Women in School Leadership Positions: What Are the Constraining Variables in Kibwezi Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya?

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Abstract
This study sought to investigate factors influencing women access to school leadership and variables hindering their effective participation in school leadership. The study adopted the survey research design, guided by the reproduction labour theory. Stratified, purposive and simple random sampling was used to select a sample of 101 participants. The research instruments used to collect data were the questionnaires, interview schedules and document analysis. The research instruments were tested for content validity and reliability. The reliability test using a Cronbach alpha yielded a coefficient 0.7 considered to be appropriate for the study. Quantitative data from questionnaires were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences to generate descriptive statistics. Qualitative data from interview guidelines were analyzed using narrative and grounded theory and reported thematically.

The study established that there were multifarious and intertwined variables such as family responsibilities, socio-cultural factors, fear to transfer to other schools and lack of role models, which hindered women from participating in school leadership. It is therefore recommended that strict enforcement of gender policy, gender responsive recruitment practices, and creation of more girls’ and mixed schools to facilitate rapid girl-child access to quality education.

Keywords: School leadership, constraining variables, Kibwezi Sub-County, Kenya

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study
In both developed and developing countries, educationists and researchers have attempted to analyze the persistence of a gender discrepancy in education and particularly at higher education administrative levels through varied lenses and approaches (Acker, 2011; Ladson-Billings, 2009). Some researchers have examined this issue by using structural perspectives (Johnsrud & Heck, 1998), socio-cultural perspectives (Lee, 2001; Ramanan et al., 2006), or even multiple perspectives (Oplatka, 2006; Lam, 2009; Nguyen, 2013). Scholars such as Eagly and Wood (2011), Madsen (2008) and other prominent writers such as Oplatka (2006) who focus on women’s experiences in higher education have presented more reasonable insights on the gender inequality in administrative positions. As a result, researchers in all tiers of education agree generally that women who aspire to top management positions navigate paths full of ‘twists and turns’ (Gray,2011; Iverson,2011). It is against this backdrop that this paper was premised with the view to determine the main variables hindering women’s accent to school leadership positions in Kibwezi Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya.

1.2 State of Art Review
Literature is prolific which attempts to describe some of the critical impediments to women’s promotion to school leadership positions. Based on such array of literature, scholars have used numerous terms to describe ‘twists and turns’ as the barriers related to women’s development (Morley, 2013). During the reviews of literature, two terms are prominent; ‘Glass ceiling’ and ‘Labyrinth’. The most usually used term is the ‘glass ceiling’ (Glazer-Raymo, 2001). The glass ceiling seems to be a widespread phenomenon that explains why women, despite of their qualifications and abilities cannot progress to the top administrative positions of higher education administration worldwide (Umbach, 2006; Beck, 2008; Lam, 2009). Eagly and Carli (2007) used another key term ‘labyrinth’ to explain the circuitous paths that women have to navigate in order to achieve top positions in societies. They argued that many women are able to break the ceiling and make it to the top-level positions. Although the paths exist, but the barriers have become more invisible and more difficult to detect; thus, they named the path to achievement a labyrinth.

The foregoing notwithstanding, research studies indicate that women continue to aspire for leadership positions in education institutions worldwide to provide a gendered perspective on educational change and development (Blackwood & Brown,2011; Group, 2011). This is evidenced by the principle of equality of men and women which was first recognized in 1945 in the United Nations Charter, and subsequently in the Universal
believes have profound effects on leadership in that the type of behavior and character traits we expect from place, marriage and family argument a male's credentials yet these very attributes tend to hinder a woman career schools in this country the principals are women, but the power of the governing boards is predominantly in the hands of men. A major obstacle to women’s access to leadership positions in schools refers to the cultural and fear of cultural and social isolations. The culture of a society provides the framework within which its members must conform depending on their social class, race and sex.

Participation of women in educational administration, policy and decision-making as well as to narrow the gap school leadership are those related to gendered and socio-cultural values. Some African traditions precondition (Home, 1998). The other factor that has been consistently highlighted as hindering women from acceding to administrative positions hence taking many years in classroom, thirdly women are less likely to shift their working stations than men due to comfort in established relationships in current position, fourthly lack of career planning and career paths as few women had planned to enter administration men due to gender socialization and lastly due to lack of support networks. Married women with working husbands are less likely to take the first job that comes along, they accept low ranks in administration because their salaries are supplemented by their husbands, and they devalue the monetary benefits of promotion at the expense of chaos in their families.

A study carried out by the Maine department of education in USA (2004) as reported by Acker, (2011) shows that women delay entry into administration compared to men due to four factors which include: first, women waiting for long to be right in terms of family responsibilities as many choose family values ahead of career advancement, secondly is the tendency to be super prepared before applying for administrative positions hence taking many years in classroom, thirdly women are less likely to shift their working stations than men due to comfort in established relationships in current position, fourthly lack of career planning and career paths as few women had planned to enter administration men due to gender socialization and lastly due to lack of support networks. Married women with working husbands are less likely to take the first job that comes along, they accept low ranks in administration because their salaries are supplemented by their husbands, and they devalue the monetary benefits of promotion at the expense of chaos in their families.

For many years women perform a larger share of home related work that interferes with the access to high administrative ranks. A study by Lad (2000) on American women principals reported that marital status influenced their ability to carry out the responsibilities of the position of high school principals. Coleman (2002) notes that a major factor affecting the differences between male and female career experiences is family responsibilities. Celikten (2005) notes that in Turkey women are expected to be responsible for their families including remaining close to their children, the husband and the extended family, hence women don’t desire administrative positions that mean long working hours and difficult conditions while their husband’s resistance obviated any career advancement.

Traditionally women have assumed the primary family responsibility for the rearing of children, men received of such responsibilities have performed well in jobs requiring a near total commitment to the work place, marriage and family argument a male’s credentials yet these very attributes tend to hinder a woman career (Home, 1998). The other factor that has been consistently highlighted as hindering women from acceding to school leadership are those related to gendered and socio-cultural values. Some African traditions precondition women to believe that there are inferior to men through socialization. The cultural beliefs are the expectations that society holds for masculine and feminine behavior and which serve to limit what is and what is not considered to be appropriate roles and behavior for men and women (Allan, 2004). Lugg (2003) notes that this believes have profound effects on leadership in that the type of behavior and character traits we expect from leaders are associated with masculine norms. Hence, the established norms can result to women holding lower expectations for possible careers in administration. Many women fears becoming high school head teachers in fear of cultural and social isolations. The culture of a society provides the framework within which its members must conform depending on their social class, race and sex.

Kirk (2004) notes that in Pakistan women principals lack of power and most of the non-government schools in this country the principals are women, but the power of the governing boards is predominantly in the hands of men. A major obstacle to women’s access to leadership positions in schools refers to the cultural and
social structure that bifurcates the society into male and female arenas. Entrenched norms inscribed in the culture attributes certain tasks and spheres or responsibility of each gender, assuming that one must behave in accordance with the social expectations of one’s gender (Sidani, 2003). Women’s low participation in school leadership may be attributed to women’s own decision not to apply for promotion in Education for a variety of reasons such as lack of necessary aspirants, lack of awareness of the promotion system, lack of confidence that they will succeed, gender based socialization, fear of failure and lack of competitiveness (Caffey & Delamount, 2000)

Some African traditions precondition women to believe that there are inferior to men through socialization. The cultural beliefs are the expectations that society holds for masculine and feminine behaviour and which serve to limit what is and what is not considered to be appropriate roles and behaviour for men and women (Allan, 2004). Women are socialized to adapt family roles, have low esteem and low confidence in their abilities outside the domestic role. In turkey research showed that women do not apply to be head teachers even when qualified as male applicants because they have negative self-perceptions and lack of confidence in their qualification and experience (Zhuge, et.al.2011).

Lack of women role models and mentors in school leadership another recurring factor. Given the under representation of women in mixed schools there are few examples of women leaders readily available to provide models for success. Those in leadership positions may be breaking new ground and unable to offer the mentoring and encouragement to other women that may find it necessary to overcome their lack of self-confidence and self-esteem, other women in leadership positions may be so beset with problem created by resentful teachers both male and female who are unwilling to accept a woman “boss” that the example they provide does not encourage other women to undertake the same trial by ordeal (Sperandio, 2002).

The role of mentorship is perceived to give women opportunities to meet with other administrators to discuss issues so that they are able to utilize the experiences and expertise of their peers to develop as professionals as an ongoing discussion both through technological assistance and in person. Mentors can help women careers by giving their career direction, support, career aspiration and assisting with career chance. Oso & Omen (2008) noted the need for better support systems, the attention to monitoring, role models and networks for women is an explanation for the greater number of women preparing for these positions, mentorship and responsible internship placement assist women transition into school administration.

1.3. Statement to the problem
Research from developed and developing countries have demonstrated that women are constrained by multifarious and intertwined factors as they aspire to climb to higher school administrative positions (Wajcman,2013). These constraints have made few women in Africa and Kenya in particular to act in such positions as role model. The problem is aggravatd by absence and/or non-conformity to gender responsive deployment of teachers, poor mobilization of young women to understand their rights in education hence few educated women(Whyte et.al. 2011). Majority of women have low cadre jobs hence poor status thus cannot participate in school leadership. The low participation of women in leadership of secondary schools is a problem common to many developing countries raising issues of social justice and sustainable development. In Kibwezi sub-County, Makueni County, there is the problem of low representation of women in school leadership positions. This gravity of the problem moved the researchers to investigate factors influencing women participation in school leadership using a survey of Kibwezi Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya.

1.4. The Purpose and Objective of the study
The purpose of the study was to investigate the factors that influence women participation in school leadership in public secondary schools, in order to address the problem of under representation of women in positions of school leadership. The study had two objectives, namely, to identify factors that promote women’s participation in leadership and secondly determine factors that hinder women from participating in school leadership in Kibwezi Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya.

1.5. Theoretical Framework
The study was guided by the reproduction of labour theory as postulated by Tierney (1989). According to this theory, women who adhere to traditional roles in the family will anticipate a shorter and more discontinuous pattern of labour markets experience than men. They will have few incentives to invest in the work-related education and on the job training and this explains why women are concentrated in low cadre jobs that pay less and they have less career aspiration than their male counterparts. This theory tends to focus schools and training institutions as the one that maintain gender inequalities over time (Morris & Nott, 1991). They portray a gender based labour division as natural and train women for their traditional roles and fail to develop their capacities to few such patterns critically.

The theoretical framework was found relevant to this study since Women’s positions in leadership in
education can be attributed to their general subordination in society which has not changed despite many programmes already implemented to promote the employment of women as they do not lay emphasis on equality of sexes. That subordination comes in form of: employer’s discriminatory practices towards women, a different socialization of girls and boys with lower aspiration levels coupled with cultural beliefs, women’s limited access to social networks and support, low educational qualifications and personal perception. According to this theory schools, training institutions and employers will help liberate women only if critical gender policies are formulated. In the words of Lee (2001), education can at least provide a means for everyone to climb the social ladder by merit since education is a vital element in a meritocratic society and thus an essential means of upward mobility; it functions as a sorting mechanism distinguishing the more capable ones from less capable.

2.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research design
This study was conducted using a descriptive survey research design. The choice of this design was based on the fact that It is a type of design that allows the gathering of data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of the existing conditions, identifying the standards against which existing conditions can be compared (Orodho, 2017b).

2.2 Research Population and Sampling Procedures
The target population of the study included the head teachers, the deputy head teachers, and the heads of departments and one Sub-County staffing officer. The study randomly selected approximately 30% of the total targeted population. The strategy yielded size of 101 participants comprising of 20 headteachers, 20 deputy headteachers, 60 heads of departments and one Sub-County staffing officer in a manner which allowed for equal representation and generalizability of results (Cohen, 2012; Orodho, Nzabalirwa, Odundo, Waweru & Ndayambaje, 2016).

2.3 Research Instruments
The study used questionnaires, interview schedules, and document analysis in data collection. The decision to use of questionnaires offered considerable advantages in that they provide investigators with a relatively easy access to large body of data from diverse participants (Orodho, 2009). The study also utilized interview guidelines to collect in-depth data. Dwivedi (2006) and Orodho (2017) define interview as face to face interpersonal role situation in which one individual (interviewer) asks the other individual (respondent) questions designed to obtain answers relevant to the research problem. The study used the interview schedule for gathering data because it permits much greater depth than other methods of data collection. Secondary data generated through document analysis was used to compliment primary data from the field. Oso and Omen (2008) define document analysis as the critical examination of public or private recorded information related to the issue under investigation. This involved the examination of data from the Teachers Service Commission – Educational management information systems showing the number of head teachers, deputy head teachers and heads of department in secondary schools by gender in the district. This document helped the researchers to make a survey of the situation in the district as it is reported in the written materials.

The researchers pretested the research instruments to determine their validity and reliability before embarking on the actual study. Orodho, Nzabalirwa, Odundo, Waweru and Ndayambaje (2016) contend that validity of research instruments is the degree to which instruments measures what it is supposed to measure. Gaur and Gaur (2007), Kombo et.al. (2006) and Orodho (2009) define the content validity of research instruments as the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content. To test the content validity the instruments were given to two experts to evaluate the relevance of each item in the instrument in line with the objectives. The feedback from the experts enabled only the relevant items were included in the study. The study also tested the reliability of the research instruments. Orodho (2012) posits that reliability of research instruments concerns with the degree to which a particular measuring procedure gives similar results of a number of repeated trials. The study employed a test retest technique to test reliability of the instruments. The questionnaires were administered to the same pilot group twice after a given interval of two weeks and the results compared. The Cronbach’s coefficient alpha of 0.7 was established which implied that the research instruments were reliable as suggested by Cohen (2012) and therefore the researcher adopted them for this study.

2.4 Data Collection and Analysis
The researcher sought permit from the National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Further permission was sought from the sub-county education office in Kibwezi in order to ease and facilitate research within the district. The researcher then visited the selected schools, explained the purpose of the study and requested to carry out the research in the selected schools. A covering letter explaining the
The purpose of the study was attached to the research instruments. The quantitative research data were analyzed using descriptive statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows package version 20 as illustrated by (Orodho, Ampofo, Bizimana & Ndayambaje, 2016). Descriptive statistics according to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) as well as Orodho (2012) includes the statistical procedures that produce indices that summarize data and describes the sample in line with the objectives of the study. The qualitative data and information from the interviews was transcribed into written texts by merging the notes taken and the recording made during interviews into a single coherent description of the discussion. The data was then organized and examined for completeness. Data obtained from the open-ended questions and interviews was grouped under broad themes guided by the objectives of the study and then analyzed qualitatively.

3.0 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

3.1 Factors Influencing Women Participation in School Leadership

The study sought to establish the factors that influence women to participate in school leadership. The respondents were requested to indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements about factors that promote women participation in school leadership. The factors that were mentioned first in each category were analyzed and presented in Figure 1.

The results depicted in Figure 1 indicates that the requirement that prospective applicants should possess the required leadership skills was deemed the single most important factor in determining women’s promotion to school leadership positions. This factor was cited by slightly more one third, comprising 34.7% of the total participants. Such leadership skills include the choice of appropriate management styles as democratic and transactional leadership as well creation of a conducive working environment through team spirit and collaborative problem solving (Orodho, 2017). The interview findings by the head teachers revealed that factors that promote women participation in school leadership were professional competence and ability, possession of essential leadership skills, educational training and qualification.

This finding is consistent with a study by Celikten (2005) which established that in Turkey teachers were found to believe that women head teachers create a friendlier atmosphere by spending more time listening to their personal problems as well as not being an authoritarian as men. The findings are also supported by Morris (1999) who found out that in Trinidad and Tobago female principals had concern for harmonious staff relationships which they saw as crucial for the realization of their vision for their schools. Similarly, most of the female principals were found to have adopted collaborative style of management which stressed team work above individual efforts (Orodho, 2017b). The other factor mentioned by a large number of respondents was the requirement that female headteachers be restricted to single sex girls’ schools or become deputy headteachers in mixed schools. This factor was cited by slightly less than one third, comprising 31.0% of the total participants. Most of the head teachers interviewed preferred female deputy head teachers since they are more caring and can spend most of their time listening to teachers personally and they are not authoritarian as men. Most of the head
teachers interviewed stated that women leadership in mixed schools was not a factor that promoted women participation in school leadership.

The third factor was the government affirmative action to enforce the one third gender rule in all spheres of life engagements. This factor was mentioned by 15.5% of all respondents. The fourth and fifth factor cited by 13.7% and 5.02% were the requirement to have appropriate educational qualifications with supportive documents and lack of support mechanisms, respectively. The interview findings by the district staffing officer also stated that women were effective disciplinarians and that in some occurrences women get support from educational stakeholders and some politicians as not all of them follow the official criteria to be promoted. The findings don’t support a study by Gupton and Slick (1996) who established that there is need for better support systems to enable women to participate in educational leadership positions.

3.2 Factors That Hinder Women from Participating in School Leadership

The study sought to establish the factors that hinder women from participating effectively in school leadership. The respondents were required to indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements about factors that hinder women from participating in school leadership. The results are shown in Figure 2. Results in Figure 2 shows that 24.15% of all respondents asserted that women are too busy with family responsibilities and other related bottlenecks. This indicates that women find themselves torn between enormous demands of administration and societal expectation for women in terms of family responsibilities. Literature related to this aspect indicates that a major factor affecting the differences between male and female career experiences is family responsibilities. The findings are supported by Celikten (2005) who notes that in Turkey women are expected to be responsible for their families including remaining close to their children, the husband and the extended family, hence women don’t desire administrative positions that mean long working hours and difficult conditions. The constraint is exacerbated by the fact their husband’s resistance obviated any career advancement. There is little doubt that for many years women perform a larger share of home related work that interferes with the access to high administrative ranks. This finding echoes a study by Lad (2000) on American women principals which reported that marital status influenced their ability to carry out the responsibilities of the position of high school principals. Coleman (2002) notes that a major factor affecting the differences between male and female career experiences is family responsibilities.

Further, Figure 2 indicates that 19.9% of the respondents stated that social cultural values were critical hindrances to women participation in school leadership. This finding is in tandem with Acker (2011) noted that many women were apprehensive towards holding school leadership for fear of cultural and social isolations. The findings are supported by Aziz, Gladly and Curtis (2013) who concluded that the leadership positions belong to male members of the society and women should refrain from attempting to attain this kind of positions otherwise they are susceptible to various social sanctions. Some African traditions precondition women to believe that there are inferior to men through socialization (Njeru & Orodho, 2003). This finding also echoes the observations made by Allan (2004) that the cultural beliefs are the expectations that society holds for masculine
and feminine behavior and which serve to limit what is and what is not considered to be appropriate roles and behavior for men and women (Allan, 2004).

The third factor cited by 17.9% of respondents was the male dominance. The respondents stressed that male domination in senior positions, the appointment and selection process is another factor that has been cited as being a constraint to women’s appointments to school leadership positions. The interviewed female participants averred that this dimension of male chauvinism could be responsible for the creation of a situation that discouraged or actively deterred women from reaching the selection process as they seek recommendations and appraisals for their initial application.

The interviews indicated that the factor of male dominance was a critical barrier that prevented women from becoming leaders, with some participants indicated that men in Kenyan society are unwilling to see women in positions above their own (n = 15); and some participants stated that men do not support women (n = 9); and others said that the fact that women are responsible for housework and caring for children and are subject to family pressures are barriers to women’s leadership (n = 12) in some communities within the study locale.

Some examples of the participants’ responses are as follows:

“...in my view, the main barrier is men. Men don’t want to see women leaders in Kenyan society and this is why they do not support women as leaders.” (W 24).

“I think that housework and caring for children are substantial tasks that women are forced to spend too much time on; this is the main problem. Women have no time to assume roles in society.” (W 5)

“My answer is related to social factors. The patriarchal structure of our society is the main factor.

This finding regarding male dominance is in line with the sentiments by Hill & Ragland (1995) that dominance of key leadership positions is likely to lead to recruiting new head teachers who resemble their sponsors in attitude, philosophy, deed and appearance, hobbies club membership ( ). Studies in developing countries reveal a wide variety of discriminatory behaviour towards women in educational administration male teachers are preferred by authorities to hold educational positions in Turkey (Celikten, 2005). The fourth factor as cited by 14.2% of all participants was that some women fear of being transferred from their preferred schools. The interview results also confirmed that fear of transfer to other schools on promotion was a hindrance to women participating in school leadership.

Interviews with participants regarding male dominance were unequivocal that:

……even the legislators in the Parliament have neither ratified nor practices the constitutional one-third gender requirement presentation in governance or other social life. (W7). Responding to the question as about what they thought should be done to provide women with chances to become leaders in Kenya; they indicated that women should be supported (n = 12), and given equal status as women especially in educational leadership positions(W45):

The information carried in Figure 2 further reveals that 11.93 % of respondents stated that women lacked role models and mentors. The findings are supported by Tallerico and Burtyn (1996) who found out that women are few in educational administration positions due to lack of role models and mentors. The findings are in line with those of Sperandio (2002) who revealed that leadership positions may be breaking new ground and unable to offer the mentoring and encouragement to other women that may find it necessary to overcome their lack of self-confidence and self-esteem, other women in leadership positions may be so beset with problem created by resentful teachers both male and female who are unwilling to accept a woman “boss” that the example they provide does not encourage other women to undertake the same trial by ordeal. Finally, it was established that a small percentage of respondents, constituting 6.5% of all participants stated that low self-esteem amongst some female prospective applicants hindered their effective participation in school leadership. According to Sousa (2003) professional preparation and formation of school leaders is important in generating peak performances in their roles.

4.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Conclusions

The gist of this paper was to establish major variables that influence the promotion of women to school leadership and the factors that hinder women from effectively participating in school leadership. With regards to factors influencing promotion of women into school leadership, it can be concluded that these factors are multifarious and intertwined but include the possession of requisite essential leadership skills, the availability of single sex girls’ schools; The affirmative gender policy and the one third constitutional provision for gender representation; and appropriate educational and professional pre-service and in-service training amongst other factors.

Regarding the factors hindering effective participation of women in school leadership, it can be concluded that several factors such as family responsibilities, gendered socio-cultural values and practices, fear of transfer
from one school to the other on promotion, lack of role models and mentors and low self-esteem were some of the contributory factors. This paper, study established that family responsibilities, socio-cultural factors, in efficiency in education system and fear to transfer to other school as factors that hindered women from participating in school leaderships. The study concludes that social, cultural and educational factors are the main critical factors that tend to interfere with women participation in school leadership.

4.2 Recommendations
The following recommendations emerged from the research finding of this study.

1. With regards to factors influencing promotion of women into school leadership it is specifically recommended that:
   a) Prospective women school leaders should prepare for the positions in advance by acquiring requisite essential leadership skills through postgraduate education as well as short courses through bodies such as the Kenya Education Management institute (KEMI) and Kenya School Government.
   b) The Kenya Government should ensure the enforcement of the international conventions on affirmative gender policy and the national one third constitutional provision for gender representation. This will allow more qualified women to participate fully and be represented in school leadership positions.

2. Regarding the factors hindering effective participation of women in school leadership, it is recommended that:
   a) The appointment of women in school management positions should take cognizant of family responsibilities of women.
   b) There is an urgent need to make concerted advocacy to reduce and systematically eliminate the deeply rooted gendered retrogressive socio-cultural values and practices that inhibit effective participation of women in school leadership and management.
   c) Prospective women school leaders should be accorded appropriate support mechanisms to enable them overcome the fear of transfer from one school to the other on promotion.
   d) There should be appropriate strategies of ensuring successful women leaders to act as role models and mentors to encourage prospective and/or those in various school leadership positions to ascent to higher positions in their areas of jurisdiction. This strategy should also increase the levels of self-esteem which was observed to be at its lowest ebb.
   e) There should be concerted efforts amongst various line ministries, education stakeholders, Non-governmental organizations and philanthropists to dismantle the various socio-cultural factors that could be bottlenecks to efficient participation of women in school leadership at various levels of educational governance.

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