Full Length Research Paper

Factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship positions in primary schools in Eldoret Municipality, Kenya

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

Key words: Under representation, female teachers, headship, positions, primary schools.

INTRODUCTION

African societies largely continue to discourage women with ambition in politics among other sectors of life such as education, from aspiring to leadership positions and their marginalized position is still a shared phenomenon in Africa. The political space like gender is culturally created by society, although most governments and political parties have clauses expressing explicitly the concept of gender equality in their manifestos and constitution. Women are known for their immense contribution to socioeconomic and cultural development; they still largely remain implementers of decisions made by men, due to their peripheral position in national institutionalized process of political participation (Wanjiku and Wasamba, 1998). In 2007, the Political Parties' Act was passed and provides for 50% chance women representation in party nominations. However, during the

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previous elections, for instance, women were faced with various challenges ranging from physical and verbal violence, especially during the politic campaigns (Institute of Economic Affairs, 2008). Globally, women's access to top leadership positions is still severely restricted though they match or exceed their male counterparts in terms of formal qualification and technical know-how. Indeed, it is in the world of corporate business that the glass ceiling has proved most impenetrable with a mere 2-3 percent of top jobs in large corporations held by women (International Labour Organisation, 1998). Traditionally, women have been expected to perform household duties relating to child rearing and other domestic functions. Men, on the other hand, have been expected to leave the home to work with the primary responsibility of supporting the family economically and protecting its members. This traditional arrangement has been brought into question by the entrance of women often as primary bread winners in significant numbers of mainstream society in recent decades (Merger, 1999). Despite the changed work roles of women, the gender breakdown of traditional roles has changed radically. Although majority of adult women are in the labour force, they continue to do the bulk of child care and household task. A comparative study of Sweden and the United States found that in both countries men did between twenty and thirty percent housework (Wright et al., 1992). Bianchi and Spain (1996) assert that majority of Americans believe that women today should work even if they are raising families and increase the mainstream labour force as full or part time workers, unlike in the past generation.

The expectation of most women is no longer that they stay at home attending to domestic chores. The rate of labour force participation is not the same in all societies of modern world. In less developed societies and in societies where religion dictates most societal norms (particularly Muslim countries), there is less female participation than in the western industrialized countries. However in recent decades, economic globalization has drawn many women in the underdeveloped world into the unskilled labour force (Peter and Runyan, 1993). In an attempt to expand their participation leadership, women have traditionally engaged in unpaid or non-market work-day like housework, childrearing and their performance is outstanding. A United Nations report has observed that worldwide 66 percent of women's work is unpaid as compared to 34 percent of men's work (United Nations, 1996). Another consistent occupational pattern among societies is that of traditional female roles which are accorded less prestige than those of men. However, the kind of work done by women is considered less valuable which should have been rewarded accordingly (England, 1982).

It is generally the case that the more women in an occupation the less both female and male workers earn (Reskin and Padavic, 1994). Employment and national accounts data do not capture non-market activities where women pre-dominate and therefore fail to demonstrate the full contribution of women to the household economy and the extent of female work burden. Women in Kenya are "time-poor" because of their dual role in the household economy and the labour market. On average, women work longer hours (12.9 h) compared to men (8.2 h), yet women earn less because more of these hours are not remunerated (Saito and Spurling, 1994). Women constitute 60.8 percent of unpaid family workers. Some of them who are found in the rural areas of Kenya are burdened with household tasks such as collecting firewood and pounding grains. Only 30 percent of household in Kenya have access to piped water and fetching water can account for up to 40 percent of a woman's day, taking from 3 to 5.25 h (Were and Kiringai, 2003). Child care is also an important source of time burden for women in Kenya. Their labour time and flexibility are therefore constraining than men's, hence disproportionate cost borne by women in terms of reproductive work in the household economy limits the time that they spend on economic activities and, further, they may have less time to devote to developing their businesses (Blackden and Hughes, 1993). The 2006 World Bank country's social analysis argues that women's burden in the economic, domestic and collective spheres has only intensified bringing about a destabilizing effect on household and leading to increased tension and violence (World Bank, 2006).

Economic, educational and cultural factors influence decision-making patterns among the households. The patriarchal system in many African traditions tends to have a profound influence on households' decision-making. The consultations that take place within the household are shrouded by male dominance, which does not provide the female partners with a forum conducive for negotiation. Even in cases where the males have assisted their female counterparts to start a family business, the male spouses are still obliged to meet major capital expenditure for households. The status of the household head also has an influence on decision-making (Mwangi, 2002).

Gender inequalities in education

Education is widely recognized as the gateway to economic security and opportunity particularly for girls and women. The foremost factor limiting female education is poverty. Economic plays a key role when it comes to coping with direct cost such as tuition, cost of textbooks, uniform, transportation and other expenses. Wherever, especially in families with many children, these costs exceed the income of the family, girls are the first to be denied schooling. This happens despite the fact that educating girls is one of the best investments a society can make. An educated woman has the skill, the self-confidence and the information she needs to become

a better parent, worker and citizen (Friedman and Marshall, 2004).Girls' lack of access to education is not always related to scarcity of places in schools. It also emerges from expectations, attitudes and biases in communities and families. Economic costs, social traditions, and religious and cultural beliefs limit girls' educational opportunities. Whatever the underlying reason(s), having large number of girls outside the formal schooling system brings developmental challenges to both current and future generations. Individuals, families, communities and nations are affected. Inability to read, write and calculate complicates a girl's efforts to engage in both market-focused production and household activities as effectively and efficiently possible. This affects her family's welfare and diminishes her potential contribution to the development of the household, local and national economy. Despite reported progress, there is still a persistent gap between women and men's access to education (Jerry and Gerson, 2004). Combating the high rate of illiteracy among women and girls remains an urgent global need. Gender inequality refers to the obvious or hidden disparity between genders. It is constructed both socially through social interactions as well as biologically through chromosomes, brain struc-ture, and hormonal differences. Gender systems are often dichotomous, hierarchical and binary gender systems may reflect in the inequalities that manifest in numerous dimensions of daily life. Gender inequality stems from distinctions, whether empirically grounded or socially constructed (Buchmann et al,, 2008). Cultural stereotypes are engrained in both men and women and these stereotypes are a possible expla-nation for gender inequality and the resulting gendered wage disparity. Women have traditionally been viewed as being caring and nurturing and are designated to occupations which require such skills. While these skills are culturally valued, they are typically associated with domesticity, so occupations requiring these same skills are not econo-mically valued. Men have traditionally been viewed as the breadwinner or the worker, so jobs held by men have been historically economically valued and occupations predominated by men continue to be economically valued and pay higher wages (Jerry and Gerson, 2004). Dis-crimination also plays out with networking and in preferential treatment within the economic market. Men typically occupy positions of power within the job economy. Due to taste or preference for other men be-cause they share similar characteristics, men in these positions of power are more likely to hire or promote other men, thus discriminating against women. Natality inequality is a situation given preference for boys over girls that many male-dominated societies have; gender inequality can manifest itself in the form of the parents wanting the newborn to be a boy rather than a girl (Sibbons et al., 2000).

There are often enough, basic inequalities in gender relations within the family or the household, which can take many different forms. Even in cases in which there are no overt signs of anti-female bias in, say, survival or son-preference or education, or even in promotion to higher executive positions, the family arrangements can be quite unequal in terms of sharing the burden of housework and child care. It is quite common in many societies to take it for granted that while men will naturally work outside the home, women could do it if and only if they could combine it with various inescapable and unequally shared household duties (Buchmann et al., 2008). Gender gaps that are widespread in access to basic rights, access to and control of resources, in economic opportunities and also in power and political voice are an impediment to development. The only solution to this is gender equality, which strengthens a country's ability to grow, to reduce poverty and provide its people – men, women and children – a better life. The issue of gender equality then, needs to be at the core of development policies- both in national and international arenas. Just because gender inequality is inextricably linked to societal norms, religion or cultural traditions, it should not be either a deterrent or an excuse to gender sensitive development planning. Promoting gender equality in education involves promoting equality in the culture and processes of schooling. Evidence shows that a caring, non-hierarchical and respectful school system not only reduces early school leaving for both boys and girls, it also promotes positive attitudes to learning that sustain people educationally in adult life. It encourages lifelong learning (Kendall, 2006).

Gender roles develop through internalization and identification during childhood. Sigmund Freud suggested that biology determines gender identity through identify-cation with either the mother or father. While some people agree with Freud, others argue that the develop-ment of the gendered self is not completely determined by biology but rather the interactions that one has with the primary caregiver(s). From birth, parents interact differently with children depending on their sex, and through this interaction parents can instil different values or traits in their children on the basis of what is normative for their sex. This internalization of gender norms can be seen through the example of which types of toys children are typically given ("feminine" toys often reinforce interaction, nurturing, and closeness; "masculine" toys often reinforce independence and competitiveness) that parents give to their children. Education also plays an integral role in the creation of gender norms (Jerry and Gerson, 2004). Gender roles that are created in child-hood permeate throughout life and help to structure parenting and marriage, especially in relation to work in and outside the home. Despite the increase in women in the labour force since the mid-1900s, women are still responsible for the majority of the domestic chores and childcare. While women are splitting their time between work and care of the home, men are pressured into being the primary economic supporter of the home. Despite the

fact that different households may divide chores more evenly, there is evidence that supports that women have retained the primary caregiver role within familial life despite contributions economically. This evidence suggests that women who work outside the home often put an extra 18 h a week doing household or childcare related chores as opposed to men who average 12 min a day in childcare activities. In addition to a lack of interest in the home on the part of some men, some women may bar men from equal participation in the home which may contribute to this disparity (Friedman and Marshall, 2004).

However, men are assuming the role of "care giver" more and more in today's society. Education plays a major factor in this. The more education a male or female receives, the less likely they are to hold roles within the house distinctly based on one's sex. Males are doing more cooking, cleaning, and house-hold "chores" than they were in the 1950s. Education is universally acknowledged to benefit individuals and promote national development. Educating females and males produce similar increases in their subsequent earnings and expand future opportunities and choices for both boys and girls. However, educating girls produces many additional socio-economic gains that benefit entire societies. These benefits include increased economic productivity, higher family incomes, delayed marriages, reduced fertility rates, and improved health and survival rates for infants and children (Basic Education Coalition. 2004). Over the years, education has focused on access and parity—that is, closing the enrolment gap between girls and boys, while insufficient attention has been paid to retention and achievement or the quality and relevance of education. Providing a quality, relevant education leads to improved enrolment and retention, but also helps to ensure that boys and girls are able to fully realize the benefits of education .The primary focus on girls' access to education may overlook boys' educational needs. This approach also fails to confront the norms and behaviours that perpetuate inequality (Kane. 2004).

Work place inequality

A powerful trend of the past several decades has been the entrance of women into the workforce in vastly increasing numbers and percentage .This is especially evident in the United States where a dramatic transformation has occurred within one generation in the Labour force expectation of and for women (Biachi and Spain, 1996). It is often assumed that women's increased involvement in paid work has been associated with a sharp reduction in workplace inequality, but in reality this is not the case. No longer isolated in domestic spheres, women work alongside men in `offices, factories and other work setting. Several studies have demonstrated that women and men are not treated equally at work even

if they possess the same qualification and are hired to perform the same job (Table 1). Women encounter barriers when they try to enter the most lucrative and prestigious specialties. "A glass ceiling" prevents them from reaching the top position (Reskin and Phipps, 1988). Opportunities for women occupying managerial position are increasing but career advancement may depend on the functional area, industry or on particular company. Women are likely to be found at upper levels of management in areas such as personnel or public relation. With the large number of married women in the workforce, an increasing number of companies have recognized the stressful situation of dual–career couples through more flexible polices, career planning, personnel selection, placement and promotion. They assert that women in management may use different leadership style than men, which involves interactive style like sharing information and power apart from inspiring participation and letting people know that they are important. Men in contrast use control of resource and authority of their position to motivate their people (Koontz and Weihrich, 1988). Women are still under-represented in middle and senior management roles. The difficulties faced by women in breaking into what is still very much a male preserve that is 'the glass ceiling', an analogy to describe the subtly transparent barrier that prevents women from gaining access to the more senior roles in their organization (Cole, 2002). Kanter (1977) argues that the barriers women face in predominately male occupation can be attributed to their numerical minority in organization. Although men and women may have similar qualification, the organization nevertheless promotes gender differentiation through the mechanism of tokenism. Women careers often suffer because organizations typically do not accommodate their additional household responsibilities (Hochschild, 1989).

The programming of career development has always been difficult for women. The important years for career building are also those of child bearing and their family responsibilities may hinder their career advancement. Women are often excluded from selection because they are less aware than men of the "covert criteria" for appointments to executive positions. Other important barriers to women's participation in decision-making include: (a) family attitudes; (b) alienation from the male culture and continued resistance to women in management position; and (c) inadequate policies and legislation to ensure their participation. At the community level, women are appointed to local committees though there js still a tendency for final decision to be made by men (UNESCO, 1993). The principal barriers preventing the participation of women in the decision–making arena include: 1) limited access to education, especially higher education; 2) discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; 3) the stresses of dual family and professional roles;4) family attitudes 5) career interruptions; 6) cultural stereotyping; 7) alienation from the male culture and

Table 1. Gender and leadership in relation to socio-cultural beliefs.

Statement		Very large extent		Large extent		Undecided		Small extent		Very small extent	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Female teachers	M	2	2.5	3	3.8	1	1.3	4	5	5	6.3
lack self-confident	F	2	2.5	19	23.8	1	1.3	18	22.5	25	31.3
	T	4	5	22	27.5	2	2.5	22	27.5	30	37.5
Women	M	2	2.5	5	6.3	0	0	1	1.3	7	8.8
Are discriminated	F	11	13.8	25	31.3	4	5	18	22.5	7	8.8
	T	13	16.3	30	37.5	4	5	19	23.8	14	17.5
Family role affect	M	4	5	3	3.8	0	0	5	6.3	3	3.8
women	F	15	18.8	18	22.8	3	3.8	22	27.5	7	8.8
	T	19	23.8	21	26.3	3	3.8	27	33.8	10	12.5
Women dislike	M	0	0	2	2.5	1	1.3	5	6.3	7	8.8
responsibilities	F	1	1.3	16	20	4	5	9	11.3	35	43.8
	T	1	1.3	18	22.5	5	6.3	14	17.5	42	52.5
Dual role affect	M	4	5	3	3.8	0	0	3	3.8	5	6.3
women	F	14	17.5	30	37.5	2	2.5	10	12.5	9	11.3
	T	18	22.5	33	41.3	2	2.5	13	16.3	14	17.5
Young female	M	4	5	5	6.3	0	0	3	3.8	3	3.8
teacher lack	F	11	13.8	19	23.8	3	3.8	15	18.8	17	21.3
mentors	T	15	18.8	24	30	3	3.8	18	22.5	20	25

continued resistance to women in management positions; propagation of the glass ceiling syndrome which privileges covert criteria for advancement; and absence of adequate policies and legislation to ensure the participation of women. Given these obstacles, some solutions to remedy the exclusion of women are: 1) wider access to education, notably higher education; 2) review of appointment and promotion procedures; 3) provision of legislative and infra-structure support in all professions; 4) provision of special Programmes for women; 5) affirmative action to favour women's access and participation while awaiting a genuine change in attitude towards full gender equality and 6) institutional and governmental support through clear and effective policies which are actually enforced (UNESCO,1993). Yieke (2003) asserts that women at the workplace experience many problems and forms of discrimination. These range from sexual harassment, denial of leave to nurse a sick baby and dismissals when the women become pregnant, to low pay that is not commensurate with the kind of work that the women do, and very long hours of working institutions, injurious to their health and well-being. The situation is compounded by the lack of ways of channelling complaints about these problems and by the fact that the workplace is an area that has traditionally been male dominated, especially at the higher managerial levels.

Yieke (2003) further argues that women are severely disadvantaged in the workplace and this problem is compounded by lack of means and avenues to channel their grievances. The workplace, as is the case for most public spheres, has traditionally been male dominated, especially at higher management levels where policy issues are discussed. Similarly, promotion for women has, in many cases, been based less on merit, qualifications, competence or suitability for the work than on the possible sexual favours that a woman is prepared to offer to her male counterparts in management who have the power to influence her fate.

Statement of the problem

Despite the progress made so far in both developing and developed countries, women continue to be under-represented in decision-making and leadership in several areas. The consequence of this gender gap is that women do not participate fully in decisions that shape their lives and their communities and countries are not capitalizing on the full potential of one half of their societies (Gentry, 1996). However, in Eldoret Municipality the pattern of headship positions among female teachers reveals under-representation of women as they account for a small percentage of heads of institutions. There are 41 public primary schools in the Municipality and the numbers of female head teachers are 10 whereas their

Table 2. Lack of significant relationship between culture and society's perception of female teachers.

Cause	Sex	Very large extent	Large extent	undecided	Small extent	Very small extent	X2	df	Sign
Female teachers are undervalued	M	6	3	0	5	1	6.641	3	0.084
	F	21	31	0	7	6			
	T	27	34	0	12	7			

χ^2=6.641; df=3; p=0.084.

male counterparts are 31. This is a huge disparity of gender and equality despite the fact that female teachers in the municipality are 660 comprising 83% of the entire teaching workforce while the male comprise 17% with their total of 139 (MEO'S office, 2010). Eldoret Municipality like other municipalities in Kenya comprises more female teaching workforce but low participation in top headship positions in schools due to a problem that starts at an early stage in life where girls were discriminated against and the trend of inequality continues till maturity where more men are in leadership as compared to women; hence there was need to study this problem in order to find out factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship and to find out ways that could be done in order to improve equal participation in leadership positions.

Limitations of the study

The study was conducted in Eldoret Municipality using a limited, but justified number of respondents. It was possible that the findings on factors contributing to under representation of female teachers in headship position in primary school was not generalizable to other places in Kenya owing to different regional challenges. Nevertheless, the study provided a framework through which scholars can conduct similar studies and recommend for appropriate solutions to the problems facing female teachers in Kenya.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was conducted in Eldoret town. The town is a major centre for industrial, commercial and agricultural activities. It has a well-established infrastructure and a good geographical climate liked by many (Republic of Kenya, UasinGishu Development Plan 1997-2001). It is a cosmopolitan town and teachers who teach in the Municipality come from different communities and majority of them are female teachers who happen to be trained and posted there by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). The author employed descriptive survey design because the findings needed to be generalized over a large population. The study used both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The target population of the study comprised Municipal education officials (TAC tutors), head teachers, teachers and committee members as stakeholders. The Municipality was chosen because female teachers are the majority of the teaching workforce yet they are under-represented in top headship positions. The study employed simple random, stratified

and purposive sampling. The research population was grouped into strata's of officers, head teachers, deputies, senior teachers, assistant teachers and committee members. Since each member of the population had an equal and independent chance of being selected, simple random sampling technique was used to select the representative sample. Purposive sampling technique was used as the researcher targeted a group of people believed to be reliable and would provide information with respect to the objectives of the study. The researcher used a representative sample of 105 respondents of which 2 were Municipal Education Officials (TAC tutors), 8 were head teachers of which 4 respondents from each group of male and female head teachers, 80 teachers and 15 committee members from 15 public primary schools. The researcher used a different percent to calculate representation of head teacher in order to have equal representation of both male and female head teachers. The study used questionnaire and interview schedule to collect information from the respondents. All completed questionnaire from the field were cleaned, coded and key-punched into a computer and analysed. Both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics included means, percentage, frequencies, range and standard deviation. The Chi-square test ($\chi2$) was employed to determine the significant differences between the observed frequencies of responses from the respondents.

RESULTS

H_0: There is a no significant relationship between culture and society's perception of female teachers.

Chi- square was calculated to find out whether there was a relation and it was noted that there was no significant relationship at 5% significance level between culture and society's perception of female teachers($\chi2$=6.641, df=3 p=0.084) (Table 2).

H_0: There is no significant relationship between dual role and women career development.

Chi square was calculated to find out whether there was a relation and it was noted that there was no significant relationship at 5% significance level between dual role and women career development ($\chi2$=5.429, df=4 p=0.246) (Table 3).

DISCUSSION

As indicated, when asked whether women lack support from family to national level, It was noted that of the total

Table 3. There is no significant relationship between dual role and women career development.

Statement		Very large extent	Large extent	Undec ided	Small extent	Very small extent	X2	df	Sign
Dual role	M	4	3	0	3	5	5.429	4	0.246
affect	F	14	30	2	10	9			
women	T	18	33	2	13	14			

χ^2=5.429;df=4; p=0.246.

Table 4. Gender and leadership in relation to socio-cultural beliefs.

Statement		Very large Extent		Large extent		Undecided		Small extent		Very small extent	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Female teachers	M	2	2.5	3	3.8	1	1.3	4	5	5	6.3
lack self-confident	F	2	2.5	19	23.8	1	1.3	18	22.5	25	31.3
	T	4	5	22	27.5	2	2.5	22	27.5	30	37.5
Women	M	2	2.5	5	6.3	0	0	1	1.3	7	8.8
Are discriminated	F	11	13.8	25	31.3	4	5	18	22.5	7	8.8
	T	13	16.3	30	37.5	4	5	19	23.8	14	17.5
Family role affect	M	4	5	3	3.8	0	0	5	6.3	3	3.8
women	F	15	18.8	18	22.8	3	3.8	22	27.5	7	8.8
	T	19	23.8	21	26.3	3	3.8	27	33.8	10	12.5
Women dislike	M	0	0	2	2.5	1	1.3	5	6.3	7	8.8
responsibilities	F	1	1.3	16	20	4	5	9	11.3	35	43.8
	T	1	1.3	18	22.5	5	6.3	14	17.5	42	52.5
Dual role affect	M	4	5	3	3.8	0	0	3	3.8	5	6.3
women	F	14	17.5	30	37.5	2	2.5	10	12.5	9	11.3
	T	18	22.5	33	41.3	2	2.5	13	16.3	14	17.5
Young female	M	4	5	5	6.3	0	0	3	3.8	3	3.8
teacher lack	F	11	13.8	19	23.8	3	3.8	15	18.8	17	21.3
mentors	T	15	18.8	24	30	3	3.8	18	22.5	20	25

respondents, 42(52.5%) agreed on a very large, 26(32.5%) agreed on a large extent while 2(2.5%) supported the statement on a very small extent (Table 4). The analysis further revealed that both male and female agreed that women lacked the required support needed for them to progress in their careers from the family to the national level. According to Friedman and Marshall, (2004), gender roles that are created in childhood permeate throughout life and help to structure parenting and marriage, especially in relation to work and outside the home. Despite the increase in women in the labor force since the mid-1900s, women are still responsible for the majority of the domestic chores and childcare. While women are splitting their time between work and care of the home, men are pressured into being the primary economic supporter of the home. When asked whether female teachers are undervalued because of African culture, 27(33.8%) of the respondents supported the statement on a very large extent while 34(42.5%) supported on a large extent.7 (8.8%) supported on a very small extent. It was further noted that both male and female teachers agreed with the statement. According to Lipman-Blumen (1984), women are followers, good in carrying out decisions and following others' initiative. Further, Tamale (2000) agrees that domesticity ideology is historically and culturally constructed and is closely linked to patriarchy, that is gender/power relation and the public -private divide. This same ideology of patriarchy has drawn an artificial wall to separate domestic private from public spheres, with the latter representing masculinity locus of valued activities, politics and economy whereas the private represent feminity ,society and culture where women are trapped, ruled over by men.

The respondents were further asked to indicate whether gender stereotype was one of the causes of underrepresentation among women. The findings revealed that 27(33.8%) supported on a very large extent, 23(28.8%) also supported on a large extent; further 5(6.3%) supported on a very small extent. According to Jones and Montenegro (1982), many women have internalized the traditional gender stereo type to such an extent that they feel inferior and suffer guilt and shame when they have society's belief in male led organization and stereotype contributes to the gender imbalance in school leadership.

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether the split between work and family obligation adversely affects women`s promotion. It was noted 36(45%) supported the statement on a very large extent; further 29(36.3%) agreed on a large extent while 5(6.3%) refuted the claim. The researcher found out that this statement is similar to null hypothesis which stated there was no significant relationship between dual role and women career development. Chi square was calculated to find out whether there was a relation and it was noted that there was no significant relationship at 5% significance level between work and family responsibilities ($\chi2$=1.784, df=4 p=0.775).When asked whether sex stereotype leads to underrepresentation in most organization, 37(46.3%) supported this statement on a large extent while 4 (5%) refuted this statement. According to Dipboye (1978), the deeply entrenched stereotype view of women has accumulated throughout history; further women are considered weak, passive, emotional dependent, fearful, unsure about themselves, manipulative and talk too much. These gender stereotypes form an intrinsic part of society's heritage and paradigm and it affects and determines women's positions. The respondents were further asked whether male head teachers were better administrators than female head teachers. 41(51.25%) supported the statement on a very small extent, while 5(6.3%) supported on a very large extent. According to Shakeshaft (1989), the underrepresentation of qualified women in leadership positions has created a gender gap that exists not only in education but also in many areas of the workplace. Society has determined that only males make good leaders; therefore it continues to deny easy access for women seeking leadership roles because they do not fit the norm. Women who seek leadership positions face barriers and many times give up because they become overwhelmed in dealing with obvious barriers.

Interview schedule administered to head teachers and TAC tutors cited several factors ranging from social cultural, family role, gender stereo type, phobia, inferiority complex, and lack of confidence as some of the causes of underrepresentation of female teachers in headship positions. Some cited that female teachers shy away from responsibilities and negative attitude. Most female head teachers cited that they put marriage and family first and that heading schools may break up their family hence they took up the responsibilities after their children were fully grown up. According to Greyvenstien (1996), a woman's place is assumed to be restricted to the home where she is a wife, child bearer and homemaker, whereas men are taken to be breadwinners and providers for family units.

As indicated, the respondents were asked to respond to the fact that female teachers lack the self-confidence necessary to accept to perform headship responsibilities in schools. Out of the total population sample, 30(37.5%) of the respondents supported the statement on a very small extent, while 4(5%) supported on a very large extent. According to Jones and Montenegro (1982), many women have internalized the traditional gender stereotype to such an extent that they feel inferior and suffer guilt and shame when they have society's belief in male led organization and stereotype contributes to the gender imbalance in school leadership. When asked whether women are discriminated against in all realms of society 13(16.3%) supported this statement on a very large extent, 30(37.5%) supported on a large extent while 14(17.5%) supported on a very small extent. According to Sibbons et al, (2000) discrimination plays out with networking and in preferential treatment within the economic market where men who typically occupy positions of power within the job economy, due to taste or preference for other men because they share similar characteristics are more likely to hire or promote other men, thus discriminating against women. The respondents were further asked to indicate whether women tend not to progress in their career due to the role they play in the family. There were divided feelings among the respondents on this issue: 19(23.8%) supported on a very large extent, 21(26.3%) on a large extent while 10 (12.5%) supported on a very small extent. According to Jerry and Gerson (2004), women have traditionally been viewed as being caring and nurturing and are designated to occupations which require such skills. While these skills are culturally valued, they were typically associated with domesticity, so occupations requiring these same skills are not economically valued. When asked whether women dislike responsibilities, 42(52.5%) of the respondents supported on a very small extent the statement while 1(1.25%) supported the statement on a very large extent. According to Fagerson and Jackson (1993), women fail to plan their careers, to build networks and support systems, to locate and maintain effective mentoring relationships and have been socialized to subordinate their career in favor of their families. When asked whether dual role affects women in career development, 18(22.5%) of the respondents supported the statement on a very large extent, 33(41.3%) on a large extent while 14(17.5%) supported on a very small extent. The respondents were further asked whether female teachers lacked mentors in headship position to emulate from, there were divided feelings among the

respondents on this issue: 15(18.8%) supported the statement on a very large extent, 24(30%) on a large extent while 20(25%) supported on a very small extent. According to Gupton and Slick (1996), women lacked both professional mentor and professional support which contributes to the underrepresentation of women in the leadership position. A report by Glassock (1997) states that women seem to have a less - developed mentoring system as compared to men. Mentors provide in-district mobility opportunities for women aspiring leadership positions. Mentoring and networking are systems that women leaders must have in place to be a successful leader.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study found out that there were several factors contributing to underrepresentation of female in headship positions and some of these factors include lack support of women from family to national level, women being undervalued because of African culture, gender stereotype, split between work and family. From the findings, underrepresentation is not only common in Eldoret municipality but a general trend in most Kenyan schools. 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 controlling other assets in the family. Despite the increase in women in the labor force since the mid-1900s, women are still responsible for the majority of the domestic chores and childcare. While women are splitting their time between work and care of the home, men are pressured into being the primary economic supporter of the home. Most respondents argued that headship responsibility requires time which is limited to them because of the role they play in the family hence marriage and motherhood has been seen to slow down the process of career advancement among them. A variety of factors included, emphasis on domestic chores, influence of patriarchy, inaccessibility to education and task assigned to them by the norms and custom of the society. Gender stereotype and discrimination still hinders women to aspire positions as attributed by the African culture. Most of the respondents argued that women are discriminated against and disliked by male and fellow women. International concerns about the situation of the world's women have enhanced campaigns for more equitable distribution of the world's resources between men and women.

Many respondents agreed that women did not have mentors because they are very few female head teachers to emulate from. Mentors provide in-district mobility opportunities for women aspiring leadership positions. Mentoring and networking are systems that women leaders must have in place to be a successful leader. Most of the respondents supported that women shy away

from responsibilities despite their numerical strength and their academic and professional qualification they still are unable to access positions of leadership in schools and other organizations. The study recommended Ministry of Education to formulate strategies to promote women and give them first priority whenever there is a vacant position to be filled and further the appointments and recruitment procedure to be transparent in order to avoid inconsistencies and blame game.

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