perspective, men are in charge of women and men are a degree above the women, (Sarah, 2012). However, after analysing the interviews, it was established that Islam used to be a barrier to female upward mobility but the notion was changing as observed by one female District Education Officer who said she was passionate about supporting other female teachers adding that, "What defines a leader today is performance. Gender and religion are none issues". This claim triggers a deeper reflection because generally gender and religion are obstacles that have traditionally prohibited women from accessing leadership positions and have been used to subject them to historical injustices but from the sentiment expressed by the DEO, it is apparent that there is a change of attitude.

The study sought to establish the teaching experiences of principals and deputy principals. The results are illustrated in Figure 4.9

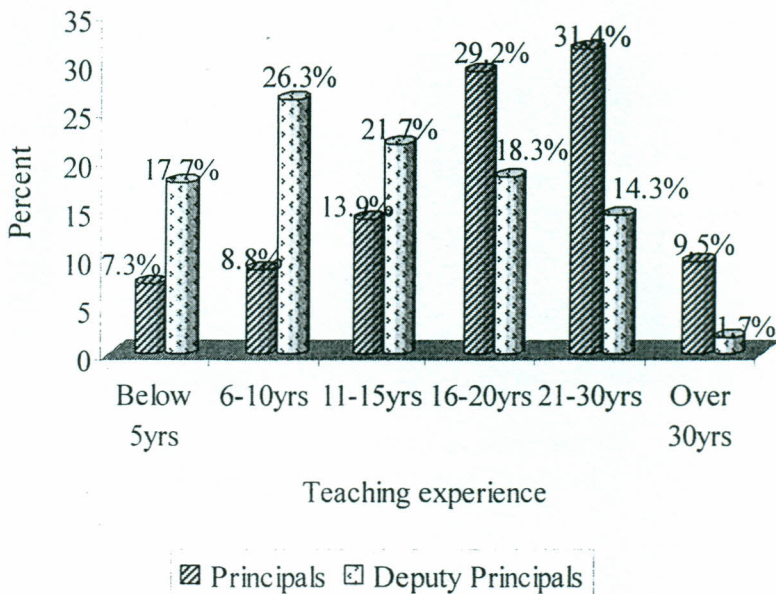


Figure 4.9: Principals' and Deputy Principals' Teaching Experience

When asked about their teaching experience, 43(1.4%) of the principals said that they had taught for a period of 21 to 30 years, 40 (29.2%) for 16 to 20 years with 10 (7.3%) saying that they had taught for less than 5 years. Similarly majority 46(26.3% of the deputy principals reported that they had taught for 6 to 10 years while, 38 (21.7%) had taught for 11-15 years. The study sought to establish the teaching experience of the respondents since upward mobility is usually pegged on experience amongst other factors. This aspect was refuted by a simple majority of DEOs and DQASOs who reiterated that experience was no longer a pre-requisite for upward mobility as what was considered more often than not was performance and adherence to policy.

The study also sought to find out the length of service as principals and deputy principals in their respective schools. This is shown in figure 4.10

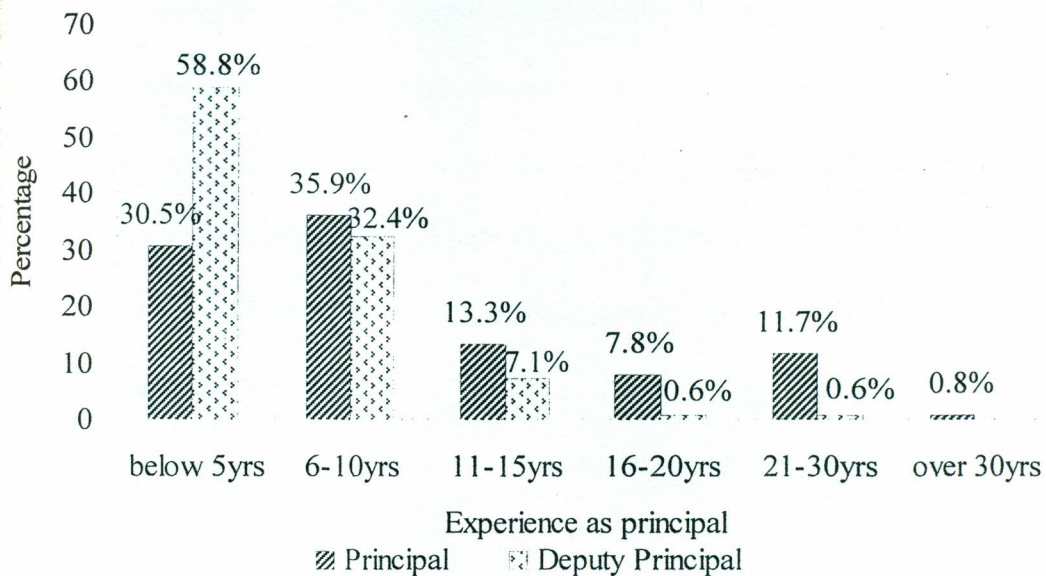


Figure 4.10: Length of service as principals and deputy principals

From Figure 4.10, it is apparent that 46(35.9%) of the principals served in their schools for a period of 6 to 10 years while 100 (58.8%) deputy principals respectively reported that they had been serving in their current stations for less than 5 years. The fact that majority of the deputy principals never stayed long in their school explained why female teachers declined promotions and opted to stay in the classrooms. This was confirmed by a simple majority of District Educational Officers who affirmed that female teachers were afraid of promotions because in many instances they were pegged with transfers. A similar sentiment was expressed by a majority of the DQASOs who were also emphatic that female teachers usually declined promotions when they were tied to transfers.

4.3 Organizational barriers that secondary school female teachers encounter as they ascend to Principalship

The second objective of the study was to identify the organizational barriers that secondary school female teachers encounter as they ascend to principalship. To realize this objective, the study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do organizational recruitment practices influence secondary school female teachers upward mobility to senior management positions in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties?
2. How do organizational cultural practices influence upward mobility of secondary school female teacher's?
3. How does mentoring, networking and tokenism influence female mobility to management position?

4.3.1 Organizational recruitment practices that influence upward mobility of secondary school female teachers

The study sought to establish how the various organizational practices influenced secondary school female teacher's upward mobility as far as accessing principalship was concerned. Consequently the researcher sought to establish from the deputy principals why they were not seeking promotions to headship. The deputy principals were required to respond to several items related to organizational practices to establish whether they influenced upward mobility of female teachers. They were required to indicate their responses on a 6 point likert scale with (1- least significant; 2-Not significant;3-insignificant;4-Neutral;5-Significant;6 -most significant). The deputy principal's responses are reported in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Why Deputy Principals never sought promotion to position of Principal

Reasons deputy principals never sought promotion	n	Mean	1		2		3		4		5		6	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Disillusioned with the promotion process	74	3.5	20	27.0	15	20.3	5	6.8	6	8.1	2	2.7	26	35.1
Satisfaction with deputy principal position	72	3.9	10	13.9	9	12.5	10	13.9	9	12.5	16	22.2	18	25.0
Lack of opportunities to act as principals for relevant experience	77	3.4	14	18.2	10	13.0	19	24.7	14	18.2	9	11.7	9	14.3
Failure to know what to do to qualify for the post of principal	73	3.7	2	2.7	10	13.7	19	26.0	28	38.4	8	11.0	6	8.2
Failure to be informed in time when the vacancy arises	76	3.5	8	10.5	22	28.9	11	14.5	7	9.2	15	19.7	13	17.1
Failure to know how to canvass for the position	74	3.8	16	21.6	7	9.5	7	9.5	8	10.8	16	21.6	20	27.0

1 –least significant

3-insignificant

5-significant

2-not significant

4-neutral

6-most significant

As shown in Table 4.6, deputy principals expressed that the organizational practices hindered the upward mobility of female teacher's as shown by an average mean of above 3.5 in all the recruitment practices. Notably the organizational practice that was ranked highest was the fact that deputy principals were satisfied with their position as shown by 32 (47.2%) of the deputy principals who ranked it significant and most significant combined. This was further indicated by mean of 3.9 which was close to 6 that indicated the most significant reason that hindered upward mobility of female teachers.

These findings concur with, Tlaiss, (2010) that a combination of several barriers rather than a single barrier interacted effectively to create impediments which deterred female teachers from accessing senior management positions. This is also consistent with work done by Li and Leun (2001) that observed that there were several barriers that prevented females from rising to higher positions of management. The findings also confirms Wallace's(2004) study which notes that the causes of under-representation of women in educational management are not uniform across cultures and educational systems but are products of complex interaction between cultural understanding, gender roles, national policies and organizational structures which all interacted to lock women out of management positions.

The study also sought to find out how long the deputy principals had served in their positions in their respective schools. The findings are shown in Figure 4.11.

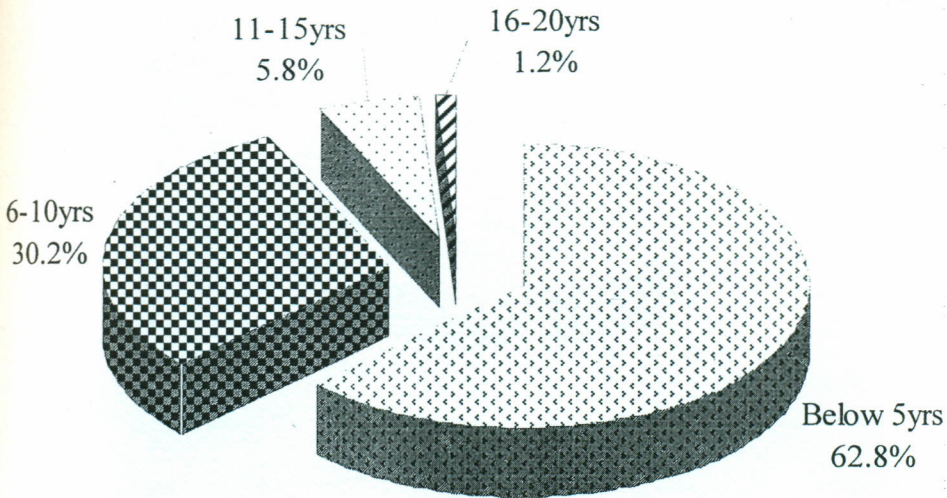


Figure 4.11: Years of service as a Deputy Principal

Majority, 108 (62.8%) of the deputy principals had served in their current position for a period of less than five years in contrast to (1.2%) of the deputy principals who had been in their school for a period of between (16-20) years. This implies that there was frequent mobility among them contrasting a sentiment expressed by a majority of DEOs who said that some deputy principals' registered outstanding performance in their respective schools and that made them potential candidates for promotions but in many instances where female deputy principals were promoted, most of them declined if there was relocation involved.

The study sought to establish whether deputy principals aspired to become principals. Their aspirations are shown in Figure 4.12.

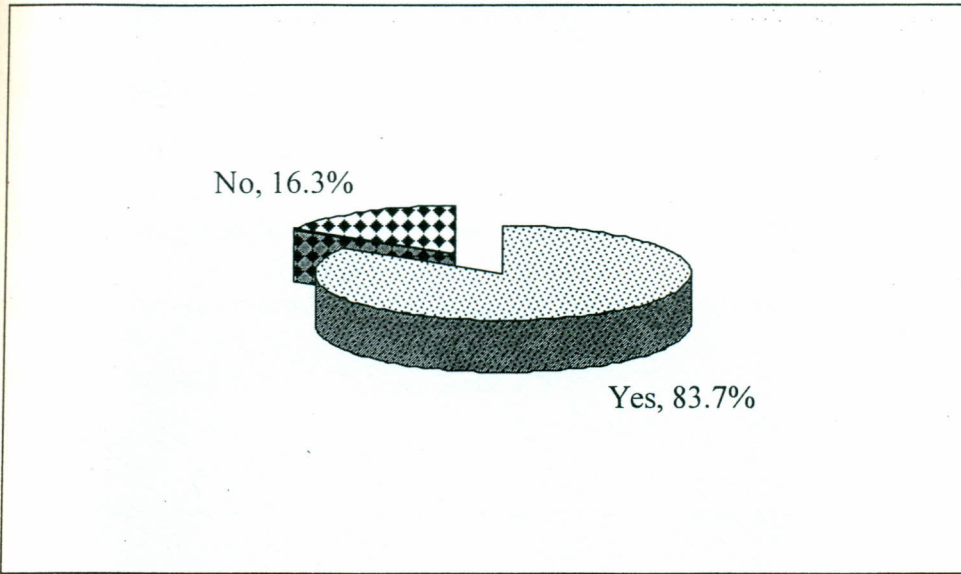


Figure 4.12: Deputy Principal's aspirations to become a principal

As shown in Figure 4.12, majority 139 (83.7%) of the deputy principals aspired to become school principals. This showed their willingness to ascend to the next higher management position.

The deputy principals were further asked to give reasons why they aspired to become principals. Five major reasons were identified. Firstly, deputy principals indicated that they aspired to become principals so that they would offer their services to the school community. This is because most of them worked closely with the principals and gained some knowledge on school management. Secondly, deputy principals aspired to become principals so that they would be able to actualize their careers and facilitate their career progression. Thirdly, deputy principals aspired to become principals because they wanted to exercise their power and authority since leadership was a source of prestige. Fourthly, deputy principals also felt that they had acquired the needed competences and hence deserved to lead others. Finally, deputy principals

expressed the need for them to exercise the leadership skills which they had acquired while still serving as deputy principals.

The study sought to find out from the deputy principals the number of times they had applied to be considered for promotion to the position of principal. The results are shown in Figure 4.13

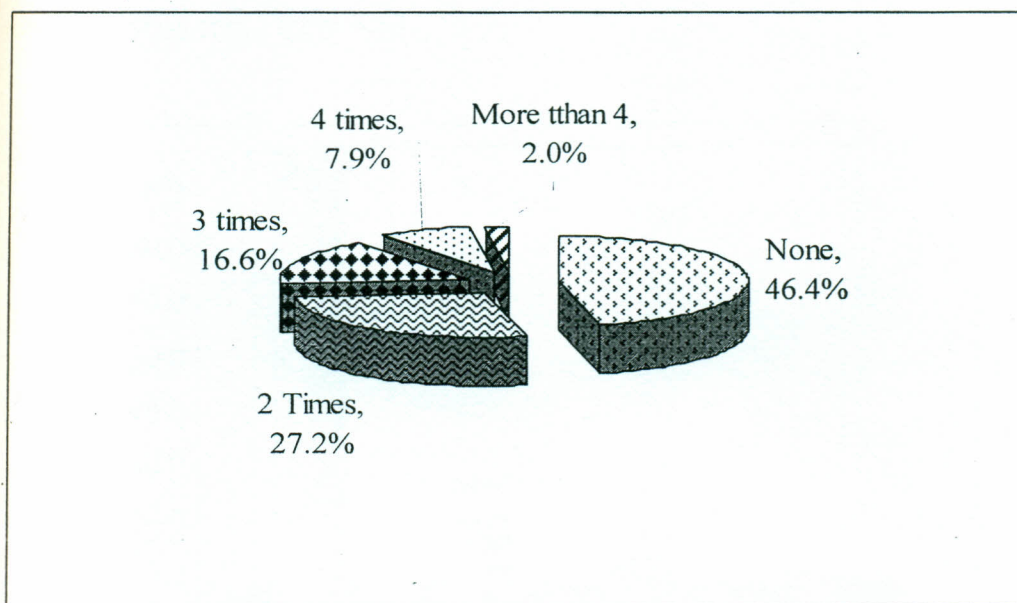


Figure 4.13: Number of applications for promotion by Deputy Principals

Figure 4.13 shows that majority, 70 (46.4%) of the deputy principals had never applied for a position of a school principal while 41 (27.2%) had applied twice. This lack of interest is ironical since the study anticipated that every deputy principal would like to be promoted to the position of principal. One of the District Education Officers commenting on the issue reiterated that,

Sometimes you have to pick deputy principals to promote them to become principals even when they have not applied owing to their outstanding performances and also in the event where their bosses do not want to recommend them for promotions.

The observation by the District Education Officer was further supported by one District Quality Assurance Officer who noted that most deputy principals never applied for promotions and many times they recommended them for promotions while still in the classroom owing to their good performance.

The study also sought to find out how many times the deputy principals who had applied for promotion had been short listed for the position of the principal. The results are shown in Figure 4.14.

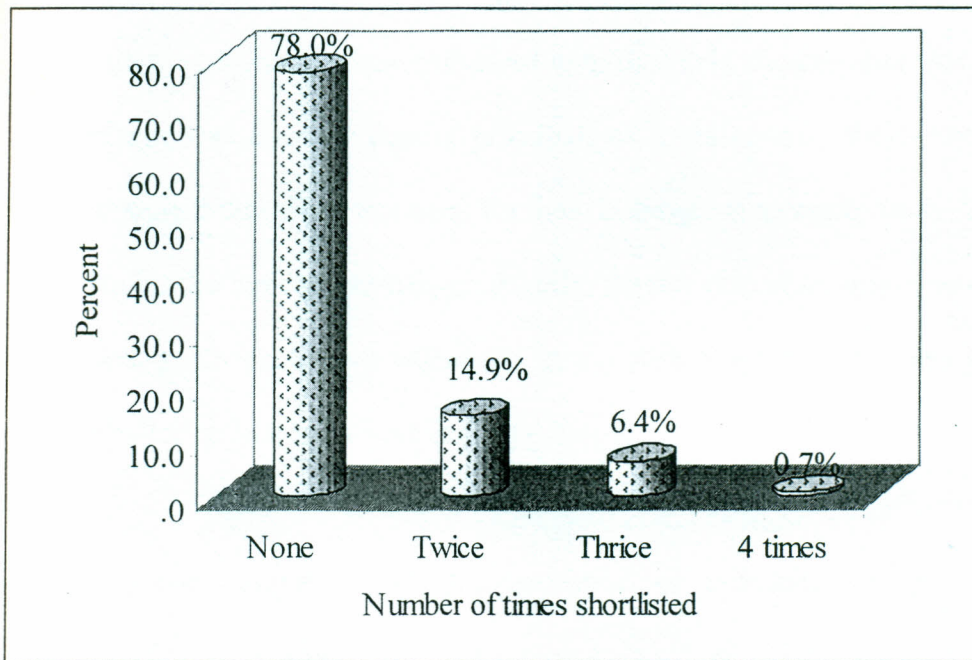


Figure 4.14: Number of times Deputy Principals were short listed for Principal's position

Among those who had ever applied to be considered for the position of principal, 110 (78%) had never been short listed while 21(14.9%) had been short listed twice. There were, 9 (6.4%) and 1 (0.7%) of the deputy principals who had applied for three and four times respectively without being short listed as. That a majority of the deputy principals were never short listed is critical as it may dampen their enthusiasm for the

whole process and this perhaps explains why a majority of the deputy principals did not bother to apply for the positions all together as shown in Figure 4.14.

The deputy principals were asked to give reasons as to why they were never short listed. Five reasons were identified. Firstly, corruption was cited as a major obstacle which made the deputy principals not to be short listed. Secondly, failure to meet the qualifications was also cited by the respondents as the reason why they were not short listed for the position. Thirdly, discrimination emerged from the respondents as an obstacle since most deputy principals expressed their dissatisfaction with the process citing unfairness when compared with the male counterparts. Fourthly, lack of experience was cited by deputy principals as a reason why they were not short listed but argued that there was need for them to be given an opportunity so that they could acquire the needed experience. Finally, gender discrimination where the male gender was given preference especially in the mixed schools was also given as a reason why the respondents were not short listed.

The study also sought to get the perception of principals on the aspects of recruitment practices which could deter secondary school female teachers from rising to position of principal. The respondents were required to rate each recruitment practice on a 5 point likert rating scale as follows: (1- **Strongly Agree**, 2- **Agree**, 3- **Not Sure**, 4- **Disagree**, and 5- **strongly Disagree**). The principals' perceptions are shown in Table 4.7

Table 4.7: Principals Opinion on female teachers upward mobility

Recruitment Practices	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers	138	2.57	40	29.0	41	29.7	11	8.0	31	22.5	15	10.9
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific	138	2.8	31	22.5	42	30.4	11	8.0	31	22.5	23	16.7
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured	137	2.64	39	28.5	34	24.8	20	14.6	26	19.0	18	13.1
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged	138	2.67	30	21.7	44	31.9	20	14.5	29	21.0	15	10.9
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualification	138	2.72	31	22.7	43	31.2	16	11.6	30	21.7	18	13.0
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict	138	2.39	52	37.7	43	24.6	15	10.9	20	14.5	17	12.3
SA-Strongly agree	NS-Not Sure			SD-Strongly Disagree								
A-Agree	D-Disagree											

As reported in Table 4.7 the principals were in agreement that all the six listed recruitment and selection practices hindered female teachers from rising to management positions as indicated by an average mean of less than (3.0). The interpretation of the mean was based on: any mean less than 3.0 means that respondents positively agreed, 3.0 means neutral and above 3.0 means that the respondents disagreed with the recruitment practices given as barriers that hindered upward mobility of female teachers. Table 4.7 also shows that, 81(58.7%) principals, a combination of those who strongly agreed and agreed, positively felt that a biased recruitment process against the female teachers hindered them from rising to management positions. This however differs with the views expressed by a majority of DEOs and DQASOs who were emphatic that the selection and recruitment was not gender specific but qualification specific. In fact one DEO said,

The process of recruitment and selection is qualification specific and not gender specific and we are expected to follow the policy to the latter.

Further, 76(62.3%) of the principals, similarly a combination of those who strongly agreed and agreed, positively supported the idea that the interviews conducted far away from the schools where the female teachers were unable to attend due to work and family conflict succeeded in locking the female teachers out of the management positions.

The study also sought to seek deputy principals' opinion on how the recruitment practices influenced upward mobility of female teachers. This is shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Deputy Principals Opinion on Recruitment Practices on female teachers' upward mobility

Recruitment Practices	N	Mean	n	SA	A	NS	D	SD				
				%	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers	172	2.0	76	44.2	56	32.6	12	7.0	17	9.9	11	6.4
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific	173	2.3	57	32.9	59	34.1	25	14.5	21	12.1	11	6.4
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured	172	2.5	59	34.3	42	22.4	22	12.8	32	18.6	17	9.9
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged	172	2.3	52	30.6	59	34.7	26	15.3	22	12.9	11	6.5
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualification	173	2.3	58	33.5	57	32.9	23	13.3	25	14.5	10	5.8
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict	172	2.7	52	30.2	38	22.1	22	12.8	29	16.9	31	18.0

SA-Strongly agree
A-Agree

NS-Not Sure
D-Disagree

SD-Strongly Disagree

As reported in Table 4.8, deputy principals were in agreement that all six listed recruitment practices hindered female teachers from rising to management positions. This was evidenced by the fact that a mean of less than 3.0 was realized in all recruitment practices that the deputy principals responded to and hence confirmed them as barriers that hindered the upward mobility of female teachers. This is based on the fact that a mean of less than 3.0 on the scale indicates that the respondents positively agreed that the biased recruitment practices were indeed obstacles to upward mobility of female teachers. Table 4.8 shows that the biased recruitment practice that was rated by majority deputy principals as a hindrance to female teachers' upward mobility was biased recruitment processes. That is, 132(76.6%) of the deputy principals, a combination of those who strongly agreed and agreed. This was indicated by a mean of 2.0 for deputy principals.

The findings of this study on recruitment practices that hinder upward mobility of female teachers are consistent with studies by Acker, (1994), Tlaiss, (2010) who note that women have been routinely discriminated against when it came to promotions and that the higher the position in the organizational structure the less likely was a woman considered regardless of the qualifications. This also agrees with Eagly and Carli (2007) that there was obvious biasness' towards the female gender which continued to be reflected in organizational practices through discriminatory managerial recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities, performance, evaluation procedures and promotions. A similar study by Jamal (2005) supports the fact that there are recruitment practices within organizations that affect the female teacher's upward mobility as the study observed that there were discriminatory recruitment practices against the female gender that

were reflected in the recruitment process, professional development and promotions and these were detrimental to upward progression of the female teachers.

The findings on recruitment practices as hindrance to female teachers upward mobility are also consistent with El-Ghannam's (2002) study which revealed that majority of female members of organizations perceived that when it came to promotions and professional development, women were being discriminated against which automatically disadvantaged them whenever competing with the male counterparts. Similarly in a study recorded in Princeton weekly bulletin, Celiton,(2001) notes that there existed sexist based hiring procedures which automatically disadvantaged the female gender in the recruitment to headship as compared with the male colleagues in Latin America. Furthermore, the bulletin also highlighted that hiring discrimination complaints were common and these ranged from gender, age and background and these are grounds upon which women were commonly discriminated upon. This is consistent with Whitaker and Lane, (1990) who points out that information on equality for opportunities in Educational administration revealed that gender more than age, experience; background and competencies determined the role an individual was assigned in educational administration

The study sought to establish the categories of schools that were involved in the study. The results are presented in Figure 4.15

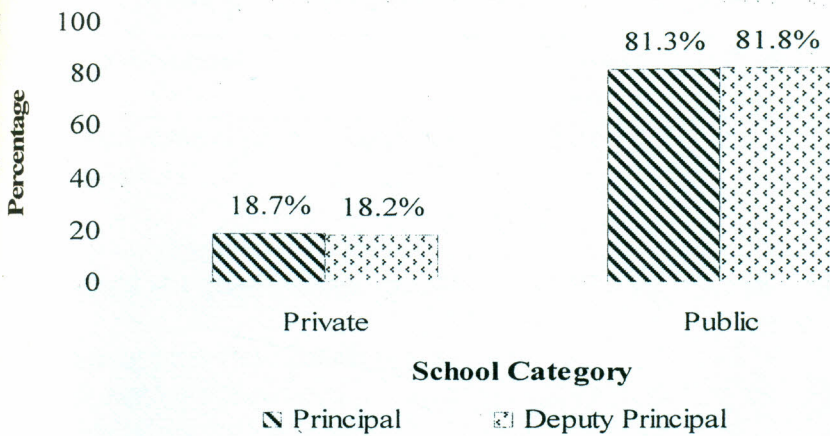


Figure 4.15: School category

Figure 4.15 shows that, 109(81.3%) of principals and 144(81.8%) of the deputy principals were drawn from public schools. Respondents were also drawn from private schools as indicated by 25(18.7%) of principals and 32(18.2%) of deputy principals respectively. As shown in Figure 4.15, the study focused on both public and private schools as it was important to establish if there was a difference between the two types of schools in terms of organizational barriers influencing female secondary schools teachers' upward mobility.

To ascertain that, the study compared managerial recruitment practices as barriers that hindered female secondary school teachers from rising to principalship between public and private schools. To achieve this, the following null hypothesis was tested: **There is no significant difference between female principals of public and private schools in terms of recruitment practices as an organizational barrier female teachers encounter as they ascend to principalship.** This is shown in Table

Table 4.9: Managerial recruitment practices by school category

Category of school	Private		Public		Total	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers	2.04	25	2.72	109	2.59	134
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific	2.32	25	2.96	109	2.84	134
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured	2.17	24	2.77	109	2.66	133
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged	2.24	25	2.81	109	2.7	134
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualifications	2.08	25	2.9	109	2.75	134
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict	2.04	25	2.5	109	2.42	134

Table 4.9 shows the means of perceptions of principals from public and private schools towards managerial recruitment practices that hinder upward mobility of female teachers. A mean of 3.0 indicates a neutral perception, less than 3.0 a positive perception that the recruitment practices hinders upward mobility of female teachers while a mean that is greater than 3.0 indicates a negative perception towards the same. The table shows that all of the aspects of managerial recruitment practices had a mean of less than three which means that all of them played a critical role in hindering upward mobility of the female teachers.

To establish whether the managerial recruitment practices had any influence on upward mobility of female teachers, Independent Samples Test was carried out to show the differences in means between managerial recruitment practices and the category of school. This is shown in table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Independent Samples Test on Managerial recruitment practices and school category

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	df	P-value
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers upward mobility	-2.227	132	.028
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualification specific on female teachers upward mobility	-2.039	132	.043
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favoured on female teachers upward mobility	-1.929	131	.056
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged on female teachers' upward mobility.	-1.957	132	.052
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualification on female teachers' upward mobility.	-2.776	132	.006
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict on female teachers' upward mobility.	-1.464	132	.145

Table 4.10 shows Independent Samples Test on the various managerial recruitment practices and the school categories (public versus private) that influenced upward mobility of female teachers. Specifically, the managerial recruitment practices yielded p-values of 0.028, 0.043, 0.056, 0.052, 0.006, .145 which were all greater than the level of significance of 0.05. This means the school category was not a hindering obstacle to upward mobility of female teachers as far as managerial recruitment practices were concerned.

The principals were also required to rank in order of merit some organizational practices and indicate how they hindered qualified secondary school female teachers from rising to senior management positions in secondary schools. The respondents were required to rank organizational practices on a ranking scale with (1 as most important reason, 2 neutral and 3 as least important reasons). The responses are shown in Table 4.11:

Table 4.11: Principals ranking of Recruitment processes on female teachers upward mobility

Recruitment processes	Most Important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Total disregard of the recruitment criteria	62	49.6	25	20.0	38	30.4
Recruitment to headship based on gender and not qualification	35	30.7	35	30.7	44	38.6
Intimidating recruitment panel against the female gender	41	35.3	29	25.0	46	39.7

Table 4.11 shows that most 62(49.6%) principals ranked highest the total disregard of the recruitment criteria, as the most important reason that hindered qualified female teachers from rising to management positions in secondary schools. On the other hand, 46(39.7%) ,of the principals ranked least the fact that intimidating recruitment panels against the female gender was an obstacle that hindered the female teachers upward progression.

The high ranking by principals that the total disregard of the selection criteria played a critical role in locking female teachers out of management positions agrees with an ILO report (ILO 2004) which notes that in the process of recruitment, qualified women tend to be placed in jobs that have a lower value in terms of skill requirement and remuneration within secondary schools. This was further supported by Chiliwniak, (1997) who notes that one of the reasons why so few women are hired in the educational management positions was due to the gender gap which represented a barrier to potential institutional improvements. This confirmed an earlier assertion by Getskow (1990) who notes that gender remained a major obstacle to women seeking leadership positions. Indeed, Kabaji, (2007) notes gender discrimination to be unfair because women comprise more than 50% of the world's population hence their lack of involvement disadvantaged the country from a variety of skills which are significant.

The study also sought to establish whether lack of clarity of policy guidelines on recruitment processes hindered female teachers from ascending to the position of principal. Principals were asked to rank the specific weaknesses on recruitment policy on a scale of 1 to 3 (1 as most important reason, 2 neutral and 3 as least important reasons).

Their responses are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Weaknesses of recruitment policy on recruitment process

Recruitment process	Most Important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
No specific times when advertisements for principals are done	48	40.7	25	21.2	45	38.1
Interferences with the recruitment process	42	35.6	36	30.5	40	33.9
No clear policy direction on how female principals will be recruited	31	27.2	28	24.6	55	48.2

Table 4.12, shows that, 48(40.7%) principals felt that lack of specific times when advertisements for principals were done, was the most important reason that hindered principals from rising to management position in secondary schools. Contrastingly, lack of clear policy direction on how female principals were to be recruited was the least important reason that hindered female teachers from rising to the management position in secondary schools as indicated by 55(48.2%) of the principals.

This concurs with a vast majority of DEOs and DQASOs who observed that the policy was clear on how appointment to headship was done in single sex schools and mixed schools. This means that most respondents were in agreement that it was not explicit when interviews and advertisements were done and most of them relied on canvassing which was a disadvantage to female principals. On whether interferences with the recruitment process affected female principals from rising to managerial positions, 36(35.6%) answered in the affirmative. The interferences in the process of recruitment disagrees with the Gender Policy in Education report in Kenya (2007)

which observed that the process of recruitment to various management positions must be characterized by equity and fairness for both genders. The finding also disagrees with a report from the Secondary School Heads Association Manual (2012) which recommended that deliberate mechanisms have to be instituted to support female teachers who aspired to become principals now that the policy was clear on who heads a particular school.

The study sought to establish whether female teachers were discriminated upon whenever seeking principalship. Principals were required to rank discriminatory practices on a scale of 1 to 3 (**1 as most important reason, 2 neutral and 3 as least important reason**). The responses are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Discriminatory practices against female teachers

Discriminatory Practices	Most Important		Neutral		Least important	
	1		2		3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Stereotype ideas about women inability to ascend to headship	52	44.8	30	25.9	34	29.3
Male dominance in most institutions	32	27.1	46	39.0	40	33.9
Female teachers lacked information on available vacancies	39	33.9	16	13.9	60	52.2

Table 4.13 shows that, stereotyped ideas about women inability to ascend to headship was ranked as the most important reason that hindered female teachers from rising to senior management positions as shown by 52(44.8%)of the respondents. Table 4.17 further shows that slightly a higher majority 60 (52.2%)

ranked the fact that the female teachers in secondary schools lacked information on available vacancies as the least important reason that hindered them from rising to management position. The presence of male dominance in most institutions as an obstacle that affected female teacher's upward mobility was ranked neutral by the respondents at a percentage of 46 (39.0%).

A similar opinion was expressed by Quality and Assurance and Standard Officers who reiterated that male dominance was significantly reducing in school organizations and what was given due consideration was performance. This differs with a sentiment expressed by one of the DEOs, who said,

Women suffer stereotypes and prejudices compared to men when it comes to leadership and in some parts it does not matter if they are qualified or not. They are simply women who must serve men as it is the norm.

The above findings agree with Neidhat and Carlin (2003) who affirm that women have been under-represented in management positions due to organizational barriers stemming from lack of socializing of males to accept female as leaders and stereotyping. It also concurs with Olojede's (2004) study, which established that access to women's leadership is constrained by gender roles of women who are unable to balance work and family responsibilities. This also confirms a similar work by Oakley, (2007) which observed that stereotypes may stall women's leadership and development and organizations need good and strong leaders for the development of their organizations but when it comes to women as leaders then gender stereotypes lead these organizations to underestimate the competencies of females who are capable of doing as well as the males. The study's finding on male dominance in institutions being a prevalent factor in locking women out of leadership positions agrees with Berthoin and Izrael (2003) that highlighted that the single most important

hurdle for women in management is the persistent stereotypes that associate management with being a male dominated activity. It further agrees with Coleman, (2003) whose work reported that the education sector is numerically dominated by women but managers are predominantly males. Consequently, the finding also confirms Kariuki's study (2007) which observed that leadership terrain in Kenya has been male dominated that appears to be more pronounced in the educational sector where there are remarkably low numbers of women principals in the highest jobs given on promotion basis. The issue of discrimination has been cited by Tlaiss, (2010) as one of the clear explanations to under-representation where it was noted that there was sluggishness in the progress of women into senior management positions attributed to discrimination at higher levels of organization where more power was exercised.

The study sought to establish whether female teachers were affected by un-supportive work and family environments when seeking management positions. To achieve this, the respondents were required to rank the practices given on a scale of 1 to 3 (1 being most important, 2 being neutral and 3 being least important).

The responses are as captured in Table 4.14.

Table: 4.14: Un-supportive work and family environment

Work and family environment	Most Important		Neutral		Least important	
	1		2		3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Inflexible work schedules	37	32.7	40	35.4	36	31.9
Female principals unable to balance family and office responsibilities	37	30.1	42	34.1	44	35.8
Structuring of public offices as male places	59	33.9	18	15.7	58	50.4

Majority, 59(33.9%) of the principals ranked structuring of public offices as male places as the most important reason that hindered qualified women from rising to management position in secondary schools. Inability of female principals to balance family and office responsibilities was also ranked as the most important reason that hindered their upward mobility by 37(30.1%) of the principals. Inflexible working schedule was ranked most important by 37 (32.7%) of the respondent. The fact that female teachers were unable to balance work and family and hence affecting their upward mobility was supported by a majority of DEOS and DQASOs who observed that most female teachers declined promotions because they were not able to balance work and family responsibilities. Indeed one of them emphatically said, "Give a lady teacher a choice between a promotion far from home and a family and she will obviously choose a family and forego the promotion." This sentiment was confirmed in one of the local daily news papers in Kenya where a female teacher wrote to the TSC and asked to be relieved of her duties as principal and cited domestic responsibilities as the key obstacles that impeded her career progression. The principal further cited threat and intimidation from her husband who was categorical that she relinquishes the position.

The fact that majority of the respondents ranked highly structuring of public offices as male places confirmed a study conducted by a Census Bureau, (2000) in the USA, which revealed that the principalship was the most male dominated executive position of any profession. Inability of female principals to balance family and office responsibilities is in line with the fact that works and family conflict is a major source of concern for families and school organizations as women are unable to balance the roles (Akafo and Amayo, 2006). This also agrees with Limerick,

(2001) who observed that married women shoulder more of family chores than their male partners do and their disproportionate share of house work increases the difficulty of women pursuing careers in school leadership. The inability of female teachers to balance office and domestic responsibilities also concur with UNESCO (2011) documentation which highlights that one of the reasons for low women representation as being unable to balance management work with domestic responsibilities.

The study sought to establish from the principals three most important courses which they had attended in the last five years to determine whether the additional training boosted their chances of being promoted to the position of principal. Majority of the principals alluded to the fact that they attended a course on school management as it was directly beneficial to them as school managers. Another group of principals attested to the fact they attained a Master of Education degree which gave them a competitive edge during promotions with an almost similar number saying that they had attended an induction course for principals.

Table 4.15 indicates the number of principals who attended the professional courses and when they attended them.

Table 4.15: Period range of Principals who undertook professional courses

Year attended	n	%
1980-1990	2	1.0
1991-2000	6	3.0
2001-2010	56	28.4
2011 and beyond	133	67.5
Total	197	100.0%

The study revealed that majority, 133 (67.5%) of the principals had attended a professional course after 2011 in line with the policy provision that all school principals need to undertake professional courses to beef up their skills. The government through the Ministry of Education started a Diploma Programme in Education Management which was anticipated to equip school managers with the much needed skills to manage the schools. This is supported by a notion that was emphatically expressed by most DEOs and DQASOs that additional level of training was an advantage for teachers who desired promotion as it gave them confidence and hence a competitive edge over their peers.

The study sought to find out the providers of the professional courses with a great majority stating that they got the training from Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI). This is the capacity building organ for the Ministry of Education that offers structured training for all school managers. The Ministry of Education (MOE) and the universities were also cited as providers for the courses undertaken by the principals. The Ministry of Education from time to time organises workshops and training workshops for teachers at all levels and that boosts their chances of promotions.

The study also sought to find out the benefits accrued from the management courses attended and it was clear from a simple majority of the principals that the courses sharpened their management skills and hence enabled them to be better administrators in their respective schools. Secondly, the courses attended enabled them to have improved school management techniques. Finally, the courses attended

enabled them to acquire additional administrative knowledge which also added value to their management techniques.

The value of the professional courses on management concurs with Mathipa's (2001) study, which highlights that in-servicing and capacity building played significant roles in equipping managers with relevant skills which enabled them to perform their managerial responsibilities to their satisfaction.

The study sought deputy principals' views of challenges of organizational training and how they affected the upward mobility of female teachers. The deputy principals were expected to rate their responses on a five point likert scale (**Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree and Strongly Disagree**). The deputy principals responses are shown in Table 4.16.

Table: 4.16: Deputy Principal's opinion on challenges of Organizational training

Challenges of Organizational training Practices	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Lack of training opportunities for females teachers as compared with the male counter parts	160	2.88	40	5.2	37	23.3	15	9.4	32	20.1	35	22.0
Stagnated career mobility occasioned by no training opportunities within the organization	159	2.17	56	35.4	58	36.7	13	8.2	20	12.7	11	7.0
No clear career progression routes for deputy principals for females as compared with the male counter part	158	2.53	45	28.5	43	27.2	20	12.7	37	23.4	13	8.2
Few opportunities for female teachers promotion as deputy principals due to lack of adequate training	159	2.52	45	28.7	45	28.7	18	11.5	32	20.4	17	10.8
Lack of clear policy to guide school organizational training	157	2.09	69	43.9	43	27.4	14	8.9	21	13.4	10	6.4

SA-Strongly agree

A-Agree

NS-Not sure

D-Disagree

SD-Strongly disagree

Table 4.16 shows that deputy principals positively ranked the various challenges of organizational training as critical factors that affected the female teacher's upward mobility. The mean for all the challenges is less than three (3) indicating that majority of the respondents positively felt that the said challenges of organizational training hindered female secondary teachers from rising to senior management positions. However the challenge of organizational training that was ranked highest as a hindrance to upward progression of female teachers was the fact that there was lack of clear policy to guide school organizational training with, 69(43.9%) of the deputy principals strongly agreeing. It was also revealed that there was stagnated career mobility that was occasioned by lack of training opportunities within the organizations. This is shown by 56(35.4%) of the deputy principals who strongly agreed. The deputy principals further reiterated that there were no clear progression routes for female deputy principals as compared to men. This is indicated by, 45 (28.5%) of the deputy principals.

The findings on organizational training as a barrier towards female teacher's upward mobility clearly agrees with an observation made by Okafor (2004), in a study conducted in Nigeria which reported that there was open gender discrimination in terms of training and further demonstrated the fact that school organizations adopted a lukewarm approach towards training. This proves that the male gender was advantaged as Anderson (2004) highlights that education and training are powerful liberators which empower women and assist them to build on their leadership potential. This is also consistent with Okurame's (2006) study, which observes that women have not been socialized to compete successfully in the world of men and so

they must be trained to acquire the skills which men acquire easily as culture and traditions dictates.

The findings of this study on organizational training are also consistent with, Burrell and Hearn (2000) who notes that human resource management practices in organizations primarily reflects the interests of the dominant group and organizations have not succeeded in introducing training and development strategies that effectively meet the needs of women. It also agrees with a report by (ILO, 2004) which attributed female under-representation to gender inequalities in training and education as being determinants to occupational segregation that has streamlined men and women in different jobs. Similarly a research conducted by Anderson (2004), concludes that training and development were powerful tools in raising managerial awareness and in educating women themselves. The study also established that in order to effect fundamental changes within organizations there was need for a radical shift in policy at the top in order to make a difference to the culture of organizations, the provision on organizational training was critical. This was confirmed by Meso (2006,) who argued that equal opportunities policies are not enough to elevate women to management positions and noted that what was needed was setting up of structures and some training as well. This observation had earlier been made by Tsoka (1999), whose work emphasized that establishment of training centres should be done with a bias towards empowering more women in management positions.

4.3.2 Organizational cultures that hinder upward mobility of secondary female teachers.

The study sought to establish how biased organizational cultural practices influenced upward mobility of female teachers. To achieve this, the respondents' were required to rate several biased organizational cultural practices which had the potential to influence upward mobility of female teachers. The responses were indicated on a 5 point likert scale (**Strongly Agree, Agree, Not Sure Disagree, Strongly Disagree**).

This is shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Principals' opinions on Organizational cultural practices

Aspect of Organizational culture	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Cultural norms where the women's place is supposed to be at home caring for the family	135	2.4	46	34.1	39	28.9	13	9.6	22	16.3	15	11.1
Male dominance in organizations where female headship is sidelined	135	2.2	46	34.1	43	31.9	26	19.3	14	10.4	6	4.4
Oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspiration and competencies are ignored	135	2.3	49	36.3	37	27.4	14	10.4	24	17.8	11	8.1
Societal prejudices against the female gender	126	2.5	36	28.6	45	35.7	13	10.3	14	11.1	18	14.3
SA-Strongly Agree			SD-Strongly disagree		A-Agree		NS-Not sure		D-Disagree			

Table 4.17, show principals' opinions on biased organizational cultural practices that influenced upward mobility of female teachers. It is explicit from the table that male dominance in organizations where female headship was sidelined was rated highest with 89 (65.0%) of the principals, who both strongly agreed and agreed, positively highlighting that it was indeed an obstacle that hindered upward mobility of female teachers.

The study also sought to establish the opinions of deputy principals on organizational cultural practices. This is shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Deputy Principal's rating of organizational cultural practices

Aspect of Organizational culture	n	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Cultural norms where the women's place is supposed to be at home caring for the family	160	2.2	74	46.8	40	25.3	9	5.7	16	10.1	19	12.0
Male dominance in organizations where female headship is sidelined	156	2	65	41.7	53	34.0	13	8.3	15	9.6	10	6.4
Oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspiration and competencies are ignored	159	2	74	46.8	47	29.7	12	7.6	15	9.5	10	6.3
Societal prejudices against the female gender	160	2	64	40.8	52	33.1	18	11.5	12	7.6	11	7.0
Organizational rituals and practices that discriminate against the female gender	163	2.4	45	27.8	61	37.7	25	15.4	13	8.0	18	11.1
Sexist practices that portray female gender as a sex objects	162	2.4	54	33.8	44	27.5	18	11.3	26	16.3	18	11.3

SA-Strongly agree
A-Agree

NS-Not sure
D-Disagree

SD-Strongly disagree

Table 4.18, indicates that the means for all the organizational cultural practices that hindered female principals from rising to managerial positions was less than three (3.0) for deputy principals. This means that the deputy principals positively felt that these organizational cultural practices affected female teachers' upward mobility in management positions. This was on the basis that: any mean less than 3.0 indicates that the respondents agreed positively, 3.0 neutral and any mean above three indicates that the respondents disagreed that the practices hindered upward mobility. The aspect of organizational culture included, cultural norms where the women's place is expected to be in the kitchen caring for the family, male dominance in organizations where female leadership is sidelined, oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspirations and competences are ignored and societal prejudices against the female gender. Table 4.18 shows that a majority, 121(76.5%) of the deputy principals who either strongly agreed or agreed, affirmed that oppressive traditional beliefs where the women's aspirations and competences are ignored played a critical role in locking female teachers out of management positions. On the aspect of cultural norms where the women's place was expected to be in the kitchen, 114(72.1%) of the deputy principals either agreed or strongly agreed with the fact it was indeed a barrier which hindered female teachers upward mobility. This agrees with the opinions of a vast majority of DEOs who alluded to the fact that some biased organizational cultural practices really oppress the female teachers and it disadvantages those aspiring for positions. A similar sentiment was expressed by one DQASO who observed that some cultures look down upon the women and he said, "Men are sometimes not happy when a female teacher is promoted because the norm is where men are leading and women are led."

The findings of this study on organizational cultural practices as a barrier to female teachers accessing principalship agrees with Onsongo's,(2002)study, which observed that there were oppressive cultural practices which undermined women as leaders. Similarly, a female District Education Officer interviewed confirmed that some school cultures viewed female principals with apprehension and adopted a wait and see attitude to see whether they would succeed. Further Thornton, (2008) argues that male cultures tend to dominate in organizations and notes that the processes of gender exclusions were common within the organizations which perfectly concurred with the findings of this study. Similarly, Bennets (1997) notes that organizational cultures could be resistant to change encouraging bureaucracy and inflexibility and hence the notion that the most suitable place for the woman was in the kitchen as many of the respondents observed. Organizational culture depends highly on whether the philosophy and core values of a given organization entrenches gender mainstreaming because most organizational cultures are characterized by patriarchal systems and masculinity which disadvantages the female gender(Bennett,1997). This is reflected in the respondents opinions where they either agreed or strongly agreed that there was presence of male dominance within organizations where female headship was sidelined. The DQASOs alluded to the same as most of them concurred that male dominance is still prevalent in the school organization and female teachers are being overshadowed regardless of their numbers. The oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspirations and competencies are ignored and social prejudices against the female gender are some of the aspects of organizational culture which Reece (2009) argues that they affect the journey for women advancement to positions of management.

The study also sought to establish how organizational cultural practices influenced female teachers' upward mobility between public and private schools. To realize this, the study tested the following null hypothesis:

There is no significant difference between female principals of public and private secondary schools in terms of organizational cultural practices as an organizational barrier that female teachers encounter as they ascend to principalship. The hypothesis was tested using Independent Samples Test whose results are indicated in Table 4.19

Table 4.19: Independent Samples Test on organizational cultural practices by school category

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	df	P-value
Cultural norms where the women's place is supposed to be at home caring for the family	-0.392	129	0.696
Male dominance in organizations where female headship is sidelined	-1.240	129	0.217
Oppressive traditional beliefs where women's inspirational and competencies are ignored	-1.065	129	0.289
Social prejudices against the female gender	-1.788	120	0.076

Table 4.19, shows that principals from both private and public schools strongly felt that the biased organizational cultural practices hindered female teachers from both categories of school from attaining principalship. This is indicated by the fact that P-values of 0.696, 0.217, 0.289, and 0.076 were all greater than the level of significance of 0.05 in all the four respective biased organizational cultural practices by school category. Thus the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis and affirms that there is no statistical basis to claim that there was a difference between female principals of public and private secondary schools in terms of organizational cultural

practices as barrier that hindered the upward mobility of female teachers. This means that organizational cultural practices affected upward mobility of female teachers equally in both public and private schools. There was however a divergent perspective from the DEOs and QUASOs who felt that upward mobility in private schools was dependent on the proprietors of schools where most of them preferred men to lead their schools. This is contrary to the public schools where the policy is clear on who heads a particular school.

The study also compared the differences in perceptions of female principals on biased organizational cultural practices by gender. To realize this, the following null hypothesis was tested: **There is no significant difference between male and female principals in terms of organizational cultural practices as a barrier hindering female teachers from accessing principalship.** The hypothesis was tested using ANOVA as indicated in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: ANOVA comparison of recruitment practices by gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cultural norms where the women's place is supposed to be at home caring for the family	1.341	1	1.341	.693	.407
Male dominance in organizations where female headship is sidelined	.316	1	.316	.238	.626
Oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspiration and competencies are ignored	.001	1	.001	.001	.978
Social prejudices against the female gender	.485	1	.485	.252	.617

Table 4.20 shows ANOVA on organizational cultural practices and gender and indicates that the p-values, 0.407, 0.626, 0.978, and 0.617 were all greater than the level of significance of 0.05. This means that there was no significant difference between gender of principals and organizational cultural practices as far as upward mobility of female teachers was concerned. Therefore the study failed to reject the hypothesis and upheld that gender of the principals was not a barrier to upward mobility of female teachers as far as biased cultural practices were concerned.

The study sought to find out the ways through which principals were promoted to their current position of principal. The principals were required to rank the means to principalship on a scale with 1-being the lowest and 3- being the highest.

The results are shown in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Ways of attainment to principalship position

Ways of attainment	Lowest		Neutral		Highest	
	1		2		3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Bribery	53	44.5	26	21.8	39	33.7
Affirmative action by MoE	26	21.5	55	45.5	40	33.0
Competitive interview based on qualification	53	43.4	19	15.6	50	41.0

Table 4.21 reveals that majority, 53(44.5%) of the principals ranked bribery as the least means through which upward mobility of the principals was affected. However, 50(41.0) ranked highest competitive interviews based on qualification, as a means that enabled female principals to reach their top positions. Contrastingly, majority

55(45.5%) of the principals were neutral on whether affirmative action by Ministry of Education enabled female principals to reach to their top positions.

The findings of this study on the means adopted by female teachers to rise to headship especially on the affirmative action policy adopted by the Ministry of Education concurs with the efforts the Ugandan government undertook in the 1990s of introducing the affirmative action policy to boost women participation in educational leadership as notes Kagondia, (2011) who however laments that the mechanism did not translate into gender parity at management levels. Makura,(2000) further notes that despite the fact that Affirmative Action policy has been hailed as a milestone in eradicating discrimination and reforms in education sector, its results remain a contested terrain. This explains why the respondents were neutral on the role of affirmative action policy in supporting women leadership.

4.3.3 How mentoring, tokenism and organizational networks affect secondary school principals' upward mobility to senior management positions.

The third research question sought to address how mentoring, tokenism and organizational networks affected secondary school teachers' upward mobility to senior management position.

On the issue of mentoring, the study sought principals and deputy principals' information on the various aspects of mentoring and then established how they affected upward mobility of female teachers. On whether the respondents had mentors, the responses are shown in Figure 4.16.

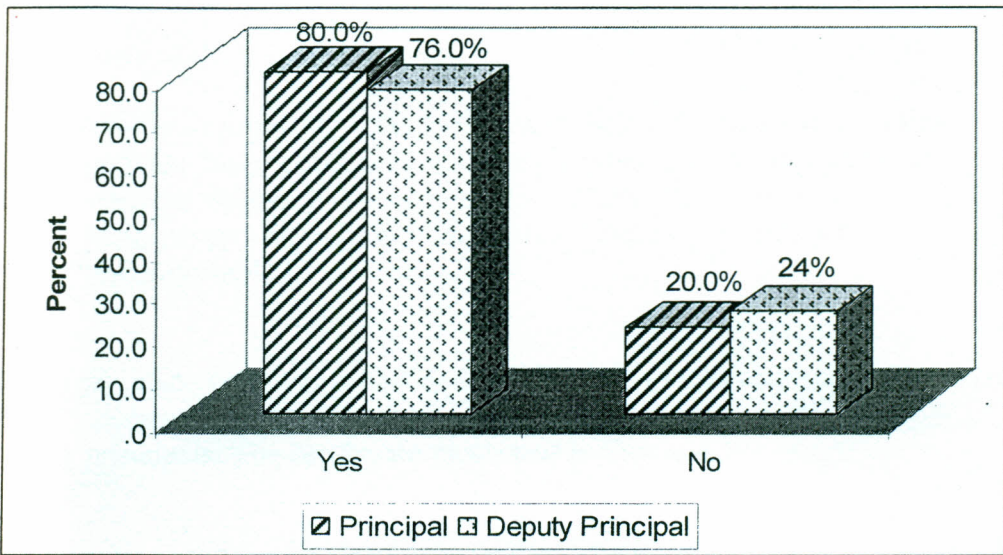


Figure 4.16: Presence of Mentors

From Figure 4.16 it is clear that a majority, 108(80.0%) of the principals and 130(75.4%) deputy principals, reported that they had a mentor whom they looked upon for guidance in relation to their professional growth. The literature review has pointed out that organizational mentoring is critical in the advancement of managers as mentors are considered useful for career advancement through sponsoring, coaching, role modelling and counselling (Burke and Mc Keen, 2004). The principals and the deputy principals appreciated the value of mentors and that was why they had them. The findings on presence of mentors by the deputy principals contradicts Scandular's study, (1999) which reported that women have great difficulties in getting mentors than men and that was based on the assumption that there was a scarcity of female mentors at the highest levels of organizations due to the glass-ceiling effect. The District Education Officers differed with the principals and deputy principals' views on presence of mentors by observing that it was

difficult for female teachers to get mentors because of the complications involved.

One of them said:

Women cannot get mentors because they are their own enemies and are busy competing with each other and in the instances where a woman has a male mentor others start gossiping around insinuating an affair and this makes many of them uncomfortable.

The study also sought to establish the gender of the mentor for both principals and deputy principals. The results are illustrated in Figure 4.17.

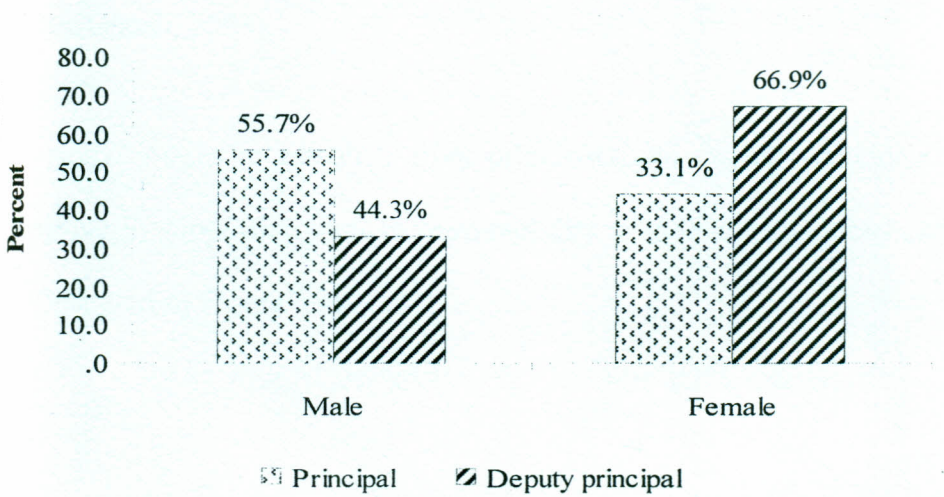


Figure 4.17: Gender of the Mentor

A majority, 54(55.7%) of the principals said that they had a mentor who was male whereas the rest 43(44.3%) said that their mentors were female. This agrees with an observation by several DEOS who noted that ladies preferred men as mentors and one of them said, “Ladies do well when they are with men as mentors”. The fact that most principals preferred male mentors differed with deputy principals where a vast majority, 83(66.9%) affirmed that their mentors were females while only 41(33.1%) said their mentors were males.

The findings on choice of mentor where the male is the most preferred gender is explained by Kattara, (2005) who points out that given men's control in organizations they are more likely to be mentors. Similar sentiments were shared by Al-Jamal (2006) who notes that finding a mentor for a woman was difficult given that there are not enough women in senior management positions to provide support. This was also consistent with Akafor, (2004) work in Nigeria that observed that female mentors were rare in organizations and this scenario explained the problems that women encountered in organizations which made them hate other women (Ghosh, 2003).

The study sought to establish from principals and deputy principals the role of mentoring in supporting their upward mobility in their organizations and the results are illustrated in Figure 4.18.

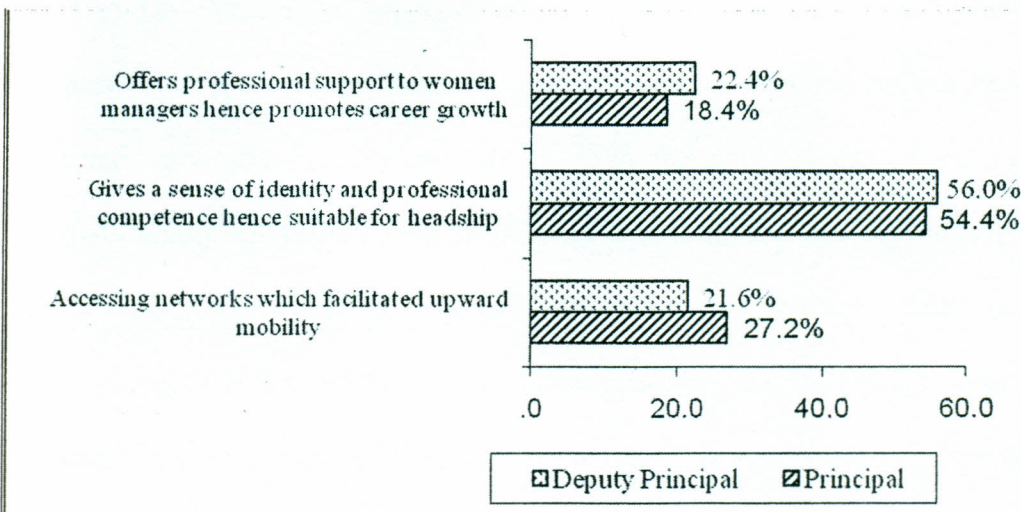


Figure 4.18: Role of Mentoring

As indicated in Figure 4.18, 27(21.6%) of the principals reported that their mentors helped them to access networks which assisted them in their upward mobility while

28(27.2) of the deputy principals also concurred that the same support from mentors enabled them to access networks like gaining access to information about promotion and getting to know when vacancies are advertised. Fifty six, 56(54.4%) of the principals said that their mentors gave them a sense of identity and professional competence hence making them suitable for headship, while 70(56.0) of the deputy principals alluded to the same. Further, 19(18.4%)of principals said that their mentors offered professional support to women managers hence promoting their career growth and similiary,28,(22.4) of the deputy principals agreed to the same.

The findings on the role of mentoring confirms the vital role that mentoring plays in supporting females to rise to higher management positions as pointed out by Riegle (2006) whose work notes that mentoring transfers experiences and expertise from experienced individuals in an organization to the less experienced. This also concurs with a study conducted in USA, which found out that employees with mentors were found to have access to important people and enjoyed more career satisfactions (Godshalk and Sosik, 2000). Mentoring was also considered important to the success of female managers because mentors assist in the development of the manager's sense of identity and professional confidence, reduce discrimination and help them to access information that is available to them to facilitate their managerial advancement (Ragins, 2001). A study conducted by Atieno, (2001) observed that working women teachers have lacked mentors and this aggravates the issue of under-representation meaning that mentoring plays a critical role in supporting female leadership and absence of the same would be viewed as a barrier. This study found out that mentoring should be encouraged in organizations but (Burke and Mc Keen, 2004) observes that mentoring programmes in many organizations are never geared

towards women empowerment but instead they perpetuate a male dominated status quo.

The study sought to establish the most preferred type of mentoring for female teachers. The results are illustrated in Figure 4.19.

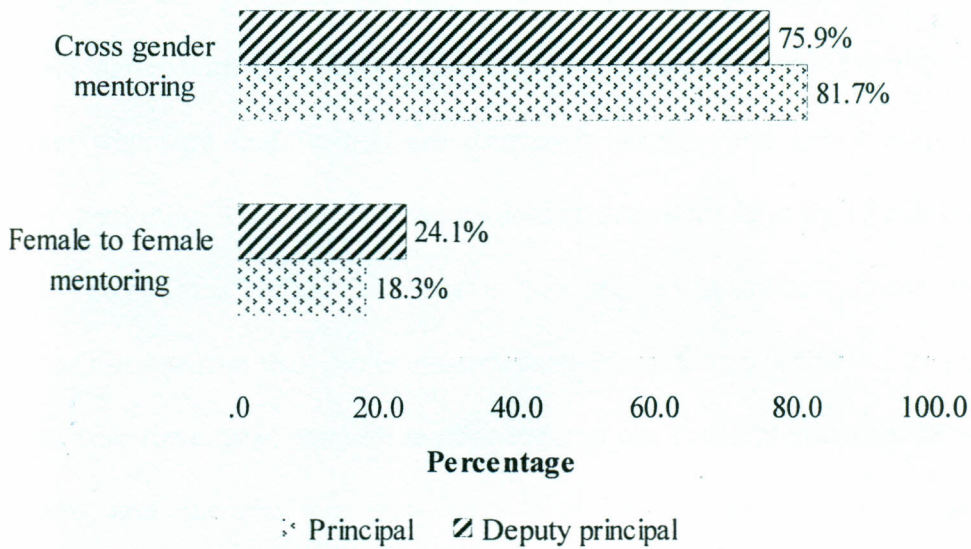


Figure 4.19: Type of mentoring preferred by female teachers

As indicated in Figure 4.19, majority, 103 (81.7%) of the principals, indicated that cross gender mentoring was most effective in supporting female teachers to ascend to headship positions in secondary schools. This view was shared by a majority, 103 (75.2%) of the deputy principals who shared the same notion with the principals. Only 23 (18.3%) principals and 34 (24.8%) deputy principals felt that female to female mentoring was a preferred type of mentoring. A similar sentiment was expressed by District Quality Assurance and Standard Officers as most of them from all the counties agreed that cross gender mentoring was the most preferred type of

mentoring by female teachers who accused fellow women teachers of being jealous of each other and were afraid of sharing the limelight with others.

The finding of this study on choice of mentors contradicts a study by Burke and Karambaya, (2004) and Cleaveland, Stockdale and Murphy (2000) that highlighted the difficulties that female managers face in getting mentors because of women's token status and potential discomfort with cross-gender mentors. The findings however agree with the views expressed by a majority of the District Education Officers who said that women are their own enemies and hence preferred cross gender mentoring. The findings also contradict the notion held by Ghosh (2003) that women sometimes refuse to submit themselves to cross gender mentoring relationships because they prefer women as mentors. Ghosh, (2003) also asserts that women who have gone through similar experiences could identify better with their problems and sorrows but they were doubtful that male mentors would not misunderstand their problems to be their weaknesses and take advantage of them and hence preferred mentors of the same gender with them.

When principals and deputy principals were asked to justify why they preferred female to female mentoring, several reasons were given to explain the preferences. First, support for each other was cited because they understood each other better if they were of the same sex. Secondly, it was clear that female to female mentoring was less suspicious compared to male to female mentoring. Thirdly, respondents reiterated the fact that females had common interests and hence were best suited to mentor each other. The respondents similarly expressed that females to females had similar experiences and so they were best placed to mentor and learn from each

other. Lastly, when compared with cross gender mentoring, female to female mentoring was more acceptable and therefore many female teachers preferred it.

Further the respondents were asked to justify the choice of cross gender mentoring and most of the respondents preferred cross gender mentoring because it was explicit that different genders have a diversity of ideas and therefore were likely to support each other. This means that the respondents were in agreement that ideas were best shared when the two genders were involved. Cross gender mentoring was preferred so as to avoid favouritism. There was a general consensus among respondents that men were more willing to assist female teachers. Contrastingly, some of the respondents stated that women were their own enemies and are therefore not willing to support other females who are interested in management positions for fear of competition.

This agrees with Scandular, (1999) who suggests that women at higher ranks were unwilling to mentor because they do not want to share the limelight with others and they also feared competition from other women. The cross gender mentoring was also preferred because very few women were in leadership positions. This concurs with Okurame's (2006) findings which described cross gender mentoring as having a more beneficial mentoring relationship compared with female-female mentoring.

The study also sought respondents opinion on how mentoring affected their upward mobility. To realize this, principals and deputy principals were required to respond to several aspects of mentoring. The means of both principals and deputy principals are illustrated in the Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Principals' and Deputy Principals' opinions on mentoring processes

Mentoring Process	Principal		Deputy	
	n	Mean	n	Mean
Absence of mentors to motivate female teachers wishing to become heads	136	2.2	173	2.1
Dominance by male principals as mentors hence female teachers feel victimized	135	2.2	173	2.0
Presence of female principals who are unwilling to mentor female teachers fearing competition	136	2.1	173	2.1

Table 4.22 shows that presence of female principals who are unwilling to mentor female teachers fearing competition contributed significantly to lack of mentors who could support female teacher's upward progression. This is indicated by a mean of 2.1. Table 4.22 also shows that absence of mentors to motivate female teachers wishing to become heads negatively affected their upward mobility as indicated by a mean of 2.1, for deputy principals. These findings confirms a study done by Ragins,(1994) that revealed that women at higher ranks were unwilling to mentor because they did not want to share the limelight with others and they were also afraid of being out competed.

Perception toward aspects of tokenism practices which deter secondary female principals from rising to senior management positions

The study also sought from principals and deputy principals how the various aspects of tokenism like high visibility of female principals, additional work pressures and loneliness and isolation of female principals influenced female teacher's upward mobility to principalship.

To achieve this, the principals were required to respond to various aspects of tokenism and their responses were indicated on a likert scale ranging from (Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). This is shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Principals views on tokenism practices

Tokenism Practices	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
High visibility of female principals where women feel intimidated because of being few among men in leadership	136	2.24	36	26.5	62	45.6	16	11.8	14	10.3	8	5.9
Additional work pressure where female principals get discouraged because they must prove their performance against male principals	136	2.23	40	29.4	60	44.1	9	6.6	19	14.0	8	5.9
Loneliness and isolation of female principals and hence female teachers opt to remain in the classroom	135	2.54	39	28.9	38	8.1	17	12.6	28	20.7	13	9.6

S A-Strongly Agree

A-Agree

N-Neutral

D-Disagree

SD-Strongly Disagree

Table 4.23, shows that a majority 98 (72.1%) of the principals both of whom strongly agreed and agreed, positively felt that high visibility of female principals where women feel intimidated because of being few among men in leadership deterred female teachers who aspired to access management positions. However, 41 (30.3%) of the principals negatively expressed their opinion that loneliness and isolation of female principals discouraged the female teachers from accessing leadership positions and opted to remain in the comfort zone of the classroom. This was a combination of principals those who both strongly disagreed and disagreed.

The study also sought to seek the views of the deputy principals on tokenism as a barrier that hindered female teachers from rising to position of principal. This is shown in Table 4.24

Table 4.24: Deputy Principals views on tokenism practices

Tokenism Practices	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
High visibility of female principals where women feel intimidated because of being few among men in leadership	171	2.1	56	32.7	59	62.2	8	4.7	17	9.9	11	6.4
Additional work pressure where female principals get discouraged because they must prove their performance against male principals	171	2.3	51	29.8	68	39.8	16	9.4	26	15.2	10	5.8
Loneliness and isolation of female principals and hence female teachers opt to remain in the classroom	171	2.9	40	23.4	41	24.0	24	14.0	33	19.3	33	19.3

SA-Strongly Agree

A-Agree

NS-Not Sure

D-Disagree

SD-Strongly Disagree

Table 4.24 shows deputy principals views on tokenism practices that deterred secondary school female teachers from rising to the senior management position in the school. Table 4.24 shows that 59 (62.2%) of the deputy principals agreed that it's the high visibility of female principals where women were few among men in higher leadership positions that adversely affected their upward mobility. This made the women the centre of focus and hence distracted their performance.

The findings of this study on tokenism confirms an observation that was made by Kanter,(1997) which points out that token status leads to increased visibility which may create attention as well as greater performance demands especially for female leaders. Similar observation had also been made by (Powel, 2003) who observes that being a token can interfere with performance as tokens face additional performance pressures due to their high visibility. In addition, Piver (2009) notes that the solo woman sees her work subjected to much more scrutiny than her male peers and her gender becomes the lens through which her work is evaluated.

Perception towards aspects of networking that deters female teachers from rising to management positions

The study also sought to seek principals and deputy principals' opinion on how the various aspects of networking deterred female teachers from rising to the management position of principal.

To achieve this, respondents were required to respond to the various aspects of networking .The responses were indicated on a likert scale ranging from **Strongly Agree, Agree, Not Sure, Disagree and Strongly Disagree**. The responses are shown in Tables 4.25 and 4.26.

Table 4.25: Principals' views on networking

Networking Practices	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Presence of old boy's networks where vital decisions are made in the absence of the female gender	136	2.34	49	36.0	35	25.7	18	13.2	25	18.4	9	6.6
Absence of girl's network within the organizations to support female principals already in headship positions	135	2.15	47	34.8	48	35.6	19	14.1	15	11.1	6	4.4
Canvassing among male networks after working hours hence sidelining the female principals	135	2.23	52	38.5	35	25.9	23	17.0	15	11.1	10	7.4

SA-Strongly Agree

A-Agree

NS-Not Sure

D-Disagree

SD-Strongly Disagree

Table 4.25 indicates principals views on networking and it is explicit that 95 (70.4%) of the principals ,those who strongly agreed and agreed combined, positively felt that absence of girls networks within organizations to support female principals already in principalship plays a significant role in locking female teachers out of management positions. This was supported by a sentiment expressed by a majority of DEO's who said there were no functional networks which supported female teachers and even for the ladies already in principalship, they are never willing to collaborate with those below them for the fear of the unknown. The study also sought deputy principals' views on networking as indicated in Table 4.26.

Table: 4.26: Deputy Principals views on networking

Networking Practices	N	Mean	SA		A		NS		D		SD	
			n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Presence of old boy's networks where vital decisions are made in the absence of the female gender	173	2.3	59	34.1	57	32.9	22	12.7	23	13.3	12	6.9
Absence of girl's network within the organizations to support female principals already in headship positions	173	2.1	69	39.9	57	3.9	23	13.3	17	9.8	7	4.0
Canvassing among male networks after working hours hence sidelining the female principals	173	2.1	69	39.9	54	31.2	30	17.3	13	7.5	7	4.0

SA-Strongly Agree

A-Agree

NS-Not Sure

D-Disagree

SD-Strongly Disagree

Table 4.26 shows that deputy principals had a positive perception towards the mentioned aspects of networking that deterred secondary school female teachers from rising to senior management position as indicated by the mean of less than three 3.0 in each of the aspects. 116(67.0) of the deputy principals, a combination of those who strongly agreed and those who agreed, positively expressed that the presence of old boys' network where vital decisions were made in the absence of the female gender deterred secondary female teachers from rising to senior management positions. A mean of 2.1 for deputy principals attested to this. Further, on the aspect of absence of girl's network within the organizations to support female principals already in the headship positions, 126(72.8%) of the deputy principals either agreed or strongly agreed that it affected upward mobility of the female teachers. The District Education Officers and District Quality and Assurance Officers were all in agreement that female teachers were disadvantaged because they lacked support networks like accessing social places and gaining access to vital information and therefore missed on vital information. One of the District Educational Officers affirmed that women lacked networks and operated between the home and school while men frequented social places and so they were able to lobby and canvass faster than the female teachers.

The finding of this study on old boys' networks confirms Wanjama's (2002) assertion that women were under-represented in senior management positions due to old boys' networks where important decisions were made in their absence in a research conducted in Kenya. A similar trail of thought had earlier been put across by Mc Curdy, (2001) in a study which examined selection and preparation of school administrators in America and found out that there was an old boys' network

operating in many parts of the country and that the network was responsible for most of the present day educators in management positions in the country. Husu, (2004) also notes that networking for women leaders is a crucial supportive mechanism which can be used to counteract the old boys' networks. On the absence of organizational networks being a hindrance to upward mobility, studies have demonstrated that there are negative consequences of the absence of organizational networks on the career advancement of female managers (Burke and McKeen, 2004).

4.4 Coping strategies that female principals use to overcome organizational barriers

The third objective of the study sought to identify the coping strategies that female principals used to overcome the organizational barriers which female teachers encounter as they ascend to principalship. Organizational barriers are obstacles found within institutional frame works which hamper female teachers' upward mobility. The organizational barriers that were responded to included; leadership that excluded women from management, women leadership being looked down upon, lack of female mentorship, promotion tied to transfers among others discussed in the section that follows. All these are entrenched within organizations which hinder the upward mobility of female teachers. The study sought to establish how female principals coped with the specific barriers. This was addressed by research question four: What strategies have been embraced by secondary school female principals to overcome the organizational barriers?

The researcher sought to establish from the respondents how they coped with specific organizational barriers which were found within the school organizations

and the respondents were required to rank in order of importance the coping strategy which they used to overcome the specific organizational barriers.

4.4.1 Coping strategies on Biased Organizational practices

With regard to the coping strategies on Leadership training that excludes women, the principals were required to rank some coping strategies with **1 being the most important, 2 being neutral and 3 being the least important**. This is shown in

Table 4.27

Table 4.27: Principals' views on coping strategies on leadership training that excludes women

Coping Strategy	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I challenge the training practice in the staff meeting	36	27.9	40	31.0	53	41.1
I lobby for female support from senior educational officers	45	34.1	39	29.5	48	36.4
I assert myself in presenting my qualifications	59	49.6	26	21.8	34	28.6

Table 4.27 shows principals views on coping strategies adopted to overcome the organizational barrier on leadership training that excludes women. It is clear from the table that 59(49.6%) of the principals felt that asserting themselves in presenting their qualifications cushioned them against leadership that excluded them. A similar observation was made by District Education officers and District Quality assurance officers who were of the opinion that female teachers needed to assert themselves

strongly if they were to be included in leadership. The study also sought to establish deputy principals' opinion on the same. This is shown in Table 4.28

Table 4.28: Deputy Principals' views on coping strategies on leadership training that excludes women

Coping Strategy	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I challenge the training practice in the staff meeting	49	35.5	48	34.8	41	29.7
I lobby for female support from senior educational officers	47	33.8	46	33.1	46	33.1
I assert myself in presenting my qualifications	76	53.9	25	17.7	40	28.4

Table 4.28 shows a majority, 76(53.9%) of the deputy principals ranked the fact that they asserted themselves in presenting their qualifications as the most important coping strategy that they used to overcome leadership training that excluded women from rising to senior management positions. This strategy was identified by nearly all District Educational Officers and Quality Assurance Officers as one of the ways through which women would overcome leadership that excluded them. One of DEOs assertively said, "Female teachers have no choice but to assert themselves strongly if they have to be part of mainstream leadership."

The finding on women asserting themselves to overcome the barrier on leadership that excluded them in organizations supports a study by Chow,(2001)which highlights that at individual level, a career woman must assert herself, convey a professional image that reflects expertise, competence, good interpersonal skills,

authority and commitment so as to overcome the isolation in a male world. This means that unless women become adventurous like most successful men, they cannot hope to make a meaningful dent into the leadership positions (Emeka et al, 2004). This further confirms an earlier assertion by Grogan, (1996) that observed that women must make demands and their claims along with others and they must make them powerfully and passionately and only then can they be felt. In addition women must have courage and determination if they have to battle in male dominated establishments and seek effective inclusion.

4.4.2 Promotion tied to transfers as a barrier that hinders female teachers upward mobility

One of the challenges that hinder female teachers from ascending to senior management positions is transfers due to family responsibilities and as such most of them turn down the promotions. Thus, the principals and deputy principals were required to rank the coping strategies given on a rank of **Most important, Neutral and Least Important**. The results are captured in Tables 4.29 and 4.30

Table 4.29: Principals views on coping strategies on promotion tied to transfers

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
	I seek family support to take up transfers	49	41.5	36	30.5	33
I lobby to be retained in the neighbouring school	39	31.0	35	27.8	52	41.3
I express my willingness to serve any place	51	41.5	26	21.1	46	37.4

Table 4.29 shows principals views on coping strategies adopted to overcome the organizational barrier on promotion tied to transfers. It is clear from the table that, 49(41.5%) of the principals ranked highest the need to seek family support before taking up any transfers. This is because there is always need to balance work and family if one has to succeed in leadership.

Table 4.30: Deputy Principal Views on promotion tied to transfers

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I seek family support to take up transfers	47	33.8	51	36.7	41	29.5
I lobby to be retained in the neighbouring school	31	23.1	43	32.1	60	44.8
I express my willingness to serve my place	83	57.6	23	16.0	38	26.4

When asked to rank the most important coping strategies that they used to overcome promotion tied to transfers 83(57.6%) of the deputy principals expressed their willingness to serve any place as the most important coping strategies. There was also the need to seek family support to be able to overcome the same barrier. Similarly, 60(44.8% (deputy principals) ranked the fact that they lobbied to be retained in the neighbouring schools as the least coping strategies which they used to overcome promotion tied to transfers that deterred them from rising to senior management position.

The fact that most principals and deputy principals appreciated seeking family support to take up transfers as an important coping strategy to overcome the barrier on promotion tied to transfers recognizes the value of family support to female

teachers aspiring to rise to principalship. This agrees with Schein (2007) who underscores that provision of family support by organizations like flexible working schedules, child care assistance etc, made it easier for women with family responsibilities to hold managerial positions and not to decline transfers whenever they were promoted. This is further consistent with the fact that spousal support has been highlighted as one of the aspects that have a positive effect on career growth and aspirations of female teachers (Blout, 1998 and Grogan, 1999). The aspect of principals ranking least the fact that they lobbied to be retained in the neighbourhoods as a strategy to overcome promotions tied to transfers agrees with Watley, (1996) whose work observed that it is inherent in human nature to seek security of living and working in a known environment, but in order to achieve success today you simply cannot remain in your carefully constructed comfort zone. This is consistent with an observation made by one of the District Education Officers, who noted that,

Some principals would go to any length to lobby to be retained in a school of their preference. In fact they go as far as seeking support from politicians who sometimes interfere with my work as I end up ceding ground because they are more powerful.

4.4.3 Promotion based on long experience as a barrier that hinders upward mobility

The study sought to establish from principals and deputy principals how they coped with the challenge of missing out on promotion due to lack of experience as a hindrance to their upward mobility in management positions.

To achieve this, the principals and deputy principals were asked to rank the coping strategies given with **1,most important,2,neutral and 3, least important**. The results are presented in table 4.31 and 4.32.

Table 4.31: Principals views on coping strategies on promotion based on experience

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
	I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria.	83	70.9	15	12.8	19
I lobby for support from immediate boss	39	21.5	63	48.5	28	30.0
I bribe way through	14	11.9	17	14.4	87	73.7

Table 4.31 shows principals' views on how to overcome the barrier related to missing a promotion due to lack of experience. It is explicit that majority, 83(70.9%) indicated that in order to overcome the issue of lack of experience as a hindrance to upward mobility of female teachers, it was imperative that the promotion criteria be met to the later.

The study also sought the deputy principals on the same. This is shown in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32: Deputy Principal Views on coping strategies on promotion based on experience

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
	I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria	134	89.3	13	8.7	3
I lobby for support from immediate boss	19	14.4	91	68.9	22	16.7
I bribe way through	6	4.7	9.3	12	111	86.0

On promotion based on long experiences that deterred female teachers from rising to management positions a vast majority, 134(89.3%) deputy principals ranked the fact that they ensured they met the basic promotion criteria as the most important coping strategy that they used to overcome this. Bribery was ranked as the least important coping strategy that was used to overcome the promotion based on long experience that deterred female teachers from rising to senior management position as reported by 111(86.0%) of the deputy principals.

The finding on the fact that most principals and deputy principals ranked highly the strategy of meeting the basic promotion criteria as the most important to overcome the barrier on promotion tied to long experiences agrees with (Cromie and O'Sullivan, 2001) who note that women managers are now as qualified as their male counterparts and hence can pursue careers without biasness. This was supported by nearly all Quality Assurance Officers in the three counties who observed that in all schools where female principals were in charge, performance was guaranteed because they run schools as homes where they exhibited total commitment.

The study sought to test the null hypothesis that stated that: **There is no significant difference between public and private schools in terms of coping strategies embraced by female principals to overcome the organizational barriers.** The hypothesis was tested using independent Samples Test as indicated in Table 4.33

Table 4.33: Independent Samples Test on coping strategies on recruitment practices by school categories

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	df	P-value
I challenge the training practice in the staff meeting	.242	124	.809
I lobby for female support from senior educational officers	1.151	126	.252
I assert myself in presenting my qualifications	-.980	113	.329
I seek family support to take up transfers	1.053	113	.295
I lobby to be trained in the neighboring school	.031	120	.975
I express my willingness to serve my place	-.809	117	.420
I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria accidentally and professionally	-1.510	112	.134
I lobby for support from immediate boss	-.091	124	.928
I bribery way through	1.190	112	.237

Table 4.33 shows coping strategies adopted by female principals to overcome the organizational barriers by school category. Independent Samples Test indicates that all p-values, 0.809, 0.252, 0.329, 0.295, 0.975, 0.420, 0.134, 0.928 and 0.237 were greater than 0.05. This means that the study fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no statistical basis to claim that there is a difference in means in the coping strategies adopted by principals to overcome the organizational barriers. The study further established that there was no difference in perceptions amongst female principals towards coping strategies adopted by them to overcome the barrier on biased recruitment practices in both public and private schools.

4.4.4 Intimidating organizational cultures as barrier for female teachers.

The study sought to establish how both principals and deputy principals coped with intimidating organizational cultures. The principals and deputy principals were asked to rank the coping strategies given with **1, most important, 2 neutral and 3, least important**. The results are presented in Table 4.34 and Table 4.35

Table 4.34: Principals views on coping strategies on women leadership being looked down upon

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
	I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria.	73	65.8	22	19.8	16
I lobby for support from immediate boss	47	37.9	52	41.9	25	20.2
I bribe way through	20	16.7	18	15.0	82	68.3

Table 4.34 shows the coping strategies adopted by principals to overcome the intimidating organizational practice of women leadership being looked down upon. Majority, 73(65.8%) of the principals said that in order to avoid women leadership being looked down upon there was need to ensure that the basic promotion criteria was met. However, only 20(16.7%) of the principals ranked most important the fact that they bribed their way as a strategy to overcome the barrier on female leadership being looked down upon.

Table 4.35: Deputy Principals views on coping strategies on women leadership being looked down upon

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria	111	74.0	27	18.0	12	8.0
I lobby for support from immediate boss	47	34.3	63	46.0	27	19.7
I bribe way through	13	10.0	29	22.3	88	67.7

The Table 4.35 shows 111 (74%) deputy principals ranked the fact that they ensured they met promotion criteria as the most important coping strategy to overcome the barrier on intimidating organizational cultures where women leadership was looked down upon. On the contrary only 13(10.0%) of the deputy principals ranked the fact that they bribed their way as the most important coping strategy they used to overcome the same. This is consistent with Growe's, study (1999) which observed that women leaders must not be intimidated by what the society considers as the norm, male dominated leadership behaviours 'and women can no longer remain on the side lanes hoping for recognition for a job well done and they must simply assert themselves. This was attested to by most of the DEOs and QASOs who were categorical that female teachers must assert themselves strongly if they will have to be felt in the leadership structure.

Coping strategies to overcome the barrier on male dominance in institutions

The study sought to find out how the principals and deputy principals coped with male dominance in school organizational hierarchy. The principals were required to

rank the coping strategies with **1 being most important, 2 being neutral and 3 being least important.**

The results are presented in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36: Principals' and Deputy Principals' Views on coping strategies to overcome male dominance

Coping Strategies	Most Important 1				Neutral 2				Least Important 3			
	Principal		Deputy		Principal		Deputy		Principal		Deputy	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
I meet the promotion criteria	65	57.5	93	64.1	25	22.1	34	23.4	23	20.4	18	12.4
I offer myself for leadership position	49	39.8	57	39.3	44	35.8	62	42.8	30	24.4	26	17.9
I lobby for female leadership	30	25.0	19	15.1	21	17.5	25	19.8	69	57.5	82	65.1

Majority, 65(57.5%) of the principals and 93(64.1%) deputy principals reported that they ensured they met the promotion criteria as the most important coping strategy which they used to overcome male dominance in school organizations hierarchy. This concurs with an observation that was common among almost all DEOs and DCASOs that if women have to overcome male dominance in school organizations they must perform to silence men who always look down upon them in as far as leadership is concerned. Lobbying for female leadership was ranked as the least important copying strategy used to overcome male dominance by 69(57.5%) of the principals and 82(65.1%) deputy principals. This was also noted by most DEOs who noted that women were weak in lobbying because they were not comfortable joining male networks for fear of being misunderstood.

The findings on how to cope with male dominance in school organizations concurs with the Gender Development Report(2012) which notes that women have continued to make progress in closing the gender gap which has existed over generations by simply asserting themselves in careers which were a preserve of the male gender. According to Whitaker and Lane, (1990), education system has always been structured as a traditional home where men manage the schools and women nurture the learners and the situation can only change if the female gender is willing to assert itself and compete favourably with the male gender. This also means that women must have courage and determination to battle the male dominated establishments which always work to their disadvantage (Grove and Montgomery, 1999).

How to cope with societal expectation of women undertaking roles of domestic nature in professional fora

The study sought to establish how the principals and deputy principals coped with the fact they were expected to offer services of domestic nature in formal set ups. To achieve this, both were required to rank the coping strategies provided on a rank of 1 being most important, 2 being neutral and 3 being the least important. The results are presented in Table 4.37 and 4.38.

Table 4.37: Principals views on coping strategies on societal expectation to undertake domestic roles

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I resist the practice	43	38.7	20	18.0	48	43.2
I demand gender equality openly in all school activities	71	55.5	36	28.1	21	16.4
I encourage males to serve both men and women	41	35.0	32	27.4	44	37.7

Table 4.37 shows principals views on the coping strategies adopted by female teachers to overcome the barrier on societal expectation of them to undertake domestic roles in formal set ups. Majority, 71(55.5%) of the principals ranked highest the fact that they would demand for gender equality openly in all school activities. As one DEO noted that " within the school environment, what matters is not the gender but the competences and the skills which an officer possesses".

The study also sought to establish the opinions of deputy principals on how female teachers coped with the barrier of women being expected to undertake domestic roles in formal set ups. This is shown in Table 4.38.

Table 4.38: Deputy Principal Views on coping strategies on women undertake domestic roles.

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I resist the practice	51	37.0	37	26.8	50	36.2
I demand gender equality openly in all school activities	79	56.8	46	33.1	14	10.1
I encourage males to serve both men and women	46	33.3	38	27.5	54	39.1

The coping strategy that was ranked as the most important to overcome the fact that women were expected to undertake domestic roles in formal set up was the demand for gender equality openly in all school activities as accounted for by 79(56.8%) of the deputy principals. On the contrary, 46(33.3% of the deputy principals rated encouraging males to serve both men and women as the most important strategy to overcome the expectation of women being expected to perform domestic roles. The focus on equality was critical because either gender could serve and this confirms an assertion by Burnham and Mintzberg (1991) which observed that leaders were alike

and genderless and what counted was their drive and vision. This is consistent with one observation made by one of the DQASOs, who said that,

Leadership is not about serving any gender or being what gender. What matters as a principal is your ability to focus and drive the school forward.

The study also sought to test the hypothesis **that there is no significant difference between male and female principals in the coping strategies adopted to overcome the organizational barrier on intimidating organizational cultures encountered.** The hypothesis was tested using ANOVA as indicated in Table 4.39

Table 4.39: ANOVA on coping strategies on intimidating organizational cultures by gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
I ensure I meet promotion criteria	.393	1	.393	.723	.397
I assert myself in the position	.538	1	.538	.971	.326
I lobby for male support	.224	1	.224	.379	.539
I meet the criteria promotion	1.146	1	1.146	1.786	.184
I offer myself for leadership position	.074	1	.074	.117	.733
I lobby for female leadership	.401	1	.401	.550	.460
I resist the practice	.057	1	.057	.069	.794
I demand gender equality openly in all school activities	1.269	1	1.269	2.245	.137
I encourage males to serve both men and women	.001	1	.001	.001	.974

Table 4.39 shows that, there was no significant statistical difference in the coping strategies embraced by female principals to overcome the organizational barrier on

intimidating organizational cultures by gender. When the coping strategies were compared between male and female principals to indicate the difference in means, all the P-values were greater than the level of significance of 0.05. That is .397, .326, .539, .184, .733, .460, .794, .137, and .974. This therefore means the study fails to reject the null hypothesis and established that gender did not influence how female teachers coped with intimidating organizational cultures.

Coping Strategies on how to overcome the barrier relating to lack of female mentorship

The study also sought to seek principals and deputy principals' opinions on how they coped with the absence of women professional fora as a critical avenue for them to support their upward mobility. To achieve this, both were given the coping strategies that were subjected to a rank of 1 **being the most important**, 2 **being neutral** and 3 **being the least important**. This is shown in Tables 4.40 and 4.41.

Table 4.40: Principal views on coping strategy on lack of women professionals.

Coping Strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I participate in women professional network	57	51.4	31	27.9	23	20.7
I create girl networks where female teachers are linked	44	36.7	41	34.2	35	29.2
I encourage female teachers to look up for professional support groups and join	54	45.4	21	17.6	44	37.0

Table 4.40 shows principals views on which coping strategy would enable them to overcome the barrier of lack of female mentorship which would then make them to retain their position as principals. Majority, 57(51.4%) of the principals said that participating in women professional network would enable them overcome the same barrier. This means that accessing professional networks would provide the mentors who are critical in supporting upcoming female teachers.

Table 4.41: Deputy Principals views on coping strategies on lack of women professionals

Copying Strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I participate in women professional network	68	50.0	35	25.7	33	24.3
I create girl networks where female teachers are linked	52	39.1	39	29.3	42	31.6
I encourage female teachers to look up for professional support groups and join	61	44.2	40	29.0	37	26.8

Majority, 68(50.0%) of the deputy principals ranked their participation in women professional network as the most important coping strategy that would enable them overcome the barrier on lack of women professional networks and hence support their upward mobility. Similarly, 61(44.2%) of the deputy principals ranked their encouragement of female teachers to look up for professional support groups and join as their most important coping strategy to overcome lack of women professionals for mentorship. This agrees with the assertion that mentoring is one of the answers to barriers and obstacles that women administrators deal with and hence creation of women professional groups provides ample support for them (Whitaker

and Lane, 1990). The District Education Officers and Quality Assurance and Standard officers were in agreement that professional support groups were critical in providing support and mentorship to female leaders. In fact one of the DEOs said:

In my district female teachers have formed support groups which are used as fora for empowerment and encouragement among themselves in addition to sharing experiences and my office supports them one hundred percent because I know the value which it adds to them.

Coping strategies on how to overcome old boy's networks as a barrier

The study also sought to seek principals' and deputy principals' opinion on how they coped with presence of old boys' networks. They were required to rank the coping strategies with a rank of **1 being most important, 2 being neutral and 3 being least important**. The results are presented in Table 4.42 and 4.43.

Table 4.42: Principals' opinions on how to cope with old boys' network

	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Copying strategies						
I look up for other relationship position to join	39	33.9	28	24.3	48	41.7
I create a girls network where female teachers are linked	50	41.8	41	33.6	30	24.6
I establish female friendly channels of communication	51	42.4	22	18.6	46	39.0

Table 4.42 captures the opinions of principals on how they coped with the barrier relating to prevalence of old boys' networks within organizations. Majority 51(42.4%) of the principals said that in order to overcome old boy's networks there was need to establish female friendly channels of communication which would support the female teachers in their quest for leadership.

Table 4.43: Deputy Principals' opinion on how to cope with old boys' networks

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I look up for other relationship position to join	45	33.8	42	31.6	46	34.6
I create a girls network where female teachers are linked	65	47.8	37	27.2	34	25.0
I establish female friendly channels of communication	61	42.7	36	25.2	46	32.2

Table 4.43 shows the deputy principal's opinions on the coping strategy adopted to overcome old boys' network prevalent in school organizations. Majority, 65(47.8%) of the deputy principals ranked creation of girls networks where female teachers are linked as the most important coping strategy against presence of old boy's network as a hindrance to women participation in school management positions.

This is in agreement with Growe's, (1999) observation that lack of formal and informal social groups and clubs for women unlike the men results to lack of recognition that often affects women's advancement and therefore they must form their own support groups Growe, (1999). This was also emphasised by a District Education Officer who noted that female teachers were unable to penetrate boys network groups and situations was worse for them because they lacked networks of their own. One of them went on to say that,

Some female teachers even find it difficult to attend the annual heads conference which is held annually which to me is an important meeting where decisions are made and significant networks are created.

Coping strategies on lack of willingness to mentor by female principals

The study also sought principals' and deputy principals' opinion on how to cope with the barrier relating to unwillingness of female principals to mentor others. They were asked to rank the coping strategies on the basis of **1, being most important, 2, being neutral and 3, being least important**. This is shown in Tables 4.44 and 4.45.

Table 4.44: Principals opinion on how to cope with unwilling female principals to mentor

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I befriend female principals	30	25.4	36	30.5	52	44.1
I try to trust female principals	37	31.6	39	33.3	41	35.0
I work in close collaboration with female principals	70	61.4	14	12.3	30	26.3

Table 4.44 captures principals' opinion on how to cope with the barrier of unwilling female principals to mentors other upcoming female teachers and thus affected their upward progression. Majority, 70(61.4%) of the principals alluded to the fact that working in close collaboration with female principals would be an effective strategy to cope with female principals unwillingness to mentor others. This is because most principal prefer to create a social distance between themselves and the rest of the female teachers.

Table 4.45: Deputy Principal's opinions on how to cope with unwilling female principals to mentor

Coping strategies	Most important 1		Neutral 2		Least important 3	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
I befriend female principals	27	20.3	36	27.1	70	52.6
I try to trust female principals	33	24.6	62	46.3	39	29.1
I work in close collaboration with female principals	104	70.3	22	14.9	22	14.9

Asked how they coped with female principal's unwillingness to mentor females, majority, 104(70.3%) of the deputy principals ranked working in close collaboration with female principals as the most important coping strategy to overcome the same while 70(52.6%) of the deputy principals ranked befriending female principals as the least important coping strategy. This is in recognition of the fact that the use of mentors to assist present and future leaders is a powerful tool that may be used to bring about more effective school practices (Cullen and Luna, 1991). A majority of QASOs observed that some principals especially the old ones were willing to mentor but the young principals were always competing and were never willing to be mentored because each one of them was busy creating their own empires. One DEO also said that his office was taking initiatives to organise mentoring programmes which were mandatory for all to attend and share experiences and that underscores the value of mentoring in nurturing leaders.

Affirmative Action policy in Kenya

The study sought to establish from the principals and deputy principals if they were aware of the affirmative action policy. The results are illustrated in Figure 4.20

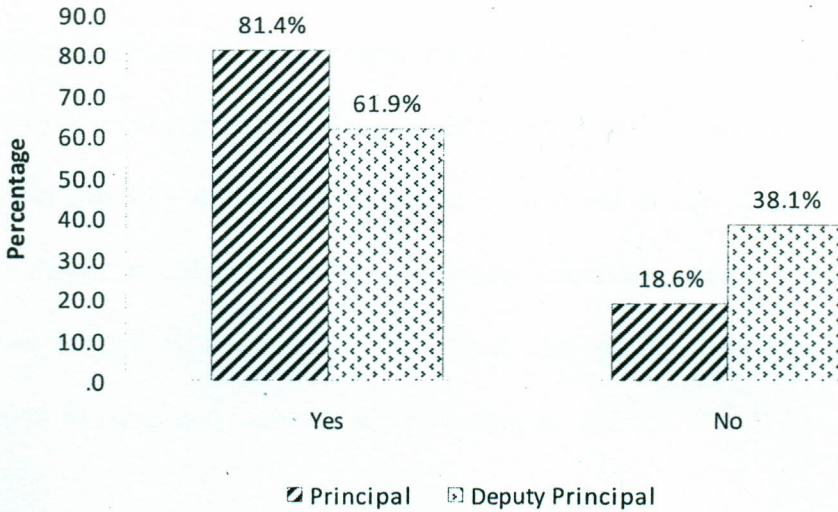


Figure 4.20: Awareness of Affirmative Policy by Principals and Deputy Principals

Figure 4.20 shows that majority, 96(81.4%) of the principals and 104(61.9%) of the deputy principals were aware of the affirmative policy in Kenya. This means that the respondents were aware of the critical role that the policy played in elevating women to management positions. This has gone a long way in increasing the number of women in leadership positions by presenting equal opportunities to professionals regardless of the gender. The policy has also created unbiased avenues for upward mobility to critical managerial and decision making positions. The Gender Policy in Education (2007) envisaged a situation where gender based historical injustices against women would be resolved in the education sector and indeed in all public institutions.

This was echoed by Hillary Clinton, a former USA's first lady and Secretary of State, who affirmed the need to support the rise of women leadership in public and private sectors because they bring firsthand knowledge and understanding of the

challenges and their perspective will add great value and hence the need to embrace affirmative action policy to bring many of them on board (Hillary, 2012). There was however a contrary opinion expressed by one District Education Officer who felt that the Affirmative Action Policy was actually disadvantaging the female gender where the officer noted that women numbers in leadership always stopped at one third and never beyond. She wondered, "Why can't men take the one third and women take the two third if we want fairness since women are the majority?"

The study also sought to establish from the respondents if they were aware of any major difference Affirmative Policy had made in eliminating the barriers that prevented women from ascending to management positions in the education sector on equal terms with men. Several responses were given Firstly, majority of the respondents alluded to the fact that Affirmative Action Policy gave equal opportunities for both genders to be included in the leadership. This is in agreement with the fact the policy is committed to the principal of equal opportunity in education and employment. This fostered diversity and inclusion supported by equal opportunities that are outlined by policies and procedures to ensure that employment related actions are made without regard to non work characteristics like race, gender, religion disability among others (Mtn, diversity and inclusion,2011).This is also consistent with the vision 2030 which outlined the aim of the affirmative action policy to be that of ensuring that women have at least 30% representation in recruitment, promotion and appointment at all decision making levels so as to increase participation and representation. Secondly, Affirmative Policy increased female visibility in the management positions which has been a preserve of men.

This is in response to the one third gender rule provided for by the policy. Thirdly, Affirmative Action Policy assisted in eradicating discrimination which was responsible for relegating the female leaders to the periphery by deliberately instituting mechanisms which advantaged the female gender. This is consistent with (Makura, (2014) who reveals that the affirmative policy was a deliberate attempt that was aimed at eradicating discrimination on the basis of gender, colour and religion. Further it notes that the major intention of the policy was to provide equal opportunities to all groups in the society including women. This is because the policy has reserved specific quotas for the female gender in leadership positions. Fourthly, it was pointed out that affirmative action policy tries to empower educated women professionals in Kenya which makes them compete favourably with the male counterparts. This notion was actually supported by majority of District educational officers and Quality Assurance Officers who alluded to the fact that the affirmative action policy promoted women empowerment.

While affirmative action has been hailed as a milestone in eradicating discrimination and reforming the educational sector, its result remains a contested terrain (Makura, 2000). The percentage of women in school administration has barely risen as women continue to work in an environment characterised by obstacles that hinder their upward mobility. This has been attributed to the fact that it is a quota filling but not a development oriented exercise. Further some African governments are not committed to the cause of women whereas some women regard the policies as token gestures from un- appreciative patriarchal society. This is indeed a manifestation of deep seated conservative perceptions and backlash which have made countries like America where the policy has been for a long time to fail to achieve its objective as

expected. Due to this development it may be necessary to institute school based programmes that are aimed at empowering the girl child. Sadly due to cultural influence, the African woman lacks self esteem and therefore the school based programme should offer an education that mentally liberates the woman in addition to instituting the Affirmative Action Policies (Makura, 2000, Saitoti, 2007).

The study sought to find out from the deputy principals how they were promoted to their current positions. The results are illustrated in Figure 4.21.

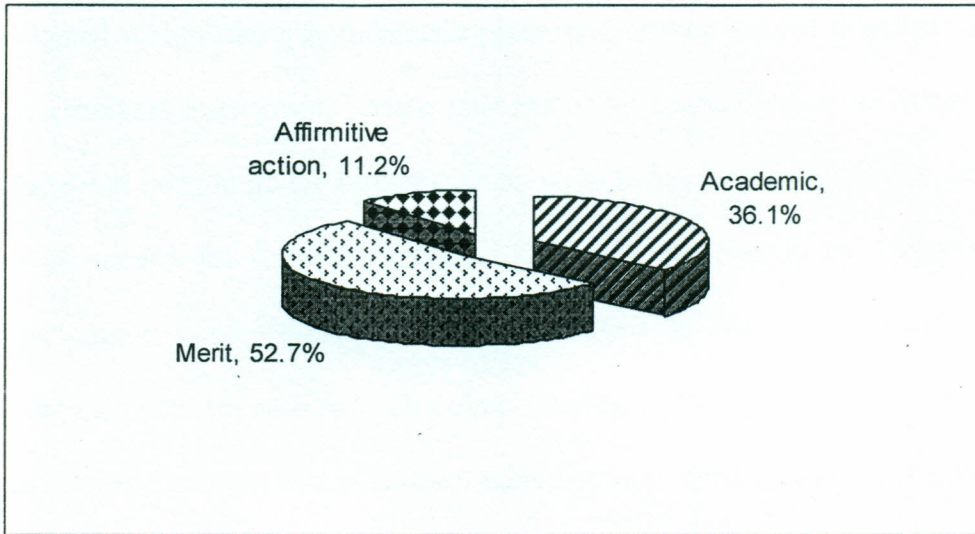


Figure: 4.21 Promotion Criteria for Deputy Principals

Majority, 89(52.7%) of the deputy principal were promoted to the current position on merit while 61 (36.1%) attributed their promotion to academic qualifications. Similarly, 19 (11.2%) attributed their promotion to their position to Affirmative Acton Policy which has played a critical role in elevating the female gender to the senior management positions.

4.5 Strategies adopted by female principals to remain successful in their school organizations.

The fourth objective of the study was to establish the coping mechanisms which were undertaken by female principals to remain successful in their careers. To achieve this, the following research question was posed: **What mechanisms have been embraced by female principal to remain successful in their school organizations?**

Principals and deputy principals were asked to state the mechanisms that they felt if adopted would make them remain successful in their school organizations. Several mechanisms were given. Firstly, majority of the respondents were in agreement that there was need to go for further training so as to equip themselves with the skills that were needed for leadership. This confirms an observation by Tsoka, (2001) that institutions need to put training mechanisms in place to constantly train the administrators because this has a direct bearing on their performance. The study went to further highlight that individual administrators need to take their own initiatives and further their skills. This was in response to the fact that women were still under-represented in management levels within the organizations and one method of making a difference to this situation was the provision of positive action training that was geared towards the female managers. This was also seen as a potential way to break through the glass ceiling (Anderson, 2004).

Secondly, both principals and deputy principals were emphatic that the female principals needed to be courageous and remain focussed so that they could perform their duties as expected. This was an effective coping mechanism which was

recommended by majority of District Education Officers. A similar observation was made by Quality and Assurance and Standard Officers who were also in agreement that female principals have no choice but to remain focussed in their work if they have to remain successful in their careers as administrators. Further there were principals and deputy principals who felt that female principals needed to be more assertive so as to compete favourably with the male gender. This view was also expressed by DEOs who reiterated that assertiveness for female principals was critical if they were to remain successful. In fact one of them said,

Female principals must always assert themselves and they must never allow intimidation from male principals who are afraid of them excelling as they fear ganged on their parameters.

Thirdly, there is the need to be more courageous as a woman and demand for gender equality. This agrees with an observation earlier cited that leaders are genderless and what matters is how they drive their vision. Fourthly, there was need to create networks and other support groups where the female principals would access the much needed information to empower them. Fifthly, the respondents also stated that for female principals to be successful there was need to form female principals associations which would further support the female teachers. In fact one of the District Educational Officers was emphatic that he had initiated female principals association in his district and he was impressed by the support female teachers were getting from the same. Sixthly, female teachers needed to mentor others and also agree to be mentored for professional support and growth. Finally, there was need for networking so that the female principals could receive relevant information to give them advantage as well as working in close collaboration with other female principals for support.

The coping mechanisms adopted by the female principals to remain successful in their organizations means that deliberate efforts must be taken by the female principals to be able to cope with the organizational barriers which derail their performance. This is consistent with a study done by Ouston (1992) who advised that getting women into top job demands strategic planning for it does not just happen through good will or good intentions. The District Education officers and Quality Assurance and Standard Officers were in agreement that female principals must take personal initiatives if they have to remain successful at the helm of school organizations.

The study sought to find out how long each of the deputy principals had served in their current schools. This was meant to establish whether experience was an effective coping mechanism which was considered as an aspect necessary for promotion. The results are shown in the figure 4.22.

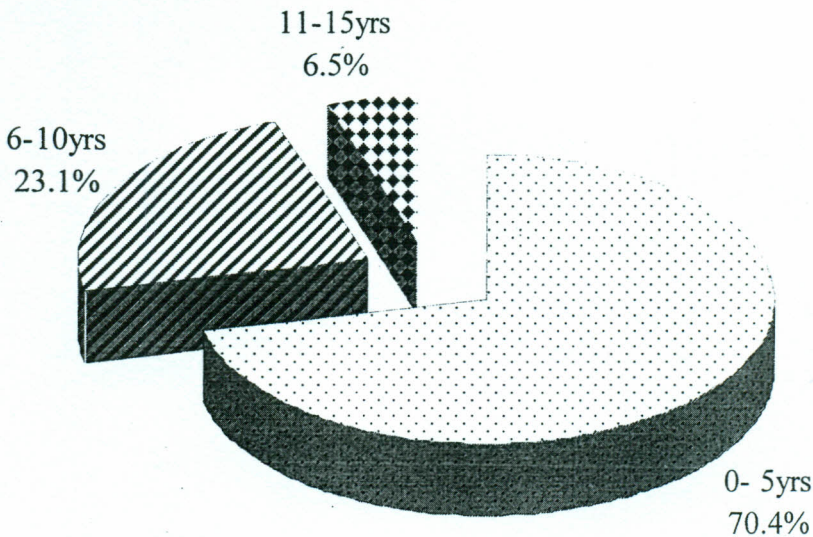


Figure 4.22: Period Deputy Principal had served in Current School

Figure 4.22 shows that, 119 (70.4%) of the deputy principals had served in their current schools for between 0 to 5 years. This means in case a principal would be transferred the deputy principals would be left running the schools until a new principal would be posted to the school. This therefore implies that deputy principals got the opportunities to acquire the relevant experience that was needed for promotion. This is consistent with an observation by District Education Officers that sometimes when deputy principals were left to act as principals they received relevant exposure to practice their administrative skills in addition to gaining experience which is vital for headship.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes research findings, presents the conclusions and makes policy recommendations. Lastly the chapter presents suggestions where further research could be carried out as it emerged from the study.

5.2 Summary

The purpose of the study was to establish the organizational barriers that influence female mobility in management of secondary schools as well as map out the coping strategies employed to overcome the same in secondary schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties with a view of informing educational practices in Kenya. The subjects of the study were female principals, male principals, female deputy principals, District Educational Officers and Quality Assurance and Standard Officers. To achieve the objectives of the study, data were collected from four hundred and seventeen respondents through the use of questionnaires. A total of forty three interviews were conducted. The data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics in order to adequately give answers to research questions as well as assist in the testing of hypothesis.

Descriptive survey design was used as the frame work to guide the study. Below is the summary of the main findings as per objective.

5.2.1 Background characteristics of both Principals and Deputy Principals and how they influenced female teacher's upward mobility to principalship.

The first objective of the study was to establish the influence of age, gender and level of education on upward mobility of female teachers. On the aspect of age, the study found that majority of the principals and deputy principals were aged between 31 and 40 years indicating that majority of the principals were relatively young. As to whether age had any influence on female teachers' upward mobility to principalship, the study established that age was not statistically significant.

With regards to gender, the study established that majority of the principals in the mixed schools were male. Gender had no significance to upward mobility of female teachers to principalship. However, as indicated most of the principals were male. The p -values were all greater than the level of significance. The study summarizes that gender did not play a critical role in locking female teachers out of principalship. Finally, on the level of education, the study established that majority of the principals and deputy principals had their level of education as BEd. As to whether the level of education influenced upward mobility of the female teachers, the study established that the level of educations was not an obstacle to upward mobility of female teachers.

5.2.2 Organizational barriers that secondary school principals encountered as they ascended to management positions

The second objective of this study was to identify and examine the organizational barriers that secondary school principals encountered as they ascended to principalship. The barriers included: organizational recruitment practices, organizational culture, mentoring, tokenisms and organizational networks.

On organizational recruitment practices, the study established that there were organizational recruitment and selection practices that hindered secondary school female teachers from rising to the position of principal. These included: biased recruitment processes, selection criterion that was gender specific and not qualification specific, intimidating interview panels which favoured the male gender, Biased promotion criterion where female teachers were disadvantaged, biased screening and short listing processes where the female teachers were left out despite their qualifications and interviews conducted far from the schools where female teachers were unable to attend due to work-family conflict. This study summarizes that among the principals it was the interviews conducted far from the schools where female teachers were unable to attend due to work conflict that hindered upward mobility of the female teachers most. However among the deputy principals it was the biased recruitment process which affected the upward mobility of female teachers most.

The respondents were also required to rank organizational practices on a scale of 1 to 3 with **(1-being the most important reason and 3-being the least important)** so as to establish the reason that prohibited upward mobility of secondary school female teachers most. The study established that there were biased recruitment processes where total disregard to the recruitment criteria was cited as the most important reason hindering qualified secondary school female teachers from accessing principalship as shown by majority of the principals. On specific weaknesses of the recruitment policy, most of the principals felt that the lack of specific times when advertisement for principals was done was the most important reason that hindered them from rising to principalship. The study also confirmed that female teachers

were being discriminated against in favour of their male counterparts and this was attributed to stereotyped ideas about women inability to ascend to principalship as supported by most of the principals. Finally on the barrier of un-supportive work and family environment which disadvantaged the female principals, the study found that the most important reason was the structuring of public offices as male places.

With regards to organizational **cultural practices** as a barrier that hindered female teacher's upward mobility, the study established that biased organizational cultural practices played a critical role in hindering female teachers' upward mobility as shown by the outcome of the specific cultural practices that the respondents were required to address. This is because the mean for all the cultural practices was less than 3.0 indicating a positive perception towards the same. The study established that it was the prevalence of male dominance within organizations where female headship was sidelined that was confirmed as the greatest aspect of organizational culture that affected female teachers' upward progression as supported by majority of both principals and deputy principals

On the barrier on **lack of mentoring**, this study found out that mentoring played a pivotal role in supporting female teachers to access principalship as shown by a majority of the principals who appreciated that mentors gave them a sense of identity and professional competence hence making them suitable for leadership. This study also established that cross gender mentoring was the most preferred type of mentoring which supported female teachers to ascend to principalship as it was indicated by most of the principals and deputy principals. Majority of those who preferred female to female mentoring said that it was less suspicious while those who

chose cross gender mentoring alluded to the fact that men were more open when mentoring.

The respondents were asked to respond to given aspects of mentoring which deterred female deputy principals from rising to senior management positions and the means generated were less than (2.5) which indicated that most of the given aspects of mentoring were a barrier to female teacher's upward mobility. The study established that it was the lack of willingness of female principals to mentor female teachers which affected upward mobility the most. This study therefore summarises that absence of mentors in many organizations is detrimental to women empowerment and therefore does not foster upward mobility of female teachers.

On the barrier of **tokenism**, this study established that all the following aspects of tokenism hindered female secondary school principals from rising to senior management positions as shown by a mean of less than (3.0) in a five point likert scale. To start with, the respondents felt that due to the minimal number of women in management positions, female principals experienced high visibility where they felt intimidated because of being few among men in leadership as indicated by most of the principals and deputy principals. The study also found out that additional work pressure where female principals got discouraged as they were expected to prove their performance against the male principals also acted as a barrier that deterred them from accessing principalship. Finally the study found that loneliness and isolation of female principals by the male colleagues discouraged aspiring female teachers who desired to become principals and hence opted to remain in the class room.

The last barrier that influenced female mobility to management position was the absence of **organizational networks** which were confirmed to hinder female teachers from rising to principalship. The study established that lack of networking affected upward mobility of female teachers in school organizations. Majority of the principals positively felt that there was presence of old boys' network within organizations where vital decisions were made in the absence of the female gender which side lined the female teachers. A similar perception was shared by the deputy principals who concurred with the principals. The study also established that indeed there was absence of girls' networks within organizations to support female principals already in headship positions.

5.2.3 Coping strategies used by secondary female principals to overcome the organizational barriers

The third objective of this study was to establish the coping strategies that the secondary school female principals used to overcome the organizational barriers that influenced the upward mobility of female teachers. Summary of the findings on the coping strategies is linked to specific organizational barriers that the respondents were asked to respond to.

On dealing with **leadership that excludes women from management positions** the study established that the most effective strategy that was ranked most important by majority of the respondents was that they asserted themselves in presenting their qualifications as shown by majority of the principals and deputy principals. In order to deal with the barrier on promotions tied to transfers the most important coping strategy the fact that they sought family support. The study further established that in

order to overcome the barrier on promotion based on lack of long experiences a vast majority of principals and deputy principals ranked highly the fact that they ensured they met the basic promotion criteria and being professional as one of the ways of supporting female principals to overcome the same.

On the barrier relating to women leadership being looked down upon, Majority of the principals and deputy principals agreed that they coped with the barrier by ensuring that they met the basic promotion criteria that enabled them to compete favourably with the male counterparts. With **regards to male dominance in school organizations** the study observed that respondents were able to cope by also ensuring that they met the basic promotion criteria as indicated by most of the principals and deputy principals who shared the same notion with the principals. This study further established that they were able to overcome the barrier on **women being expected to serve male colleagues** by demanding for gender equality openly in all staffs meetings.

On how the respondents coped with **lack of female mentorship** within organizations, the study found out that women overcame the barrier on lack of women professional fora by creating professional networks to support their leadership as stated by most of the principals and the deputy principals. On the presence of old boys' networks within the organizations a vast majority of the principals and the deputy principals asserted that they depended on the creation of girls networks as the most important coping strategy. Finally on the unwillingness of female principals to mentor female teachers, majority of the principals and the

deputy principals ranked highly the fact that they closely collaborated with the female principals as a sure way to overcome that barrier.

The researcher sought to know from the respondents if they were aware of the Affirmative Action Policy. The study found out that a vast majority of the principals were aware of the Policy and the significant role it played in supporting female leaders. On whether the policy has played a critical role in eliminating the barriers that prevent women from accessing management positions, most of the respondents agreed that it discouraged gender discrimination and hence provided equal chances to both men and women in leadership positions. The study also found out that the policy provided an opportunity for the educated women to be empowered as alluded to by a majority of respondents.

5.2.4 Coping mechanisms used by female principals

The fourth objective of the study was to identify the coping mechanisms that female principals used to remain successful in their school organizations. The respondents were asked to state the coping mechanisms which when put in place would assisted the female principals to remain successful in their school organizations. This study established that, there was need for principals to be attending more seminars which would create awareness amongst them and empower them with extra skills. There was also the need for female leaders to be more assertive in their work and remain focused if they have to compete favourably with men. The respondents also expressed the need for female principals to be more courageous and demand for equality in leadership positions. The respondents also cited the need for female principals to go for further training so that they would stand a competitive advantage whenever they were expected to compete with the male counterparts. In addition the

respondents noted that there was need for networking in order to get support and access to vital information that would enable them access management positions. The principals also reiterated the need to work in close collaboration with other principals so as to encourage and support each other.

5.3 Conclusions

This section focuses on conclusions based on findings by objectives that guided the study. They include:

5.3.1 To examine the background characteristics of both principals and deputy principals and how they influenced upward mobility of female teachers to principalship

With regard to the background characteristics of both principals and deputy principals, the study concludes that age, gender and level of education were not significant as far as upward mobility of female teachers to principalship concerned.

5.3.2 To identify the organizational barriers that female school principals encounter as they ascend to principalship in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties

With regard to the **organizational recruitment practices**, this study concludes that biased recruitment process was the major aspect of the recruitment practices that hindered upward mobility of female teachers to principalship.

With regard to organizational **cultural practices**, the study concludes that organizational culture played a critical role in locking female teachers out of management positions.

On **mentoring**, the study concludes that cross gender mentoring was the most preferred type of mentoring which supported female teachers upward mobility. The study also concludes that absence of mentors in school organizations is detrimental to women empowerment and therefore discourages female teachers from accessing principalship.

On **organizational networks**, the study concludes that absence of effective organizational links and female networks played a pivotal role in ensuring that female leaders remained at the periphery in most organizations.

On **tokenism**, the study concludes that tokenism practices within organizations hindered the upward progression of female teachers and hence must be eliminated.

5.3.3 To identify the coping strategies that female secondary school teachers used to overcome the organizational barriers to principalship

On **leadership that excluded women from management position**, the study concludes that the most effective coping strategy was female teachers being more assertive especially when presenting their qualifications. The study also concludes that the most effective strategy to overcome the barrier on promotions tied to transfers was seeking family support so that the female principals are able to balance work and family. Lastly on promotion based on lack of experience the study

concludes that the most effective coping strategy was the female teachers ensuring that they met the basic promotion criteria.

On women **leadership being looked down upon**, the study concludes that the most effective way to overcome male dominance within organizations was ensuring that they met the basic promotion criteria. Finally on overcoming the barrier on women expected to serve male colleagues, the most effective coping strategy was demanding for equality in all school activities.

On how female teachers coped with **lack of female mentorship** within organizations, the study concludes that to deal with lack of women professional fora, creating professional networks to support the female teachers played a pivotal in overcoming the same. In order to deal with the presence of boy's network within organizations, the study concludes that creating girls networks within organizations to empower female teachers enabled them to overcome the same. Finally on the barrier of the unwillingness of female principals to mentor female teachers, the study concludes that female teachers needed to work in close collaboration with female principals.

The study also concludes that affirmative Action Policy plays a significant role in eliminating the barriers that hinders the upward mobility of female teachers. This is because the policy addressed historical injustices that had disadvantaged the female gender hence providing more avenues for them to increase their visibility in organizations.

5.3.4 To establish the coping mechanisms employed by female principals to remain successful in their school organizations.

On coping mechanisms, employed by female principals to remain successful in their school organizations, the study concludes that frequent training sessions among principals to facilitate acquisition of new skills made them more effective. There was also attending seminars, workshops so as to raise the level of awareness among female teachers. Finally the study concludes that the bottom line behind female principals being successful in their careers was for them to assertive , be courageous and create strong female networks to support them.

5.4 Recommendations

This section makes study recommendations in the light of the findings that were guided by the objectives. They include; those related to policy, practice and suggestions for further research.

5.4.1 Policy Recommendations

The study came up with the following policy recommendations as per the objectives.

Objective 2: To identify the organizational barriers that female principals encounter as they ascend to principalship.

On the **recruitment process** the study established the existence of weaknesses that affected the upward mobility of female teachers. The study therefore recommends the following:

- i). Interviewing panels should be gender balanced and should be educated so as to conduct the interviews in a gender sensitive manner. There is need

for them to be sensitised to view women as professionals with equal abilities to undertake challenging leadership responsibilities.

- ii). The promotion criteria should be reviewed to remove the biasness that disadvantages female principals.
- iii). The screening and short listing process should be reviewed to remove the aspects that disadvantage the female teachers.
- iv). The interviews should be decentralized to the TSC county offices to favour female teachers who are unable to attend interviews far from home.

With regards to organizational **cultural practices** as a barrier that influenced upward mobility, the study established that biased organizational cultures played a critical role in locking female teachers out of management positions.

This study therefore recommends that:

- i. School organizations should embrace gender mainstreaming which will counter biased organizational cultures that are characterized by discriminative systems and masculinity which disadvantages the female gender.
- ii. There should be enforcement of Affirmative Action and enacting of organizational policies which discourage gender based stereotypes in line with the Kenyan Constitution 2010.
- iii. The MoE should embrace social, institutional and educational reforms that will entrench the culture of inclusivity.

Lack of mentoring in organizations was a significant factor that hindered female teachers from advancing to the position of principal. Cognizant of the critical role that mentoring plays in the advancement of managers within the organization this study recommends that:

- i. School organizations should put mechanisms in place to ensure that mentoring is anchored within their frameworks.
- ii. School organizations should embrace succession management with more focus on the female leaders.
- iii. Sensitization and mainstreaming of professional culture so that mentoring is appreciated as a professional interaction.
- iv. Female principals in influential positions should be sensitized on the need to embrace positive attitudes towards voluntary transfer of knowledge, skills and values so that upcoming professionals can benefit.

With regard to **networking**, the study found that the presence of old boys' networks where vital decisions' were made in the absence of the female gender contributed significantly in locking women out of management positions. This study therefore recommends that:

- i. Educational institutions should encourage the formation of cross gender professional associations which offer equal opportunities for professionals regardless of their gender.
- ii. Organizations undertake gender inclusive activities that promote female participation in leadership activities.

Objective 3: To identify the coping strategies that female principals used to overcome the organizational barriers

On the coping **strategies** specifically when dealing with leadership that excluded women, the study recommends that:

- i. Promotions should not be tied to transfers.
- ii. School organizations should establish support systems for female teachers which initiate and boost their confidence.
- iii. School organizations should have flexible support schedules that support female teachers.
- iv. School organizations should put in place sustainable training programmes to nurture the positive attitudes so that self esteem and confidence comes out spontaneously for women to take up leadership responsibilities.

Objective 4: To identify the coping mechanisms used by female principals to remain successful in school organizations

On coping mechanisms that should be employed by female principals to remain successful in school organizations the study recommends that:

- i. School organizations should establish support mechanisms and assist the female teachers to access networks to support them when running the school organizations.
- ii. The MoE and TSC should encourage female principals and teachers to attend professional fora such as local and international symposiums to strengthen the principals networking with peers.

5.4.2 Suggestions for further research

This study suggests further research in the following areas:

a) Organizational barriers that female teachers encounter as they ascend to management positions in primary schools

- i. On organizational barriers, it was clear that there was deficiency in terms of policy interventions as relates to recruitment practices that governed the process of recruitment to principalship. This study suggests a study to be conducted interrogating the effectiveness of policies that are there to guide the recruitment process to address the gaps that the study revealed.
- ii. The researcher while in the field discovered from the key informants notably the DEOs that the problem of female under-representation was more prevalent in primary schools where the numbers of female teachers were higher with very few managing to break through the glass ceiling. This emerged from the interviews that were conducted. This study suggests a study to be done exploring the reasons why the situation is so at the primary level.

b) Effectiveness of the coping strategies in overcoming organizational barriers

This study focussed on coping strategies that female teachers undertook to overcome the organizational barriers which they faced as they ascended to the position of principals, but never sought to establish their effectiveness. This study therefore suggests a study to be carried out to investigate the effectiveness of the coping strategies employed by female teachers to overcome the organizational barriers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

Questionnaire for Male and Female Principals Purpose

The purpose of this questionnaire is to solicit information relating to organizational barriers faced by secondary school female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties in Kenya. It further seeks to gather information about the coping strategies embraced by female principals to overcome the barriers.

INSTRUCTIONS

The researcher kindly requests you to respond to the questions asked. You are assured that the responses given will be kept in confidence and used for research purposes only. You are reminded not to indicate your name anywhere in this questionnaire. In section A tick the responses that you find suitable in the provided boxes. In section B and C (✓) tick where appropriate in the spaces provided.

Section A: Background information of the respondents**Tick where applicable**

1. **Age:** Below 30 yrs 31 to 40yrs 41 to 50 yrs
50 yrs and above
2. **Gender:** Female Male
3. **Marital Status:** Single Married Divorced
Widowed Separated
4. **Religion:** Christianity Islam Others
5. **Level of education:** Diploma BEd BA/ PGDE
Sc/PGDE Med PhD
Any other (Specify).....
6. **Teaching Experience:** Below 5 yrs 6-10yrs
11-15yrs 16-20yrs 21-30yrs Over 30 yrs
7. **Experience as Principal:** Below 5 yrs 6-10yrs 11-15 yrs
16-20yrs 21-30yrs Over 30 yrs

8. **Year of establishment of the school:**

9. **School sponsor:**

10. **County :** Meru Machakos Isiolo

11. **Category of school:** Private Public

12. **Type of school:** Girls only Mixed school Boys only

13. **Current Student Population:** below-500 501-1000
1001-1500 1501-2000

14. **Number of streams in:** Form 1 Form 2 Form 3
Form 4

Section B: Organizational barriers

15. The following are managerial recruitment practices that hinder secondary school female teachers from rising to management positions. Tick them in the order in which you agree or disagree (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree) (3-Not sure) (4-Disagree) (5-Strongly Disagree)

Recruitment practices	1	2	3	4	5
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers					
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualifications specific					
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favored.					
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged					
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualifications					
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict.					

16. From each of the following groups of organizational practices, rank in order of merit the most **important reason as 1** and the **least important reason as 3** to indicate what you think hinders qualified secondary school female teachers from rising to senior management positions in secondary schools.

(a) Biased recruitment processes.

1. Total disregard to the recruitment criteria
2. Recruitment to headship based on gender and not qualifications
3. Intimidating recruitment panel against the female gender

(b) Lack of a clear policy to guide the recruitment process

1. No specific times when advertisements for principals are done
2. Interferences with the recruitment process by the TSC
3. No clear policy direction on how female principals will be recruited

(c) Female teachers being discriminated upon in favour of their male counterparts

1. Stereotyped ideas about women inability to ascend to headship.
2. Male dominance in most institutions
3. Female teachers denied information on available vacancies

(d) Un-supportive work and family environment which disadvantages the female principals

1. Inflexible work schedules
2. Female principals unable to balance family and office responsibilities
3. Construction of public offices as male spaces

17. List three most important professional development management courses that you have attended in the last five years beginning with the most recent.

	Year	Course	Provider
1			
2			
3			

18. State one major benefit from each of the three courses attended that contributed to your current promotion.

- i). Course 1
- ii). Course 2
- iii). Course 3

19. To what extent would you agree with the following statements regarding organizational culture deterring female teachers from rising to senior management positions? Respond by ticking the most appropriate answer (1- Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5- Disagree strongly).

.ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE	1	2	3	4	5
Cultural norms where the women's place is supposed to be at home caring for the family					
Male dominance in organizations where female headship is sidelined.					
Oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspirations and competencies are ignored.					
Societal prejudices against the female gender					

20. (a) Do you have a mentor that you look up to for guidance in relation to your professional growth? Yes No.
- (b) If No, please move to question 22 below
- (c) If yes, is the mentor male female
21. If you answered YES in question 20 above, please choose one answer to represent how mentoring assisted you to attain your current management positions.
- i). Mentoring assisted you to access networks which assisted your upward mobility
- ii). Mentoring gave you a sense of identity and professional competence hence suitable for headship
- iii). Mentoring offers professional support to women managers hence promotes career growth
22. Tick the kind of mentoring which you think is more effective in supporting female teachers to ascend to headship positions in secondary schools:
- Female to female mentoring
- Cross gender mentoring

23. Give one major reason to justify your answer in number 22 above.....

.....

24. Please rank **1(lowest)** to **3(highest)** the means that enables female principals to reach their top positions.

1. Bribery
2. Affirmative action by MoE
3. Competitive interview based on qualifications

25. Use a tick, to indicate whether you agree with the following aspects of mentoring which deter secondary female teachers from rising to senior management positions. Give your response in a five point scale (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5- Disagree strongly)

Mentoring processes	1	2	3	4	5
Absence of mentors to motivate female teachers wishing to become heads					
Dominance by male principals as mentors hence female teachers feel victimized					
Presence of female principals who are unwilling to mentor female teachers fearing competition					

26. By using a tick, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following aspects of tokenism which deter secondary female principals from rising to senior management positions. Give your response in a five point scale (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5- strongly Disagree)

Tokenism practices	1	2	3	4	5
High visibility of female principals where women feel intimidated because of being few among men in leadership.					
Additional work pressure where female principals get discouraged because they must prove their performance against male principals.					
Loneliness and isolation of female principals and hence female teachers opt to remain in the class room					

27. By using a tick indicate the extent to which you agree with the following aspects of networking that deters secondary female teachers from rising to senior management positions.

Give your response in a five point scale (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5- Disagree strongly)

Networking aspects	1	2	3	4	5
Presence of old boys' networks where vital decisions are made in the absence of the female gender.					
Absence of girl's network within organizations to support female principals already in headship positions.					
Canvassing among male networks after working hours hence sidelining the female principals.					

SECTION C-COPING STRATEGIES

28. Rank in order of importance the coping strategies that you use to overcome the following specific organizational barriers in your career development path. **1 = Most important and 3= least important**

A. Biased organizational practices

1. Leadership training that excludes women

i). I challenge the training practice in the staff meeting

ii). I Lobby for female support from senior educational officers

iii).I Assert myself in presenting my qualifications

Any other (specify).....

2. Promotion tied to transfers

i). I Seek family support to take up transfers.....

ii). I lobby to be retained in the neighbouring school.....

iii).I express my willingness to serve any place.....

Any other (specify).....

3. Promotion based on long experiences

- i). I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria academically and professionally
- ii). I lobby for support from my immediate boss
- iii). I bribe my way through
- Any other (specify).....

B. Intimidating Organizational cultures

1. Women's leadership being looked down upon

- i). I ensure I have met the promotion criteria
- ii). I assert myself in the position
- iii). I lobby for male support
- Any other (specify).....
-

2. Male dominance in school organizations hierarchy.

- i). I meet the promotion criteria
- ii). I offer myself for leadership positions
- iii). I Lobby for female leadership
- Any other (specify).....

3. Women being expected to undertake domestic roles in formal set ups.

- i). I resist the practice
- ii). I demand gender equality openly in all school activities
- iii). I encourage males to serve both men and women.
- Any other (specify).....

C. Lack of female mentorship

1. Lack of women professional for a

- i). I participate in women professional network
- ii). I create girl networks where female teachers are linked
- iii). I encourage female teachers to look up for professional support groups and join
- Any other (specify).....
-

2. Presence of old boys' networks.

i). I look up for other leadership positions to join.

ii). I create a girls network where female teachers are linked

iii). I establish alternative female friendly channels of communication

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

3. Unwillingness of female principals to mentor female teachers

i). I befriend female principals

ii). I try to trust female principals

iii). I Work in close collaboration with female principals

Any other (specify).....

27. Are you aware of the Affirmative Action Policy in Kenya? YES NO

If yes what major difference has it made in eliminating the barriers that prevent women from ascending in the education sector on equal terms with men.
.....
.....

28. Suggest any coping mechanism that female secondary school principals can adopt to remain successful in their carriers
.....
.....

APPENDIX II

Organizational Barrier Questionnaire for Deputy Principals**Purpose**

The purpose of this questionnaire is to solicit information relating to organizational barriers faced by secondary school deputy female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties in Kenya. It further seeks to gather information about the coping strategies embraced by deputy female principals to overcome the barriers that may hamper their promotions.

INSTRUCTIONS

The researcher kindly requests you to respond to the questions asked. You are assured that the responses given will be kept in confidence and used for research purposes only. You are reminded not to indicate your name anywhere in this questionnaire. In section A tick the responses that you find suitable in the provided boxes. In section B and C (✓) tick where appropriate in the spaces provided.

Section A: Background information of the respondents**Tick where applicable**

1. **Age:** Below 30 yrs 31 to 40 yrs 41 to 50 yrs
50 yrs and above
2. **Marital Status:** Single Married Divorced
Widowed Separated
3. **Religion:** Christianity Islam Others
4. **Level of education:** Diploma BEd BA/ PGDE
BSc/PGDE MEd PhD
Any other(Specify)
5. **Teaching Experience:** Below 5 yrs 6-10yrs 11-15yrs
16-20yrs 21-30yrs Over 30 yrs

6. **Experience as Deputy:** Below 5 yrs 6-10yrs 11-15 yrs
16-20yrs 21-30yrs Over 30 yrs
7. **County:** Meru Machakos Isiolo
8. **Year of establishment of the school:**
9. **School sponsor:**
10. **Category of school:** Private Public
11. **Type of school:** Girls only Mixed school Boys only
12. **Current Student Population:** below-500 501-1000
1001-1500 1501-2000
13. **Number of streams in:** Form1 Form 2 Form 3
Form 4

SECTION B

14. How many years have you served as a deputy in your teaching career? less than
5yrs 6-10yrs 11-15yrs 16-20yrs
more than 20 years
15. How many years have you served as a deputy principal in your current school?
0 -5yrs 6-10yrs 11-15yrs
16-20yrs more than 20years
16. What criteria were used for your promotion to the current position?
Academic Merit Affirmative action any other specify
17. (a) Do you aspire to become a secondary school principal?
Yes No
- (b) If no please go to question 17g below
- (c) If yes give one **major** reason to explain why you wish to become a school principal?.....

(d) How many times have you applied to become a school principal? None
 2 3 4 more than 4

(e) How many times have you ever been shortlisted? None.1
 2 3 4 more than 4

(f) If you have ever been shortlisted more than once without being successful, what hindered you from being successful?.....

(g) Rank the reasons for not seeking promotion to Principalship with rank 1 being the most significant reason and rank 6 being the least significant reason.

1. Disillusioned with the promotion process
2. Satisfied with deputy principals position
3. Lack of opportunities to act as principals for relevant experience
4. 4, I do not know what to do to qualify for the post of principal
5. I have never been informed in time when the vacancy arises
6. I do not know how to canvass for the position

18. The following are managerial recruitment practices that hinder secondary school female deputy principals from rising to principalship. Tick them in the manner in which you agree or disagree (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree) (3-Not sure) (4-Disagree) (5-Strongly Disagree)

Recruitment practices	1	2	3	4	5
Biased recruitment process against the female teachers					
Selection criteria which is gender specific and not qualifications specific					
Intimidating interview panels where the male gender is favored.					
Biased promotion criteria where female principals are disadvantaged					
Biased screening and short listing process where female teachers are left out despite their qualifications					
Interviews conducted far away from the schools where female teachers may be unable to attend due to work family conflict.					

19. To what extent would you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding challenges of organizational training deterring female deputy principals from rising to principalship? Respond by ticking (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5-Strongly Disagree).

Organizational training	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of training opportunities for female teachers as compared with the male counterparts					
Stagnated career mobility occasioned by no training opportunities within organizations					
No clear career progression routes for deputy principals for females as compared with the male counterparts					
Few opportunities for female teachers promotion as deputy principals due to lack of adequate training.					
Lack of a clear policy to guide school organizational training					

20. To what extent would you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding organizational culture deterring female deputy principals from rising to senior management positions? Respond by ticking (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5-Strongly Disagree).

ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE	1	2	3	4	5
Cultural norms where the women's place is supposed to be at home caring for the family					
Male dominance in organizations where female headship is sidelined.					
Oppressive traditional beliefs where women's aspirations and competencies are ignored.					
Societal prejudices against the female gender					
Organizational rituals and practices that discriminate against the female gender					
Sexist practices that portray female gender as sex objects					

21. By using a tick indicate the extent to which you agree with the following aspects of networking that deters secondary female deputy principal from rising to senior management positions. Give your response in a five point scale (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5-Strongly Disagree)

Networking aspects	1	2	3	4	5
Presence of old boys' networks where vital decisions are made in the absence of the female gender.					
Absence of girl's network within organizations to support female principals already in headship positions.					
Canvassing among male networks after working hours hence sidelining the female principals.					

22. Use a tick, to indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following aspects of mentoring which deter secondary female teachers from rising to principalship. Give your response in a five point scale (1-Strongly agree) (2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5- Strongly Disagree).

Mentoring processes	1	2	3	4	5
Absence of mentors to motivate female teachers wishing to become heads					
Dominance by male principals as mentors hence female teachers feel victimized					
Presence of female principals who are unwilling to mentor female teachers fearing competition					

23. By using a tick, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following aspects of tokenism which deter secondary female teachers from rising to principalship. Give your response in a five point scale (1-Strongly agree)(2-Agree)(3-Not sure)(4-Disagree)(5- strongly Disagree)

Tokenism practices	1	2	3	4	5
High visibility of female principals where women feel intimidated because of being few among men in leadership.					
Additional work pressure where female principals get discouraged because they must prove their performance against male principals.					
Loneliness and isolation of female principals and hence female teachers opt to remain in the class room					

24. (a) Do you have a mentor that you look up to for guidance in relation to your professional position?

Yes No.

(b) If yes, is the mentor male female

(c) If No, please move to question 27 below

25. If you answered YES in question 24 above, please choose one answer to represent how mentoring assisted you to attain your current management position

(i) Mentoring assisted me to access networks which assisted your upward mobility

(ii) Mentoring gave me a sense of identity and professional competence hence suitable for headship

(iii) Mentoring offers professional support to female school managers hence promotes career growth

26. Which kind of mentoring do you think is more effective in supporting female teachers to ascend to headship positions in secondary schools: Tick whichever is applicable

Female to female mentoring

Cross gender mentoring

27. Give **one major** reason to justify your answer in number 24 above.

.....

SECTION C-COPING STRATEGIES

28. Rank in order of importance the coping strategies that you use to overcome the following specific organizational barriers in your career development path. **1 = Most important and 3= least important**

A. Biased organizational practices

1. Leadership training that excludes women

(i) I challenge the training practice in the staff meeting

(ii) I Lobby for female support from senior educational officers

(iii) I assert myself in presenting my qualifications

Any other (specify).....

2. Promotion tied to transfers

(i) I seek family support to take up transfers.....

(ii) I Lobby to be retained in the neighbouring school.....

(iii) I express my willingness to serve any place.....

3. Promotion based on long experiences

(i) I ensure I meet the basic promotion criteria academically and professionally

(ii) I lobby for support from my immediate boss

(iii) I bribe my way through.....

B. Intimidating Organizational cultures**1. Women's leadership being looked down upon**

- i. I ensure I have met the promotion criteria
- ii. I assert myself in the position
- iii. I lobby for male support
- Any other (specify).....

2. Male dominance in school organizations hierarchy.

- i. I meet the promotion criteria
- ii. I offer myself for leadership positions
- iii. I lobby for female leadership support

3. Women being expected to undertake domestic roles in formal set ups.

- i. I resist the practice
- ii. I demand gender equality in all school activities
- iii. I encourage males to serve both men and women.
-

C. Lack of female mentorship**1. Lack of women professional fora**

- (i) I participate in women professional network
- (ii) I create a girls networks where female teachers are linked
- (iii) I encourage female teachers to look up for professional support groups and join
- Any other (specify).....
-

2. Presence of old boys' networks.

- (i) I look up for other leadership positions to join.
- (ii) I create a girls network where female teachers are linked.
- (iii) I establish alternative female friendly channels of communication
- Any other (specify).....
-

3. Unwillingness of female principals to mentor female teachers

(i) I befriend female principals

(ii) I try to trust female principals

(iii) I Work in close collaboration with female principals

Any other (specify).....

.....

29. Are you aware of the Affirmative Action Policy in Kenya? YES NO

If yes what major difference has it made in eliminating the barriers that prevent school female deputy principals from ascending to the level of principals on equal terms with men peers

.....

30. Suggest any coping mechanism that female secondary school principals can adopt to remain successful in their carriers

.....

.....

APPENDIX III

**Interview guide: District Educational Officers and District Quality Assurance
and Standard Officers.**

Name of the interviewer:.....

Name of the interviewee:.....

Time of the interview.....

Objectives of the Interview:

The purpose of this interview is to gather information related to the organizational barriers that female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties encounter as they ascend to management positions. It further seeks to solicit information related to coping strategies that secondary school female principal's embrace to overcome the organizational barriers and remain successful in their careers.

After a brief introduction by the researcher on the research and its purpose, the interview may start with general questions about the school's history on headship. The researcher will seek to know how female teachers have ascended to management positions with a view of understanding specific organizational barriers and how they cope with them.

S.NO	Objectives	Main Question	Possible Probing Questions
1	To identify the organizational barriers faced by female principals in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties.	What organizational barriers do female principals encounter as they ascend to management positions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How do biased recruitment practices hinder female teachers from ascending to management positions? - How is selection done? - Comment on whether the selection criterion is gender specific or qualification specific. - Explain on the issue of lack of support for women's leadership in public offices - Comment on the disregard of women's aspirations for leadership positions. - How does cultural stereotyping affect female teachers' upward mobility? - What role is played by organizational networks in determining upward mobility for female principals? - How well are female teachers represented in these networks? - Shed more light on strong male networks which sidelines female principals in school organizations. - To what extent has mentoring assisted female teachers in their upward mobility? - Comment on cross gender mentoring which is prevalent in school organizations. - Explain how mentoring could offer professional support to female teachers who aspire to be

S.NO	Objectives	Main Question	Possible Probing Questions
			<p>principals</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How does minimal female presence in management positions hinder female teachers from rising to senior positions? - Comment on whether female principals experience additional work pressures as compared with their male colleagues. - Give your opinion on whether you feel public offices are constructed as male spaces.
2	To establish the coping strategies embraced by female principals to overcome the organizational barriers.	What are the coping mechanisms that are embraced by female principals to overcome the organizational barrier?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How has the promotion criteria used in secondary schools assisted female teachers to rise to management positions? - Comment on whether there are there defined quotas for women? - Explain how the Cleary defined quotas for women in recruitment increase their numbers in management positions. - Comment on whether recruitment to headship is based on gender or specific qualifications and competencies. - Explain how the affirmative action policy adopted in selection reduces the biasness towards the female teachers within the schools. - How has education and training for women improved their competitiveness to managerial positions?

S.NO	Objectives	Main Question	Possible Probing Questions
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How has improved professional training increased chances for female teachers to be appointed to management positions? - Explain how formation of small informal groupings supported female teachers as they ascend to management positions. - Explain the role of old boys' networks and girls networks in supporting female teachers to rise to senior management positions - How does exposure and delegation of significant tasks to female teachers prepare them for headship positions? - How is mentoring an empowerment tool for female teachers? - Comment on how increased female teachers assertiveness assisted to narrow the gap between male and female teachers to headship positions
3	To establish how female principals have been able to break through the glass ceiling to progress in their careers.	What mechanisms have been embraced by female principals to break through the organizational structures to remain successful in their careers?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In your opinion what mechanisms have been embraced by female teachers to remain successful in their careers? - Suggest the way forward for female teachers in secondary schools as they attempt to ascend to management positions.

APPENDIX IV

Implementation Schedule

	June 2013	July 2013	Aug. 2013	Sept 2013	Oct 2013	Jan. 2014	Feb. 2014	Feb. 2014	Mar 2014	June 2014	July 2014	Aug. 2014	Sept. 2014
Presenting the Research Topic													
Introduction and Problem Statement													
Literature Review													
Finalizing on the Research Proposal													
Familiarizing with selected institutions													
Getting authorization for data collection													
Piloting													
Adjustments to data collection instruments													
Data Collection													
Data Compilation Sorting and Coding													
Analysis and Interpretation													
Summary of Findings, and Recommendations													
Final Thesis Presentation													

APPENDIX V

Budget

No.	Item	Cost (Kshs)
1.	Transport Expenses	70,000/=
2.	Printing and Binding Charges	50000/=
3.	Library and Internet Expenses	50000/=
4.	Typing and Photocopying Expenses	60000/=
5.	3 Research Assistants @ 35,000	105,000/=
6.	<u>Sub Total</u>	<u>335,000/=</u>
7.	Miscellaneous (10 %)	60,000 /=
	<u>Grand Total</u>	<u>335,500/=</u>

APPENDIX VI

Sample Letter of Consent for Interview

Dear.....

You are humbly requested to participate in a research study on Organizational Barriers and Coping Strategies influencing female mobility in the management of secondary schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo counties.

This interview will take one hour of your valuable time. The interview will be conducted whenever you prefer. There are no anticipated risks associated with this interview.

Several steps will be taken to protect your anonymity and identity. While the interview will be recorded the tapes will be deleted once the content has been typed in. The typed interview will not contain your name and any information revealing your identity will be removed. All information will be kept under lock and key and will be destroyed after five years.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you will be free to withdraw anytime you feel like.

The results of the study will be presented to you once the study has been completed. Please call the researcher on this number, 0711216832.

If you have any questions regarding your right as a participant in this research you may contact Kenyatta University Department of Education Management, Policy and Curriculum studies.

I have read the above information regarding this research and I consent to participate in the study.

Name

Date

Signature

APPENDIX VII

Introduction Letter

Hellen Guantai
Department of Education Management,
Policy and Curriculum Studies.
Box-43844-0100
Nairobi

To.....

REF: A Questionnaire on Organizational Barriers and Coping Strategies influencing female mobility in management of secondary school in Meru, Isiolo and Machakos counties.

I am a Post Graduate student in the Department of Educational Management, Policy and Curriculum Studies in Kenyatta University. I am carrying out a study on Organizational Barriers and Coping Strategies influencing female mobility in the management of secondary schools in Meru. Machakos and Isiolo Counties.

The purpose of the study is to identify and examine the organizational barriers that female teachers encounter as they ascend to principalship as well as map out the coping strategies embraced to overcome the barriers. This is with a view of informing educational practices in Kenya. I will be grateful if you answer the questions in the Questionnaires and also share your experiences with me. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidence.

Kindly complete all the sections of the questionnaire and do not indicate your name any where in this Questionnaire.

Thank you
Yours faithfully

Hellen Guantai (Researcher)

APPENDIX VIII

Letter of Research Authorization

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telephone: 254-020-2213471, 2241349, 254-020-2673550

Mobile: 0713 788 787 , 0735 404 245

Fax: 254-020-2213215

When replying please quote

secretary@ncst.go.ke

P.O. Box 30623-00100

NAIROBI-KENYA

Website: www.ncst.go.ke

Our Ref:

NCST/RCD/14/013/489

Date:

23rd April, 2013

Hellen Kiende Guantai
Kenyatta University
P.O.Box 43844-00100
Nairobi.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application dated 14th April, 2013 for authority to carry out research on "*Organisational Barriers and Coping Strategies Influencing Female Mobility in Management of Secondary Schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo County, Kenya,*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Meru, Machakos and Isiolo Counties** for a period ending 31st December, 2013.

You are advised to report to the **District Commissioners and the District Education Officers, Meru, Machakos and Isiolo Counties** before embarking on the research project.

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

DR M.K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC.
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY

Copy to:

The District Commissioners
The District Education Officers
Meru County

APPENDIX IX

Research Permit

PAGE 2

PAGE 3

Research Permit No. **NCST/RCD/14/013/489**
 Date of issue **23rd April, 2013**
 Fee received **KSH. 2,000**

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution
Hellen Kiende Guantai
of (Address) Kenyatta University
P.O.Box 43844-00100, Nairobi.
has been permitted to conduct research in



	Location
Selected	District
	Counties

on the topic: Organisational barriers and coping strategies influencing female mobility in management of secondary schools in Meru, Machakos and Isiolo County, Kenya.

Applicant's
Signature

Hellen Kiende Guantai
 Secretary
 National Council for
 Science & Technology

for a period ending: **31st December, 2013.**