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Factors Affecting the Appointment of Women Teachers to Leadership Positions in Public Secondary Schools: A Case Study of Machakos Sub-County, Kenya

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Abstract:

This study sought to find out factors affecting the appointment of women teachers in public secondary schools in Machakos Sub-county. The research design employed both qualitative and quantitative methods to collect the required data. The population was 128 respondents and the sample size was 100 respondents. The sampling technique used was a semi-structured questionnaire using Likert Scale. The research instruments used were questionnaires. Data were reanalyzed using both qualitative and quantitative techniques aided by Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 22. The study found that majority (60%) were married, 45% of the respondents had a degree, 40 % of the total sampled principals had between 6-10 years of leadership experiences; majority (37.1%) of the total sampled teachers had between 11-16 years of teaching experiences; 39% of the total sampled respondents had been in school between 6-10 years. Majority (62%) of the teaching staff are female yet majority (54%) the heads of department are male. The study concluded that several factors contribute to under-representation of female to headship positions and some of these factors include lack support of women from family, to the national level, women being undervalued because of African culture, gender stereotype, split between work and family. Female teachers' attitude towards leadership roles was highly displayed to be the major cause of female teachers' under-representation in educational management. The dual role of women in families as mothers and wives contributes greatly towards their career progression. Women are principally responsible for work associated with production and maintenance of the family like child care and control other assets in the family. From the study findings, academic qualification is no longer an issue as both male and female are equally qualified. Cultural and structural changes with regard to women's attitudes and roles are needed to address gender inequality. Moreover, women need to be part of a solution rather than projecting themselves as victims. The few women who have been given the opportunity to manage schools have done perfectly, and thus proving wrong the fear that woman will always cause things to go wrong. From the findings, the study recommends that negative criticism by men makes women hate leadership positions. Further training in leadership skills can help improve women teachers' participation in headship positions in schools. In order to ensure that female and male teachers appear in leadership in the same proportion, the government through the Teachers' Service Commission should motivate female teachers through incentives.

Keywords: Socio-cultural factors, demographic factors, family responsibilities, gender stereotyping, leadership, public secondary school

1. Background of the Study

Men have continuously dominated women in the political, religious, economic, academic and domestic spheres (Juma and Ngome, 2008). He regarded socio-cultural beliefs as the major barriers in this regard. These beliefs emphasize the superiority of men and the inferiority of women. Another barrier is the institutional framework guiding the gender division of labor, recruitment and upward mobility. Munroe (2001) points out that though women's expectations and roles are changing in some nations, many men around the world still have their own opinions about the place of women and want to impose certain standards of behaviors on them (Kagunye, 2004).

Gender disparity in employment opportunities in Kenya is a real challenge to development. Despite women's growing participation in the workplace, there are still very few of them in the top echelons of the public decision and policymakers' positions in Kenya (Bendera, 2016). Such policies include; Affirmative Action, Equal Educational Opportunities, equal opportunities among others (The Republic of Kenya, 2007). Over the past few decades, many countries have made progress in gender equality in senior management positions, but globally gains in gender equality in

decision-making positions outside the political arena have been slow and uneven. To date, the most powerful and best-paid managerial positions were still out of reach for most women (UNESCO, 2007).

1.1. Global Perspective

Gender inequalities are still pervasive throughout the globe. Statistics show that there is no region of the developing world where women experience equality with men in terms of legal, social and economic rights (Milasoa, 2000). Munroe (2001) asserts that women are facing myriad problems regardless of whether they live in the developing countries or the industrialized countries, in the west or east. There has been a lot of gender discrimination mostly based on the cultural beliefs of the people. Gender disparity in the formal education systems has contributed to a lot to the non-feasibility of women in educational management. The completion rate for girls for example in primary school is lower as compared to boys who join secondary schools (Kagunye, 2004). At the university level, the ratio is even lower. This means that there are fewer women who get to higher levels of education and hence very few in top leadership positions.

Studying women in Educational Administration in Ontario, Taylor (2017) observes that women continue to be underrepresented in administrative positions within the education system despite the existence of employment equity in their everyday lives. The UNESCO report on women in Higher Education Management (2007) observes that the global picture of gender participation in top levels of educational management is one of men's outnumbering women at five to one at middle-level management and at twenty or more to one at senior levels.

Women are inadequately represented in the ministry of education science and technology. Human resource development personnel as well as in the teaching force shows a considerable gender disparity in the ministry in terms of numbers, the position held, benefits and influence.

UNESCO report on for Women in higher education (2014) showed that although the number of women employed in the education sector is relatively high, they are under-represented in educational management in most countries of the world (Mutunga, 2015). Women are underrepresented at the secondary leadership level. Numbers of women in leadership become dismal when considering both gender and ethnicity. The scarcity of women in the role of secondary principals is a phenomenon worldwide (Coleman, 2001). The scarcity of women in the role of secondary school principals is a phenomenon worldwide (Taylor, 2017). While women make up at least half of secondary teachers, they are the minority in secondary administrative position. This International pattern is supported by statistics from New Zealand, Australia, United States of America, United Kingdom, Germany, Central America and India (Coleman, 2001).

1.2. Local Perspective

According to the Kenya Archives annual report as cited in Chege & Sifuna (2006) throughout the colonial period in Kenya, education of girls lagged behind. It is not until 1925 that the government openly decried the low status of women and girls education describing it as lagging behind of men and men. The government started to advocate for the improvement of girls education arguing that for the first time, educated wives and mothers would contribute to the general welfare of the home and community (Mwaniki, 2011).

Men have continuously dominated women in the political, religious, economic, academic and domestic spheres (Juma and Ngome, 2006). He regarded socio-cultural beliefs as the major barriers in this regard. These beliefs emphasize the superiority of men and the inferiority of women. Another barrier is the institutional framework guiding the gender division of labor, recruitment and upward mobility.

Women in Third World countries proportion of female head teachers, inspectors, or senior ministry personnel bears no relation to their proportions in the teaching force. She concluded that women are under-represented in management positions in third world countries (Mutunga, 2015).

Kenya being a member of the United Nations and the International Labor Organization is obliged to align its policies with the international standards and requirements on gender. Kasomo (2012) notes that men dominate public decision-making bodies; it is the male values that are reflected in these decision-making bodies. Available literature shows that women still constitute a small percentage of those participating in public decision-making (Nzomo, 2011). According to Coleman (2001), the question of gender disparities in the management structure of schools and colleges have received little attention, despite the fact that "there was recognition in the education of both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women brought to management". Nzomo (2015) further argued that, in the area of educational management, women remained glaringly underrepresented in primary school headship positions due to many factors which contributed to the low representation of women in key positions.

Global conferences, including the Fourth World Conference on Women (1999), and World Summit for Social Development (1995) have recognized that, despite the progress made globally in improving the status of women, gender disparities still exist in regard to participation in executive and electoral political positions. A study conducted by World Summit for Social Development, (1995) indicated that the number of women in paid employment and their rate of participation in the workforce has speedily increased. Women are projected to comprise 48% of the workforce by the year 2018 (UNESCO, 2012). According to Coleman (2001), the question of gender disparities on the management structures of schools and colleges has received little attention, despite the fact that 'there was recognition of education in both the importance of equal opportunity and the strengths that women brought in management. Bendera (2016) further argued that, in the area of educational management, women remained glaringly under-represented in primary school leadership positions while Eagly and Carl (2003) noted that there are many factors which contributed to the low representation of women in key positions.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

The issue of women leadership in secondary schools has been of great concern both globally and nationally. Some studies done have shown men have dominated leadership positions (Mutunga, 2015). According to Kasomo (2011), a few types of research have been done to reveal the position of women in leadership. As per the administrative records given by the District Director of Education in Machakos Sub-County, there is an imbalance in the distribution of principals by gender at the disadvantage of females. Women teachers are marginalized and have no equal opportunity as men. This scenario suggests that it is likely that there are factors affecting women teachers from accessing leadership positions in public secondary schools (Mutunga, 2015).

While a few researchers have in recent years begun to document women appointments in management in the public sector in Kenya Nzomo (2011) points out that such documents often have not focused on the actual factors that affect women appointment in top management. Therefore, this study sought to investigate factors that affect women teachers' appointment in public secondary schools, the criteria of appointment and identify possible strategies that can be used to enhance women appointment.

The purpose of this study is to investigate factors limiting appointment of women teachers to leadership positions in public secondary schools in Machakos Sub-County.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical Framework

The study is based on Gender Reform Feminism theory, also referred to as Liberal Feminist Theory. The theory attempts to understand the pervasive and persistent gender inequality, women's oppression and structures in society that promotes this oppression and subordination. This theory advances three broad perspectives in trying to explain the absence of women in top leadership in the private and public sector. This includes personal factors, structural factors, and cultural factors. Personal factors include psychological attributes, personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves. Such factors like self-esteem and self-confidence, less assertiveness, less emotional stability, women's low potential for leadership, lack of motivation and ambition to accept challenges make women not to ascend to top leadership positions (Naylor, 2011).

The structural/institutional factors that affect women negatively include discriminatory appointments and promotion practices, male resistance to women in leadership positions, the absence of policies and legislation to ensure participation of women and limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence because of the power structure in the workplace. The cultural factors lead to stereotypical views about women's abilities within a cultural context. The emphasis is placed on women's role as mothers, caregivers, and nurturers (Kark, 2016). These three broad perspectives guide the present study to explore factors that limit women's appointment to leadership positions in Machakos Sub-County.

2.1.1. Feminist Theories and Leadership

Feminist theories attempt to understand the pervasive and persistent gender inequality and women's oppression in society (Hooks, 2012). They vary according to their explanations of the underlying cause for women's lesser status Lorber and their perceptions of ways in which women's liberation can be achieved (Lorber, 2018). Feminist theories are not only concerned with "women's issues," but rather they offer a gamut of conceptual lenses, which can contribute to the development of a richer, more inclusive field of organizational studies (Calasand Smircich, 2010). Despite the diversity of feminist theories, most share some basic assumptions, which recognize male dominance in social arrangements and a desire for change (Kark, 2016). More generally, feminist theoretical perspectives can be defined as critical discourses, targeted at the existing status quo, and therefore, always entail a political agenda (Tong, 2009). Lorber (2018) suggested that feminist theories can be divided into three frameworks: Gender Reform Feminism, Gender Resistance Feminism, and Gender Rebellion Feminism.

2.1.2. Gender Reform Feminism

Gender Reform Feminism, also referred to as Liberal feminism asserts that gender differences are not based on biology and those men and women are similar in their common humanity (Lorber, 2018). Therefore, biological differences should be ignored to achieve gender equality in work opportunities. According to this perspective, sex-role socialization produces individual differences in the characteristics of men and women (Kark, 2016). Hence, if women developed appropriate traits and skills, they would be better equipped to compete with men and would advance at comparable rates. The theory argues that merit and not birth should be the basis for social advancement and achievement. It emphasizes the equal participation of people, regardless of gender, in education and leadership. The theory points out the need to develop strategies that can remove the barriers that exclude women from participating in leadership (Acker, 2017).

2.1.3. Gender Resistance Feminism

Gender Resistance Feminism exerts opposition to the gender reform approach. Although the gender resistance conception of gender still focuses on gender differences, its proponents argue that these differences should not be eliminated, but rather, celebrated (Ely & Meyerson, 2000). This perspective stressed the importance of profound study and theorizing of women's situation and experiences. Women have specific experiences and interests that essentially differ

from those of the majority of men, at least with regard to how these experiences are formed and enacted under the existing patriarchal conditions (Alvesson & Billing, 1997).

Resistance feminism grew out of women's dissatisfaction with liberal feminism and its endeavor to achieve equality by equating women and men (Lorber, 2018). What is seen by liberal feminists as individual challenges were seen by radical feminists more systematically, as the consequence of the privilege of men in a society where masculinity defines the norm. Therefore, according to this perspective, women's difficulties in getting promoted to leadership positions cannot be understood in individual terms only, but rather as part of a wider social system of gender, in which the "personal becomes political" (Tong, 2009). Gender resistance perspectives, as applied to leadership, led to work emphasizing that "women's ways of leading", and their relational skills and intuitive mode of thinking were not deficiencies to be overcome, but advantages for corporate effectiveness.

2.1.4. Gender Rebellion Feminism

Gender rebellion feminists suggest a somewhat more radical critique than gender resistance theories. They suggest that rather than focusing on the female advantage and how women can contribute to the existing system they should be challenging the gender order directly by multiplying the categories and undermining the boundaries between what is defined as "women" and "men". These theories, resented mostly by post-structuralism/post-modern feminism, multicultural feminism, and social construction feminism, go the furthest in challenging gender categories as dual, oppositional and fixed. They argue that sexuality and gender are fluid, shifting, multiple categories and criticize perspectives based on a universal category of women (Lorber, 2018).

From this perspective, gender is socially constructed and shaped by the asymmetrical power relations between men and women (Acker, 2017). This power imbalance takes different forms while intersecting with other social categories (race, class, and ethnicity) as well as the contextual characteristics (political and historical circumstances) within which individuals are located. According to the gender rebellion perspective, while organizational logic appears to be gender neutral, underlying it is a gendered substructure that is reproduced daily in practical work activities and somewhat less frequency, in the texts of organizational theorists (Tong, 2009).

Gender Reform Feminist theory is in line with this study. It asserts that gender differences are not based on biology and that woman and men are similar in their common humanity (Lorber, 2018). According to Kark (2016) if women developed appropriate traits and skills they would be better equipped to compete with men and would advance at comparable rates. It emphasizes the equal participation of people regardless of gender and leadership. Oketh (2014) notes that school administration is not a job for all teachers, it requires knowledge and skills in educational leadership and the art of organizational behavior. Women must gain certain qualifications if they are to acquire managerial positions in schools (Nzomo, 2015).

2.2. Conceptual Framework

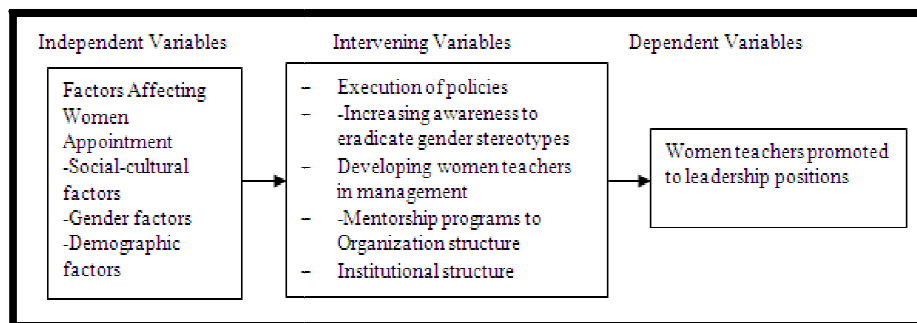


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is the way ideas are organized to achieve a research project's purpose (Tong, 2009). There was a conceptual relationship between the independent and the dependent variable. Appointment of women teachers to leadership positions is influenced by socio-cultural factors (indicated by gender factors, sex role stereotypes, and family responsibilities), criteria used to appoint women teachers (indicated by experience and academic performance). The study established intervening factors which comprise execution of policies, increasing awareness to eradicate gender stereotypes, developing women teachers and mentorship programs. The intervening variables once executed would lead to the appointment of more women teachers to leadership positions in secondary schools in Machakos Sub-county.

There was a conceptual relationship between the dependent variable appointment of women teachers to leadership positions which is influenced by socio-cultural factors (indicated by gender factors, sex role stereotypes, and family responsibilities), criteria used to appoint women teachers (indicated by experience and academic performance) and strategies increasing women teachers' appointment. There are however other constant factors which affect this relationship. These comprise of the intervening variables in this case organization structure and institutional structure.

2.3. Socio-Cultural Factors

Socio-cultural factors are customs, lifestyles, and values that characterize a society. More specifically, cultural aspects include aesthetics, education, language, law and politics, religion, social organizations, technology and material culture, values, and attitudes. These factors affect the quality of life, business, and health. The researcher explored some of these factors affecting women in the society (Eagly and Mitchell, 2012).

Mwaniki (2011) notes a typical African woman generally has low status, particularly the lack of power to make important decisions. They are not independent in their thoughts hence, women who comprise the majority and sustaining force in a nation, have little power. They even find themselves excluded from decision-making positions and left out even in issues that directly affect them. Traditionally, women did not hold positions of leadership. Nevertheless, the reality of the times has shown that it is no longer necessary for the society to be chained by the doctrines of past cultures and vices sustained and nurtured by former colonial masters. With the introduction of formal education in Kenya, some women have climbed high as school heads in primary and secondary schools, District Education Officers, Quality Assurance and Standards Officers, Provincial and National Directors of Education Officers.

For centuries, African women have gone far along with cultural prescriptions where they came to believe that their lives were to be managed by commands of culture (Wachege, 2017). Chisholm (2005) asserts that the hierarchical power structure of the family prevails; that women should be submissive and authority dominated by men. The behavior expected of women in a given cultural group is organized around three roles, the reproductive role within the household, childbearing to daily tasks. Men are actively involved in interaction with the larger community (Human Right Watch, 2017). The justification of the oppression of women was further intensified by the creation of myths, stories, proverbs, riddles, traditional practices, and various systems of education and philosophy that negated women and sanctified the position of men while declaring women as lesser beings (Mwaniki, 2011).

Women's education in Africa and elsewhere has long been plagued by a pedagogy of difference, by a way of educating that stressed the difference between men and women, rather than their similarities (Bennaars, 2014). The fact that Kenyan women remain underprivileged and underrepresented in all important authoritative and decision-making positions in their society is primarily a function of the institutionalized and structural bias in the education system. This started back in traditional societies where there existed differences in treatment and attitudes towards boys and girls, men and women. With regard to this, life patterns fell in line with traditional socio-cultural organizations where men made all decisions (Mwaniki, 2011).

Hence, such ideologies continue to portray men as thinkers, decision-makers and managers while at the same time portraying women as home-makers, preservers of culture and tradition, simple-mindedness and humbled. Women professionals are expected to perform their traditional roles as mothers and wives. Those who are successful as managers in education institutions face their own internalized view of their roles and the expectation others have on them. The forging barriers have led to an increasing number of competent women being blocked out of the top positions in education management and particularly in secondary schools.

Throughout the colonial period, the education of girls lagged behind. It was not until 1925 that the government openly decried the low status of women and girls education, describing it as lagging behind that of men and boys. The government started to advocate for the improvement of girls' education, arguing for the first time that educated wives and mothers would contribute to the general welfare of the home and community Kenya National Archives annual report as cited in Chege & Sifuna, (2006). However, it is clear that even as it attracted support for girls' education, the colonial administration failed to interpret the value of girls' education in terms of their personal development and wellbeing (Bennaars, 1998); much less did it prepare them for leadership. The curriculum for girls was described as three Bs, representing baby, bath, and broom Onsongo (2007).

Chege & Sifuna (2006) asserts a new tradition was established for transmitting values of humility, low ambition and systematic underestimation of girls and women's ability in cognitive achievement, social attainment and capacity to work in the public sphere. Soon after independence in 1963, the government published Sessional Paper No.10 of 1965, African its Application to Planning in Kenya, which emphasized the country's commitment to the objective of individual freedom, social justice, and human dignity. Education played a role in addressing gender disparities through its capability towards enhancing access to education opportunities, and empowerment of women to be able to participate in major economic activities. Parental guidance which is a form of informal education is also critical especially among communities with retrogressive social and cultural effects (The Republic of Kenya, 2007).

A report by the southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (Sang, Masila and Sang, 2012) revealed that less than 15% of secondary schools in Kenya are administered by female principals. It is also noteworthy that there is no university level training program specifically and expressly on secondary school administration and management. Although the Kenya Development Plan 1997-2002, (The The Republic of Kenya, 2007) stipulated that in general, the education system should aim at producing individuals who are properly socialized and possess the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values to enable them to positively in nation building, this has been translated into reality.

Several obstacles that prevent women from advancing to senior management positions have been identified. Socio-cultural beliefs are the major barriers in this regard. These beliefs emphasize the superiority of men and the inferiority of women (Nzomo, 2011). They form an integral part of the socialization process and the gender education and training most men and women are exposed to from childhood. Based on the concept of role expectancy, an individual develops through the years his or her own set of internalized values, beliefs, attitudes, ideals and aspirations. Another barrier is the institutional framework guiding the gender division of labor, recruitment and upward mobility.

Onsongo (2007) notes that since men dominate public decision-making bodies, it is the male values that are reflected in these decision-making bodies. In Kenya, women's participation in key decision-making positions is still minimal. In the public service, women in management positions are very few as compared to men. According to Sifuna (2006), fewer employment opportunities for women have discouraged them from following courses in higher education. Other factors which prevented them from entering universities included early marriage and family responsibilities, lack of career guidance, inability to assume personal and professional responsibilities. At management levels of education, the government has not tapped or developed the talents of most women. Wanjama (2002) asserts that leaving out women in policy and decision making implies leaving out experiences of half the country's population.

Nzomo (2015) found that women are under-represented in university management in Kenya. Chege & Sifuna (2006) study is supported by Wanjama (2002) who found out that there are fewer women in higher levels of educational management in Kenya. In a related study, Chelimo and Wasyanju (2007) also found that there are fewer women than men in educational management in Kenya. Under-representation of women in top educational management and leadership positions has had negative implications on government policies and general education curriculum which has lacked gender mainstreaming. The girl child has also lagged behind in education due to lack of positive female role models (The Republic of Kenya, 2010). Working women teachers have also lacked mentors and the scenario has tended to be cyclic (Mwaniki, 2011). This contributes to low participation of women in educational leadership.

2.4. Gender Factors

Studying gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenya, Kanake (2017) found out that there were very many females in administrative positions. She found out that women find administrative positions unsuitable to them due to the household responsibilities and child care and their ingressiveness in academic and professional pursuit. However, she failed short of identifying the fact that our society socializes women to take roles that men cannot take and that the sociological and psychological orientation of women is a landmark in their lives.

Gender equality means using the competencies and talents of every individual, whether man or woman in building a society, solving problems and preparing for the future. Both men and women must, therefore, be given the opportunity to acquire skills and training that will enable them to compete fairly in the job market (Wangari, 2003). Bendera (2016) blames the lack of enough professionally qualified teachers and women in other sectors in the Tanzanian economy on lack of role models for girls. She observes that models provide pupils with a sense of direction and encouraged them to work hard. Teachers are the common models. However, there are few women; making girls to abandon school at an early age. Due to this, women continue to have less access to higher education and high positions as well as decision-making posts at all levels, including the educational hierarchy.

2.4.1. Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotyping happens when individuals cognitively categorize people into groups and then acquire beliefs that certain attributes are common among members of those groups, including their own. Gender stereotypes make females to feel inferior as males dominate management positions. Gender stereotyping in education leadership results in the exclusion of women from leadership positions. Women have been considered to be lacking task-oriented traits such as aggressiveness, rationality, and toughness to make good administrators (Wangari, 2003). Women are expected to display relatively feminine, communal values by acting affectionately, cooperative and compassionate. These narrowly defined categories result in women doubting their leadership abilities because of a perceived incongruence between womanhood and leadership (Bendera, 2016). Taylor (2017) in her study of employment equity for women in Ontario school boards found out that there were established norms that led to resistance of a women vice-principal. Due to her family obligations, she had to reschedule her programme and had to go to work with her kid.

Teachers protested and told her to concentrate on her "social work" as the school gets a new vice-principal. Many women fear to take up administrative positions for fear of institutional support networks. Wangari (2003), reports that many aspirants to educational administration view themselves as unable to gain access to traditional, informal male support systems. The issue old boys' network characterizes selection and exclusion. According to Eagly & Carl (2003), this process plays a subconscious role in reinforcing masculine leadership. As long as such myths prevail, male leadership images are dominant even while efforts are made to incorporate female leadership images. Women have been stereotyped as dependent, submissive and conforming, and as a result have been viewed as lacking in leadership qualities and characteristics (Eagly and Mitchell, 2012). They are often seen as one-dimensional, viewed as either mothers who are nurturing or feminists who are career oriented. These narrowly defined categories result in women doubting their leadership abilities because of a perceived incongruence between womanhood and leadership (Mutunga, 2015).

Lodiaga and Mbevi (2012), argues that expectations are a central aspect of the socialization process; thus, people behave according to societal expectations based on gender roles. The expectation that women will be more caring than men largely accounts for different approaches to leadership. From a female perspective, the downside of this expectation is that the view of women as nurturing may lead to a justification of women holding supportive roles while men occupy leadership roles.

Women still constitute the large majority of the World's illiterate population. In several developing countries, gender gaps in education and literacy persisted. Without equitable access to quality education, women did not have the means to build their knowledge, capacity, and skills to access well-paid, formal sector jobs and attain positions of leadership. Unless gender gaps in literacy and education were addressed, the next generation of girls would be similarly marginalized from leadership roles. Other issues in relation to women's access to education were rural-urban disparities

in levels and quality of education. Gender role stereotyping was also raised as a concern to be addressed, as it was often reinforced by school curricula that hindered women from taking on leadership roles (Mutunga, 2015).

2.4.2. The Affirmative Action

In the year 2006, all appointment in public service were to be reserved for women. The directive was intended to create equity in the employment of men and women and promotion to senior positions in the public sector. This policy deliberately attempts to reform or eradicate discrimination on the basis of color, gender, faith and geographical locations. Its intention was to provide equal opportunities to all competing groups in the society, including women. But while it has been hailed as a milestone in eradicating discrimination and reforming the education sector, its results remain a terrain. The percentage of African women in school administration has barely risen (Bendera, 2016).

Some people have attributed the policy failure to the fact that it is a quota filling but not a development-oriented exercise. Furthermore, some African governments are not committed to the cause of women. Thus, there is a need for deliberate political will by the African governments to implement the conventions and protocols that address gender issues. Strategic goal number one of the Beijing platform implored governments, to commit themselves to establishing the goal of gender balance in government bodies and committees, public administrative entities, measures to substantially increase the number of women, to achieve equal representation of women through positive action in all government and public administration positions (Makura, 2000). A study carried out in the United States of America (USA) found out that its fruits were not good as expected, since the percentage of female head teachers had barely risen due to women's belief that the policies are a token gesture that do not reach into the depth and subtle politics, especially in schools (Deborah, 2016).

2.4.3. The Gender Rule (Two-Thirds Majority)

In Kenya, women are underrepresented in educational management hence the government came up with the policy that a third of management posts in education by 2010 should be held by women (The Republic of Kenya, 2007). It recognizes women, youth, persons with disabilities and ethnic minorities as special groups deserving of constitutional protection. The CoK espouses the rights of women as being equal in law in men and entitled to enjoy equal opportunities in the political, social and economic spheres. Article 81 (b) which refers to the general principles of Kenya's electoral system states 'the electoral system shall comply with the following principle - (b) not more than two-thirds of the members of elective public bodies shall be of the same gender. Article 27 goes further to obligate the government to develop and pass policies and laws, including affirmative action programs and policies to address the past discrimination that women have faced. The government is required to develop policies and laws to ensure that, not more than two-thirds of elective or appointive bodies shall be of the same sex. Despite Article 177 ensuring that Articles 81(b) and 27 (8) of the CoK are complied with at the County level through the nomination of special seat members, the same is not guaranteed at the National Assembly and the Senate (Constitution of Kenya, 2010). Onkvisit & Shaw (2004) describes culture as the total way of life of a group of people. They explicitly explained culture as a set of traditional beliefs and values that are transmitted and shared via a given society and also highlighted some basic characteristics of culture.

2.5. Demographic Factors

Demographic factors are socio-economic characteristics used to collect and evaluate data on people in a given population. Typical factors include age, sex, gender, marital status, race, education level, income level, religion, birth rate, death rate, the average size of a family, the average age at marriage and occupation. Demographic research focuses on why people have the number of children they do, on factors that affect death rates; and on the reasons for immigration, emigration and geographic mobility. The researcher explored some of these factors.

2.5.1. Domestic Responsibilities

Women persistently face more household demands and family responsibility even when working outside the home because women are still expected to be primary caregivers. This reduces the time available for work and increases stress, leading to more work, family conflicts, attitudes, and behaviors that interfere with business leadership. There are marked differences in household spheres of responsibility and activity. The wife-mothers' sphere of domestic responsibilities is much broader than the husband- fathers' and is characterized by responsibilities that must be met daily. Family demands are conceived as an internal barrier to women's advancement at work. There are, therefore, many more imperative aspects of housework for women than for men (Ichilov, 2018).

Domestic responsibilities interrupt women participation in public life and compromise their ability to play leadership roles. Studying women in management positions and factors hindering their mobility, Milosoa (2016) found out that women preferred staying at their middle-level ranks for fear of seeking for promotion and being transferred to upcountry to work at District of Provincial headquarters. This will strain her family relationship and affect her responsibility to her husband and children. The Constitution of Kenya Review Commission draft (2010) on women states that women are entitled to be accorded the same dignity of the person as men and that women have the right to equal treatment with men including the right to equal opportunities in education, in political, economic and social activities.

Leadership has for a long time been predominantly male domain; the picture of the ideal manager is grounded in masculine attributes which may influence both women's career choices and the selection and promotion decisions made about them by others. Studies conducted on the position of women in education management in most countries reveal that women still occupy junior ranks in spite of their increased participation in higher education in recent years (UNESCO,

2014). Without equal access to opportunities for women, a major section of the workforce is underutilized and the achievements of the next generation underdeveloped (Kark, 2016).

Naylor (2011) ascertains that there is inherent intellectual capacity between men and women. Their brains are the same. A woman's intelligence and untapped resource can only be utilized fully by granting women access to leadership positions. It is hoped that when women take up leadership positions and excel, they will provide good role models and act as a source of encouragement and inspiration to the girl child and the entire women population. Female leaders will experience less work schedule autonomy and flexibility if they continue to work in the typical retail and personal services industries which have either inflexible hours or demanding clients (Milosoa, 2016) leaving women less control over their work environments and higher levels of work-family conflict.

Family-work constraints can lead women to pull double duty with home and work responsibilities, and in turn, restrict business growth rather than encourage it, give higher priority to their spouse's careers and make sacrifices in their own. This results in smaller employment size, revenues, and income levels of women-led businesses. It is likely that one of the major factors affecting women's career experiences is family responsibilities (Coleman, 2001). American women high school principals in Milosoa (2016) study identified the expectations of family responsibilities as a strong influence in their professional lives. Marital status also impacted their ability to carry out the responsibilities inherent to their position. Among English principals in Limerick, B. Lingard, B. (2005) study, only a woman principal with no children did not report having problems in achieving a balance between the conflicting work-life demands intensified by reforms that took place in that country.

Family demands are also conceived of as an internal barrier to women's advancement at work. In most families, women are still responsible for the majority of child-care and homemaking. Women's responsibilities for family life whether current or anticipated slow women's progress because of both external expectations and internal accommodations. Although there is no documentation that being a parent diminishes managerial ability, there are still many who believe that such responsibilities inhibit the ability of women to perform their jobs as school managers, and therefore, that such responsibilities make women undesirable candidates for administrative positions. At the same time, women sometimes say that family responsibilities keep them from applying for and assuming administrative positions, not because these women do not think they could do everything, but because they believe the costs would be too high for their families and themselves (Onsongo, 2007).

Ironically, home is no more an equal opportunity employer than in the workplace: only in domestic matters, the presumptions of competence are reversed, which creates unequal family burdens. Women are and are expected to be, the primary caregivers, especially of the very young and the very old. In principle, most men support gender equality, but in practice, they fail to structure their lives to promote it. Family life rests solidly on the shoulders of women in all areas of the world. As spouses, parents, and caregivers, they take on the primary responsibility for ensuring the proper functioning of families and the provision of everyday care and maintenance. Preparing family meals, maintaining hygiene, caring for other family members and a myriad of other chores related to children consume a good part of the day for women in the world. For mothers with young children, decisions regarding working hours or whether to work at all often depend on the availability of affordable and reliable childcare (Onsongo, 2004).

In the past, many workers were able to count on help from non-working relatives for childcare and other domestic tasks. Although such traditional family support still exists to a greater or lesser degree in most countries, it is becoming less available with urbanization and the increased labor force participation of women. According to Sifuna (2006), fewer employment opportunities for women have discouraged them from following courses in higher education. Other factors which prevented them from entering universities included early marriage and family responsibilities, lack of career guidance, inability to assume personal and professional responsibilities.

Mwaniki (2011) observed that women 'miss out' not because they do not meet the overt criteria for the job, which drive the selection process but because men managers imagine women will not fit in the management structure. Many women are struggling to discover who they are and where they stand today in the family, the community, and the world. The few women who manage to climb to positions of leadership suffer great tension in their attempt to reconcile their professional and traditional roles (Mwaniki, 2011). Women leaders, like their counterparts, need to be effective leaders in spite of the various challenges they face. A woman in a managerial post in a male-dominated area is perceived as an intruder. She is usually exposed, vulnerable and faces challenges in her leadership position and working style. Women's progress in management is affected by negative social and cultural attitudes.

2.5.2. Professional Qualifications

Oketh (2014) notes school administration is not a job for all teachers. It requires knowledge and skills in educational leadership and the art of organizational behavior. One must be knowledgeable on how to manage human and financial resources of the school. Educational qualifications and training of women is part of the solution towards increasing work opportunities and placement in administration. According to Nzomo (2011), women must gain certain qualifications if they are to acquire managerial positions in schools. Higher professional standards lead to higher levels of employment.

Administrative work of secondary schools requires some advance training. Persons who aspire to rise in organizations must seek development and training opportunities. Women who fail to seek such opportunities contribute to the stagnation of their career mobility. Dorsey (2018) concluded that the reason for poor representation in the administration is simply because women have lower qualifications than men. When the promotion is done on merit, more men than women qualify.

2.5.3. Sex Role Stereotyping

Sex-role stereotyping depicts men as superior in leadership pursuits because they are considered to pose the masculine, agnatic qualities (for example are more assertive, competitive, daring and courageous) that are needed to gain the necessary level of respect for the successful supervision of followers (Eagly&Mitchell 2012). Sexuality is a significant ingredient of individual personality. Our self-concepts are strongly influenced by our feelings about our sexuality-feelings that may range from one's competence or incompetence to ones of guilt or moral righteousness. People make decisions which are based on an awareness of the potentialities and limitations of certain courses of action. The choice made by men and women are limited, amongst other things, by social expectations of masculine and feminine behavior (Lorber, 2018).

Cole (2006) asserts that recent research helps to indicate the deeply-ingrained male dominance of the work environment. It is not just a question of men's prejudice against women in management roles, but their sheer lack of experience- over decades, if not centuries of women in responsibility role in the workplace. This is a reflection of the organization of work that has been established by men for men. For this cultural tradition to change, men and women have to listen and learn from each other. Women often find themselves situated in the intersection between different systems of laws and a plethora of normative orders that influence their choices that they can make and the decision that is reached about their lives by others. Thus, legal pluralism takes on a new meaning, recognizing that there are regulatory and normative systems than the formal state law that affects people's lives (Kameri, 2018).

2.6. Research Gap

Despite the extensive effort to increase the number of women in organizational leadership, recent research on the participation rate of women in leadership shows modest results (Schien, 2006). Many women are struggling to discover who they are and where they stand today- in the family, the community, and the world. Munroe (2001) points out that though women's expectations and roles are changing in some nations, many men around the world still have their own opinions about the place of women and want to impose certain standards of behaviors on them (Kagunye, 2004). This proves that even though extensive work and study on women in leadership had been done, women representation in leadership is still marginal.

Chisholm (2001) notes that the question of gender and leadership in school administration and policy is one that has long exercised the mind of educational researchers. She noted Ganteng Department of Education (GDE) was created in 1994 in South Africa committed to achieving gender equity in its administrative structure and school leadership levels. The department was headed by a woman and this led to women occupying several senior positions. However, within six years, women had left the department and it became increasingly a presence of men who were accommodative of GDE policies. Chisholm questions the contradiction between policy and practice. The rigidity of the implementation of government policies on gender equity and equality is due to dominance by men on decision making and guidance on who is to be appointed to decision making positions in Kenya (Kanake, 1998). Feminists now argue that there is need to reclaim from the government "our sex" and our "gender", since government, throughout its interventions in schooling, has tried to dictate in what ways these can be expressed.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

The study employed qualitative and quantitative research designs. This enables collection of information to study the relationship between different variables at one point in time (Kombo and Tromp, 2012). A research design is a plan showing how the problem of the investigation will be solved (Kombo and Tromp, 2012). It refers to the procedures used by a researcher to explore the relationship between variables, to form subjects into groups, administer the measures, apply treatment to the groups and analyze the data. This design was chosen because it involves collecting data in order to answer the questions raised and look at possible solutions to the constraints. It will also enable the researcher to gather facts and obtain precise information concerning the current situation and where possible draw conclusions from the information obtained. This design was chosen because it is fast and can study big sample sizes at little cost or effort without much worry about attrition cases during the course of the study (Kombo and Tromp, 2012).

Data collection tools or instruments will be administered to school principals, deputies and teachers in secondary schools as well as an interview guide to the District Director of Education Officer to give their perceptions on the representation of women in secondary schools in Machakos Sub-County. The design allowed the researcher to collect views from the respondents to facilitate descriptions of the appointment of women in public secondary school management, as it is the situation in Machakos Sub-County. Descriptive survey design studies take a sample of the target population and base their overall findings on views or behaviors of those sampled. The assumption was that the sample is similar in characteristics to the target population.

3.2. Location of the Study

The research was carried out in Machakos Sub-County; Machakos Sub-county is in Machakos County, Kenya. It borders Kiambu, Nairobi, Muranga, Makueni, Embu, Kajiado and Kitui Counties.

3.3. Target Population

Mugenda & Mugenda (2012) defines a population as a complete set of individuals, cases or objects with some common observable characteristics. Orodho (2012) defines the target population as a large population from whom a sample population will be selected. A sample population is a representative case from the large population. The target population was 426 women teachers from 69 public schools in Machakos Sub County as per the statistics at the TSC records as of 2016. The researcher sampled 128 women which was a third of the target population as per Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) which is a good representation for survey research. This included women principals, women deputy principals and women teachers. Out of the 128 questionnaires that were sent out 100 were filled in and returned. The public secondary schools sampled included pure boys, pure girls, and mixed public secondary schools.

3.4. Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

A sample is a process of selecting a number of individuals to represent the larger group from which they are selected Mugenda & Mugenda (2012). A sample design is a definite plan determined before any data are actually collected for obtaining a sample from a given population (Orodho, 2012). A researcher selects a sample due to various limitations which may not allow researching the whole population. Due to limitations in time, funds and energy, a study could be carried out from a carefully selected sample to represent the entire population. Reliable research calls for the accurate establishment of appropriate sample size whose characteristics depict those of the target population (Orodho, 2008). Sampling involves selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative. Kombo and Tromp (2012) define sampling as the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study. The goal of a research sample is to make inferences. Any statements made about the sample should also be true of the population. The researcher used random sampling which included the selection of samples using different women teachers. The sample size was 128 teachers which is 33% of the total target population of 426. From each school sampled, one principal, one deputy principal, six teachers were required as respondents. One District Director of Education was interviewed for triangulation purposes.

Category	Target Population	Sample Size
Women Principals	40	20
Women Deputy Principals	40	20
Women Teachers	346	88
Totals	426	128

Table 1: Sample Size to Target Population

3.5. Research Instruments

The research instruments used was two sets of questionnaires. Based on study objectives, the researchers developed a semi-structured questionnaire in consultation with the university supervisors. Semi-structured questionnaires were used to collect the required data since they are regarded as the most suitable research instruments for a descriptive survey design. Two sets of questionnaires were prepared one set for women teachers and an interview guide for the District Director of Education. Questionnaires were preferred because they require less time, are less expensive and permits collection of data from a wide geographical area (Orodho, 2012).

The questionnaire instrument contained 3 sections. The first section (A) comprises of questions on socio-cultural and demographic factors limiting women teacher's appointments and demographics for example sex, age, and marital status. The second section (B) comprises questions on the criteria used in the appointment of teachers. The third section (C) comprises of questions on strategies to enhance women teachers' appointment in secondary schools. A structured interview guide was prepared. It was administered to one District Director of Education Officer who was selected and interviewed for triangulation purposes.

The researchers visited the sampled schools and developed a rapport with the principals of those schools with a view to verbally explain the purpose of the study. This provided for introduction and agreement on the proposed date and time for administering the semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaires were then given to the teachers through research aides and picked after a week. The duration of one week provided sufficient time for the respondents to fill in the questionnaires.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures

Data were analyzed using qualitative and quantitative techniques. Collected qualitative data were coded and entered in the computer for analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics in percentages and frequencies were used to present the data, which was reported in form of frequency tables and histograms.

4. Data Presentation, Interpretation, and Discussions

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The participants included 15 (75%) women principals, 15 (75%) women deputy principals and 70 (65.6%) which is a response rate of 78.1% of women teachers in public secondary schools in Machakos Sub-county.

4.1.1. Marital Status

The respondents were asked to indicate their marital status. The findings were as stated in Table 2.

Respondents	Single	%	Married	%
Women Principals	3	20	12	80
Women Deputy Principals	7	46.7	8	53.3
Women Teachers	29	41.4	41	58.6
Total	40	40	60	60

Table 2: Marital Status

The distribution of the respondents by marital status showed that the majority 60 (60%) were married, while the 40 (40%) were single. Majority 12 (80%) of the woman principals were married, majority 8 (53.3%) of the woman deputy principals were married and another majority 41 (58.6%) of the women teachers were also married. The study shows that fewer women in the higher position of leadership were singles. The study established the marital status of the respondents influenced their appointment to leadership positions. The findings resonate with chapter two’s literature review which showed that marriage was a social-cultural factor affecting the appointment of women teachers to leadership positions. Married women are stereotyped as homemakers, children bearers and children’s primary caretakers (Ichilov, 2018).

4.1.2. Age of the Respondents

Age was clustered into 4 categories ranging from 22 to 55 years and above with an interval of 10 years for each category. The findings are presented in Figure 2.

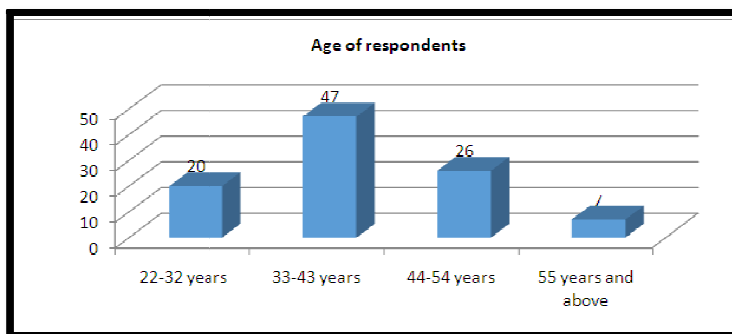


Figure 2: Age of Respondents

According to Figure 2, forty-seven percent of the total sampled respondents were aged between 33 - 43 years, 26 % were aged 44-54 years, 20 % were between 22 – 32 and finally, 55 and above years’ cluster accounted for 7% and of the total sample. According to Bendera (2016) models provide pupils with a sense of direction and encourage them to work hard. However, there are few women; making girls to abandon school at an early age. Due to this, women continue to have access to higher education and high positions as well as decision-making posts at all levels, including the educational hierarchy.

4.1.3. Educational Level of the Respondents

Respondents’ educational level was made operational as Diploma, Postgraduate degree, Degree, Masters, Ph.D. The distributions are presented in Figure 3.

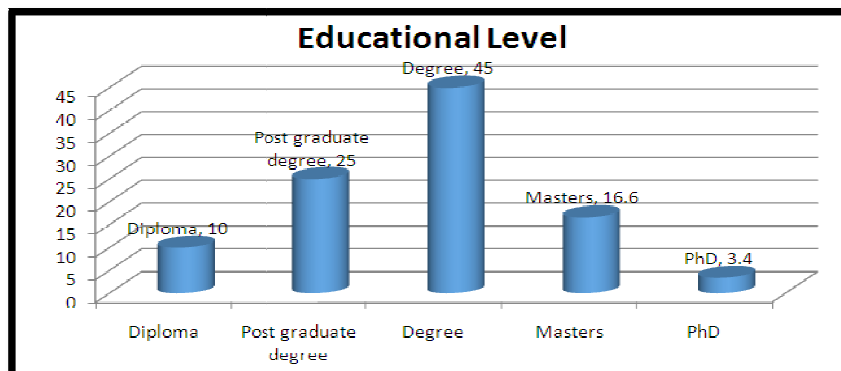


Figure 3: Education Levels

Figure 3 above indicates that the majority 45 (45%) of the respondents had a degree, followed by 25 (25%) who had a postgraduate diploma, 15 (15%) had a masters, 10 (10%) had a diploma while the least majority 5 (5%) had a PhD. The education level of the respondents would influence their ability to comprehend and give valuable information about the factors limiting the appointment of women teachers to leadership positions in public secondary schools. Education level would also be a limiting factor to leadership positions. The level of education of the respondents in this study was found to be adequate. The research findings resonate with the works of Doldor, et.al (2012) who reported a lack of qualifications and training was enough reason for non-appointment of women to managerial positions.

4.1.4. Teachers' Gender

The study also assessed the demographics of teacher's gender among the school staff and heads of department. Open-ended questions were issued to the respondents and the findings are summarized in Figure 4.

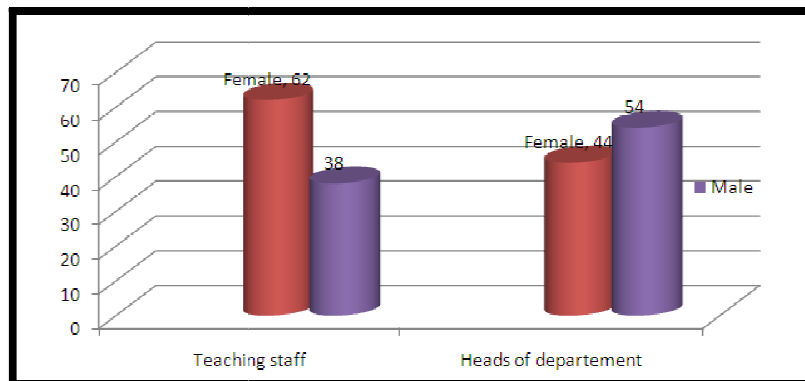


Figure 4: Teachers Gender Demographic

Figure 4 Indicates that the majority 62 (62%) of the teaching staff are female yet an examination of the heads of department indicates that the majority 54 (54%) are male. This shows a great gender inequality hence the need for the study. Kanake (2017) points out that women find administrative positions unsuitable to them due to household responsibilities and child care and their ingressiveness in academic and professional pursuit.

Further still, gender stereotyping in education leadership results in the exclusion of women from leadership positions. Women have been considered to be lacking task oriented traits such as aggressiveness, rationality, and toughness to make good administrators (Wangari, 2003). Mwaniki (2011) notes a typical African woman generally has low status, particularly the lack of power to make important decisions. They are not independent in their thoughts hence; women who comprise the majority and sustaining force in a nation have little power.

4.1.5. Leadership Experience

Leadership experience was clustered into 4 categories ranging from 5 years to 15 years and above. The distribution is as presented in Table 3

AGE	Frequency(n)	Percentage (%)
6-10 years	16	53.3
11-15 years	10	33.4
Above 15 years	4	13.3
Total	30	100.0

Table 3: Leadership Experience

Table 3 indicates that the majority 12 (40 %) of the total sampled principals had between 6-10 years of leadership experiences followed by 10 (33.4%) who had between 11-15 years of leadership experience. The least majority were principals who had served as leaders for less than five years and 15 years and above each representing 4 (13.3%) of the total sampled principal respondents.

This requires more knowledge about current perceptions of pupils with regard to school leadership, about the experiences of women who have successfully carved out a career in school leadership, and about the perceptions and needs of teachers unsure of their ability to tread the same path. Realizing the social order as problematic for women's advancement in organizational leadership, Ely & Meyerson (2000) analyzed intervention strategies to understand their lack of impact in bringing about the desired effects.

Cole (2006) asserts that recent research helps to indicate the deeply-ingrained male dominance of the work environment. It is not just a question of men's prejudice against women in management roles, but their sheer lack of experience- over decades, if not centuries of women in responsibility role in the workplace.

4.1.6. Teachers Experience

The teachers' experience was also clustered into 4 categories ranging from less than 5 years to 15 years and above with interval of 5 years for each category. The distribution is as presented in Table 4

Teaching experience	Frequency(n)	Percentage (%)
6-10 years	20	28.6
11-15 years	29	41.4
Above 15 years	21	30.0
Total	70	100.0

Table 4: Teaching Experience

Table 4 indicates that the majority 29 (41.4%) of the total sampled teachers had between 11-16 years of teaching experiences followed by 20 (28.6 %) who had between 6-10 years and above 21(30.0%) years of teaching experience. This is supported by Makura (2000) who states that women's experiences may be influenced by a firm's history and industry policies. This goes to prove that women's problems may also be due to unfavorable policies that an organization makes or the organization's failure to make policies that encourage women to move up to managerial positions.

4.1.7. Length of Stay in the School

The researcher further examined how long the respondents had stayed in the school. The length of stay experience of a teacher or principal in the school would influence the value of knowledge they would share about factors limiting the appointment of women teachers to leadership positions in public secondary schools. This was clustered into 4 categories ranging from 5 years to 15 years and above with an interval of 5 years for each category. The distribution is as presented in Table 5

Length of stay in the school	Frequency(n)	Percentage (%)
5 years	21	21
6-10 years	39	39
11-15 years	30	30
Above 15 years	10	10
Total	100	100.0

Table 5: Length of Stay in the School

Table 5 indicates that the majority 39 (39 %) of the total sampled respondents had been the school between 6-10 years, followed by 30 (30%) who had between 11-15 years' experience in the school. Another 21(21%) had 5 years of experience while the least majority 10 (10%) had over 15 years of experience in the school. The respondents' length of experience in the school was found to be adequate for this study.

4.1.8. School Category

The researcher also attempted to find out the category of schools the respondents represented. The school category would influence the appointment of women teachers to leadership. School category was clustered into 6 categories; boys boarding, boys' day, girls boarding, girls' day, mixed boarding and mixed day. The distribution is as presented in Figure 5

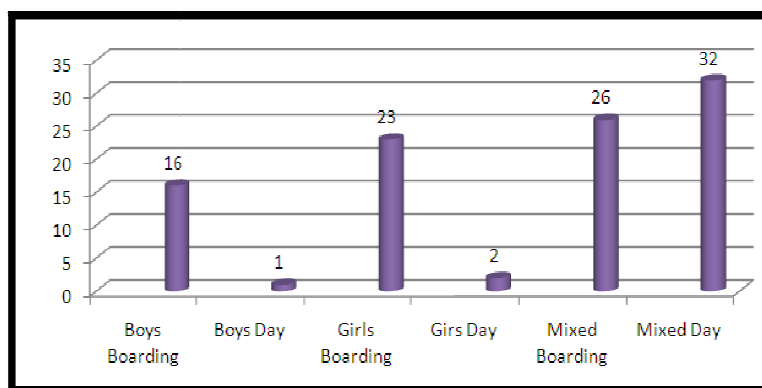


Figure 5: School Category

The findings in Figure 5 above revealed that the majority 32 (32%) of the total sampled respondents served in mixed day schools, followed by 26 (26%) in Mixed boarding, 23 (23%) in girls boarding while 16 (16%) served in boys only boarding. The minority groups were respondents serving in boys only day school and girls only day schools

representing 2 (2%) and 1 (1%) of the total sample respondents respectively. The representation of the schools' category was representative enough and adequate for this study.

4.1.9. Size of the School

The study also found out the size of schools the respondents served in. This would influence the magnitude of responsibilities being handled by the school leader. School size was clustered into 4 categories; Single stream, double stream, triple stream and any other. The distribution is as presented in Figure 6

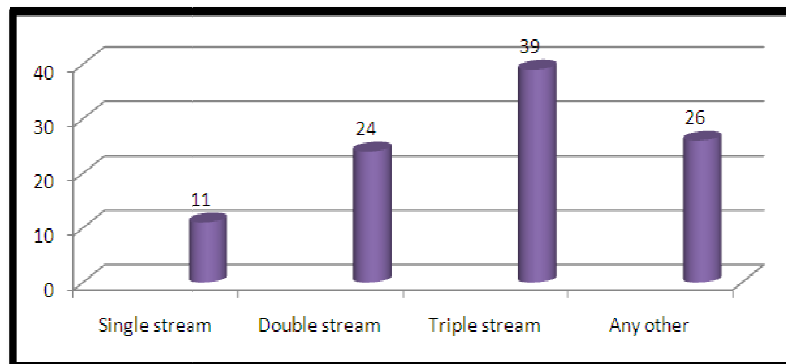


Figure 6: Size of the School

The findings in Figure 6 above revealed that the majority 39 (39%) of the total sampled respondents serve in tripled stream schools, followed by 26 (26%) in any other category which could be above three streamed schools, 24(24%) in double stream schools and finally 11% in single streamed school.

4.2. Social – Cultural Factors and Women Teachers' Appointment to Leadership

The study sought to establish the effects of social-cultural factors on women teachers' appointment to leadership positions in public secondary schools in Machakos Sub County. Respondents were required to state their level of agreement by rating on a 3point Likert scale ranging from Agree (A)=1, Neutral (N)=2, Disagree (D)=3. The findings are as shown in Table 6

Statement	A(1)	N(2)	D(3)
Leadership is basically for men	60%	16%	29.9%
Discouragement from male colleagues make women not take up leadership positions	69.8%	0%	30.2%
Women are discriminated in promotion to leadership positions	62.5 %	7.5%	30%
Discouragement from spouses make women not take up leadership positions	68%	3%	29%
Culturally women are inferior to men and such should not lead them	81%	2%	17%
Marriage affecting women appointment in leadership	75%	10%	15%
Parenting affecting women appointment in leadership	79%	3%	18%
Home care affecting women appointment in leadership	66%	0%	34.%

Table 6: Socio-Cultural Factors on Women Teachers' Appointment to Leadership

As stated in Table 6, the majority 60% of the respondents agreed with the statement that "Leadership is basically for men" while 29.9% disagreed. Another 16% were neutral. Another majority (69.8%) of the respondents agreed with the statement that "Women are discriminated against in promotion to leadership positions" but 30.2% disagreed. Further, a majority (62.5%) of the respondents agreed with the statement that "Women are discriminated against in promotion to leadership positions"30% disagreed while the remaining 7.5% was neutral. On the statement "Culturally women are inferior to men and such should not lead them", a significant majority (81%), of the respondents agreed, 17% disagreed and only 2% was neutral.

Furthermore,75% of the respondents agreed with the statement that "Marriage limits women appointment in leadership." Only 15% of the respondents disagreed while 10% were neutral. Another 79% of the total sampled respondents agreed with the statement that "Parenting affects women appointment in leadership" while 18% disagreed and 3% took a neutral point. Finally, 66% of the total sampled respondents agreed with the statement that "Home care affects women appointment in leadership" while34%disagreed with the statement.

From the findings, a majority 81% ascertained that culturally women are inferior to men and such should lead them. Wachege (2017) resonates that for centuries, women have gone far along with cultural prescriptions where they came to believe their lives were to be managed by commands of culture. The behavior expected of women in a given cultural group is organized around three roles, the productive role within the household, childbearing to daily tasks (Human Right Watch, 2017). The study also established women face more household demands and family responsibility even when working outside the home because women are still expected to be the primary caregivers and that interferes

with business leadership. This echoes the works of Milaso (2016). He describes domestic responsibilities as a factor that inhibits women's participation in public life and compromises their ability to play leadership roles.

Rotolo (2009) observed that marriage and parenthood are anticipated to have a stronger negative effect among women than among men, where marriage may even boost participation. Once married, women's leisure time declines to a greater extent than men's, and women tend to increase the amount of time spent on housework, whereas men's contribution decreases. Marriage might lower leadership participation among men. The socialization of the girl child in many societies is to blame for perceived inabilities on the part of women. In many African cultures, the rituals and rites of passage to the boy child nurture them for leadership positions, whether at local or national levels of governance, in business, politics or public administration. Religion tends to cement these cultural norms (Kark, 2016).

According to Onsongo (2007), women find administrative positions unsuitable to them due to household responsibilities and child care and their ingressiveness in academic and professional pursuit. Interview findings from the Sub-county Director revealed that women teachers shy away from responsibilities and faced negative stereotypes. This affects their career development. He further pointed out that women are discriminated against when it comes to management positions. This was so because traditionally leadership is believed to be masculine. According to Onsongo (2007) women are expected to display relatively feminine, communal values resulting in women doubting their leadership abilities because of incongruence between womanhood and leadership. This view is an outdated culture that needs to be done away with to achieve the millennium development goals.

4.2.1. Qualities and Attributes

The study also examined some qualities and attributes that affect women teachers to an appointment in the leadership of schools. Respondents stated their level of agreement by rating on the same three-point Likert scale. The findings are as shown in Table 7

Women Qualities and Attributes	A(1)	N(2)	D(3)
Lack of academic qualification	23%	5%	72%
Lack of experience	29%	13%	58%
Lack of assertiveness	16%	10%	74%
Fear of criticism	48%	5%	47%
Low self esteem	21%	13%	65%
Fear of responsibility	65%	5%	28%
Society has no value for female leadership	58%	13%	29%

Table 7: Qualities and Attributes

Table 7 indicates that a majority 72% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that lack of academic qualification has limited women teachers from taking leadership positions in secondary schools in Machakos Sub-County., only 23% seemed to be agreed with this assertion while another 5% were neutral. Another 58% equally disagreed that women teacher's lack of experienced. The other 29% agreed while 13% were neutral. Additionally, the majority (74%) also disagreed with the statement that woman teachers Lacked assertiveness hence could not make effective leaders. with 16% of the respondents agreeing while 10% was neutral. Further; only 48% of the respondents agreed with the item that women teachers' feared criticism hence limiting them from being appointed as school leaders. The other 46% disagreed with this statement. Furthermore, 65% majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement that woman teachers had low self-esteem with 22% agreeing and 13% being neutral.

Table 7 indicates that a majority 65% of the respondents agreed with the statement that most women teachers' fear of responsibility hence do not take leadership positions in secondary schools in Machakos Sub-county, only 23% of the respondents seemed to disagree with this assertion while another 5% were neutral. Another (58%) equally disagreed with the statement women teachers lacked assertiveness hence could not make effective leaders with 16% respondents agreeing while 10% was neutral. Further, only 48% of respondents agreed with the item that women teacher's feared criticism hence, affecting them from being appointed as school leaders. The other 46% disagreed with the statement teachers had low self-esteem with 22% agreeing and 13% being neutral.

Some scholars argued that women themselves are often reluctant to run for leadership positions and this is partly attributed to cultural prohibitions on women speaking in public or going to public places. Wangari (2003) asserts that many women fear to take up administrative positions for fear of institutional support networks. Political campaigning, for instance, requires that one travel extensively, spend nights away from home, go into bars, and for women, it means meeting men. These things are not easily accepted by women in many African societies (Onsongo, 2004). Women who vie for public office have to consider the risk of being labeled 'loose' or 'unfit' as mothers and wives are socially stigmatized.

Similar issues have been raised regarding educated Chinese women. In examining the development of female college students in China, found that several factors combine to restrict their desire to become successful career women. These include traditional prejudice, social pressures, women's sensitivity to people's misconception of successful women, and the tendency of men to choose 'family-oriented' wives. These women even fear being more capable than men and as a result shy away from leadership (Kiamba, 2008).

5. Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

5.1. Summary of the Findings

The findings are based on responses of 15 Woman Principals, 15 deputy women principals, and 70 women teachers. Majority (60%) were marriage, the majority 47 % of were aged between 33 - 43 years, majority (45%) of the respondents had a degree, majority (40 %) of the total sampled principals had between 6-10 years of leadership experiences majority (37.1%) of the total sampled teachers had between 11-16 years of teaching experiences of majority (39 %) of the total sampled respondents had been school between 6-10 years, Majority (32%) served in mixed day schools, Majority (39%) serve in tripled stream schools, the majority (62%) of the teaching staff are female yet majority (54%) the heads of department are male.

5.2. Socio-Cultural Affecting Women Teachers' Appointment to Leadership

Research findings show that the active participation of women is greatly influenced by family responsibilities such as parenting, domestic work, dual responsibilities, and marriage in that order. Women find it difficult to balance their domestic roles, professional roles and school management work. They would rather concentrate on family roles which they feel are more important. This has resulted in very few women actively participating in management positions in secondary schools in Machakos Cultural beliefs, values and practices contribute to the low participation of women teachers in the leadership of public secondary schools. Leadership is highly perceived by the African culture to be a masculine responsibility.

A female teacher is perceived to have a negative attitude towards leadership roles and therefore they are reluctant to run for a leadership position. The respondents had a strong agreement that there exists a clear gender disparity in leadership. Social biases on women leadership have caused a great impact on the female teachers' consciousness on their capability towards leadership. These have greatly affected their attitude on progression into headship positions.

The study findings revealed that majority of the respondents were not interested in the post since they felt that the leadership roles are too demanding, thus applying means inviting frustrations. Academic qualification is deemed to determine the leadership capability of an individual, thus, female teachers' academic qualification was investigated to establish whether it hindered their progression into leadership positions in public secondary schools.

5.3. Conclusions

The study was successful in addressing its objectives. Given the foregoing, the study arrived at the following conclusions;

- It was concluded that several factors contribute to under-representation of female to headship positions and some of these factors include lack support of women from family, to the national level, women being undervalued because of African culture, gender stereotype, split between work and family.
- Female teachers' attitude towards leadership roles was highly displayed to be the major cause of female teachers' under-representation in educational management.
- The dual role of women in families as mothers and wives contributes greatly towards their career progression. Women are principally responsible for work associated with production and maintenance of the family like child care and control other assets in the family.
- From the study findings, academic qualification is no longer an issue as both male and female are equally qualified. Cultural and structural changes with regard to women's attitudes and roles are needed to address gender inequality. Moreover, women need to be part of a solution rather than projecting themselves as victims.
- The few women who have been given the opportunity to manage schools have done perfectly, and thus proving wrong the fear that woman will always cause things to go wrong.

5.4. Recommendations

From the findings, negative criticism by men makes women hate leadership positions. Further affirmative action, strengthening of the mentor system and training in leadership skills can help improve women teachers' participation in headship positions in schools. As such, policy options should be formulated to mitigate the marginalization of women from the family level to the national level. In order to ensure that female and male teachers appear in leadership in the same proportion, the government through the Teachers' Service Commission should motivate female teachers through incentives.

The Ministry of Education should encourage in-service courses in Educational Management to create awareness among all teachers in administrative roles. Interviewing panels are mostly dominated by men and that other times the interviewing panels comprises only men. There should be gender balance on the interviewing panels to minimize gender bias. The community should be sensitized on gender equality in every sector to enhance women visibility in public life. More flexibility to females in order to have balance in their professional life and family life. Females should not be discriminated against in selections, recruitment, and in development of their career.

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