

**FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN
THARAKA NORTH SUB-COUNTY, THARAKA NITHI COUNTY, KENYA**

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**A Research Thesis Report Submitted to the School of Education and Social Sciences
as a Partial Requirement for the Conferment of Master of Educational Leadership
and Management of Kenya Methodist University**

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration by the Student

I declare that this research thesis is my original work and has not been presented in any other university.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my family, for their moral support and their unending endurance of my absence during my study period.

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ABSTRACT

Gender disparities are a big challenge in leadership opportunities in Kenya despite the increasing numbers of female teachers. This situation is mirrored in Tharaka North Sub County, whereby out of twelve public secondary schools, male teachers are in charge of ten schools while two have female teachers. The study aimed to look at the factors influencing partaking of women in headship both in Public Primary and Secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya. The key objectives specifically examined the effects of academic qualification, relationships with members of staff, perceptions of inadequacy and gender roles on women involvement in instructional leadership positions. The study based on the Feminist Theory. Descriptive survey research design was deployed, and projected a total of 303 respondents who included principals, head teachers, female teachers and the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) Director from Tharaka North Sub-County. A total sample size of 92 respondents that comprised of 4 principals, 19 head teachers, 1 TSC Sub-County Director and 69 female school teachers was used in the study. This study employed structured questionnaires as well as semi-structured interviews to collect data. Instruments were piloted in 3 schools by the researcher; 1 secondary and 2 primary schools in Tharaka South Sub County and involved female school heads and female teachers. The pilot results obtained were used to test the validity and reliability of the research instruments which yielded a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.881. A reliability of 72% was determined using five independent assessors for the interview schedule. The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists Version 23.0, and applied descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Descriptive statistical methods involved percentages and frequencies. The relationship amongst the independent variables, that is, academic qualification, relationships with members of staff, perceptions of inadequacy and gender roles and the dependent variable women involvement in instructional leadership positions were tested using inferential statistics. The study found that there were significant relationships between the female teacher's human resource management skills, perception of women in instructional leadership and gender roles, and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. However, the study found insignificant relationship between academic qualification and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub-County in Kenya. Therefore, the study recommended in regard to relationships with members of staff that the schools should introduce peer evaluation and supervision programs to enable the female teachers learn how to manage and even supervise their colleagues at work. Concerning perceptions of inadequacy, female leaders in the area need to form strong advocacy groups, and also develop mentorship programs that enable them to change perceptions on the mentalities of female leadership in the area. Finally, in relation to gender roles, there is need for female teachers to begin taking up training opportunities in personal development programs so as to improve their confidence and capabilities of handling other higher leadership responsibilities.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| BOM: | Board of Management |
| SCDE: | Sub-county Director of Education |
| MOE: | Ministry of Education |
| NACOSTI: | National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation |
| SPSS: | Statistical Package for Social Sciences |
| TALIS: | Teaching and Learning International Survey |
| TSC: | Teachers Service Commission |
| UK: | United Kingdom |
| USA: | United States of America |

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Leadership is natural or learnt trait which enables a person to influence other persons towards the achievement of a given goal or goals (Northhouse, 2011). Over the years, the subject of females in leadership has remained but hardly appreciated (Wren, 2013). While different organizations will have different leadership needs, one thing that is clear is that the leadership of a learning institution is not a simple exercise, as it multiple strategies and abilities are required by the holders of the existing leadership positions, whether assumed by men or women (Wren, 2013). While there is no universally accepted determinant that can be singled out as to hampering the promotion and appointment of female teachers in positions leadership, there are a number of factors that have been generally singled out as having an effect, whether positive or negative, on the appointment of female teachers to senior position within both primary and secondary schools (Wickham, 2016).

Women's leadership basically faces a major ideological challenge that still finds it difficult to conceptualize them as leaders. Fiske and Taylor (2013) described conceptualization as the process of building internal representation of the outside world. Proper or ethical conduct of leadership is considered to be a common traditional belief that sees men with excellent leadership traits (Folkman, 2016). Good leadership requires that the leader engages other people to the extent that both leaders and the led complement each other in terms of morals and motivation (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Conventionally, teaching has been considered to be in line with the duties of women to be that of a spouse and mum.

While managerial roles seem to be opposed to their traditional role (Dalton, 2017). Therefore, it is acceptable to teach and at the same time be a mother, however, once she becomes a manager she ceases to be viewed as a good mother. According to the philosopher Jean Jacques Rousseau, where there is no mother there is no child further stating that the child is naïve and helpless without the mother (Garrard, 2021). He further portrays mothers as tender, anxious, and bestowed with a duty to take care as well as to

protect their young (MacDonald et al., 2013). Agyeiwaa and Lucy (2018) point out that another view is that women in power are unstable leaders. The pressure society has on women leaders forces them to do anything to succeed (Feltham et al., 2017). Sometimes they opt to be assertive in order to succeed in the competitive management world and, hence, create the wrong impression regarding their managerial capabilities (Barker, 2015).

Brooks et al. (2016) noted that men in management positions perceive women as incapable of leading because of their public expectations. Catalyst (2012) concludes that women in leadership are sometimes viewed as be too soft or too harsh but not just good, as such, women in leadership are sometimes subjected to higher standards and less returns in comparison to the other gender. It is believed that women are raised softly by their parents while men are raised the hard way and as such are expected to be tough (Al-Hussein, 2011). In assuming leadership roles, the society expects men to remain authoritative while at the same time expecting women leaders to be lax in social terms but to be tough in leadership management.

In some parts within the United States of America (USA), and Australia, the proportion of men and women heads in many schools is more balanced in some countries than others that have been brought about by the aggressive rollout of affirmative action programs that have resulted to increase in the number of females in leadership within the schools (Retna, 2015). The reasons for dismally low number of females in top posts can be attributed to academic qualifications and pressure of domestic responsibilities. Others reasons include male taking majority of management position, political appointment, negative attitudes and perceptions and stereotyping of women (World Health Organization, 2014).

In Baltimore, Maryland (USA) Charles et al. (2017) highlighted that educational training and accreditation of female teachers is an important solution in creating work opportunities. It was also in placement in instructional leadership positions in many schools in the State. Further, a positive correlation was found between higher levels of leadership standing and higher professional standards within the schools (Charles et al., 2017). Inaccessibility to higher education for girls is a barrier to higher ranks for

leadership positions, as proved by the study done by Dorsy (2012) who observed that the reason for poor representation in instructional leadership positions is because women have generally lower qualifications than men. This translates into promotion of more men on merits as compared to women. More so, Cheung and Halpen (2010) observe that gender stereotypes about women leaderships have promoted biasness resulting into stratification of the society.

In a society stratified by social constructions, men perceive women as incapable of assuming leadership roles. Kark et al. (2012) in a study conducted in the United Kingdom (UK), concluded that when society discriminates against women, and as a result degrades the capability of women seeing themselves as leaders. Coleman and Glover (2011) also pointed out that gender perceptions plays a key part in females' management and promote support for women's care and domestic work while their men counterpart are given the task of nurturing. Dalton (2017) in his study on women leadership in education in the United Kingdom (UK) and also Greece, established that the three countries had less females compared to males reaching high ranking positions in education, especially in secondary and higher education. He further noted that women poorly get a meaningful fraction in positions of authority as well as mostly being limited to certain disciplines as well as being less remunerated and were further likely to have insecure short-term contracts than their male colleagues. In Estonia, a country in Eastern Europe, the Ministry of Education (2017) reported that 92% of the school principals are women. They further report that in the same year, Estonia had a more proportionality of female school heads in junior secondary education as compared to other countries which took part in OECD comprising of 60.2% (Teaching and Learning International Survey, 2017).

While the figures in the mentioned regions are attractive, the situation is very different in some areas of the world, mostly in many countries in Asia and Africa. The teaching profession in the developing world is not highly feminized unlike in many western countries and women are the minority in instructional leadership positions within the teaching profession in many countries and territories (Agyeiwaa & Lucy, 2018). For example, in Pakistan, only 9.1% of principals are female, while in the conservative Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the number of female teachers in leadership positions is much

lower at 4.6% (Mundy & Dryden-Peterson, 2015). Mirza and Jabeen (2012) in their study in Sudan, found that women have fewer prospects of acquiring suitable training and skills needed for career advancement and leadership positions if they have common perceptions, especially in many societies such as Africa and Asia.

This means that women lack encouragement to compete for top positions in the society, but are expected to be at home. This was echoed by Shah and Shah (2012) who revealed that females were often denied the opportunity to participate in other activities apart from their domestic duties which resulted in them not looking for senior leadership positions governed by social belief systems. Trends of low levels representation of females in educational leadership have been observed in South Africa (Kilkelly, 2017). Tanzania has just thirteen- percent of women secondary school principals while in Uganda, females constitute only fourteen-percent of school principals in mixed secondary schools. Further, boys-only secondary schools in the Uganda have no female school heads unlike in girls-only secondary schools where some schools are headed by male principals (Gatwiri & McLaren, 2016).

In Kenya, women have been associated with basic teaching as a legitimate and highly regarded profession, but today women make up the majority of primary school and high school teachers in large numbers, they are not considered for senior management and leadership positions mainly dominated by men (Kipsoi, 2010). For example, women comprise more than 60% of the teaching staff in primary schools (and more than 50% of the national population), but less than 20% hold leadership positions (Dezsö & Ross, 2012). The teaching profession in schools is illustrated by a two-phase system in which women make up about 60% of teachers, but there are 42% and 45% of deputy teachers and head teachers respectively (Mberia, 2017).

A report by the Tharaka North Sub County Education Office (2019) observes that the number of women teachers and that of male teachers in Tharaka North Sub County is almost equal comprising of 48.04% and 51.96% respectively. What stands out in the report is the observation that just one school for every 18 mixed schools has a female school head teacher (Mberia, 2017). This situation is further reflected in Tharaka North Sub County, where there are twelve public secondary schools of which ten are headed by

male teachers while only two are headed by female teachers, representing 16.6% of high schools headed by lady teachers in this sub-county. The situation is even more pronounced in primary schools in the sub-county where official records from the Tharaka North Sub County Education Office (2019) indicate that of the 62 primary schools in the area, only four are headed by female teachers representing only 6.25% of primary school-heads. Further, the figures from Tharaka North Sub County are below the national average of 27.3% of instructional leadership positions in secondary schools being held by women, while a higher figure of 34.7% of instructional leadership positions in primary schools held by women.

This poses the question as to what women lack to be considered capable in instructional leadership or what hinders them from achieving these prime leadership positions and, therefore, needs to be investigated. In sight small number of females in management stations, against the Government strategy of requiring 30% representation of either gender, the study will seek to determine the factors influencing the participation of lady teachers in instructional positions of leadership in public schools in Tharaka North Sub-County in Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Education plays a central role towards the transformation of society and, therefore, requires effective instructional leadership across its ranks in order to consistently produce the desired results (Visser, 2011). Education being a universal development agenda requires a gender balanced approach to its instructional leadership so as to bridge the inequalities and other differences that exist within the sector. However, instructional leadership in education is still in most cases disproportionately skewed in favour of men with few lady teachers grabbing leadership posts in the institutions especially in the developing world contexts (Bushra, 2014). In spite of women proving their potential capabilities in leadership in almost all spheres of society, they are often overlooked and their ascent to leadership positions is still marked with significant challenges compared to their male counterparts (Gatwiri & McLaren, 2016). In Kenya female teachers comprise more than 60% of the teaching workforce in primary schools, however, most of them do not hold instructional leadership positions (Mberia, 2017). However, what is not clear is

why female teachers in Tharaka North Sub County still participate less in instructional leadership positions in their schools. This, notwithstanding, the sustained advocacy and reforms meant to address inequality in leadership positions in the country and the constitutional stipulation on the 30% gender representation in leadership in public institutions. Therefore, given the situation in Tharaka North Sub County, the study sought to closely examine the factors influencing women participation in instructional positions of leadership specifically in the public Sub County primary and secondary schools. Previous studies done in the region such as Malombe (2011) and Mberia (2017) while highlighting the women underrepresentation in instructional management in schools within the country, limited their findings to only lack of interest, family responsibilities and sexism. Other variables such as academic qualifications, human resource management skills and perception of women in leadership positions have, however, not been examined as other possible reasons for failure of women to rise to instructional leadership in the region. The study, therefore, sought to examine the factors influencing participation of females in instructional spots of leadership in public schools both primary and secondary within Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

It was to examine the factors influencing participation of women in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following:

- i. Examine the influence of academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.
- ii. Investigate the influence of human resource management skills on women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.
- iii. Determine the influence of views of females in leadership positions on women involvement in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

- iv. Examine the influence of gender roles on women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following hypothesis were tested in the study:

H0₁: There is no statistical relationship between academic qualification and participation of women in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka statistical North Sub County in Kenya.

H0₂: There is no statistical relationship between human resource management skills and participation of women in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

H0₃: There is no statistical relationship between perceptions of women in leadership and participation of women in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

H0₄: There is no statistical relationship between gender roles and participation of women in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

1.6 Justification of the Study

The importance of gender equity in instructional leadership and at all levels of a learning institution has been underscored by many scholars. The continued lack of participation of women in leadership positions raises concern as to what could be the impediments towards women leadership. Therefore, the outcome of the study is intended to be instrumental in advancing the advocacy for further inclusion of females in leadership post in not only in schools but other areas as well. The research was significant as the the results of the study provided data on determinants of female teachers participation in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of the study are meant to address the concerns of the female educators and school leadership in the area regarding the mobility of female teachers into instructional position. The study through its findings also provides research evidence on female

instructional leadership that may be useful for the Ministry of Education officials at the local and national level when making considerations for promoting female teachers into instructional leadership. In this vein, the research results obtained will enhance the stakeholders in educational that include national and county governments to understand issues affecting women and access to instructional management positions within the public schools, and proposed strategies to be utilized to allow them gain more access to leadership positions in both public primary and secondary schools. Results of the research is also purposed to be beneficial to future researchers in the area of leadership in educational as well as management including gender in the workplace. The researchers may obtain empirical and theoretical insight into the social and institutional mechanisms that influence female participation in instructional leadership in schools and other learning institutions.

1.8 Limits of the Study

A few respondents initially did not respond in the study for the fear of reprisals from the community or their seniors within the schools. The respondents were, however, assured that any information obtained from them is used for educational tenacities hence won't be shared to any third party that could be damaging to their status. Furthermore, the teachers may be hesitant to take part in a study that covers a relatively less studied academic area, and may have not taken it positively, which may lead to them denying permission to the researcher to conduct the study in the institutions. This limitation was mitigated by using the permit to carry out the research that was obtained from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), and an introductory letter obtained from Kenya Methodist University. Nevertheless, despite the precautions taken, the factors indicated may put some limitations on the generalization of the results. The research was only restricted to Tharaka North Sub County and despite the precautions that were taken, the factors indicated put some limitations on the generalization of the overall results.

1.9 Scope of the Study

This overall goal of the study was to establish issues impelling the involvement of females in positions of instructional leadership in public primary and secondary schools

in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya. While there are other factors that could influence their participation in other areas which were not be studied. Only the principals, school head teachers and teachers based in Tharaka North Sub County took part in the study and exclude those who are based in other Sub Counties, and those who work in private learning institutions within Tharaka North Sub County.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

This research presumed every respondent involved was truthful and supportive in the entire period of this research as well as the respondents were knowledgeable about the subject. The study also assumed that all questions in the instrument were answered truthfully by the respondents.

1.11 Definition of Terms

Academic Qualifications:

Refers to various academic awards that an individual has obtained/been awarded that can be used to warrant appointment into a leadership position.

Gender:

The biological sex of an individual (usually male or female).

Gender Perceptions:

Refers to the preconceived ideas towards a specific gender based on past experience and hearsay/rumors

Gender Stereotyping:

These are set of qualities which describing a male or female within a cultural context.

Influence:

This refers to the ability to affect, control or manipulate something or someone, either in a positive or negative manner.

Instructional

Leadership:

Refers to effort by the principal or head teacher to positively change teaching as well as learning of students by effectively managing the curriculum, addressing the challenges of diversity, allocating resources as well as evaluating teachers regularly.

Public Primary School:

Refers to primary schools that are funded and maintained through the exchequer for the purpose of educating the children within a given place or county

Public Secondary School:

Refers to secondary schools that are funded and maintained through the exchequer for the education of the children within a given place or county

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the works that is pertinent to factors influencing participation of females in instructional places of leadership in both public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya. The chapter entails a review of the; concept of instructional leadership, academic qualifications and instructional leadership, human resource management skills and women involvement in leadership, perceptions of women in leadership and instructional leadership, gender roles and instructional leadership, theoretical framework and the conceptual framework.

2.2 Concept of Instructional Leadership

Teaching leadership has been widely used following a study in schools with good performance in the United States and that has been accepted as part of the heart of school leadership Knopman et al. (2017). Researchers have studied the functioning of the school in the 1980s when comparing between active and inactive schools regardless of students' socio-economic status and family. These researchers focused on experienced policymakers and experts as well as the teaching leadership of managers. Their main focus was on the teaching and learning necessary for good school performance. According to Wajcman (2013), the principal is the teaching leader and should convey the purpose to the school team, i.e., staff, students and parents. To promote effective learning in school, the principal must be a coach, a trainer and a partner in order to nurture their skills. In the 1980s, researchers introduced several models of teaching leadership. Researchers often used the instructional model of leadership in their works (Thelehed & Björklund, 2011). This model suggests 3 dimensions of teaching management and 10 teaching leadership roles as outlined below:

2.2.1 Decision Making

The key components of the conceptual skills, that is Decision-making as well as problem-solving and creative skills are the requirement by any instruction manager (Qamar & Rashid, 2020). Making decisions is defined as the procedure of creating varieties which

includes recognizing a concrete choice, assembling useful data and evaluating substitute tenacities. Utilising a decision-making process step after step helps you to make a more deliberate as well as thoughtful decisions by organizing information which are relevant and also defining alternatives (Hammond et al. 2015). A good decision-making is helpful to managers to show employees under them that they are valued in their work place and that they have their best interests in for them. If a manager takes enough time to assess, analyze and clarify results, they will as well show thoughtfulness and promote honesty (Kalodimos & Leavitt, 2020).

Head teachers are managers and they are tasked with coming up with decisions that determine the route and progress of their schools they head. This is mostly not easy because decision making is a skill that requires development and nurtured over time through experience and training (Bessong et al., 2016). Decision making is a process of identifying an alternative and choose the best from it. Precedents may form a basis in a decision made and therefore making experience an important factor. It's the duty of the head teachers to distinguish whether the conclusions are linked to the policy, organizational and also personal or ideological. It is prudent that the head teachers access their seniors, colleagues and other experts in the process of choice making. Schools have ladders which include the assistants, senior educators, heads of sections and class educators who stakeholders in school's pronouncement (Wadesango, 2012).

Izgar (2008) highlighted that, management and choice creation are interrelated. Sims (2011) carried out a study on the similarities as well as differences in processes of choice-creation and observes in basic school heads in platform improvement. The study employed a design experiment methodology and process of data collection that involved triangulating information from a situation, a semi-structured interview procedure with a designated topic of leaders including an artefact review. Analysing of data was done using a qualitative multi-site case study examination method. The study didn't single out a map to describe how results are made by principals. For principals to make decisions, it's important to understand the trials they faced in source allocation, compulsory human capital, and sub county rules. Fruitful respond to liability, reforming the company, as well as running the educational activities are the core categories emerged as common themes

with each category also comprising of a subcategory themes for every school that was analysed. The studies were, however, done in the US which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

However every principal's focus was on planning for improvement, most of those interviewed proposed authority in key decision making given by the Department of state for Education. Most choices were specially made by principals or, whenever decisions are shared by the leadership team, principals' decision making was orchestrated by external relationships (Sims, 2011). More so, these principals pointed out that they preferred making decisions without external forces. All principals were aware of the cons of decision making which were data driven, as portrayed by mentions to who got the data, studied it and how it was collected, how data collected steered class educational practices, and how such facts well-versed expert improvement. In addition, most principals noted decision making which are shared would contribute to improvement in school, and there was consensus from them that there will use collaboration through founding of expert knowledge societies (Sims, 2011; Miller & Martin, 2015). The studies were, however, done in the US which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Shah (2018) in his investigations in styles of making amongst secondary schools head teachers length of service, a sample of two hundred (200) headmasters over systematic random sampling technique government secondary schools Kashmir. Decision making styles measure established by Ganihar (2005) administered to gather data respondents.

The info collected was analysed using Percentage Statistics Mean, S.D. The outcome obtained from the study showed that senior headmasters are using an empirical conclusion as associated to low-ranking headmasters found to be using a repetitive resolution creation styles. The further exposed length of service could not compromise the forms of conclusions as both the groups of headmasters are applying. Nevertheless the study was, carried out in India which is contextually different from Kenya and more specifically, Tharaka North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Alonso-Almeida and Bremser (2015) sought to establish whether there gender specific decision making existed specifically focusing on decisions especially during the times of the monetary emergency emanating from gender viewpoint. Empirical analysis was then steered using a sample of 132 individual surveys that comprised of managers from liberated small travel agencies. Logistic regression rom analysis was used to extract the findings. This study concluded that there was a significant gender differences in strategic management decisions during the time of crisis in some considered sets. The study was, however, not carried out in a school setting and, moreover, was done in Spain which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Definition of Instructional leadership is clarified as an instructive management method in which the school principal engages in variety of actions directing at improved instruction as well as learning for all students. However, a modern meta-analysis establishes that female principals practiced dynamic instructional guidance than their male counterparts. Consequently, Shaked et al. (2019) aimed at establishing the sources of gender differences in instructional leadership. The present qualitative study targeted to comprehend this gender disparity. The data was collected through 59 semi-structured interviews with 36 female principals and 23 male principals all from Israel. Data analysis was condensed, coded, categorized, and also theorized. Results proved that women participants were more frequently than male counterparts, reported possessing two capabilities that are appropriate for instructional leadership. The study was, however, conducted in Israel which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

2.2.2 Policy Implementation

Policy Implementation is defined as taking an action to address a public problem whereas application is the practise of putting the strategy into practice. Though it is important to note the opening amid what was premeditated before and the actual occurrence as a consequence of policy implementation. The principal-agent theory argues that there is relationship in each situation between principals (the definers of the policy) and the

agents (the implementers of the strategy), which mostly comprise contracts and, or contracts that allow the principal to be specific on provisions and ensure it has been proficient. Therefore, the head teachers need to have a clear vision for their institution since they are the policy implementers in the institutions they head.

That is, the school forms the objectives of the school and links them clearly. In this regard, they suggest that the leader needs to make the objectives of the lessons clear to the staff and ensure they are canvassed frequently. These goals should be supported and integrated with staff. The school principal should formally communicate the school's vision to students, teachers and parents via appropriate channels of communication such as a handbook for the school, meetings or informally during parent-teacher meetings (Head & Björklund, 2011). Learning institutions must have specific goals. The aim of the school is to ensure that the environment conducive to delivering quality education for students is created. There may be differences of opinion among teachers regarding homework; therefore, the teaching leader has a responsibility to develop shared equipment to strengthen firm values.

Principals and head teachers are required by policy to monitor and evaluate instructions regularly, to link the curriculum and to monitor student progress. This feature requires principals who are knowledgeable in the school's curriculum, committed to improving schooling and teaching skills so that they can co-ordinate and manage the school curriculum (Latu et al., 2013). The main reason for conducting school examinations is to improve the performance of all learning activities and to provide quality learning. School-based assessment focuses on teaching and learning programs. Making sure that the objectives of their schools fit into the classroom activities is a major task for school principals.

Monitoring during class teaching can be done through formal classroom assessments followed by giving teachers feedback on specific classroom activities, to ensure that they meet the required standard. The principal who seeks a history of academic and teaching development and the teacher in the school is designed to assess and evaluate what is happening within the school. The purpose of the test should not be alarming but should

be encouraging (Latu et al., 2013). The work environment must be acceptable and honest so that teachers do not feel intimidated during the test. To ensure that teachers play their role effectively, work with them, guide them and encourage them through self-improvement as a way of motivating.

The purpose of the curriculum is to get initial information regarding the learner's success and to ensure that the required solution is taken, to give feedback to the subject teacher on the outcome obtained and to encourage them to build positive, which is a step towards success (Latu et. al, 2013). The principal should discuss the results of the tests with all staff members and interpret them together for analysis. To address student weaknesses, the principal assesses the effect of changes in the school's curriculum. He should continue and develop an assessment program that reflects the academic achievement of students with a view to the beneficial development shown by students (Head & Björklund, 2011).

There are three factors which effect application in practice, which include single features, structural features as well as communal factors (Wandersman et al., 2008). Principals are tasked with developing an effective community relations system so that they can communicate with participants' goals and objectives for the school. As a public relations organization it must provide effective channels of communication so that the targeted audience is informed of the academic, academic, academic and academic purposes of the academic, student, teacher and academic expectations. While a good vision of the school and the purpose may not be enough, the school's objectives alone should be included in regular planning and revision depending on the needs and conditions of development and redefine where there are new changes (Head & Björklund, 2011).

In the current situation, the dynamic tension between internal goals and external reform demands, the role of the school principals has kept increasing and more complex while their sense-making more crucial. However the research has shown minimal attention to the significant role principals perform as sense makers in during the local reform implementation processes. Ganon-Shilon and Schechter (2019) therefore did investigate school principals' sense-making of their role in leadership during the process of reform implementation. The study used a qualitative approach in establishing the principals'

considerations while they perceive and enforce their role within a national reform. This study investigated data from interviews from 60 high school principals from Israel implementing the national reform in the state (Jewish and Arab sectors) and religious-state schools from all school districts. The results demonstrated the role of the principal as an active sense-maker during the times of education reforms. Therefore, exploring the perception of the principal within the framework of sense-making could likely results into the scholarship and active practice of the complex leadership role during the period of national reforms. The study was, however, conducted in Israel which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Nyabuti et al. (2015) examined the safety policy implementation framework for all secondary schools in Kenya. The population targeted included 18 public National secondary schools in Kenya which had statutes completed KCSE since 2010. Stratified random sampling was deployed to select 6 national secondary schools from which the unit of observation was 436 respondents comprising of; 6 head teachers, 120 class room teachers, 300 form three students, 6 school watchmen, and 4 Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (QASOs), making. The Instruments applied for data collection included Questionnaire for both the Teachers and the Students while Interview schedules and observation schedules for Principal, QASOS and school Watchman. Qualitative data was analysed using content analysis and quantitative data was analysed by using descriptive statistics. The findings revealed that the principals play a critical role of ensuring that school safety policies are fully implemented by coordinating all the school activities and programs by residing within the school, ensuring resources are efficiently utilized, monitoring and evaluating implementation of safety policies and taking appropriate measures in case of threats to safety. The study concluded that the head teacher will require other stakeholders in the implementation of the safety policies, and therefore his major role includes leadership for the school safety sub-committee. The study was, however, a national study in Kenya and involved National Schools which are not represented in Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

2.2.3 Management of School Resources

The school principal is the highly ranking administrator in an elementary, middle and even in high school. Principals are responsible for the overall operation of their schools.

As managers, school principals were responsible for financial activities ranging from operations, building and maintenance, student schedules, personnel, public relations, and school policy regarding to discipline, coordination of the instructional program and also other overall school matters. As a leader in the institution, the head teachers are the heart point within the school who affects the quality of each individual teacher's instructional strategies scaling the height of students' performance, and the level of efficiency in the school functioning. Most Governments, worldwide, are committed to ensuring the rights to schooling for children with special cases. The legal framework outlines the rights of children especially those with disabilities to education and supports them by providing necessary facilities (UNICEF, 2016). Research scholars like Topping and Maloney (2015) and Richardson (2014) stresses that investment in education is fundamental to improving the growth of an economic, poverty reduction and promoting the country's general welfare.

It is the mandate of education providers and managers to ensure that resources are availed appropriately in mainstreamed schools. It is mandatory that every child should success education regardless of any form of disability despite the severity of the conditions (Attig & Hopkins, 2014). According to Mogute (2013), the in charge schools are the custodians of the school learning facilities. It is the responsibility of the school heads to make sure that all components of the department are in good working condition, well protected and utilized appropriately. The study further noted that the teachers are to help the school head teachers in the maintenance of the school infrastructure and learning environment.

Martínez et al. (2020) sought to shed be more open on under-representation of women as head of institutions by analysing which model (organisational or individual) is most identified with the gender differences in the quality of management found to favour women principals. To do so, this study presents a model for the appointment of school heads based on the demand and supply. On the demand side (organisational model), the presence of double standards, with respect to the promotion of women, would imply that

higher bars are set for the evaluation of women. On the hand, on the supply side (individual model), a potential lower self-efficacy perception among women could lead them to self-exclusion from management positions. In the two cases, the findings show only highly-skilled females as school heads and a gender gap in principal positions. In the education survey of the WMS, interviews conducted for 1800 high school principals in eight countries (the UK, the USA, Sweden, Canada, Germany, Italy, Brazil and India) were used to investigate the adoption of 20 basic management practices. Data were collected from school principals through telephone calls with. As reflected in the WMS data, 69% of interviews were conducted in the presence of two interviewers. By using the World Management Survey (WMS), data shows that female principals are associated with higher management quality, which asserts the presence of barriers to female promotion. Interpretations of the market side responsible for these barriers found that only the demand side was significant, which depicts the double-standard argument. The study was, however, an international study involving OECD countries and as such was both contextually and geographically different from Kenya and, particularly, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Matheri et al. (2015) examined principals' gender and management efficiency in secondary schools in Mtito Andei, Kenya. Ex-post facto research design with simple random sampling to select the respondents comprising 28 principals and 140 trainers. Questionnaires the main tool for data collection and interview schedules analysed by use of descriptive and inferential statistics. The outcome of the data analysis showed that there was a important association amid the principals' gender and effectiveness in the discipline of management. It was further revealed that there was no significant relationship between the principles gender and their effectiveness in personnel, student as well as financial management. The study was, however, carried out in Mtito Andei which is contextually different from Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

2.2.4 Constitution (2010) and Teachers Service Commission (TSC) Policies on School Leadership

In Kenyan law, gender inequality has been reinforced historically through legal rules that promoted social injustices leading to women marginalization. Further, the legal system was a barrier to changes required to remove the imbalance in legal rules, procedures and institutions. This was achieved through legal rules and principles in the statute books legitimating the demeaning of women in presence of men. Also women's subordination was characterized by the structure and administration of laws. Gender inequality was also ingrained by the patriarchal ordering of society, under which political, economic, legal and social standards are either set by or fixed in the interests of men. Consequently, women have been systematically removed from wholesomely in the development process, despite their full time participation in the production processes just as men. Even in cases where women's legal rights have been provided for, ignorance of such rights exacerbated by illiteracy ensures that they do not benefit from such provision.

The Kenyan Constitution creates a room for gender equality and non-discrimination. It further provides a fresh direction for a national policy to chart a roadmap for the achievement for the constitutional provisions. Article 10 of the Kenyan Constitution provides for the National Values and Principles of governance. It explains such principles as equality, equity, inclusiveness as well as non-discrimination. These principles provide an anchorage for gender equality. Further, Article 27 (1) enshrines that every person is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit; Article 27 (3) provides that women and men have the right to equal treatment including the right to equal opportunities both in political, social, economic and cultural spheres. The Constitution also provides that no discrimination on any basis including, pregnancy, race, sex, marital status, health, ethnicity or social origin, colour, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, dress, language or even birth in Article 27 (4).

To realize these constitutional rights, Article 27 (6) of the constitution requires the government to take legislative any necessary measure including affirmative action to avoid disadvantaging some individuals and groups because of previous discrimination.

Article 27 (8) requires that not more than two thirds of the members of elective or appointed positions are of the same gender. Despite these boastful provisions of the law, gender equality is yet to be realized. Kamari-Mbote (2018) argues that Kenya's, where varied laws comprising the Constitution, law and sacred laws co-exist and interact with other norms pressures are inevitable to rise amid the diversities of norms in their presentation.

The Teachers Service Commission was established under the constitution to ensure all teacher management functions following the promulgation of 2010 Kenya Constitution under Article 237. The TSC criteria for appointment and deployment of Heads of Post Primary Institution states that the Commission shall: Substantively appoint and deploy heads of institution to the institutions commensurate to their grade; Ensure that heads of institution do not serve in their Home Counties; Be guided by the teacher's performance contract and/or annual appraisal reports, and; Ensure that heads of institution do not serve in one station for a period exceeding nine (9) continuous years. Concerning the appointment and deployment of Heads of Post Primary Institution, the TSC policies stipulates the following considerations during the deployment of institutional administrators: category of institution; level of enrolment and size of the institution; the academic as well as professional qualifications; current grade; the experience in the teaching service; balancing of gender, and; any other choice the Commission may deem appropriate.

Regarding the requirements for Appointment as Head of Post- Primary Institution The TSC states that to qualify for consideration as a head of a post-primary institution, a teacher should be a holder of degree in education and master's degree in a relevant field; have portrayed some competence and ability in classroom as a teacher and also as a deputy head or equivalent position in a post primary institution; have served as deputy head or equivalent position in a post primary institution for a at least three years; have successfully undertaken the relevant Teacher Professional Development (TPD) Modules, and; must meet the provisions of Chapter six (6) of the Constitution and all necessary requirement set by the Commission. The Policy has also underpinned the constitutional principles of fair competition and merit, integrity, transparency and accountability,

equity, fairness and impartiality, inclusiveness and non-discrimination, gender equity and regional balance in the appointment and deployment of institutional administrators (Teachers Service Commission [TSC], (2017).

For appointment and deployment as a primary school head teacher, the Commission shall: Substantively appoint and deploy teachers to institutions that commensurate to their grades; Ensure that teachers do not serve in their home counties and serve in one station for a period exceeding nine (9) continuous years, and; Consider their individual Performance Contract and/or Annual Appraisal reports. For one to qualify for appointment as a head teacher, a teacher must; be a holder of Primary Teacher Education (PTE) Certificate; be a holder of a Bachelor's degree in Education or its equivalent; have served as a Deputy Head teacher for at least three (3) years' experience; portrayed some competence and ability in classroom as a teacher teacher in a primary institution; have successfully undertaken the relevant Teacher Professional Development (TPD) Modules; Meet the provisions of Chapter six (6) of the Constitution and any other set requirements by the Commission deems (TSC, 2017).

2.3 Academic Qualifications and Instructional Leadership

Academic qualifications are defined as the highest level of education one has received and been certified by a recognized learning institution. It also refers to the various academic awards that an individual has obtained/been awarded that can be used to warrant appointment into a leadership position (Ayeshung & Denis, 2019). Considering academic qualifications and emphasizing on training of women is a part of the solution towards increasing leadership opportunities as well as placement within the learning institutions. The higher the qualification in academic attainments, the higher the chances of advancement (ILO, 2015). There is a positive correlation between higher levels of organizational leadership in comparison to higher professional standards (Wickham, 2016). There are factors limiting access to higher education for girls and women thus denying them the opportunity to join higher instructional ranks in institutions of learning.

In the United States of America, the women's role in educational leadership has increased tremendously over the past 50 years as the number of females joining training colleges,

universities as well as obtaining high education degrees like directorate has risen sharply, hence allowing them to occupy senior command in institutions leadership (Knopman et al., 2017). According to Folkman (2016), women are less linked with moderate outlooks in education and personnel but instead occupy almost half of the labour force in the US and reside in at least a meaningful proportion of both mid-level and senior leadership slots in schools.

The Finnish National Board of Education (2013) reported that principals requirement is to have attained a higher degree in academic as well as teaching qualifications and also possess a certificate in education administration and at least to have done some university programs in leadership relevant to education including a certificate in educational administration. However, despite these requirements, 42% both primary and secondary schools principals in 2013 in Finland were female headed, one of the highest percentages in the world. In 2017 they carried out another survey which observed number of feminine principals in primary as well as secondary schools had reduced to 49% compared to 77% of the overall teacher's population. This study established that the academic qualifications was a factor in placement of female teachers in instruction leadership. However, the study was done in Finland where the contextual factors in schools are significantly different from Tharaka Nithi in Kenya.

Dezsö and Ross (2012) carried out different study in Australia and concluded that lack of superior academic qualification and sufficient training was the reason for lack of consideration of women to leadership priorities in schools. The administrative work of schools requires some advanced training, and therefore women who seek promotion must seek developmental and training opportunities. The report also stated that a number of women teachers in Australia (41.8%) don't seek opportunities as they prefer nurturing their young families, doubling up by the fact that their partners support them with income and as result they failed to actively seek promotion opportunities leading to a general stagnation of their career mobility (Dezsö & Ross, 2012). The study was, however, carried out in Australia which is different geographically from Kenya and specifically Tharaka North Sub County.

In Singapore, the use of a planning model guarantees continuous assessment of teachers for various leadership positions and offer them with training opportunities to help them qualify for appointment to such positions (Schleicher, 2012). Those who have completed a six months, full time leadership in education program can be deployed as a principal (Retna, 2015). In respect to this, Singapore's Ministry of Education (2016) reported that female principals comprised of 66% and 37% in primary schools and secondary schools respectively. Whereas in these countries, the numbers of women in leadership positions is high, there is still poor representation in leadership in other parts of the world simply because women have generally low qualification than men as well as low expectations for them to further their education (Dorsy, 2012). This implies that, during promotions on merit, more men are considered as compared to women. The study, however, reflected the situation in Singapore which is geographically different from Kenya and in particular Tharaka North Sub County. Further, being an OECD country, the qualifications and requirements for instructional leadership are much different from those in Kenya.

The society can as well enact a main character in feminine non illustration in school management if it finds fewer prices in their role and attainments. Onsongo (2004) supported this by observing factors such as social roles and religion have a major influence on the female's placement in lesser roles, which in turn hinders them from taking part in decision making. Sperandio (2011) did conduct a study in an Islamic set up in Bangladesh and discovered that society was discriminating women from gaining higher education qualifications as well as contributing in hire. She claims that women who have graduated with degrees and willing to work face obstacles in obtaining leadership slots in government schools. The study findings are in contrast with other studies such as Dezsö and Ross (2012) and The Finnish National Board of Education (2013) which found that higher education qualifications were a factor of promotion to education leadership. The study was, however, carried out in Bangladesh which is physically unlike from Kenya and particularly Tharaka North Sub County where the study was done.

The problem of low levels of women' access to education and, hence, their poor progression to leadership positions has cultural roots. According to UNICEF (2011), the

community select boys to go to school thus giving girls minimal or no chance at all to realize their potential, despite of the few properties. This may be the contributing factor of gender imbalance in access to education (Ombago, 2014). Preference initially given to the boy child has now been equally granted to the girl child though change of attitude and enhancement of compulsory free basic education policy which the in secondary education so as to lessen gender difference. Dakwa et al. (2014) in Zimbabwe which deduced parentages chose boys to stay in school when faced with selection dilemma or insufficient resources to educate their children. Parents have to meet education expenses, that is school fees and or school uniforms and also fulfil other basic needs, unlikely to divert such spending to a girl child. While the study showed the socio-cultural determinants of females progression in education, it did not talk about how this affected their future roles in school instructional leadership. The current study carried in Tharaka Nithi Sub County which is contextually different from Zimbabwe examined this aspect in detail.

Data from the Tanzanian indicated about 18.7% of secondary school heads were females as male teachers dominated management of schools. For instance, in 2011 schools in Iringa Municipal, 16 of them which is 64% were headed by men, with only nine (36%) being headed by women. In Bagamoyo District 23 Community Secondary Schools (CSSs) in 2011, but just one (4.3%) woman was the head of a school, while 22 (95.7%) schools were headed by males despite females possessing degrees at 74.8% in the District (District Educational Office, 2011). In most cases, it was realized that the men had acquired undergraduate degrees (69.2%) while a small proportion of the women has the degrees, with many lamenting the resources required to pursue a degree. The study suggests that in addition to gender, education qualification was a factor in instructional leadership in Tanzania. However, Tanzania is a different context than Kenya and inferences cannot be made across both countries regarding educational management practices such as promotion of teachers to instructional leadership

Studies by Mollel and Chong (2017) in Mtwara district, showed early marriage, traditional activities, dominance of males, societal perception and roles are the key socio-cultural factors that create a barrier to girl child education. In a study by James (2014)

gender disparity between boys and girls is due to the difference in the ways the households perceive gender roles of children. Mackenzie and Manning (2010) report that parents put a lot of expectations in their boy child than their girl child, and encouraging boys to study hard while girls perform domestic chores. Parents would not support female educational progressions via the sighting lack of money (Herman, 2009). Socio-cultural effects on the higher education prospects of women have led to their lack of confidence in career advancement and leadership. With socio-cultural factors limiting females access to and progression in education, it is evident that their leadership prospects are decided early on in their lives by the society. This is important as it also shapes their own attitude about themselves relative to society's expectations, and most importantly their confidence to pursue higher education and leadership roles. It has been deduced that this preference has a diverse effect on youngsters in terms of achieving management spots in the future (Chabaya et al., 2009).

Due to the fact that the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) requires teachers in leadership positions to have Undergraduate and Graduate degrees apart from their initial qualifications, it was found that women who held advanced degrees were promoted earlier than their colleagues without advanced papers (42.3% in rural areas and 33.1% in urban areas). The preceding discussions show that indeed previous research done by other researchers on academic qualifications and instructional leadership revealed that lack of superior academic qualification and sufficient training was the reason for non-appointment of females to management positions in schools (Dezsö & Ross, 2012). Also there is still lack of equality in terms of women appointment in leadership in other parts of the world simply because women have generally low qualification than men (Dorsy, 2012).

In his study on perceptions of school heads and their staff pertaining to the role of the secondary school principals in Nairobi and Thika Districts, Kipsoi (2010) stated that the head teacher's education and training influenced the effectiveness of the educational programmes personally influence his/her behaviour when promoted to leadership positions. Similar conclusions had been made by Mberia and Midigo (2016) on his study

based on leaders performance of high school head teachers. He noted that academic background has an influence on leadership behaviour, in that; graduate secondary school heads were rated higher than non-graduates. However, both studies did not show any differences in gender when it came to instructional leadership in the schools. While the studies were both carried out in Kenya, they were done in the urban settings of Thika and Nairobi which are more cosmopolitan than the rural Tharaka Nithi North Sub County. As such, differences in access to and perceptions of higher education qualifications could be expected.

Yambo and Osije (2016) sought to define the effect of the level of teaching on women development in headship spot in Migori County. Classical Liberal Theory of Equity of Opportunity was adopted that stated females and menfolk have the right to acquire property. The study used descriptive survey that targeted 373 women from different households within the division. Questionnaires were used as research instruments and data analysed using descriptive statistical. The study outcome showed that majority (48.4%) of females questioned had only basic education and only 35.8 secondary level. The study concluded that the low levels of education among the women in the area affected their participation in leadership. The study, however, did not examine the aspect of leadership and educational qualifications among female teachers. It was also carried out in Migori County which is culturally different to Tharaka Nithi North.

As such, academic qualifications has been identified as one of the determinants of progression into leadership for both males and females. Women, however, compared to men lack higher education qualifications. However, it is not yet known whether this could be a contributing factor for women participation in instructional leadership in both primary and secondary school in Tharaka North Sub-County. The present study has, therefore, filled this gap in research by finding out the relationship between academic qualifications and participation in instructional leadership by women. Other variables such as human resource management skills were also considered in this study as a possible determinant for women participation in instructional leadership in both primary and secondary school in Tharaka North Sub-County and were also examined.

2.4 Human Resource Management Skills and Women Involvement in Leadership

The human resource management abilities are the skills that present the managers' ability to interact with workers promoting work efficiency. Staffs are important assets to any organization. They are the key elements in a company and the success or failure of the company depends on their performance (Champathes, 2016). Indeed staff output ultimately shake the organizational effectiveness in overall goal achievement (Milkovich et al, 2014). Organizations with significant proportions of dissatisfied employees often experience low productivity often resulting from sub-optimal employee performance and hence are less competitive (Cole, 2013). Therefore, organizations are investing huge amounts of money on staff relations and development as among other things employees are increasingly showing alot of dissatisfaction in the workplace evidenced by their performance and behaviour in the workplace (Antonacopoulou, 2016). For the school head, positive engamenent with staff is instrumental to his/her success and also for the staff, good working relationships with a supportive school head can be a motivating factor for productivity.

In the school set up, the staff usually comprise of the teachers and non-teaching staff all of who are surbordinate to the head teacher. The performance of the school is, thus, to a large extent determined by how these staffs are motivated and coordinated in the work environment. Apart from being equiped and compensated for their work, their needs and concerns need to be addressed such as, provision of amenities, workplace conflict and recognition. However, there are questions as to whether the female school head is indeed ready for the various managerial issues sorrounding her office. Akomolafe (2012) observes that modern school heads have their jobs defined for them in a manner that is quite significantly different from those of their predecessors of about two decades ago.

Nzele (2013) explains that the status of the head teacher is very central and complex. Essentially, the school head ends up assuming non-teaching roles. The job can be equally modest and lofty, on any given day, the school head might find herself dealing with broken windows and a dysfunctional household, a wounded limb, a bruised ego and rusty pipe and a rusty teacher. Evidently, all these are not happening at a particular instance

and may take considerable time to address them effectively. Without the support of the school staff, some of these issues can be extremely overwhelming.

Yukl (2012) states allowed specialist of the leader is based on the powers bestowed on them. In support of this view, Rue and Byars (2013) clarify that management is the ability to lead and inspire junior members of the company. Consequently, Meyerson and Joyce (2010) explain that leading others and dealing with them positively is an attribute of successful leadership. While noting female's ascendancy to further leadership positions was contingent on self-awareness and personality power, they advise that women in leadership ought to possess the two attributes. Al-Agha (2013) adds that the self-power

Is characterized in the effect and specificity factor and esteem factor. However, poor leadership which can sometimes extend beyond individual attributes to lack of support among colleagues can be a catalyst for staff attrition and declining performance (Siro, 2014). This means the female school head needs to marshall all the support she can get from the staff in order to achieve organization effectiveness in the school.

Meyerson and Fletcher (1999) noted females lack organisational support to be involved in leadership. Furthermore, most women leaders get little back up from institutions they are in charge and the leaders ranked above them, which in mostly discourages other females from competing for top leadership. Cemented by Peters (2012) who highlighted that women principals lack support from leaders supervising them hence lacks good mentoring, human resources support and other leadership requirements and also time for application, which left them feeling less and frustrated. Chisholm (2001) also concluded that the majority of black females lamented lack of support by politicians in South Africa – the women pointed out about being side lined by the political leadership and being persistently overlooked by the authorities in South African. The studies established that the female teachers could not effectively serve as human resource managers as they were under resourced. The studies were, however, done in South Africa which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Ironically, the researchers revealed that masculine leaders help and provision female teachers, in contrast with female heads. Valerio (2009) renowned that most males are very positive of the development realized by females. Coleman (2002) in his study found that women heads in schools were more likely supportive and inspire their female subordinates as compared to males so as to attain progressiveness in careers development their gender-specific needs as their baseline. Nevertheless, Cubillo and Brown (2003) deduced that women lacked peer support specifically from their men colleagues, and this was observed to be due to patriarchy in the studied areas. The study by Coleman (2002) shows that female leaders in the school demonstrated good leadership skills, however, they did not get enough support from their colleagues. Further, the studies were carried out in the UK which is contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

One of the most challenging aspects for female school leaders or managers is lack of confidence, In Zimbabwe this was deduced by Chabaya et al. (2009) as they held interviews and focusing on group discussions with 13 female in charge of schools. They found that the factors that hindered female teachers from being promoted to headship positions were within themselves as they lacked confidence and see themselves at the level of school management team. Therefore, the DEOs in the area seldom recommend female teachers as prospective heads at the District level LGA as they do not feel qualified as candidates to Regional Secretariat Regional level Regional Secretariat. Leadership is an important human resource management skill and the fact that most female teachers feel unsuitable for the positions could suggest that they have not developed the capacities required for human resource management as per Chabaya et al. (2009). The study was carried out in the Zimbabwe which is both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, specifically, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

According to Kagoda and Sperandio's (2009), in their study on women in Uganda went outside a historical and cultural understanding of education leadership. While using a documentary data obtained from qualitative research, and observed that female teachers were barred from heading schools because sighting lack of confidence to deal with rowdy

students. Lack of confidence was also revealed by Bubshait (2012), Mathika et.al (2001) and Moorosi (2010). Smulyan (2000) supported this by insisting that all female principals in her study were indecisive about becoming leaders and implementing of roles because they lacked confidence however they were coerced to become heads by their peers. Consistent with Chabaya et al. (2009) the studies in Uganda found that most female teachers lacked confidence for the positions suggesting that they had not developed human resource management requisite for school instructional leadership roles. The studies were, however, conducted in Uganda which is both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

According to Al-Jaradat (2014), leadership, whether assumed by men or women, is seldom a simple process requiring multiple competencies and capabilities. However, studies have since found no distinct leadership differences between the approaches to leadership of women and men in the educational institutions (Al-Minqash, 2017). In their Studies, Ariko and Simatwa (2011) reveal that teachers transfer requests are largely triggered more by the effects of the styles of leadership like motivation and career progression. For instance, some teachers prefer working in the environment of their choice where they can conveniently articulate and implement them. The study showed that school leadership styles contributed to 60% of the transfer requests, however, it did not mention the effect this had on school performance or on the gender issues of the school head. Ariko and Simatwa (2011) however, failed to show how female school heads handled the transfer requests and motivated and developed their staff which are important HR functions.

According to Siro (2014), there are no hard-and- fast rules stipulating the style of leadership to be adopted by the schools managements, hence, leaving this aspect of management entirely at the discretion of the individual office holders in the schools. However, evidence suggests that most primary school management in Kenya practice autocratic leadership at the uttermost level in all situations and, therefore, giving the subordinate teachers little or no room to practice leadership beyond the class. This means they rarely participate in crucial decision making activities that are considered beyond

their domain (Sogomo, 2012). Also according to Sperandio and Kagoda (2011), majority of the teachers in leadership positions tend to retain the status quo when they ascend to the top as they perceive that it enables them to exercise more control while their subordinates on the other hand, prefer working in a conducive environment where they can conveniently articulate their views and implement them. This shows that females in school leadership were less assertive and in a way their roles as the schools' HR officers were suppressed. The studies were, however, conducted in Uganda and Western Kenya both which are contextually different from, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County, Kenya.

Challenges facing the present day school leadership demand a departure from the traditional autocratic model to the more democratic approach that encourages inclusivity in decision making. Marshall (2015) found that the elevation of female colleagues to school management positions stirs resentment among colleagues. This had a psychological impact on them making them unhappy in their new careers as they felt alienated from their contemporaries.

While this was likely to affect their future engagements with their colleagues who were now regarded as subordinates, it remains unclear from the studies so far on how this will eventually affect school performance. Research was conducted by other researchers regarding relationship with other staff members and women in educational leadership indicate that resentment from colleagues and subordinates often arises as it entails exercising authority over them (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2011). These studies show that the HR role of the female school leader was seldom realized owing to challenges within the school environment. The studies were, however, carried out in several contexts that which were both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

It is evident from the preceding discussions that the woman leader need to possess good human resource skills to manage the school staff some of who could be her colleagues who she taught with before the promotion. Relationship with staff requires a good HRM skill set for better delivery at the workplace. However, no such study has been done regarding the effect of HRM skills on women participation in instructional leadership in

Tharaka North Sub-County. Therefore, it is not known to what extent this could be affecting women participation in instructional leadership in the area. The study, thus, seeks to fill this gap in the study to establish a relationship between women teacher and other staff members and participation in instructional leadership. However, while HRM skills is an important leadership aspect, it cannot alone suffice to explain women participation in instructional leadership. The present study will also inspect the perceptions of women in leadership as a possible factor influencing women participation in instructional leadership.

2.5 Perceptions of Women in School Instructional Leadership

Perception of women in leadership refers to the preconceived ideas towards a specific gender based on past experience and hearsay/rumors. Women's leadership is also challenged by ideology. Fiske and Taylor (2013) explain that ideology is the act of creating an internal representation of the outside world. The idea of what constitutes "good" or "ethical" leadership has been socially defined by conventional views that favor men as the best models for leadership. When leadership emerges, it takes at least one person to engage with other persons in a manner that results in leaders and the led progressing together to increased levels in terms of morals and motivation. Customarily, teaching has been considered to be in line with the role of women as wives and mothers. Management in contrast has been considered to be inconsistent with this responsibility (Dalton, 2017). So, in general while it is possible to accommodate one being a mother and also a teacher, when one moves to the management position, she is no longer considered as a good mother.

A study conducted in Canada by Brinia (2012) showed that women leaders, compared to men, were considered as having higher intelligence and being superior at decision making, harder-working, more determined, more confident, loyal, good at communication and ready to offer support. Feltham et al. (2017) state that men are considered strong, stubborn, aggressive, self-confident, independent, intelligent and job-loving, while females are seen as emotional, nurturing, considerate, humble, loving, indecisive and prone people. Accordingly, differences in views are expected towards male and females regarding their skills in management. Another study by Hatcher (2014)

in Germany found that teachers with leadership skills saw that women preferred to sit in classrooms, rather than go to management, in part because of their negative perception of principal work. The studies were, however, carried out in several contexts in Europe and North America that which were both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Apart from the differences between the beliefs of a leader and the beliefs of women, but once females have been considered in for leadership positions, studies suggest that people are inclined to have negative views of women leaders. The perception that gender threats to action have diminished women's business ambitions and women's self-assurance in their chances of achieving their career advancement (Oshana, 2016). In addition, it significantly influenced the portrayal of women as women leaders who received the threat of racism were at risk of separating their feminist identity from their work-related identity (Oshana, 2016). In short, these negative effects on women-related self-esteem are unsafe for females in male-dominated activities as they can result to women withdrawing from leadership and businesses that promote consideration.

In the United States of America (USA), women are less likely to be compared in comparison to their counterparts, although they are still found in many male-dominated institutions such as academic, political, and business leadership. Hillary R. Clinton, the former United States Secretary of State said; "The position of females in the world is not just a matter of ethics and justice but also a party-political, economic and social obligation: females are free to progress their full-time aptitudes in their communities and everyone benefits." He also quoted "... I want to see more women go to higher positions in their countries of origin... we must get rid of this perception that pigeons are holes and lie to people, such as, what a leader looks... fine, a lead looks like a man" (USA Government, 2001). She was, however, not so accurate since in several countries for example in African countries, the role of leadership has long been reserved for men.

Furthermore, Hatcher (2014) concludes that womenfolk are seen as being easy-going or too heavy but not always good, that women leaders contend with levels of skepticism and

reduced wages than their men counterparts and further females in leadership are seen as talented or popular, but seldom both roles. While women grow up with men from their childhood, they are socialized to be soft including when in leadership positions but men are expected to be strong and authoritative. This seems to be controversial issues as females need to be permitted to retain their identity even at leadership levels and not rated by “difficulty” but by being able to do their job (Hatcher, 2014). Discrimination against women based on untested reasons and opinions is undoubtedly the cause of injustice. The components of administrative work, as well as the specific and realistic situations of men described in which most women managers must work, shape women's perceptions of the need for leadership (White, 2012).

In respect to the education sector, women irrespective of their race have been under-represented in management positions in South African educational institutions for a long time (Klaus & Mitchell, 2015). Basing on this, Justino (2016) carried out a study in South Africa and observed that only 9.3% of the school leadership positions were held by women. This small percentage was attributed to factors such as, confusions about women leadership skills and also their potentials. Percentage of women in leadership positions culminate to judgment at the workplace considering that females are many than men constituting 55% of the South African population (Justino, 2016). The studies by Klaus and Mitchell (2015) and Justino (2016) underscore the fact that there was still uncertainty over women’s role in leadership and this led to their discrimination in appointment to the roles. The studies were, however, carried out in South Africa which is both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

A survey in Nigeria by Osumbah (2011) found that women were perceived as insecure, power-hungry, insecure, unwilling to play a game or program performance, not applying for jobs or jobs, not applying for leadership positions. In Uganda, Brewster et al. (2016) found that the notion that women holding leadership positions had a higher level of job stress than that of men when working mainly in male-dominated schools. They also found that women receive less or none of the incentive to seek leadership posts, while men are encouraged to enter or apply for leadership positions, despite the positive views

of school principals on women's skills. The lack of motivation exists despite women receiving undergraduate or postgraduate degrees are likely to aspire more in education, but are not employed at the same level (Brewster et al., 2016). The studies were, however, carried out in Nigeria and Uganda which are both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Researchers have noted that committees who does appointment mostly rely on intuition and stereotypes when appointing leaders (Sandison, 2008; Ellemers, et al., 2012). A big number of top positions and appointment committees are mostly men (Obura et al., 2011; Gaus, 2011). Likewise, Ruijs (1993) pointed out that interview and selection panels for leadership comprised mainly of men, who pose irrelevant questions to females for instance the number of children she has and about their life with their husbands. This means that fewer females get elevated to top leadership positions or promoted at slower pace than men at all levels due to stereotype based on genders (Obura et al., 2011). Catalyst further highlighted that gender stereotyping is a main problem, as men dominate women because men's voices cut across all domains and male managers perceive females as poor in problem solving. These managers sometimes do evaluate women leaders more harshly and overlook their interpersonal influence (Catalyst, 2007).

In Kenya, research by Gatwiri and McLaren (2016) supports the view that women are often more negative than men in their roles. Consequently, they are viewed as being unprepared to handle negative comments, actually internalizing them and permitting their self-esteem to be unnecessarily damaged. In another study conducted by Muriithi-Nyaga (2015) it was revealed that boards of schools and other leaders perceived women as lying. The author described the soft personality as referring to the vision of the school board of women administrators as culpable to manipulation since they are women. When women end up being firm, the consequences are worse for women than for men. These findings by Muriithi-Nyaga (2015) and Gatwiri and McLaren (2016) suggest that there was

considerable skepticism over the role of women in leadership. However, the studies did not specifically address this in relation to instructional leadership.

The discussions above show that substantial research has been conducted by other researchers on perceptions of inadequacy and instructional leadership and, accordingly, differences in views are expected towards male and females regarding their skills in management. For instance, Brinia (2012) showed that women leaders, compared to men, were considered as having higher intelligence and being superior at decision making, harder-working, more determined, more confident, loyal, good at communication and ready to offer support. On the other hand, Feltham et al. (2017) state that men are considered strong, stubborn, aggressive, self-confident, independent, intelligent and job-loving, while females are seen as emotional, nurturing, considerate, humble, loving, indecisive and prone people. However, these aspects of perception have not been examined in relation to the role of women's participation in instructional leadership in Taraka South Sub-County. Therefore, the researcher filled this gap in the study by establishing the relationship between perception of women in leadership and participation in instructional leadership education for women. It will also be important to establish how apart from perception in leadership, gender roles affect women participation in instructional leadership in the area.

2.6 Gender Roles and Instructional Leadership

Gender considerations and roles are the rationale behind our beliefs about certain social groups. Stereotyping is the belief that all group members share the same characteristics (Oakley, 2015). Studies have shown several theories of males and females: females are viewed as more public when men are more argentic (Sandberg, 2013) women are more egalitarian while men are hierarchical (Beinogisha et al., 2014) women are more qualified to do educational work, and men performs engineering and accounting duties (Wajcman, 2013).

Studies revealed that ladies have been normalised to be mums, submissive and dependent, while their male counterpart deemed to be strong, independent, main providers, decision makers at home and executives (French & Sheridan, 2009; Kanter,

1977; McDowell & Pringle, 1992; Oakley, 2000). Cultural practices, like the housework cores, education and the choice of one's future related to males and females affect the ratio of gender in leadership positions (Hojgaard, 2002). This signifies that society upbringing makes people of opposite gender perform differently. Daughters will be feminist as compared to boys who were perceived be more maleness to keep females in the more inferior point of being conquered by males (Otieno, 2001). The studies were, however, carried out in several countries which are both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where this current study was conducted.

Despite recent changes in gender equality, men still dominate many political and business structures. For instance, of the 126 states globally, about twenty-eight percent of legislatures are women-headed (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2014) only twenty-two women are heads of state. In the corporate world, there are also fewer women in leadership, a trend that is often on the rise as we look at the higher levels of royalty. For example, women make up 47.3% of US employees, however, they score correspondingly low in senior leadership positions, a case being the Fortune 500 companies where they comprise 5.2% of the CEOs (Catalyst, 2014). Moreover, gender stereotypes have also brought about gender inequality in the male-dominated sphere where females are generally fewer than men who should be associated with leadership (Jonathan & Saruni, 2016).

In leadership, politics and business, gender-based beliefs continue to divide women, as evidenced by numerous studies. An example is in Schein's philosophy where the subjects equate men, women, and leaders with a number of factors such as intuitive, high-spirited, competent, curious and emotionally stable. In all 40 studies, the leadership theory was more closely related to masculinity (intra-class correlation was 0.62) compared to female characteristics (intra-class correlation which was 0.25), as indicated in a 2011 meta-analysis by Jonathan and Saruni (2016). That is to say, leaders are clearly seen as more like men than women's ideologies. This distinction between the beliefs of the leader and the superstitions that characterize women highlights the potential threat to women seeking prominence because it undermines women's credibility in leadership and thus

leads to a negative assessment of women leaders. The study by Jonathan and Saruni (2016) was, however, carried out in India which is both geographically and contextually dissimilar to Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where the current study was conducted.

In a study carried out by Benner et al. (2016) in the United Kingdom found that in majority of the households, womenfolk are up to date mostly in charge of rearing children and homemaking. The responsibilities of the womenfolk for family life presently or in future impede the progress of the women owing to both external projections and internal accommodations. Where no narrative exists suggesting that parenthood dwindles one's leadership abilities, there are still several individuals who hold that such roles prevent the capacity of women to carry out their duties as school heads and that, hence, such roles limit women in administrative positions. The study was, however, carried out in the UK which is both geographically and contextually different from Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where the current study was conducted.

Women, on the other hand, sometimes blamed that family duties prevent them from applying for and taking office, not because these women do not think they can do everything, but because they believe the cost will be higher for their families and themselves (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012). On the other hand, the home is not the equal opportunity of the employer than the workplace: it is only in the domestic work that the ability to change one's thinking is changed, resulting in unequal family responsibilities. Women, and are expected to be, are great caregivers, especially the very young and old. In general, most men support gender equality, but for some reason, they fail to practice encouraging it. Family life resides only in the minds of women in all parts of the world (Topor et al., 2010).

Amzat and Razum (2014) in their study of the Netherlands found that negative thinking is one of the biggest obstacles to females in leadership positions in the State. They further concluded that if a person was exposed to a negative belief, it would be difficult to change because he would have to change the attitude of his colleagues. However, when given ambiguous and undeniable information about effective outcomes, a reduction in the number of women does not occur (Amzat & Razum, 2014). According to Al-Hussein

(2011, in Jordan, a leading woman in the country's Department of Education has similar challenges to achieving leadership positions, many of the challenges are: negative stereotypes of women from both genders; women's lack of ambition, lack of an assurance in their capabilities to lead, and persistence in their work.

In Saudi Arabia, another study conducted by Abu-Khdair (2012) described one of the challenges such as facing women leaders in the educational institutions of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia such as orderliness, technology, inequality, culture and personal challenges. Jonathan and Saruni (2016) found that the leadership challenges facing Indian women in education are considered among the house verses job responsibilities, race, disrespect for colleagues, abuse of females at toil and lack of self-confidence in both colleagues and society in female's leadership. A study by Burns and Martin (2010) established that women's school leadership faces challenges of low self-esteem and respect compared to male leadership. These studies were, however, carried out in the Middle East and India which are both geographically and contextually dissimilar to Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where the current study was conducted.

Results from Mepukori's (2016) study conducted in Mozambique show that the major challenges facing women in the country's educational sector include: social challenges, political challenges as well as personal challenges. According to Khan (2016), in his study in Tanzania, over individual conversations platform with a number of females in leadership, he found that they had experienced challenges such as suspicion in their management and job satisfaction which were obstacles in their actual leaderships at both primary and secondary schools. The studies by Mepukori (2016) and Khan (2016) were, however, carried out in Mozambique and Tanzania which are both geographically and contextually dissimilar to Kenya and, especially, Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where the current study was conducted.

In their study in Kenya, Elder, Damiani and Oswago (2016) concluded that negative stereotypes of women in leadership is very much felt in place and they are likely to affect their performance and self-related cognitions of with leadership aspirations within

educational institutions. They recommend that as a way to shield women from the negative effects of stereotypes, women should exercise counter stereotypical women – women who have thrived in leadership, such as Prof. Olive Mugenda as well as Prof. Julia Ojiambo, as a way to disprove the stereotype that they are unable to lead educational institutions. These findings shows that having more women in leadership positions in schools is not just a goal of gender quality, but it is also the engine that drives gender equality in male-dominated domains in the future (Elder et al., 2016). The study, however, did not examine the issue of negative stereotyping in relation to school instructional leadership. Further, the study was not carried out in Tharaka Nithi North Sub County where the current study was conducted.

The preceding discussions indicate that significant research has been carried out by other researchers regarding gender stereotyping and instructional leadership. For instance, Al-Hussein (2011) found that achieving leadership positions, many of the challenges are: negative stereotypes of women from both gender; women's lack of ambition, lack of self-assurance in their capabilities, and persistence in their work. Amzat and Razum (2014) found that negative thinking is one of the biggest obstacles to females in leadership positions. However, these determinants of leadership participation among female teachers have not been examined among female teachers out in Tharaka North.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored under the Feminist Theory. The Feminist theory was developed by Mary Wollstonecraft. The theory emphasizes the continuing role of gender segregation in society and aims to recognize the oppression of women and the social constructs that engender this subjugation and oppression. The feminist perspective, citing similarities between the sexes, summarizes that men and women possess equal abilities in individual growth. Differences in the achievement of that ability must be due to external problems and the influence of social and heritage institutions (Mulwa, 2005). Women's Vision develops three broad ways in its definitions of the absence of womenfolk in high-ranking organization from the public and private sectors.

The concept of a building or institution discusses the idea that it benefits women in positions of responsibility in any organizational structure in terms of numbers, limited power and limited access to services that build and define women's values and positions. The basis of this view is that all women and men have the capacity and fully commit to leadership positions. The challenge is still very much in place and fundamental change is the only solution to reduce unnecessary discrimination in school policies. Among the main issues affecting women are discrimination and cultural discrimination; men's restrictions on women in positions of authority; lack of policies and regulations to ensure the participation of women; and limiting opportunities for leadership training and demonstration due to capacity building in work stations. Among the structural factors that impede the meaningful participation by women in leadership include the existence of organizational and professional mentorship programs, women's staff development, transparency and incentive processes, women's support services, access to information technology and flexibility in work schedules (Seoloane, 2012).

Timberlake (2005) explores cultural aspects that link sexuality with structural structures as an alternative viewing perspective. Her analysis deviates from gender-based society and the allocation of specific responsibilities, roles and expectations of men and women. Gender-based and non-essential roles in the workplace are created in the workplace and are maintained because those involved, top and bottom, register for the truth, socially and organizationally (Timberlake, 2005). Cultural factors give rise extreme views on the capabilities of women's in a cultural setting. The notion that senior management positions are ideal only for men reduces women to second positions. The role of women as mothers, nurturers and caregivers is always emphasized. It is on the basis of these three broad views that the current study examines the determinants contributing to the inclusion of women in leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in the Tharaka district in northern, Kenya.

In this study, this theory is founded on the view that in order for men and women to be equivalent, women must be allowed superior freedoms and menfolk should not be the dominant matter. The theory was instrumental in this study than other theories as it was able to show the social constructions of gender and how they undermined female

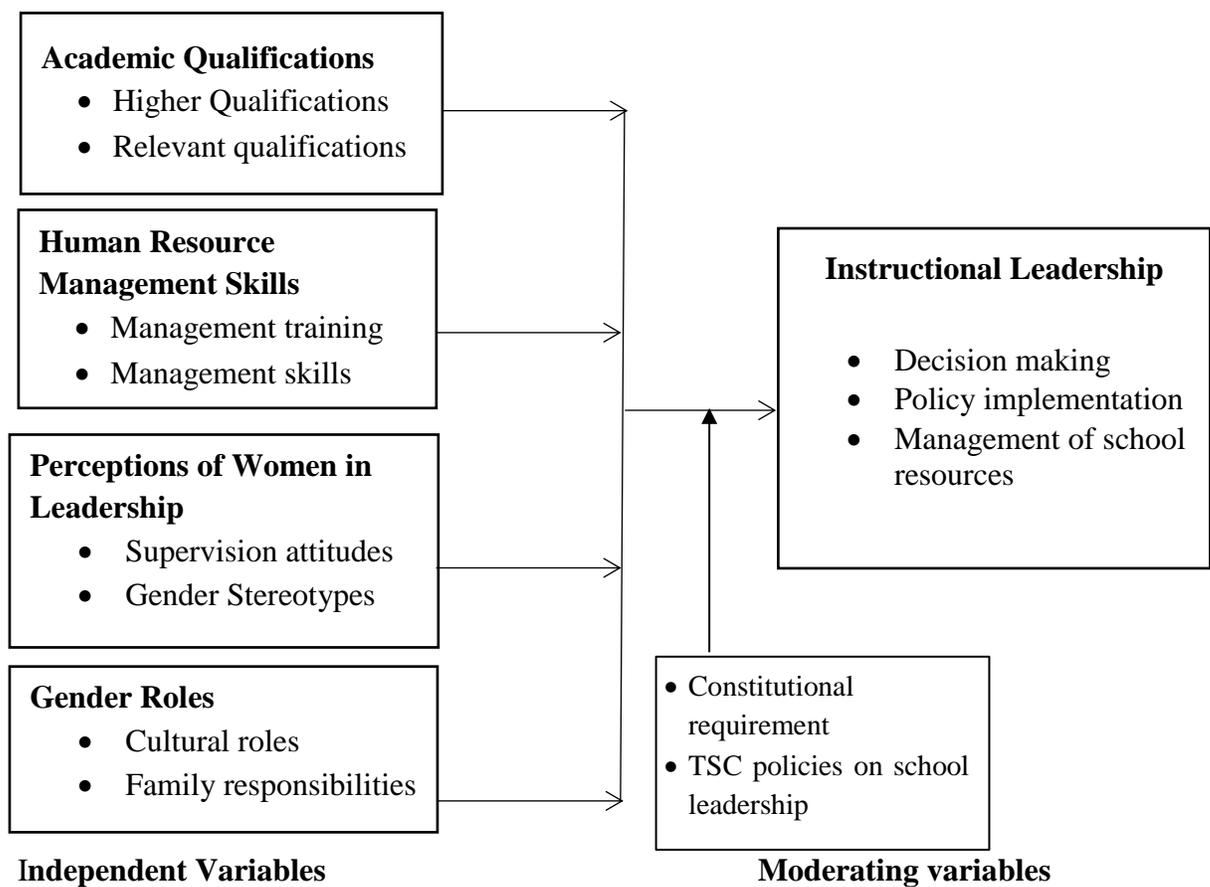
leadership. Moreover, through this theory it was possible to interrogate the perceptions of the society and of the women leaders themselves regarding the gender issues in school instructional leadership.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework depicts the relationship between the dependent, independent as well as the intervening variables of the study. In this study, the independent variables are academic qualification, human resource management skills, perception of women in leadership and gender roles. The intervening variables are Constitutional requirement and TSC policies on school leadership as shown on Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1

Conceptual framework on variables in the study



2.8.1 Operationalization of Conceptual Framework

Qualifications refers to the level of education that a woman wishes to achieve during their career. This variable was measured by the parameter of the type of qualifications that they currently possess, the qualifications they wish to attain and how much they are willing to spend on gaining additional qualifications. In the study, the relationship between academic qualification and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya was examined.

Human resource management skills are the professional and social interactions that the female school leaders had developed prior to and after being appointed as a school head. The variable was measured to in terms of organization exercise and Management skills. The study examined, the relationship between human resource management skills and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

Perceptions of women in leadership refers to the differential view with which women leaders are held relative to their male counterparts in relation to their abilities to discharge their responsibilities. This parameter was measured by the Supervision attitudes and Gender Stereotypes. The current study sought to institute the connection amid insights of women in management spots and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya

Gender roles cognitive structures that contain beliefs about a social group. This variable will be measured in relation to the existence of Cultural roles and Family responsibilities. The study also examined how gender roles influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

Instructional leadership refers to the effort by the principal or the head teacher to improve teaching and learning of students by effective management of curriculum, addressing the challenges of diversity, proper resources allocation and timely evaluation of teachers.

Table 2.2*Operationalization of Variables*

| Variable | Indicators | Measurements |
|------------------------------------|---|----------------------|
| Academic Qualifications | 1. Higher Qualifications 2. Relevant qualifications | 5 point Likert scale |
| Human Resource Management Skills | 3. Management training 4. Management skills | 5 point Likert scale |
| Perceptions of Women in Leadership | 5. Supervision attitudes 6. Gender Stereotypes | 5 point Likert scale |
| Gender Roles | 7. Cultural roles 8. Family responsibilities | 5 point Likert scale |
| Instructional Leadership | 9. Decision making 10. Policy implementation 11. Management of school resources | 5 point Likert scale |

This section has discussed the various dimensions of instructional leadership and the associated variables that could likely influence instructional leadership in schools. Therefore, the variables of interest that were discussed were the academic qualification of women, human resource management skills, perceptions for women in leadership and the gender roles. Gaps to be filled were also identified and filled for each variable. Therefore, in the next chapter focused on the methodologies of carrying out the research.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section introduces how the study was conducted with the aim of obtaining relevant, up-to-date and reliable information. It gives insight into the location of the study, research design, and study population, sampling methods, instrumentation, pretesting of the research instruments, data collecting procedure and data analysis. Just issues to be observed during the study are also outlined.

3.2 Location of the Study

This study was conducted in Tharaka North Sub County which was part of the defunct Eastern Province before the introduction of a new governance structure after the year 2010. It shares its northern border with Meru County, the southern border with Embu County and Kitui County towards the West. The Sub-County's headquarter is located in Gatunga market, and that is the major trading centre. The study's location was chosen owing to the deep-rooted socio-cultural practices biased against women and that encourage exclusion of females from key decision making organs in the community. This, notwithstanding, the sustained advocacy and reforms meant to address inequality in leadership positions in the country and the constitutional stipulation on the 30% gender representation in leadership in public institutions has resulted into fewer women ascending to instructional leadership roles in schools in the County.

3.3 Research Strategy

The study deployed descriptive survey research design. The study prefers this design owing to its concerns with seeking answers to questions about the population such as; what, who, which, how, how much, where and when. Furthermore, the descriptive design allows for the application of quantitative data analysis which enabled the study to statistically test the relationships between the variables. Therefore, as the study involved both qualitative and quantitative methods and did not seek to manipulate the variables but rather study them as they actually were.

3.4 Target Population

Target population defined as a collection of objects, events, or persons that possess observable attributes that are common to all and that are of interest to the study being carried out (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The study in this case targeted all the 12 public secondary schools and 62 government primary schools in Tharaka North. Thus the total target population was 303 persons comprising of 12 secondary school principals, 62 primary school head teachers, 36 female secondary school teachers and 192 female primary school teachers (Tharaka North Sub County Education Office, 2021). It also included one Sub-County TSC director.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Bryman and Bell (2015) defines the sample size as a small proportion of the population that contains all the representative elements of the study population. Further, the sample size should be small enough to be manageable and representative enough of the study population (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Purposive sampling based on the 30% of the study population rule recommended by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) and Kumar (2019) to determine the appropriate sample size of the secondary schools principals and the primary school head teachers who were then randomly selected from schools in the area. For the teachers, the study used stratified the respondents between primary and secondary schools so as to attain proportional representation. The researcher, therefore, sampled 4 principals, 19 head teachers, and 69 female school teachers from 4 secondary schools and 19 primary schools (Appendix VII). The total sample size was thus 92 respondents.

Table 3.1*Sampling Matrix for Respondents*

| School type | Respondent Category | Total Population | Sample Size (30%) |
|-------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Secondary | Principals | 12 | 4 |
| | Female teachers | 36 | 11 |
| Primary | Head Teachers | 62 | 19 |
| | Female Teachers | 192 | 57 |
| | TSC Sub County Director | 1 | 1 |
| TOTAL | | 303 | 92 |

The study deployed purposive sampling methods to select 4 secondary schools and 19 primary schools in the area which had at least one female in the top school leadership as either a principal/head master or deputy principal/head master. The schools were identified through the Tharaka North Sub-County TSC Officer.

3.6 Research Tools

Questionnaires were used to collect facts from principals, head teachers and the teachers; and an interview schedule for the TSC Sub-County Officer, and also female school heads who were able to avail themselves for the in-depth interviewing process.

3.6.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is an instrument for collecting primary data directly from respondents using several questions that are scored on a scale and some open-ended (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The researcher used questionnaires developed from the constructs identified in the literature review section of the study. The questionnaire contained two parts; Part A comprised of general background information of the respondents while Part B contained questions related to the variables under study. The questionnaire was structured and contained closed ended items that were assigned to be scored on a 5-point Likert scale. The questionnaires were self-administered and were delivered by the researcher and collected after a period of 1 week. The questionnaire was used in this study because the respondents were to respond to the instrument on their own, a fact that reduced researcher bias during data collection. This approach is instrumental in large inquiries and can lead to fairly reliable results. However, the main limitation of the

structured questionnaire is that it can be subjective making it to obtain difficult to obtain in-depth information using it, hence, there was need to supplement it with an interview schedule.

3.6.2 Interview

Interview guides were used for data collection. The reason for the inclusion of this instrument was its ability to obtain in-depth and information which is not biased from the respondents. The instrument was administered to the female school heads in the area so as to obtain more insight into the challenges facing the rise of female teachers to leadership roles. The instrument contained items connected to the variables of the study in both a dichotomous and open-ended format. It has quite a number of advantages which include: reduced interviewer bias, easy access and ability to extract in-depth information from the respondents (Nardi, 2018).

3.7 Pretesting

Pilot testing is a necessary procedure for evaluating the research instruments before administering the instrument to the actual study population. It is used to ascertain whether the instruments are useable for the study and whether the data collection can be carried out in the prescribed way used during the actual study (Vogel & Draper-Rodi, 2017). The researcher pilot tested the research instruments in Tharaka South Sub County using the prepared study questionnaires and interview schedules, and this was intended to assist the researcher in getting ideas on improving the instruments' clarity, quality, the instruments' length, and also to make sure that the instruments have the same meaning to all respondents. Sekaran and Bougie (2013) recommends a 10-20% of the study sample size is ideal for pre-testing the instruments.

The researcher, therefore, piloted the instruments in 3 schools; 1 secondary and 2 primary schools in Tharaka South Sub County which share some characteristics with schools in Tharaka North Sub County. These included the demographic patterns, school community composition and teacher placement and leadership. This was 13% of the sample size of the schools. From these, the study selected 1 female secondary school principal and two

female secondary school teachers. Two female head teachers and four female teachers were also selected from the primary schools in the pilot group. This constituted 10% of the sample respondents. The school heads in the secondary and primary schools were given both the questionnaire and the interview schedules while respectively the teachers in both category of schools were given only the questionnaire. After filling out the instruments, the targeted individuals were asked to give their opinions on the precision of the constructs and instrument items and the ease of filling out the instruments so as to guide the researcher when making further adjustments to the instruments. After pilot testing and subsequently carrying out the validity and reliability of both the instruments, they were found to be understandable, clear and that they also met the thresholds for validity and reliability. However, some adjustments were made on the instruments in areas deemed necessary by the independent assessors and researcher's supervisor at the university.

3.7.1 Rationality of Research Instruments

Sekaran and Bougie (2013) describe validity as the importance and accuracy of inferences, based on research results. The study used face validity, construct validity and content validity for the questionnaire. Face validity was determined by ensuring that the instruments reflect research questions and research objectives. The appropriateness of the construct and content of the questionnaire constructs and items was evaluated by the researcher's supervisors who reviewed them before administration to the actual respondents for their effectiveness. The constructs were assessed to ensure they were valid and their indicators also assessed to ascertain that they were valid measurements of the constructs. Where there were mismatches, adjustments were made. The items in the questionnaire were also assessed to ensure they were a representation of the indicators and, hence, the constructs. They were also checked for clarity and rephrased as necessary.

For the interview schedules, validity was done through coding to reduce the themes into short summary forms depicting the meaning of the data for ease of analysis (Auriacombe, 2016). Five independent assessors recruited by the researcher were able to recognize the size of the sections, mass of codes, clarification of a section and encryptions individually.

Both the codes developed by the assessors and the emerging responses had a high level of consistency and, therefore, the validity of the interview schedule was ascertained

3.7.2 Instrument Reliability

Reliable data is termed consistent and valuable to the research study. The reliability of the data collection instrument is critical in data analysis. It indicates whether the study objectives will be achieved as expected (Mikalef et al., 2019). In this study, the reliability was considered for both the questionnaires and for the interview guides. For the closed ended items in the questionnaires, this study adopted an internal consistency approach using Cronbach's Alpha which is a type of KR-20 approach that correlates the even numbered and odd numbered items of the questionnaire to determine their consistency and, hence, reliability. Consequently, the questionnaire items were considered reliable if they generated the recommended reliability values of 0.7 and above for social sciences (Kumar, 2019). Items having a reliability index less than 0.7 were isolated and redressed to improve their reliability. The reliability was assessed on a variable basis and also overall reliability of the instrument. The results are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Questionnaire Reliability

| Variables | Cronbach's Alpha | No. of Items |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| Academic Qualifications | 0.733 | 5 |
| Human Resource Management Skills | 0.761 | 5 |
| Perceptions of Women in Leadership | 0.816 | 5 |
| Gender Roles | 0.788 | 5 |
| Instructional Leadership | 0.854 | 5 |
| Overall Reliability Statistics | 0.881 | 25 |

From the reliability results in Table 3.2, it is evident that the all the variables had scores above the recommended threshold value of 0.7 for social sciences. The overall instrument reliability index was also high at $\alpha = 0.881$. Therefore, the instrument and the items were adopted for further data collection in the actual study after making some minor corrections regarding the language and phrasing.

The dependability of the interview guide displays itself through the coding procedure and typically attributes to; steadiness, reproducibility and correctness (Miller & Whacker, 1999). For the interview schedule, the consistency was established through a coding scheme where 5 volunteers were used to rate the codes emerging from the interview schedules as per the constructs. The results of the are given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Reliability for the Interview Guide

| Construct | No of Words Coded | Score (%) | Remarks on level of understanding |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|--|
| Academic Qualifications | 9 | 90% | Excellent |
| Human Resource Management Skills | 6 | 60% | Average |
| Perceptions of Women in Leadership | 8 | 80% | Very High |
| Gender Roles | 7 | 70% | High |
| Instructional Leadership | 6 | 60% | Average |
| Overall | 7.2 | 72% | High |

From the results in Table 3, it is evident that overall the independent assessors agreed with the reliability of all the statements in the interview schedules as correctly reflecting the variables by up to 72%. The interview guide was then used after some adjustments and rephrasing as suggested by the assessors.

3.8 The Data Collection

Before emphasizing on the data collection exercise, the researcher procured a letter of authorization from the Kenya Methodist University. The letter was used to obtain a research permit from the National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Further permission was sought from the Sub-County Director of Education (Tharaka North). The researcher then moved to the stations where the data was to be collected for familiarization sand seeking permission to collect the data from the head teachers and principals of selected schools (Appendix VII).

The researcher first explained the purpose of the study to the head teachers and then administered the questionnaires to them after they had consented to participate in the study. The head teachers identified the teachers to take part in the in the study. Additional

consent was also obtained from the teachers before proceeding to administer the instruments to them physically. The teachers were taken through the research first before administering the instruments. The instruments were self-administered where after being given the questionnaire, the respondents were allowed to go and fill them out in their own time and then bring them back at a designated place to be collected in a week's time.

The researcher personally interviewed the TSC Sub-County Director and the female head teachers. The interview involved requesting for ample time (about 30 minutes) with the respondent in his/her office and then proceeding to interview them after obtaining their consent. In this interview, the researcher asked the respondents questions while writing down the responses of the interviewees. This ensured the capture of key terms and a higher response rate.

3.9 Data Scrutiny

Data examination is the procedure of classifying, handling and summarizing data in order to find responses to investigation queries (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Data processing involved the processing of raw data unsure non inaccuracies arising from misunderstandings of research questions and to review answers to questions that arose from incorrect answers. After editing the details were encoded and broken down into regular sections. All the data was examined using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation were used to provide the basic features of the population and the data trends along the variables. Inferential statistics such as Pearson product moment correlations and multiple linear regression were used to show the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable and also test the hypothesis of the study and thereafter provide a basis for inferring the findings to the general population. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance; 95% confidence level. The interviews were analysed along thematic areas using content analysis techniques. The quantitative results were presented in tables, interpreted and discussed. The qualitative results were presented as italicized verbatim narratives and used to provide supporting narratives for the questionnaire findings.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

While conducting the study researcher observed ethical issues. Study principles are the type of agreement the researcher enters into with his or her research participants (Hartas, 2015). The researcher got a letter of approval and authority from Kenya Methodist University. The researcher also obtained the consent of those who were going to take part in the study. The researcher, therefore, contact the teachers of the sampled schools in person to obtain authorization to carry out the research among the teachers in the school. Information from participants were kept confidential and anonymous. Each questionnaire contained an introductory letter seeking cooperation in the study by providing the information sought after in the interviews and questionnaires. This they were informed was their contribution to the study that would help inform the wider discourse of female leadership especially in instructional leadership in schools.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

The section grants the outcomes rising from the data collection exercise on the factors influencing participation of women in instructional leadership positions in government primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya. The analysis was done using both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis and discussed according to the study objectives, which were to;

- i. Examine the influence of academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.
- ii. Investigate how human resource management skills influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.
- iii. Determine how an opinion of women in leadership positions influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.
- iv. Examine how gender roles influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

4.2 Reliability Statistics

Beforehand the administration the questionnaires for the actual study, the questionnaires were subjected to a reliability test to ascertain whether the data collected through questionnaires could indeed be relied upon. The Cronbach Alpha was computed to help assess the reliability of the questionnaires and the outcomes are as presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1*Instrument Reliability*

| Variable | Number of Items | Cronbach Alpha | Remarks |
|---|-----------------|----------------|----------|
| Academic qualifications | 5 | 0.733 | Reliable |
| Human resource management skills | 5 | 0.761 | Reliable |
| Observations of women in leadership positions | 5 | 0.816 | Reliable |
| Gender roles | 5 | 0.788 | Reliable |
| Women participation in instructional leadership | 5 | 0.854 | Reliable |
| Overall Reliability Index | 25 | 0.881 | Reliable |

The results in table 4.1 indicate that all the variables in the questionnaire had Cronbach alphas of over the 0.70 which is the threshold for the Cronbach reliability index. Further, the overall instrument reliability index was also above the threshold Cronbach reliability index of 0.70. Therefore, the questionnaire in its then form was considered reliable based on the recommendations of Marshall and Rossman (2014) and was, therefore, subjected to slight adjustments in terms of the editing the items.

4.3 Response Rate

The researcher gave 91 questionnaires to the principals, head teachers and female teachers. Out of these 77 filled and useable for the study. Table 4.2 shows the questionnaire responses.

Table 4.2*Questionnaire Response Rate*

| School type | Respondent Category | Questionnaires Issued | Questionnaires Returned | Response rate (%) |
|-------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| Secondary | Principals | 4 | 4 | 100 |
| | Female teachers | 11 | 9 | 82 |
| Primary | Head Teachers | 19 | 15 | 79 |
| | Female Teachers | 57 | 49 | 86 |
| Total | | 91 | 77 | 87 |

Table 4.2 shows that the questionnaires had a high response rate per respondent category and also overall all being above 70%. This was a good response rate. Maxfield and Babbie (2014) indicate that a good instrument response rate is over 70%. The remaining 16 questionnaires were not returned for analysis and, hence, their results were not included in the study.

The researcher also issued out 10 interview guides; one to the TSC Sub-County Officer, 4 to female secondary school principals and 5 female primary school head teachers. The study also administered 10 interview schedules and only 8 were returned filled and usable for the study. Table 4.3 shows the response rate for the interview guide.

Table 4.3

Interview Schedules Response Rate

| Respondent Category | Interviews Issued | Interviews Completed | Response Rate (%) |
|------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| Secondary School Principals | 4 | 4 | 100 |
| Primary School Head Teachers | 5 | 4 | 80 |
| TSC Sub-County Officer | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 10 | 8 | 80 |

Table 4.3 shows that 80% of the interview schedules administered were returned filled and usable for the study. This was a high instrument response rate (Maxfield & Babbie, 2014) and, therefore, could be relied on to provide complementary narratives for the questionnaire findings.

4.4 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The characteristics considered in the study were; ages of the respondents; highest level of education attained, and; number of years they had worked in their present schools. The findings are summarized in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4*Demographic Characteristics of the Female Principals and Head Teachers*

| Variable | Response | Frequency | Percent (%) |
|---|-----------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Age (in years) of the school heads | 25 - 24 | 2 | 14 |
| | 35 - 44 | 7 | 35 |
| | 45 and above | 10 | 51 |
| | Total | 19 | 100 |
| Academic qualifications of the school heads | Postgraduate | 4 | 21 |
| | Degree | 11 | 58 |
| | Diploma | 4 | 21 |
| | Total | 19 | 100 |
| Work experience of the school heads | 6 - 10 years | 5 | 26 |
| | 11 - 15 years | 5 | 26 |
| | Above 15 years | 9 | 48 |
| | Total | 19 | 100 |

The findings in Table 4.4 suggest that most of the principal and head teachers 10(51%) were aged above 45 years. Sperandio and Kegoda (2016) explain that in the teaching profession, one must move up the ranks of teaching to become a school head and, therefore, this could explain why most 10(51%) of the school heads were in their 40s and 50s and had over 15 years work experience.

Majority 11(58%) of the respondents had undergraduate degree level of education as their highest academic qualifications although there was also a considerable number with postgraduate qualifications (21%). Regarding the education qualifications of the school heads, it was evident that majority of the school heads possessed undergraduate degrees and above. This was in line with the TSC (2017) requirements that for one to be appointed a head of a post-primary school, they needed to be a holder of Bachelor's degree in Education or any other recognized equivalent qualification and be a holder of a Master's degree in a relevant area. For appointment and deployment as a head teacher, a teacher must; be a holder of Primary Teacher Education (PTE) Certificate and be a holder of a Bachelor's degree in Education or its equivalent. The ones with diplomas as their

highest qualification were most likely appointed and deployed as school heads before the promulgation of the new TSC policy in 2017.

Majority 9(48%) of the respondents had also worked as teachers current school for more than 15 years. These findings also imply that majority 10(51%) of the school heads were aged above 45 years and had reasonable work experience as teachers and school heads. The Teachers Service Commission (2017) stipulates that for one to be appointed and deployed as a post-primary school head, he/she must have demonstrated competence and ability both as a classroom teacher and as a deputy head or equivalent position in a post primary institution; have served as deputy head or equivalent position in a post primary institution for a minimum period of three (3) years; Similarly, for appointment as a head teacher for the primary school level, the teacher must have served as a Deputy Head teacher for a minimum period of three (3) years and have demonstrated competence and ability as a classroom teacher in a primary institution.

For the study purposes, this was important as it meant the respondents were well conversant with the gender issues and female leadership in the education systems. Miyazaki and Taylor (2008) explained that for a reliable study to be conducted, the respondents' background characteristics are needed to be established so as to ascertain that one sampled from a reliable population.

Table 4.5*Demographic Characteristics of the Female Teachers*

| Variable | Response | Frequency | Percent (%) |
|--|-----------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Age (in years) of the teachers | 25 -35 | 26 | 45 |
| | 35 - 45 | 21 | 36 |
| | 45 and above | 11 | 19 |
| | Total | 58 | 100 |
| Academic qualifications of the teachers | Postgraduate | 2 | 4 |
| | Degree | 15 | 26 |
| | Diploma | 21 | 36 |
| | Certificate | 20 | 34 |
| | Total | 58 | 100 |
| Work experience (in years) of the teachers | 1-5 years | 19 | 33 |
| | 6 - 10 years | 23 | 40 |
| | 11 - 15 years | 10 | 17 |
| | Above 15 years | 6 | 10 |
| | Total | 58 | 100 |

The results in Table 4.5 suggest that most of the teachers were aged below 35 years 26(45%) while 21(36%) were aged between 35 – 45 suggesting that they were relatively youthful and, therefore, could be more conversant with the emerging discourse on gender dimensions in the workplace and society in general. The level of education, the outcome show that majority 21(36%) of the teachers had diploma level of education as their highest academic qualifications a number with undergraduate qualifications 15(26%) and postgraduate qualifications 2(4%). Considering their education qualifications and work experience, it is clear that 28% of the teachers could qualify to be appointed as instructional leaders in their schools as per the TSC (2017) guidelines.

Majority 23(40%) of the trainers had also worked as teachers in their current school for between 6 and 10 years. Findings implying imply that majority of the respondents had desirable education background with relevant work experience thus dependable information for the study. These characteristics can also be instrumental in assessing and reducing the biases inherent in the study respondents (McCarty et al., 2007).

4.5 Descriptive Statistical Analysis

This section presents the results of the descriptive statistics, interpretations and discussions as per the variables of the study.

4.5.1 Academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership

The first variable of the study was to examine the influence of academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. A five point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree was used to rate the responses. The findings are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6

Academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership

| Statements (N = 77) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean | Std Dev. |
|--|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------|----------|
| The qualification requirements for instructional leadership are the same for both male and female teachers | 13(17) | 27(35) | 11(14) | 18(24) | 8(10) | 3.51 | 1.046 |
| The ministry of education requires one to have a higher academic degree to be a head teacher | 8(10) | 14(18) | 20(26) | 23(30) | 12(16) | 2.92 | 0.749 |
| Most female teachers do not have higher academic qualifications compared to men | 10(13) | 11(14) | 14(18) | 25(33) | 17(22) | 2.83 | 0.837 |
| Acquisition of relevant academic skills enables one to qualify for leadership | 15(19) | 24(31) | 16(21) | 12(16) | 10(13) | 3.49 | 0.712 |
| The ministry of education allows teachers to further their education | 20(26) | 26(33) | 12(16) | 13(17) | 6(8) | 3.84 | 1.108 |
| Average | | | | | | 3.318 | |

The outcomes in Table 4.6 indicate that with a mean of 3.318, the respondents had mixed views concerning the influence of academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership positions in the area. For example, majority (mean = 3.51) of the women were of the view that qualification requirements for instructional leadership were

the same for both male and female teachers. Implying that women were expected to compete and merit on equal footing with their male counterparts. The findings, however, suggest that there was uncertainty among the respondents on whether the Ministry of Education did require one to have a management degree to be a head teacher (mean = 2.92).

Further, majority of the respondents disagreed (mean = 2.83) that there was as a structured career development process for one to become a head teacher in their schools. However, according to most respondents (mean = 3.49), acquisition of management skills through training enables one to qualify for leadership. In addition, most agreed that the Ministry of Education provides in-service training opportunities for leadership development (mean = 3.84).

From the interviews done with the school heads, majority indicated that for one to ascend to the head teacher level was not just a matter of qualifications but also one had to progress through the teaching ranks as well.

One of the principals (S/P a) said; *“Maybe school management training or something like that, I’m not sure.”*

Another principal (S/P b) voiced her frustrations saying, *“Some of us have higher degrees but it took long before we were promoted in the teaching profession.*

Looks

like we are deliberately bypassed.”

One head teacher (H/T a) explained that, *“I think they look for other qualifications*

other than just academics”

Also, according to the respondents interviewed, the Ministry did provide in-service training opportunities for leadership and this included instructional leadership training. However, they indicated that the training targeted mostly those who were already in the leadership positions in the schools.

One female head teacher (H/T b) observed that, *“I often see only head teachers attend the training seminars”*

Another head teacher (H/T c) indicated, *“Not sure whether ordinary teachers are*

eligible for such trainings.”

A secondary school principal (S/P c) suggested, *“I have attended them but I think they are best suited for those who are already in management.”*

Another principal (S/P d) also noted that, *“The Ministry and School only sponsors those who are already in management to attend the leadership trainings.”*

While the issue of higher academic qualifications was not a strict requirement of promotion to instructional leadership positions in the school by the employer TSC, it nevertheless played an important role in determining the trajectory to instructional leadership in the schools for the teachers. For instance, Mberia and Midigo (2016) noted that academic background has an influence on leadership behaviour, in that; graduate secondary school heads were rated higher than non-graduates. However, as Dezsö and Ross (2012) carried out different study in Australia and concluded absence of superior educational qualification and sufficient teaching was a limiting factor for selection of women to management posts in schools.

Further, the finding above that qualification requirements for instructional leadership were the same for both male and female teachers implying that women were expected to compete and merit on equal footing with their male counterparts could further exclude women as pointed out by Klaus and Mitchell (2015). In most cases, it was realized that the men had had acquired undergraduate degrees (69.2%) while a small proportion of the women has the degrees, with many lamenting the resources required to pursue a degree (Klaus & Mitchell, 2015). Also there are still poor presentations of females in headship in other parts of the world simply because women have generally low qualification than men (Dorsy, 2012).

4.5.2 Human resource management skills and women participation in instructional leadership

The second variable of the study was to examine how human resource management skills influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. A five point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree was used to rate the responses. The results are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7*Human resource management skills and participation in instructional leadership*

| Statements (N = 77) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean | Std Dev. |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|-----------------|
| Moving to administrative positions means that I will have to supervise my colleagues too and I'm uncomfortable with that | 14(18) | 32(42) | 17(22) | 9(12) | 5(6) | 3.77 | 0.51 |
| I prefer having peer relationships with my colleagues rather than supervising them | 16(21) | 31(40) | 7(9) | 15(20) | 8(10) | 3.70 | 0.814 |
| My leadership responsibilities has affected my once close relationships with some of my colleagues who have not been promoted yet | 12(16) | 26(33) | 12(16) | 17(22) | 10(13) | 3.37 | 0.748 |
| Some of the staff are not cooperative even though I'm now their leader | 12(16) | 29(38) | 12(16) | 13(17) | 11(14) | 3.38 | 0.831 |
| Some female teachers are perceived as not supportive of their fellow female teachers in ascending to leadership | 14(18) | 30(40) | 14(18) | 9(11) | 10(13) | 3.49 | 0.925 |
| Average | | | | | | 3.542 | |

According to the findings in Table 4.7, there was a general agreement with the statements concerning the human resource management skills of the lady educators in the schools in the area. Most of them were, however, apprehensive about their supervisory roles as indicated by their responses. For instance, majority (mean = 3.77) of the female teachers were of the view that moving to administrative positions means that they will have to supervise their colleagues too and they were uncomfortable with that. Most (mean = 3.7) indicated that they preferred having peer relationships with their colleagues rather than supervising them. Also, some cited that their leadership responsibilities had affected their once close relationships with some of their colleagues who have not yet been promoted (mean = 3.37). This was evidenced by the finding that most female teachers in leadership stated that some of their staff were not cooperative even though that they were now their

leaders (mean = 3.38). The results also suggest that some female teachers are perceived as not supportive of their fellow female teachers in ascending to leadership (mean = 3.49).

Responses from the interviews indicated that female school leaders do not get enough support from their colleagues once they ascend to leadership positions in the school. Some of the responses on this were;

One female head teacher (H/T a) opined, *“I think its rivalry,”*

A female secondary school principal (S/P b) indicated, *“I did get the support from my staff when I began but then it suddenly changed without reason?”*.

Another principal (S/P d) stated, *“Sometimes I face resistance from staff when trying to implement some things.”*

A female head teacher (H/T c) said, *“Interestingly, I find more cooperation and support from male staff than female staff”* while another (H/T e) remarked, *“Yes, I do get support but not in all areas.”*

Other results from the interviews with the respondents indicated that female teacher’s do not willing to take managerial tasks when given by the teacher service commission (TSC) rather they take up the new responsibilities as a matter of obligation. Some of the school heads’ responses regarding taking up the new responsibilities were;

“Mutu hawezi kukataa kazi, lakini hio majukumu sio rahisi (one cannot refuse job responsibilities, but some of those responsibilities are not easy to undertake.” – (H/T e & S/P c)

This was supported by the TSC official who offered, *“One cannot refuse these responsibilities but one needs to be careful with them.”*

This was because the responsibilities were perceived to come at a cost to family and other social relationships as indicated by some two head teacher (H/T f) who said, *“Some of these opportunities come at a cost to your social relationships”* and *“I did take the new position as a deputy head teacher but after considerable encouragement by my family and head teacher.”*

The findings indicated that a bigger number of the female teachers were hesitant about assuming leadership positions mostly because they felt it would affect their relationships particularly because it moving to administrative positions meant that they will have to supervise their colleagues (who now become their subordinates) and that their leadership responsibilities had affected their once close relationships with some of their colleagues who have not yet been promoted. This explains that majority of the female teachers and leaders did not quite understand the management roles and what was expected of them. This concurs with Kagoda and Sperandio's (2009) study on Ugandan women historical and cultural perspective of education leadership that found did not fully understand educational leadership roles and tended to value their social relationships with their colleagues more than their professional relationships. Their affinity for relationships could be explained by the observations that women in leadership tended to subscribe to the transformational leadership model rather than the autocratic model mostly used by men. Hence, they prefer building relationships with their colleagues and subordinates rather than exercise authority on them. Indeed, Eagly and Karau (1991) and Rosener (1990) agreed that female leaders are builders of good relationships with their followers and tends to make their juniors feel part of the organisation, from drafting and setting performance goals to placing in a strategy.

The finding that some of the staff are not cooperative to female leaders in the school could be explained by Kanter (1977 cited in Mbepera, 2015) who found that women are usually given lower managerial post at work and lack enough support that would support them to compete for a higher leadership positions, as men are preferred and sustained. This development triggers the under-representation of ladies in headship places and further anchors an undesirable opinion regarding female management among their colleagues, thus degrading young females from taking part in headship. However, there were those who indicated that they found more support and cooperation from their male staff than female staff. This was in line with previous studies such as Valerio (2009) argued that a number of males were very helpful of the growth of ladies with leadership talented. In addition, Akuamoah-Boateng et al. (2003) supported that female teachers get more sustenance from man leadership than from fellow ladies.

It also emerges from the findings that while the support for females in leadership positions was high at the beginning, it tended to dwindle with time as evidenced by the statement, “I did get the support from my staff when I began but then it suddenly changed without reason?” This could be explained by the finding by the observation that women tend to change their leadership styles from the transformational to the autocratic style of leadership to be accepted and suitable in the school within the public (Arar & Abu-Rabia-Queder, 2011). Cunnison (1989) further observed that female leaders tend to imitate men as they are seen as better leaders. In view of this, females are supposed to suit the male way of leading so as to fit in with a male-controlled organisation. Mbepera (2015) however, argued that this supposition could be incorrect, however, simply since it is denoted that autocratic women are less favorably evaluated as compared to democratic women, although men always get a favorable assessment irrespective of the style of leadership they use whether an autocratic or democratic style. The change in leadership style could also be explained from Chabaya et al. (2009) point of view that low self-esteem sees themselves as not worthy for promotion leaving them very much unprepared for leadership responsibilities in the school.

The findings also noted that some female teachers are perceived as not supportive of their fellow female teachers in ascending to leadership. This agrees with Akuamoah-Boateng et al. (2003) whose study on psychological obstacles to women leadership, motivation and gravity in Kenya and Tanzania, shows that both women leaders and other colleagues did not encourage female teachers who have shown prospect of becoming leaders. They reported that female leaders did not support other women to progress and nor do they want to see them thriving. They further observed that woman leaders would set higher parameters for female juniors. Gupton and Slick (1996) however, established that female teachers lacked support and faced discouragement from both males and females.

4.5.3 Perceptions of women in leadership on participation in instructional leadership

The third variable of the study was to determine how perceptions of women in leadership positions influence women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. A five point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree was used to rate the responses. The results are summarized in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Perception of women in leadership and participation in instructional leadership

| Statements (N = 77) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean | Std Dev. |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|-----------------|
| Female teachers in leadership are perceived as lacking competency in leadership | 20(26) | 29(38) | 11(14) | 9(12) | 8(10) | 3.62 | 0.657 |
| Female teachers are perceived as not good in peace making and conflict management | 17(22) | 35(45) | 6(8) | 10(13) | 9(12) | 3.65 | 0.799 |
| Female teachers are perceived as being unapproachable to both fellow staff and the students | 18(23) | 25(33) | 11(14) | 13(17) | 10(13) | 3.68 | 0.679 |
| Women have a difficult time to project their authority in leadership positions | 22(29) | 27(35) | 11(14) | 9(12) | 8(10) | 3.68 | 0.679 |
| Sometimes it is difficult to exercise authority over one's colleagues especially if you are female | 9(12) | 31(40) | 8(10) | 18(23) | 11(14) | 3.26 | 0.773 |
| Average | | | | | | 3.578 | |

The overall mean of 3.532 in Table 4.8 recommends that most of the respondents agreed with the statements regarding the opinion of females in management positions in the schools. Most of the teachers (average mean = 3.578) agreed with the statements relating to the perceptions of women in leadership positions influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in the area. According to majority (mean = 3.62) of the

respondents, female teachers in leadership in schools in the area are perceived as lacking competency in leadership. Also, according to most respondents, female teachers are perceived as not good in peace making and conflict avoidance (mean = 3.65). Further, females teachers are perceived as being unapproachable to both fellow staff and the students (mean = 3.68). It is also evident that women have a difficult time to project their authority in leadership positions as showed by majority (mean = 3.68) of the respondents who agreed. Most respondents also indicated that sometimes it was difficult to exercise authority over one's colleagues especially if one was female (mean = 3.26).

During the interviews, the teachers were also asked whether female teachers apply for promotions in their schools. From, the responses it was evident that majority of the women in schools in the area still shied away from or were discouraged in seeking the promotions.

This was evidenced by statements such as by one head teacher (H/T h); *“Some of us hardly qualify for the positions”*

A school principal (S/P b) opined that, *“I don't think this society is ready for many Female leaders yet.”*

One head teacher (H/T k) remarked that, *“It is difficult to compete for the same positions with male colleagues as they are often better prepared and have the networks.”*

Sometimes that promotions did not work out for the female head teachers as they had desired as indicated by one female head teacher (H/T m) who lamented, *“I did apply for a promotion in my last school and instead I got a transfer here.”*

The findings generally imply that female teachers in leadership in the area were perceived as lacking competency in leadership and also that they were perceived as not good in peace making and lacking conflict management skills. These findings agree with Osumbah (2011) in Nigeria who found that women were perceived as insecure, power-hungry, insecure, unwilling to play a game or program performance, not applying for jobs or jobs, not applying for leadership positions. The findings could also be explained by Hatcher (2014) who found that that womenfolk are seen as being easy-going or too heavy but not always good, that women leaders contend with levels of skepticism. Research has

also observed that committees of appointment mostly relied on intuition and stereotypical leadership images (Sandison, 2008; Ellemers et al., 2012).

Catalyst (1998, as cited in Burke and Mattis, 2005) further observed that selection committees always have negative attitudes towards female leadership due to stereotypes. Catalyst (2007) also reported further that gender labelling is a noteworthy problem as men outnumber women due to dominance and problem solvers. Consequently, managers evaluate women leaders harshly undermining their influence. Ruijs (1993) noted that selection panels during interviews for headship comprised mainly of men, who ask females out of context questions like whether they are married or not and the number of children they have. This reveals fewer ladies get promoted to the top leadership positions (Obura et al., 2011). Further, Soobrayan (1998) reported that females are labelled as less able to maintain discipline in schools.

Female teachers were also perceived as being unapproachable to both fellow staff and the students. This could be explained by the observations in other studies that, although women deploys participatory leadership that is democratic a few use the non-participatory rather than the autocratic style that is task oriented, assertive and centralistic. Therefore, the tendency to use the autocratic leadership style to assert themselves as leaders rather than the democratic or transformational style could render them unapproachable to their subordinates and students.

Additionally, the finding that sometimes it was difficult to exercise authority over one's colleagues especially if one was female could be explained by the observations that female heads have a challenge of handling staff who misbehaves, as they are perceived to be lacking confidence in handling them because of entrenched patriarchy (Kabaka, 2002). This is concurred by Mwamasangula (2006) who also observed that female heads are faced with a challenge of directly confronting teachers, especially if the school is dominated by male teachers who create barrier for other female teachers from becoming in leaders school.

4.5.4 Gender roles on women participation in instructional leadership

The study's fourth objective was to examine how gender roles influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

A five point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree was used to rate the responses. The findings are given in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Gender roles and participation in instructional leadership

| Statements (N = 79) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean | Std Dev. |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|-----------------|
| Female teachers are thought of as not having the confidence to lead making them less authoritative | 10(13) | 29(38) | 10(13) | 17(22) | 11(14) | 3.22 | 0.902 |
| Most of the female teachers in our school aspire for leadership positions | 9(12) | 15(19) | 11(14) | 27(36) | 15(19) | 2.57 | 1.046 |
| Female teachers are afraid of failing in leadership positions | 16(21) | 31(40) | 17(22) | 8(10) | 5(7) | 3.51 | 0.712 |
| Female teachers have low self-esteem as far as leadership is concerned | 9(12) | 38(49) | 15(20) | 9(11) | 6(8) | 2.68 | 0.814 |
| Gender-based discrimination hinders me from aspiring for a leadership position | 15(19) | 40(52) | 13(17) | 4(5) | 5(7) | 3.75 | 0.677 |
| Average | | | | | | 3.238 | |

From the results in Table 4.9, it is evident that there were mixed opinions concerning the influence of gender roles on women participation in instructional leadership positions in schools in the area. Most female teachers in leadership positions were thought of as not having the confidence to lead and this made them less authoritative (mean = 3.22). However, most of the female teachers in the schools in the area did not aspire for leadership positions as indicated by majority of the respondents who disagreed. This was because majority of the female teachers are afraid of failing in leadership positions (mean = 3.51). The findings, further, indicate that female teachers did have low self-esteem as far as leadership was concerned as indicated by majority of the respondents who disagreed (mean = 2.68). Other findings indicate that gender-based discrimination

hindered most female teachers from aspiring for leadership position in the schools (mean = 3.75).

During the interviews, the respondents were asked if they thought the society around the school was receptive towards female school leaders. From the responses, it is evident that this was not the case as demonstrated by the following responses.

One female school principal (S/P a) observed that, *“Here, women are still thought of as not being equal to the task”* and another (S/P d) asserted, *“Honestly, here women are still not regarded as equal to men.”*

Another female head teacher (H/T j) also stated that, *“Even in cases where female leadership is tolerated, there must be a man in her team for her to be accepted”* while another head teacher (H/T g) was of the view that, *“Hapa ni wazee ndio wanasema (here it is the men who call the shots).”*

The respondents were also asked whether female school leaders have a difficult time balancing work and family responsibilities.

Typical responses from the principals included; *“Yes indeed! Some of us tend to have more responsibilities at home than at school”* (S/P c) and *“The society here expects us to be women first”* (S/P a). This was supported by the head teachers who

indicated that, *“Leadership roles here do not make you exempt from your responsibilities at home”* (H/T l) and also *“Some of our men and family members will not understand at all.”* (H/T e)

The finding that most of the female teachers in the schools in the area did not aspire for leadership positions as indicated by majority of the respondents because they were afraid of failing in leadership positions underscore the fact that most women lack confidence to assume or execute their leadership roles. The result could be explained by the further observation that female teachers did have low self-esteem as far as leadership was concerned as indicated by majority of the respondents’. This finding agrees with Moorosi (2010) and Bubshait (2012) who found that all female principals in her study were indecisive about assuming leadership.

Most female teachers in leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya were thought of as not having the confidence to lead and this made them less authoritative. This is in contrast to Brinia (2012) who showed that women leaders, compared to men, were considered as having higher intelligence and being superior at decision making, harder-working, more determined, more confident, loyal, good at communication and ready to offer support. On the other hand, Feltham et al. (2017) state that men are considered strong, stubborn, aggressive, self-confident, independent, intelligent and job-loving, while females are seen as emotional, nurturing, considerate, humble, loving, indecisive and prone people.

Other findings indicate that gender-based discrimination hindered most female teachers from aspiring for leadership position in the schools. This finding agrees with Gatwiri and McLaren (2016) supports the view that women are often more negative than men in their roles. Consequently, they are viewed as being unprepared to handle negative comments, actually internalizing them and permitting their self-esteem to be unnecessarily damaged.

4.5.5 Women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County

Finally, the study sought to establish the status of women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. A five point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree was used to rate the responses. The findings are summarized in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10*Women participation in instructional leadership in Tharaka North Sub County*

| Statements (N = 57) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Mean | Std Dev. |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|-----------------|
| The female teachers /principals exercise flexibility in decision making | 12(16) | 30(38) | 12(16) | 13(17) | 10(13) | 3.18 | 0.748 |
| The female head teachers /principal display honesty in management of school resources | 14(18) | 42(54) | 19(22) | 2(3) | 2(3) | 3.84 | 0.824 |
| Leadership of female teachers is an encouragement to other female teachers and students | 12(16) | 44(57) | 15(19) | 4(5) | 2(3) | 3.81 | 0.752 |
| Female teachers are good in planning the teaching and learning activities | 12(16) | 39(50) | 20(26) | 3(4) | 3(4) | 3.88 | 0.629 |
| Women leadership has been successful as a result of being accepted by both male and female colleagues | 9(12) | 9(12) | 17(22) | 37(45) | 7(9) | 2.68 | 0.814 |
| Average | | | | | | 3.478 | |

The results in Table 4.10 indicate that most of the female teachers/principals exercise flexibility in decision making (mean = 3.18). Most respondents (mean = 3.84) agreed that the female head teachers /principal display honesty in management of school resources. Most were of the view that leadership of female teachers is an encouragement to other female teachers and students (mean = 3.81) and that female teachers are good in planning the teaching and learning activities (mean = 3.88). However, most disagreed that women leadership has been successful as a result of being accepted by both male and female colleagues (mean = 2.68).

The results indicate that most of the female teachers/principals exercise flexibility in decision making. This finding supports Malin and Ulrika (2010) who argued that female leaders use the style of transformative leadership more than males, as they converse well with their followers and involve them in decision making. This promotes a mutual relationship with their staff under them. The finding that most female head teachers

/principal display honesty in management of school resources, however, disagrees with Muriithi-Nyaga (2015) who revealed that boards of schools and other leaders perceived women as lying.

Most were of the view that leadership of female teachers is an encouragement to other female teachers and students. Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) assert that women are presumed to portray such behaviour that promotes positive change in schools (because they are role models and encourage other staff under them to rise to leadership positions when an opportunity shows up. Evidence shows that female leaders who deploy transformational leadership styles have a good relationship with the staff (Rosener, 1990) which helps them to be more effective in their leadership. The European Commission (2010) reported that mostly women in leadership lack females above them to emulate and inspire them to work towards occupying the same positions as their male counterparts. Females who obtain power are also found to be surrounded by males, making it hard for them to make their own decisions (Sperandio, 2011). Mulkeen (2006) reported that the number of females in school, whether as a normal teachers or heads of schools, is an important aspect in generating gender role models and mentors. Mulkeen (2006) added that lack of role models to learn from is one of the reasons why there are fewer girls than boys enrol in primary schools in Sub-Saharan Africa. Morley (2019) adds that females are more satisfied in the presence of female role models.

However, the finding that most respondents disagreed that women leadership has been successful as a result of being accepted by both male and female colleagues. Brooks et al. (2016) in their study, noted that men in management positions saw women as incapable of leading because of their public expectations. Catalyst (2012) concludes that women in leadership are abbreviated to be too soft or too heavy but not just good, as such, women in leadership are subjected to higher standards and less returns compared to their male counterparts and that women leaders are considered competent or likable, but lacks both. It is believed that when they are young, women are kept soft but men are expected to be tough (Al-Hussein, 2011). In assuming leadership roles, the society expects men to remain authoritative while at the same time expecting women leaders to be lax in social terms but to be tough in leadership management.

4.6 Inferential Statistical Analysis

Pearson's product moment correlation analyses is presented in this section. The degree of interdependence of the independent variables and also show the degree and strength of their association with the dependent variable separately is looked at as in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Summary of Correlations

| | | Academic Qualification | HRM Skills | Perceptions of Women in Leadership | Gender Roles | Instructional Leadership |
|--|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------|--|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| Academic Qualification | Pearson Correlation | 1 | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | |
| | N | 77 | | | | |
| HRM Skills | Pearson Correlation | 0.199 | 1 | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.069 | | | | |
| | N | 77 | 77 | | | |
| Perceptions of Women in Leadership | Pearson Correlation | -0.001 | 0.184 | 1 | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.994 | 0.094 | | | |
| | N | 77 | 77 | 77 | | |
| Gender Roles | Pearson Correlation | 0.033 | 0.133 | 0.419 | 1 | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.763 | 0.227 | 0.742 | | |
| | N | 77 | 77 | 77 | 77 | |
| Instructional Leadership | Pearson Correlation | 0.096 | .218* | .528** | .443** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.386 | 0.047 | 0.000 | 0.000 | |
| | N | 77 | 77 | 77 | 77 | 77 |

The first correlation carried out according to the matrix in Table 4.11 sought to assess whether there was a significant relationship between academic qualification and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. The results, however, show that the relationship between the variables was not significant ($r = 0.096$, $p > 0.05$). This finding disagrees with Dorsy (2012) who concluded in his

findings that the poor representation of women in leadership in other parts of the world was simply because women have generally low qualification than men. According to a study by Dezsö and Ross (2012) in Australia, that lack of superior academic qualification and sufficient training was the reason for non-appointment of women to leadership positions in schools. The administrative work of schools requires some advanced training, and therefore women who seek promotion must seek developmental and training opportunities. The problem of low levels of females' access to education and, hence, their poor progression to leadership positions has cultural roots (UNICEF, 2011; Ombago, 2014).

The second correlation carried out according to the matrix in Table 4.11 sought to assess whether there was a significant relationship between human resource management skills and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. The results suggest that the relationship between the variables was indeed significant ($r = 0.218$, $p \leq 0.05$). The findings support those of Bhalalusesa and Mboya (2003) whose study on both genders participation in educational management and leadership found that like their male counterparts, women who were already in senior managerial positions portrayed good managerial aptitudes demonstrated by high levels of motivation and commitment to their jobs, and worked extremely long hours. However, female school head needs to marshal all the support she can get from the staff in order to achieve organization effectiveness in the school (Siro, 2014). Akuamoah-Boateng et al. (2003) in a study on psychological hindrances to female leadership, motivation and gravity in Tanzania, concluded that female and male heads discouraged female teachers who would want to become leaders. They reported that female leaders did not support fellow hardworking females and did not like to see their friends flourishing.

The study also sought to establish through Table 4.11 whether there was a relationship between perceptions of women in leadership positions and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. The findings indicate that the relationship between the variables was indeed significant ($r = 0.528$, $p \leq 0.05$). This finding agrees with Catalyst (2007) who found that gender stereotyping is a key problem, as men are more than women because men dominate while male managers

regard females as poor in problem solving. These managers usually evaluate women leaders more harshly and overlook their interpersonal influence. The studies by Klaus and Mitchell (2015) and Justino (2016) underscore the fact that there was still uncertainty over women's role in leadership and this led to their discrimination in appointment to the roles, Brewster et al. (2016) found that the notion that women holding leadership positions had a higher level of job stress than that of men when working mainly in male-dominated schools. They also found that women receive may receive little or incentive to find leadership positions, while men are encouraged to enter or apply for leadership positions, despite the positive views of school principals on women's skills. This lack of motivation exists even though women receiving undergraduate or postgraduate degrees are more likely than men to aspire to a career in education, but are not employed at the same level

Finally, last correlation was carried out according to the matrix in Table 4.11 to assess whether there was a significant relationship between gender roles influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. It is evident that there was indeed a significant relationship between the two variables ($r = 0.443$, $p \leq 0.05$). the finding agrees with Elder et al. (2016) who concluded that negative stereotypes of women in leadership is very much felt in place and they are likely to affect their performance and self-related cognitions of with leadership aspirations within educational institutions. Benner et al. (2016) also found that in majority of the households, womenfolk are up to date mostly in charge of rearing children and homemaking.

4.5 Regression Analysis

Multivariate regression analysis was used to determine the multiple regression model hypothesized in chapter three held. The analysis was also meant to establish the extent to which each independent variable affected the dependent variable in such a collective set up and which were the more significant factors. The results are summarized in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12*Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Model Summary*

| R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| .712a | 0.507 | 0.482 | 2.449197 |

The regression analysis in Table 4.12 shows that the relationship between the dependent variable and all the independent variables pooled together had a model correlation coefficient = 0.712. The adjusted r-square ($R^2_{Adj} = 0.482$), further, indicates that the model could explain upto 48.2% variations in the participation of women in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County. It also suggests that the model could improve when more predictive variables were incorporated into the model. Sen and Srivastava (2011) state that the appropriateness of the multiple regression model as a whole can be tested using F test. Therefore, the study also performed an ANOVA on the independent and dependent variables and the results are summarized in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13*Summary of ANOVA*

| | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|------------|----------------|----|-------------|---------|-------------------|
| Regression | 189.856 | 4 | 47.464 | 7.91256 | .000 ^b |
| Residual | 443.894 | 74 | 5.999 | | |
| Total | 633.750 | 78 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: participation of women in instructional leadership positions

b. Predictors: (Constant), academic qualifications, HRM skills, perception of women in leadership, gender roles

The results in Table 4.13 indicate that there is a significant difference between means of variables predicting factors influencing women participation in leadership and the variable predicting employee participation of women in instructional leadership positions ($F_o = 7.91256 > F_c = 2.50$; $\alpha < 0.05$; $df = 4, 78$; $p = 0.000$). This finding confirms that the model predicted by Table 4.12 and shows it is indeed significant.

In order to determine which of the variables was more important when it came to participation of women in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County, the beta value was used. The results are given in Table 4.14 provides a summary of the multiple linear regression analysis correlation coefficients.

Table 4.14

Multiple linear regression results

| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-----------|-------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| (Constant) | 2.01 | 4.759 | | 0.422358 | 0.638 |
| Academic Qualifications | -0.063 | 0.108 | -0.055 | -0.583333 | 0.522 |
| HRM Skills | 0.175 | 0.103 | 0.161 | 1.699029 | 0.001 |
| Perceptions of Women in Leadership | 0.444 | 0.084 | 0.407 | 5.285714 | 0.000 |
| Gender Roles | 0.358 | 0.117 | 0.279 | 3.059829 | 0.000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Participation in Instructional Leadership

It can be deduced from the findings in Table 4.14 that the most factor in predicting participation of women in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County in the model as per the beta values was Perceptions of Women in Leadership ($\beta = 0.407$, $p < 0.05$). This was followed by Gender Roles ($\beta = 0.279$, $p < 0.05$) and HRM Skills ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < 0.05$) respectively. This indicates that the dependent variable, that is, the participation of women in instructional leadership in the area, would change by a corresponding number of standard deviations when the respective independent variables changed by one standard deviation. However, the Academic Qualification was found not to be significant in the model ($\beta = -0.055$, $p > 0.522$). The study therefore establishes that HRM skills, perception of women in leadership, gender roles were all factors affecting participation of women in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County.

These findings suggest that female teachers and leaders were still being significantly affected by gender issues in their participation in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County. The most significant of these was Perceptions of Women in Leadership ($\beta = 0.407$, $p < 0.05$). This finding reinforces the fact that women's leadership is challenged by ideology. Customarily, teaching has been considered to be in line with the role of women as wives and mothers. Management in contrast has been considered to be inconsistent with this responsibility (Dalton, 2017). So, in general while it is possible to accommodate one being a mother and also a teacher, when one moves to the management position, she is no longer considered as a good mother. According to Kagoda and Sperandio (2009), this implies that top positions are still expected to be dominated by males in African society.

The second most significant factor affecting female teachers' participation in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County was Gender Roles ($\beta = 0.279$, $p < 0.05$). This mainly arises from the gender stereotyping still prevalent in the community. According to Oakley (2015), females have been deemed to be mothers, people who are dependent and submissive, while on the other hand, males are seen to be strong, independent, breadwinners, decision makers in the family and executives. Early upbringing makes girls and boys perform and behave differently. Girls are feminine as boys are masculine (Otieno, 2001).

Human Resource Management Skills was also a significant factor affecting female teachers' participation in instructional leadership positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North Sub County ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < 0.05$). The observation that the beta value was significant but lower than of the other two variables can be explained by the Sperandio and Kagoda (2011) who found that majority of the teachers in leadership positions tended to retain the status quo when they ascend to the top as they perceive that it enables them to exercise more control while their subordinates on the other hand, prefer working in a collegial environment where they can conveniently articulate their views and even implement them. Other studies such as Drew (2010), Al-Zuhair and Allaithi (2010) and Al-Douri et al. (2010) also showed that, among other challenges the female faces in education institutions, is the skill to employment the lawful

and individual influence in the planned management, invention and facility to change, suppleness at work and allocating with others.

Finally, the finding that the Academic Qualification ($\beta = -0.055$, $p > 0.522$) was not a significant factor affecting female educators' contribution in instructional leadership positions in schools in Tharaka North could be explained by the fact that the employer, TSC, did not stipulate higher education qualifications such as postgraduate qualifications as a pre-requisite for appointment as school leaders. The findings, however, are in contrast to Dezsö and Ross (2012) whose study carried out in Australia concluded that lack of superior academic qualification and sufficient training was the reason for lack of appointment of women to headship posts in schools. The answers also fail to support those of Chabaya et al. (2009) who found that lack of educational qualifications influences the female teachers leadership prospects in the future.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the results from the data collection and the conclusions drawn from them. It also gives the recommendations for practice and policy and future directions for research in this area. The overall aim of the study was to examine the factors influencing participation of women in instructional leadership positions in Public Primary and Secondary Schools in Tharaka North Sub County, Kenya. In particular, the study sought to examine the influence of academic qualification, relationships with members of staff, perceptions of inadequacy and gender roles on women involvement in instructional leadership positions. The summary, conclusions and recommendations are made as per these objectives.

5.2 Summary of Findings

5.2.1 Academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership

The findings revealed that qualification requirements for instructional leadership were the same for both male and female teachers (mean = 3.51), implying that women were expected to compete and merit on equal footing with their male counterparts. The findings, however, suggest that the Ministry of Education did not necessarily require one to have a management degree to be a head teacher (mean = 2.92). Further, most of the respondents disagreed that there was as a structured career development process for one to become a head teacher in their schools (mean = 2.83). However, according to most respondents, acquisition of management skills through training enables one to qualify for leadership (mean = 3.49). In addition, most agreed that the Ministry of Education provides in-service training opportunities for leadership (mean = 3.84). Evidence from the interviews also corroborated the findings. However, findings from the correlation ($r = 0.096$, $p > 0.05$) and regression ($\beta = -0.055$, $p > 0.522$) outcome indicated there was no significant relationship between academic qualification and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

5.2.2 Human resource management skills and women participation in instructional leadership

Objective number two of the study was to investigate how human resource management skills influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. According to the findings majority of the female teachers were of the view that moving to administrative positions means that they will have to supervise their colleagues too and they were uncomfortable with that (mean = 3.77). Most indicated that they preferred having peer relationships with their colleagues rather than supervising them (mean = 3.7). Also, some cited that their leadership responsibilities had affected their once close relationships with some of their colleagues who have not yet been promoted (mean = 3.37). This was evidenced by the finding that most female teachers in leadership stated that some of their staff were not cooperative even though that they were now their leaders (mean = 3.38). The results also suggest that some female teachers are perceived as not supportive of their fellow female teachers in ascending to leadership (mean = 3.49). Views from the interviews were also in support of these results. The correlation ($r = 0.218$, $p \leq 0.05$) and regression ($\beta = 0.161$, $p < 0.05$) analysis revealed that human resource management skills had a significant relationship with women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

5.2.3 Perceptions of women in leadership on participation in instructional leadership

Objective three of the study was to determine how perceptions of women in leadership positions influence women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. The results revealed that many of trainers were in agreement with the statements relating to the perceptions of women in leadership positions influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in the area (mean = 3.58). Most ladies teachers in headship in schools in the area are perceived as lacking competency in leadership (mean = 3.62). Also, female teachers were perceived as not good in peace making and conflict avoidance (mean = 3.65). Further, female teachers are perceived as being unapproachable to both fellow staff and the students (mean = 3.68). It

was also evident that women had a difficult time projecting their authority in leadership positions (mean = 3.68). Most respondents also indicated that sometimes it was difficult to exercise authority over one's colleagues especially if one was female. The correlation ($r = 0.528, p \leq 0.05$) and regression ($\beta = 0.407, p < 0.05$) analysis further showed that perceptions of women in leadership positions had a significant relationship with women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

5.2.4 Gender roles on women participation in instructional leadership

The study's fourth objective was to examine how gender roles influences women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North in Kenya.

From the outcome it was apparent that most female teachers in leadership positions were thought of as not having the confidence to lead (mean = 3.22). However, most of the female teachers in the schools in the area did not aspire for management points. This was because majority of the female teachers are afraid of failing in leadership positions (mean = 3.51). The findings further revealed that female teachers did have low self-esteem as far as leadership was concerned (mean = 2.68). Other findings indicate that gender-based discrimination hindered most female teachers from aspiring for leadership position in the schools (mean = 3.75). The results of the last correlation analysis ($r = 0.443, p \leq 0.05$) and regression ($\beta = 0.279, p < 0.05$) carried out shows that there was a significant relationship between gender roles and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions as per the findings of the study:

Regarding academic qualifications, the study concludes that there was no significant relationship between academic qualification and women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. Qualification requirements for instructional leadership were the same for both male and female teachers and that the employer, Teachers' Service Commission had its set rules on qualification for employment and promotion.

In relation to human resource management skills, the study concludes that human resource management skills had a significant relationship with women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. Most of the female teachers were not quite prepared to assume administrative and instructional leadership roles notably because of their relationships with their colleagues.

Concerning perception of feminine educators in leadership roles, the study concludes that perceptions of women in leadership positions had a significant relationship with women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. Notably, most female teachers in leadership in schools in the area are perceived as lacking competency in leadership and also lacking competence in peace making and conflict avoidance.

In relation to gender roles, the study concludes that gender roles significantly influenced women participation in instructional leadership positions in Tharaka North Sub County in Kenya. This was because majority of the female teachers in the area were afraid of failing in leadership positions and, as such, did not aspire for leadership positions.

Overall, the study concludes that HRM skills, perception of women in leadership, gender roles were all factors affecting participation of women in instructional management positions in public primary and secondary schools in Tharaka North. However, academic experiences were found not a significant factor influencing the involvement of ladies in instructional management positions in public primary and secondary schools in the area.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Academic qualification on women participation in instructional leadership

There is need for the female teachers to take up training opportunities to upgrade their academic qualifications and skills and, therefore, enable them to be confident for position openings in leadership in the schools.

5.4.2 Human resource management skills and women participation in instructional leadership

Concerning human resource management skills, study recommends that the schools administration should introduce peer evaluation and supervision programs to enable the female teachers learn how to manage and even supervise their colleagues at work.

5.4.3 Perceptions of women in leadership on participation in instructional leadership

In relation to perception of females in control in the area, the research recommends that female leaders in the area need to form strong advocacy groups, and also develop mentorship programs that enable them to change perceptions on the mentalities of female leadership in the area.

5.4.4 Gender roles on women participation in instructional leadership

Finally, regarding gender roles, there is need for female teachers to begin taking up lesser roles in instructional leadership so as to improve their attitude and capabilities of handling other higher leadership responsibilities.

5.5 Future Studies

Further studies on gender in instructional leadership be undertaken in other regions in the country as a cross sectional survey to determine whether there were discrepancies in the contexts. There is also need for more studies in the preparation of female teachers for school leadership. There is also need to carry out a study on the relationship between female leaders and their male colleagues in the schools and how it affects their instructional leadership.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: A Letter to The Principals, Head Teachers and Teachers

Dear Respondent,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH STUDY

I am a Masters student at Kenya Methodist University conducting a research entitled **“Factors Influencing Participation of Women in Instructional Leadership Positions in Public Primary and Secondary Schools in Tharaka North Sub-County, Tharaka Nithi County, Kenya.** This research forms part of the requirement for my Master’s qualification. I would appreciate if you would kindly take a little of your time to complete a questionnaire that I will provide. Please note that the information will be treated with a high degree of confidentiality and will purely be used for the purpose of academics. Thank you in advance and God bless you.

Yours sincerely,

Charity Kathambi

APPENDIX II: Consent to Participate in the Study

Charity Kathambi

P.O. Box 1810, Meru

Date: _____

The School Head/Teacher _____
of School, P.O. Box _____

Dear Respondent,

I am writing to ask for your help me in actualizing my academic research that investigates *Factors Influencing Participation of Women in Instructional Leadership Positions in Public Primary and Secondary Schools in Tharaka North Sub-County, Tharaka Nithi County, Kenya*. I hope that the findings of the study will inform all relevant stakeholders about the *gender factors in instructional leadership in schools*.

There are two parts to the study: (i) a questionnaire – to be filled by the teachers and school head, and (ii) interview schedules to be done with the school heads. The questionnaire has two parts. In the first; I ask you to respond to questions about your background. The second part asks some general questions about the variables of the study. In total it takes between 5 and 7 minutes to complete the questionnaire. You are under no obligation to complete the questionnaire, or to answer all questions presented in it. If you come to a question which you don't wish to answer, simply skip it.

The second phase of the study involves the interviews with the school heads. Here, I will request only the school heads or female teacher in instructional leadership in their schools to participate. This phase is expected to take 15 minutes only.

I hope you will be willing to participate because your responses are important and a valued part of the study. Your participation will remain strictly confidential. Your name or that of your school will not be attached to any of the data you provide. You are welcome to discontinue participation in the study at any time, should you wish to do so. The risks of participation in the study are very low and of a social or reputational nature. Thank you for volunteering to participate in this research. Should you have questions regarding your participation, please contact me at Charity.Kathambi@gmail.com. This study has been considered from an ethical perspective by the KeMU postgraduate schools' ethics in research committee.

Yours faithfully,

Charity Kathambi

APPENDIX III: Questionnaire for Principals and Head Teachers

PART A

Demographic Characteristics (To all) please Tick one

1. Gender

(i) Male () (ii) Female ()

2. Age (in years)

(i) Below 35 () (ii) 35-45 () (iii) Above 45 ()

3. Level of education

(i) Certificate () (ii) Diploma () (iii) Degree () (iv) Masters () (v) PhD ()

4. Work status (Length of service in years)

(i) 5 years and below () (ii) 6 –20 years () (iii) 21 – 35 years () (iv) (iii) 35 years and above ()

PART B

In this section, state the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements in regard to various study variables using either a tick (√) or a star (χ) following the scale below

1. Academic Qualification

What is your opinion regarding the statements regarding the influence of female leaders/teachers academic qualifications and their participation in instructional leadership in the school? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate them according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|---|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | The qualification requirements for instructional leadership | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | are the same for both male and female teachers | | | | | |
| 2 | The ministry of education requires one to have a higher degree to be a head teacher | | | | | |
| 3 | Most female teachers do not have higher academic qualifications compared to men | | | | | |
| 4 | Acquisition of relevant academic qualifications enables one to qualify for leadership | | | | | |
| 5 | The ministry of education allows teachers to further their education | | | | | |

2. Human Resource Management Skills

What is your opinion regarding the statements the effect of human resource management skills on women's active participation in school management? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate them according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|-----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | Moving to administrative positions means that I will have to supervise my colleagues too and I'm uncomfortable with that | | | | | |
| 2 | The ministry of education requires one to have a management degree to be a head teacher | | | | | |
| 3 | Rising to instructional leadership requires one to have sound financial management skills | | | | | |
| 4 | Rising to instructional leadership requires one to have sound leadership skills | | | | | |
| 5 | Rising to instructional leadership requires one to have good interpersonal skills | | | | | |

3. Perceptions of Women in Leadership

What is your opinion regarding the statement that perceptions of women in leadership affect women's active participation in school leadership? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate the according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|---|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | Female teachers are thought of as not having the confidence to lead | | | | | |
| 2 | Female teachers in leadership are perceived as lacking competency in leadership | | | | | |
| 3 | Female teachers are perceived as being unapproachable to both fellow staff and the students | | | | | |
| 4 | Female teachers are perceived as not good in peace making and conflict avoidance | | | | | |
| 5 | Some female teachers are perceived as not supportive of their fellow female teachers in ascending to leadership | | | | | |

4. Gender Roles

What is your opinion regarding the statement that gender stereotyping affect women's active participation in school leadership? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate the according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|--|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | Women have a difficult time to project their authority in leadership positions | | | | | |
| 2 | Most of the female teachers in my school aspire for leadership positions | | | | | |
| 3 | Female teachers are afraid of failing in leadership | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | positions | | | | | |
| 4 | Female teachers have low self-esteem as far as leadership is concerned | | | | | |
| 5 | Gender-based discrimination hinders me from aspiring for a leadership position | | | | | |

5. Instructional Leadership

What is your opinion regarding the statement that family instructional leadership affect women's active participation in school management? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate them according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|---|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | The female teachers exercise flexibility in decision making | | | | | |
| 2 | The female teachers display honesty in management of school resources | | | | | |
| 3 | Leadership of female teachers is an encouragement to other female teachers and students | | | | | |
| 4 | Female teachers are good in planning the teaching and learning activities | | | | | |
| 5 | Women leadership has been successful as a result of being accepted by both male and female colleagues | | | | | |

THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSES

APPENDIX IV: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Instructions: Please fill in the appropriate answer in the space or tick (\surd) in the space provided

PART A

Demographic Characteristics (To all) please Tick one

1. Gender

(i) Male () (ii) Female ()

2. Age (in years)

(i) Below 35 () (ii) 35-45 () (iii) Above 45 ()

3. Level of education

(i) Certificate () (ii) Diploma () (iii) Degree () (iv) Masters () (v) PhD ()

4. Work status (Length of service in years)

(i) 5 years and below () (ii) 6 –20 years () (iii) 21 – 35 years () (iv) (iii) 35 years and above ()

PART B

In this section, state the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements in regard to various study variables using either a tick (\surd) or a star (χ) following the scale below

1. Academic Qualification

What is your opinion regarding the statements regarding the influence of female leaders/teachers academic qualifications and their participation in instructional leadership in the school? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate them according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|--|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | The qualification requirements for instructional leadership are the same for both male and female teachers | | | | | |
| 2 | The ministry of education requires one to have a higher degree to be a head teacher | | | | | |
| 3 | Most female teachers do not have higher academic qualifications compared to men | | | | | |
| 4 | Acquisition of relevant academic qualifications enables one to qualify for leadership | | | | | |
| 5 | The ministry of education allows teachers to further their education | | | | | |

2. Human Resource Management Skills

What is your opinion regarding the statements the effect of human resource management skills on women's active participation in school management? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate them according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|--|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | Moving to administrative positions means that I will have to supervise my colleagues too and I'm uncomfortable with that | | | | | |
| 2 | I prefer having peer relationships with my colleagues rather than supervising them | | | | | |
| 3 | Sometimes it is difficult to exercise authority over one's colleagues especially if you are female | | | | | |
| 4 | Some of my staff are not cooperative even though I'm now their leaders | | | | | |
| 5 | My leadership responsibilities has affected my once close | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | relationships with some of my colleagues who have not been promoted yet | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|--|--|

3. Perceptions of Women in Leadership

What is your opinion regarding the statement that perceptions of women in leadership affect women's active participation in school leadership? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate the according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|---|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | Female teachers are thought of as not having the confidence to lead | | | | | |
| 2 | Female teachers in leadership are perceived as lacking competency in leadership | | | | | |
| 3 | Female teachers are perceived as being unapproachable to both fellow staff and the students | | | | | |
| 4 | Female teachers are perceived as not good in peace making and conflict avoidance | | | | | |
| 5 | Some female teachers are perceived as not supportive of their fellow female teachers in ascending to leadership | | | | | |

4. Gender Roles

What is your opinion regarding the statement that gender stereotyping affect women's active participation in school leadership? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate the according to your opinion.

| S/n | Statement | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|-----|-----------|----|---|---|---|----|
|-----|-----------|----|---|---|---|----|

| | | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Women have a difficult time to project their authority in leadership positions | | | | | |
| 2 | Most of the female teachers in our school aspire for leadership positions | | | | | |
| 3 | Female teachers are afraid of failing in leadership positions | | | | | |
| 4 | Female teachers have low self-esteem as far as leadership is concerned | | | | | |
| 5 | Gender-based discrimination hinders me from aspiring for a leadership position | | | | | |

5. Instructional Leadership

What is your opinion regarding the statement that family instructional leadership affect women's active participation in school management? Below are some family responsibilities. Rate them according to your opinion.

SA- Strongly Agree, A- Agree, N-Neutral, D- Disagree, SD- Strongly Disagree

| S/n | Statement | SA 5 | A 4 | N 3 | D 2 | SD 1 |
|-----|---|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1 | The female teachers /principals exercise flexibility in decision making | | | | | |
| 2 | The female head teachers /principal display honesty in management of school resources | | | | | |
| 3 | Leadership of female teachers is an encouragement to other female teachers and students | | | | | |
| 4 | Female teachers are good in planning the teaching and learning activities | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 5 | Women leadership has been successful as a result of being accepted by both male and female colleagues | | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|

Your questionnaires are closed ended questionnaires only

THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSES

APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview Schedule for School Heads and the TSC Sub-County Education Officer

1. What are the minimum requirement for one to be a school head teacher both in primary and secondary school?
2. Are there in-service management training programs for teachers to enhance their leadership skills?
3. Does the ministry sponsor teachers for career development courses?
4. Do women apply for promotions in your school?

.....
.....

5. If no, why do you think they decline?

.....
.....

6. What is the difference between a male and a female school manager?

.....
.....

7. Do female teachers readily take administrative responsibilities when given by the teacher service commission (TSC)?

.....

8. If not, why do you think they decline?

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

9. Do you think it is appropriate to have women in decision making positions in schools?

Yes NO

10. Explain your answer in number nine above

.....
.....

11. Does TSC consider gender in allocation of administrative positions?

Yes NO

12. Give reasons for your answer

.....
.....

APPENDIX V: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION FROM KEMU



KENYA METHODIST UNIVERSITY

P. O. Box 267 Meru - 60200, Kenya
Tel: 254-064-30301/31229/30367/31171

Fax: 254-64-30162
Email: deanrd@kemu.ac.ke

DIRECTORATE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

June 17, 2021

Commission Secretary,
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovations,
P.O. Box 30623-00100,
NAIROBI.

Dear sir/ Madam,

CHARITY KATHAMBI KANAI (EDU-3-6676-3/2016)

This is to confirm that the above named is a bona fide student of Kenya Methodist University, Department of Education , undertaking a Degree of Master of Education and Leadership Management. She is conducting research on, 'Factors Influencing Participation of Women in Instructional Leadership Positions in Public Primary and Secondary Schools in Tharaka North Sub-County, Kenya'.

We confirm that her research proposal has been defended and approved by the University.

In this regard, we are requesting your office to issue a permit to enable her collect data for her research.

Any assistance accorded to her will be appreciated.

Thank you.


Dr. John Muchiri, PHD,
Director Postgraduate Studies

Cc: Dean SESS
COD, Education
Postgraduate Co-ordinator
Supervisors

APPENDIX VI: NACOSTI RESEARCH PERMIT


REPUBLIC OF KENYA


NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Date of Issue: 16/March/2022

Ref No: 158341

RESEARCH LICENSE



This is to Certify that Ms.. CHARITY KATHAMBI KANAI of Kenya Methodist University, has been licensed to conduct research in Tharaka-Nithi on the topic: FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN PUBLIC PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THARAKA NORTH SUB-COUNTY, KENYA for the period ending : 16/March/2023.

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NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
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E-mail: dg@nacosti.go.ke / registry@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke

APPENDIX VII: List of Primary and Secondary Schools Sampled for the Study

| Primary Schools | | | Secondary Schools | | | | |
|------------------------|------------------|---------------|--------------------------|---|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| | Name | Head teachers | Female Teachers | | Name | School Principals | Female Teachers |
| 1 | Iriani | 1 | 3 | 1 | Gaciongo Mixed | 1 | 2 |
| 2 | Kaguruini | 1 | 3 | 2 | Kathangacini secondary | 1 | 3 |
| 3 | Kirigichia | 1 | 3 | 3 | Kabuabua Girls | 1 | 3 |
| 4 | Mukothima | 1 | 3 | 4 | Ntoroni Mixed | 1 | 3 |
| 5 | Kabuabua | 1 | 3 | | Total | 4 | 11 |
| 6 | Gaciongo | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 7 | Kamachabi | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 8 | Muramba wa Mbogo | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 9 | Thiti | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 10 | Irundini | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 11 | Maaranthiu | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 12 | Ucweni | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 13 | Makomango | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 14 | Mauthini | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 15 | Kaiga ka Mbiti | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 16 | Ntoroni | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 17 | Twathanju | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 18 | Manduru | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| 19 | Marawa | 1 | 3 | | | | |
| | Total | 19 | 57 | | | | |