

**FEMALE HEADS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN FOSTERING
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN KIBAHA DISTRICT**

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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION IN
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CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certifies that she has read and hereby recommends for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania a dissertation titled: **“Female Heads of Secondary Schools in Fostering Instructional Leadership in Kibaha District”**, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education Administration, Planning and Policy Studies (MED - APPS) of the Open University of Tanzania.

.....

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.....

Date

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DECLARATION

I, **Georges Mchayano Ngonyani**, do hereby declare that this dissertation is my own original work and that it has not been presented for a similar or any other award to any other university.

.....

Signature

.....

Date.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my lovely wife Clara Georges and my children Honesty and Tumaini Rose for their encouragement and readiness to miss my affections during my studies.

I dedicate this work to the Almighty God for having healed my mother, Pudensiana Sungura, who was severely sick during my research time and hence delayed my completion. I had to take care of her in the absence of my late father Josephat Mchayano Ngonyani who passed away in 2005. May the Almighty rest him in peace, Amen.

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ABSTRACT

This study employed qualitative and quantitative research approaches to examine the effectiveness of female heads of secondary schools in Kibaha District. The study determined common leadership practices employed by female heads of secondary schools, assessed the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership and identified challenges that female heads of schools face when executing instructional leadership roles in secondary schools. The sample size for the study included 60 male and female secondary school teachers served more than three years. Also, it included 24 students who were organized into four Focus Group Discussions. Lastly, four female heads of public secondary schools, two school inspectors and one District Secondary Education Officer participated as key informants. Data were collected through questionnaire, key informant interviews, Focus Group Discussions and Documentary review. Regarding the common leadership practices employed by female heads of schools, the study found that women communicated politely and positively, preferred working in teams and were role models to teachers and students. Also, they were democratic, and good in monitoring planned strategies and motivating teachers and students to engage heartily in instructional activities. On the perceptions of teachers and students, 90% held positive view and appreciated the ability of female heads of schools in fostering instructional leadership. However, their major challenge was social - cultural values which regard women incapable for leadership. Hence, the study called for the society to deal with cultural values barring women from utilizing their leadership talents to improve instructional performance in secondary schools.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

CSEE	Certificate of Secondary Education Examination
DSEO	District Secondary Education Officer
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FHoS	Female Heads of Schools
GIS	Geographic Information System
GoT	Government of Tanzania
HoS	Head of School
KDC	Kibaha District Council
KII	Key Informant Interview
KTC	Kibaha Town Council
MHoS	Male Head of School
NBS	National Bureau of Standards
NSGD	National Strategy for Gender Development
OUT	The Open University of Tanzania
PTA	Parents Teachers Association
SI	School Inspector
SMT	School Management Team
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
SS	Secondary School
TETPO	Tanzania Education and Training Policy
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
WGDP	Women and Gender Development Policy

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 Introduction

Despite efforts made to empower women in leadership at all levels, they are still underrepresented in government organizations including in secondary school management (WDGP, 2000). For example, despite the large number of female teachers in secondary schools few females are the heads of schools (Lusekelo, 2009). According to Maseko (2013), socio-cultural values under the umbrella of a patriarchal system lead to biased or negative perception against women's ability to lead secondary schools.

Since the Beijing Platform for Action of 1995 Tanzania has been taking different steps to empower women in leadership (URT, 2000). The interview with KTC Senior school inspector revealed that among the steps taken to empower women in leadership was to set Coast Region, specifically Kibaha District, as a Women Leadership Practice Centre. Thus, many government departments are headed by females. Similarly, according to the DSEO, KTC has thirteen public secondary schools; of them, six are headed by female heads of schools.

This chapter introduces readers to the problem under study; it constitutes background and statement of the problem, research questions and objectives of the study. It also covers the significance, delimitation and the limitations of the study.

1.2 Background Information to the Study

According to Langdon (2001) before the 20th century women were viewed as incapable of higher learning, hence women did not get educational opportunities.

Even during this time, female attended women's colleges studying the female related skills like the art of home making and the profession of teaching (*ibid*).

Smulyan (2004) in support of Langdon (2001) commented that in early 1800, in America, teaching was predominantly female profession since women were regarded as caregivers and natural teachers for children. In the middle of the 19th century common schools were established in order to improve literacy for both men and women. During the civil war, as men joined the military, approximately one fourth of the educated females became American school teachers and their roles expanded from home into the workforce (*ibid*).

The concept of instructional leadership came into educational literature in the 1970s and 1980s because of increasing demands that schools be held accountable for student performance (Hallinger, 2005). However, although some construe instructional leadership as synonymous with classroom observations, the most held view of this concept is that of broader personnel practices that include classroom teaching, school improvement and resource allocation (Robinson, 2007).

Smulyan (2004) noted that teaching was an acceptable profession to females because it was an extension of working with their own children in their homes. Therefore females began to dominate the elementary and secondary teaching positions due to accepted social norms. However, leadership positions in schools belonged to males. Women who struggled to become principals faced challenges created by social norms and attitudes (*ibid*).

Many studies on females in positions that are male-dominated indicated that there was a need for them to be better qualified than the males with whom they competed

for. For example, Allen (1995) and Lindsay (1999) revealed that in America, women who desired to become administrators found that their institutions and districts did not recruit them for training programs in the administration field hence making it harder to break into the school administration system.

Additionally, Schein, (1994) and Manwa, (2002) portrayed that leadership was perceived as a masculine construct based on masculine values, thus relating to Dorsey, (1989) and Gordon, (1996) who revealed that, in Zimbabwe, men dominated leadership positions while women played a subservient role in most areas in schools. The impact is that peoples' perceptions have been attuned to associate leadership with males (Manwa, 2002; Pounder and Coleman, 2002; Gordon, 1994).

A study by Wesson (1998) found that in many schools, leadership positions were taken by men due to negative people's perceptions that women were weak to perform school leadership roles. This implies that gender stereotype is a hindrance to women to assume leadership roles. Wesson (1998) further contends that, some women are compelled to behave like men to be considered as able to lead.

In Tanzania, Secondary education produces middle level workforce for the development of the economy and also provides a crop for higher education (URT, 1995). The major roles of HoS is to monitor curriculum and instruction, physical facilities, school management, pupils, staff personnel and school community relationships (Galabawa 2001 and URT, 1997). Also, Paisey, (1985) noted that HoS are made accountable in providing the means of achieving curriculum objectives as specified in the school syllabi, and manage the limited resources available for the benefit of a pupil.

In various studies regarding school leadership, nothing has been stated about the roles of the head of school to base on the sex of the teacher. Despite the policy directives; evidence reveals that a gender gap and lack of equity in secondary schools' leadership are still in place. This situation indicates that patriarchy system continues to punish women by regarding them as being too weak to perform school leadership roles. Those who step into the position fall into despair as they are challenged and frustrated by men (Wesson, 1998). The situation is a threat for the growth of schools and brings about poor quality education. Basing on these experiences, it is obvious that, female head of school's leadership in secondary schools in Tanzania is quite difficult. Thus, it is high time to examine the roles of female heads of schools in fostering instructional leadership in Kibaha district, Tanzania.

1.3 Statement of the Research Problem

Several studies that have looked into gender in school' leadership have brought to view the situation of women in leadership. For a long time, despite a large number of female teachers compared to that of males, leadership in schools has been dominated by males leading to limited opportunity to women to occupy leadership positions (Nzeli, 2013). This might be because of patriarchal system of most of traditions in Tanzania. Also, Wesson (1998) and Morrison (1992) commented that females do not access leadership position due to lack of the true mentor. According to WGDP (2000) in Tanzania, currently there are struggles to bring about gender equality in leadership by equipping women to possess leadership positions at least by 30% of leadership positions – let alone the target for 50% frequently discussed by women activists (URT, 2000). Despite this strategy, people are still less trustful of women.

Thus females are still few in the school headship positions, and those who are there have to prove that they are able. Therefore, the study seeks to fill the gap in the literature by bringing to view the common leadership practices that female leaders in secondary schools employ in enhancing their leadership roles; the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools; and the challenges that female heads of schools face as they negotiate their leadership roles in secondary schools.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General Objective

The purpose of this study was to examine the roles of female heads of secondary schools in fostering instructional leadership in Kibaha District in Tanzania. The need was to assess whether FHoSs and Males Heads of Schools MHoSs perform similar roles in supervising teaching and learning processes in schools.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study was guided by three specific objectives:

- (i) To determine the common leadership practices employed by female heads of Secondary schools in fostering instructional leadership in schools.
- (ii) To assess the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools.
- (iii) To identify the challenges that female heads of Secondary schools face when negotiating their leadership roles in secondary schools.

1.4 Research Questions

This study was guided by three research questions as a basis for collecting information:

- (i) What were the common leadership practices employed by female heads of secondary schools in enhancing instructional leadership in schools?
- (ii) What were the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools?
- (iii) What were the challenges that female heads of schools face as they negotiated their leadership roles in secondary schools?

1.5 Significance of the Research

The ideas and findings of this study will contribute to knowledge on instructional leadership to heads of schools and increase academic performance in schools. The study will also have other significance, such as: it will identify differences in leadership practices as employed by female and male heads of schools. It will also give light to the appointing authorities on whether sex of a person should be a determining factor when appointing heads of secondary schools in Tanzania. By identifying the challenges that FHoSs face when negotiating their roles, it will lay the basis for further research on their effectiveness in instructional leadership in secondary schools.

1.6 The Scope of the Study

The study focused on instructional leadership in six public secondary schools headed by females in Kibaha district. It did not focus on non-instructional matters

undertaken by heads of schools in their respective schools. Also, the study confined itself to both qualitative and quantitative data collection approach and did not seek to generalize the findings but only to focus on the research objectives.

1.6.1 Limitations of the Study

The researcher encountered three major limitations. First, during data collection in one of the selected schools, there was a death of a teacher's relative and it interfered with the process of data collection. Second, school heads' meetings interrupted the date and time set for the interviews. Third, a tight schedule of the DSEO who was to supervise the construction of science laboratories in SS delayed data collection from this office. To solve the problems the researcher had to extend the period of data collection.

1.7 Operational Definition of Key Terms

1.8.1 Female Head of School

In the context of this study referred to a woman who is in charge of instructional supervision in a school.

1.8.2 Instructional Leadership

In the context of this study referred to a close supervision of teaching and learning activities in the whole course of implementing curriculum.

1.8.3 Quality Education

In the context of this study, it is expressed in terms of the outcome of teaching-learning activities. It is revealed by good students' performance in examinations and upon completion of school they fit in the world of work.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The review of literature examined leadership practices used in school settings to foster instruction, assess students and teachers perceptions on the effectiveness of FHoS and identifying the challenges FHoS face when negotiating their roles as instructional leaders in secondary schools.

2.2 Concepts of Leadership and Educational Leadership

The term leadership is often interchangeable with terms management and administration. These terms are used every day in school settings. However, the terms differ in some ways. In this study, the term leadership will operate and where management or administration is mentioned, they will mean leadership. Developing leadership skills can enable heads of schools (HoS) to function comfortably and effectively. Some scholars (Akao, 2008; Bush, 2003; Earley & Weindling, 2004; Yukl, 2006) look at the concept of leadership as a subjective term. For instance, According to Bush (2003) Leadership is a process of influencing; based on personal and professional values while Early and Weindling (2004) stated that: Leadership tends to be more formative, proactive and problem solving, dealing with such things as values, vision and mission. The U.S. Army (1983) identified four factors of leadership: The first one is personal honesty and the ability to inspire followers. The second is that a leader has to understand the human nature, needs, emotions and motivations of his/her people. The third is communication, which works as power in the organization because it can harm or build relationship between the leaders and the followers or among the followers. The last factor is the situation where leaders'

actions depend on the situation – this means that actions taken in one situation may sometimes not work in another (*ibid*). Also, according to Northouse (2007) leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

For the purpose of this study, the concept of educational leadership, here referred to as instructional leadership, together with gender is important especially at this time where there is pressure for students' achievement in Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSEE). Therefore, Cadwell (2006) defines educational leadership as a process for establishing direction, aligning people, motivating and inspiring, and achieving change. In this process, team members are influenced to work towards school aims and objectives (*ibid*). Educational leaders carry out leadership process by applying knowledge and skills (Jago, 1982).

2.3 Theoretical Literature Review

There are different theories which try to understand and explain leadership. For the purpose of this research, four leadership theories which are trait, behavioural, contingency and the Big Man theories will be explained:

2.3.1 Trait Theory of Leadership

Trait theories of leadership identify the specific personality traits that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. These theories regard leadership as being innate, rather than developed through learning (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). It further assumes that leaders are born with leadership traits; so only the “great people” such as Indira Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, Napoleon Bonaparte and Catherine the Great could become leaders (*ibid*). The theory is also known as Great-Man theory.

Different scholars have researched leadership traits and characteristics and came out with different traits which are important in the leadership process. For example, Stogdill (1974) identified ten traits that he thought were important for an individual to become an effective leader. These traits are achievement, persistence, insight, initiative and self-confidence. Others are responsibility, cooperativeness, tolerance, influence and sociability. Also, while Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986) found intelligence, masculinity and dominance as traits for leadership, KirkPatrick and Locke (1991) identified drive, motivation, integrity, confidence, cognitive ability and task knowledge. Other scholars Bader, Zaccaro and Kemp (2004) revealed eleven traits which are cognitive ability, extroversion which is about being sociable and positive energy, conscientiousness which means being organized, controlled and decisive. Others are emotional stability, openness, agreeableness and motivation. Moreover, social intelligence, self-monitoring, emotional intelligence and problem-solving are also among the traits of leadership.

The strength of this theory is that it provides the benchmarks for the requirements of a leader. The theory also offers information about one's strength and weakness and what to do in order to improve one's leadership effectiveness. It also makes leaders able to identify areas of their traits beneficial to the organization.

The main challenges of this theory are its failure to account for situations as leadership traits in one situation may fail to work in another situation. It also fails to address how leadership traits affect group members and their work. Moreover, it fails to delimit the list of leadership traits. On top of that, it excludes women as individuals who can possess leadership traits. Hence, it is not useful for training and

development for leadership – this means that it is difficult to teach new traits because it assumes that traits are inborn and largely fixed psychological structures such as IQ. Despite its weaknesses, trait theory will be used in this study to understand the leadership practices employed by FHoS and the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools and explain the reasons for the challenges that FHoS face as they negotiate their leadership roles.

2.3.2 Behavioural Theory

Behavioural theory emerged following the inconclusiveness of the trait theory because it was difficult to measure traits such as honesty, integrity and loyalty. According to this theory, behaviour are observable actions and reactions of leaders and followers in given situations and they can be measured scientifically. Thus, behavioural theory is the opposite of trait theory. The theory assumes that leaders are made, not born. Behaviourists believe that one can learn to become a leader. The theory deals with leaders' actions rather than on their qualities. According to Likert (1961), leaders fall into different behaviour categories: the first one is task-oriented behaviour. Leaders with this behaviour spend time planning, coordinating and overseeing subordinates' execution of tasks. The second is relationship oriented behaviour where leaders concentrate on task, results and developing relationship with subordinates. These leaders are supportive and do focus on internal and external rewards. The third is participative behaviour where leaders with this behaviour facilitate rather than directing, deal with team building and do focus on results rather than individuals (*ibid*).

Also, McGregor (1960) established that leadership strategies are influenced by a leader's assumptions about human nature. So he developed McGregor's Theory X

and theory Y of leaders. Theory X assumes that workers are indolent, work as little as possible, lack ambition, dislike responsibility and prefer to be led. They are also resistant to change and are in different to the needs of the organization. It also stipulates that the role of a leader in the organization is to make workers fulfill their responsibilities through persuading, rewarding, punishing and controlling the activities of all workers. So, leaders have to employ all means in order to make workers fulfill their duties in the organization (*ibid*). On the other hand, theory Y stipulates that human beings view work as natural as rest or play. An individual exercises self-direction and control in serving organizational tasks assigned to him/her if they are committed to the organizational objectives. Depending on the type of motivation, a person may accept or seek responsibility, and is willing to participate creatively in order to meet organizational goals. The theory assumes that workers exercise self direction and control in realization and delegation, job enlargement, participation and consultative management, and management by objectives (*ibid*).

Behavioral theory was used to understand the way FHoS persuaded, rewarded, punished, involved and controlled teachers and students instructional activities in schools hence establishing common leadership practices of FHoS.

2.3.3 Contingency Theory

In order to understand the performance of the leader, it is essential to understand the situations in which the leader leads. Fieldler & Chemers (1974) refer to contingency theory as *a leader-match* theory in that it tries to match leaders to appropriate situations. This means that, under contingency theory, the leader's effectiveness

depends on how well the leader's style fits the context. Therefore, contingency is concerned with styles and situations (*ibid*). Situations can be characterized into three factors: The first is known as leader-member relations. This consists of the group atmosphere, confidence, degree, loyalty and followers' attraction to their leader. Thus, in a positive group atmosphere, the subordinates trust, like and accept their leader, but if it is unfriendly, conflicts exist and the relationship becomes poor (*ibid*). The second is called task structure, which refers to the extent to which the requirements of a task are clearly spelled out. A task is structured when the performers know the task and the path to accomplish it has few alternatives (*ibid*). Also, the completion of the task can be demonstrated and lastly the task should have limited number of solutions. Completely structured tasks give more control and influence to the leader as they allow him/her to determine how effectively the work has been done (*ibid*). The third factor is position power; this refers to the authority and legitimate power of the leader regarding punishing and rewarding the subordinates. The leader's power and authority is great when the leader can hire, promote and fire employees. Therefore favourable situations are those which have leader-follower relations, defined tasks and strong leader position power (*ibid*).

Fieldler (1995) noted two styles which leaders could use as per situations. While participative leadership invites subordinates to share in the decision making by the leader consulting, seeking and integrating their suggestions in the decisions, achievement-oriented leadership allows the leader to challenge their subordinates to perform work at highest level by establishing high standards of excellence for subordinates (*ibid*). The leader always seeks continuous improvements and shows confidence that the subordinates are capable of accomplishing tasks. Moreover,

House and Mitchell (1974) viewed that leaders should adapt styles to the motivational needs of the subordinates. Different situations may call for different types of leadership behaviour. It is also proper for a leader to use more than one style at a time.

Based on this theory, leaders' actions may vary depending on the work situations. Hence leader's decisions to employ autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire styles depend on the situation. In this study, contingency theory was used to understand common leadership practices employed by FHoS in enhancing instructional supervision in SS. In addition it was used to understand teachers and students' perceptions on FHoS and the challenges they face when supervising instruction in SS.

2.3.4 The Big Man Leadership Theory

Big Man leadership is defined as a person who has status through wealth and an attitude of care towards his own people (Cawthon, 1996). As a result of their generosity they gain respect and status, thus having power and influence over others (*ibid*). It is argued that the big man leadership is associated with the masculinity, strength power and wealth thus these leaders are required to be men (Glanz, 2006). For a big man leader to be able to gain his title and dignity he has to prove it by his strength, capabilities of leadership, knowledge in culture, his wealth and achievements (*ibid*). Hence, a big man leader gains his title for who he is and his achievements. This theory was used to understand the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of FHoS. It also assessed the challenges facing FHoS when executing leadership roles in SS.

2.4 Women in Educational Leadership

According to Celikten (2005), currently there is an increase of women in the teaching field but few hold leadership positions in schools. This is because of societal stereotypes about men leading better than women (Grove & Montgomery, 2000). Although this may be a reality in some individual cases, women are as important to leadership as men. Hence, the study explored several leadership practices that women employ in executing their duties as leaders in SS.

2.5 Effective Leadership Practices

For schools to become successful and attain high instructional performance, they need effective leaders known as HoS whose roles are to set the direction of the school in creating a positive workplace for teachers and a positive learning environment for students (Davis, Hammond, LaPointe & Meyerson, 2005). Effective school leadership require HoS to be more prepared, informed, accountable and flexible to adapt to the changes in education (Bandiho, 2009). Johnson (2009) stresses it by stating that HoS have to pastor the wellbeing of staff and students, and ensuring that effective teaching and learning are accomplished at school.

2.6 Common Leadership Practices of Female Heads in Instructional Leaderships

2.5.1 Communication

Communication is the lifeblood of an organization. Dance (1970) defines communication as the process by which people seek to share meaning via the transmission of symbolic messages. Additionally, Newstrom & Davis (1997) see communication as means of reaching others by transmitting ideas, feelings, facts,

thoughts and values while Koontz and Wehrich (1988) define it as the transfer of information from the sender to the receiver, with the information being understood by the receiver. Hence, effective organizational communication has to be timely and observe clarity, adequacy, and integrity criteria. Communication can flow downward from the superior to the subordinate, upward from the subordinates to the superior or horizontally among persons of the same level (*ibid*). Vogt and Murrell (1990) stress the importance of communication skills to school leadership by arguing that the most important ingredient to successful school leadership is a flow of information to and from administrators and other management employees. Open communication influences good school - community relationship and contributes to positive organizational change (*ibid*). It also influences the school's relationship with the community. When looking at women in schools' communication, Blackmore (2002) found that women communicate better with educators than men because they used a "softer" approach and were close to what was happening with the educators in their classes. Yet, Weiner (1995) observed that female leadership characteristics such as, good communication are ideally part of human leadership behaviour.

2.6.1 Team building

In an organization, teams enhance performance, increase employee benefits and reduce costs. According to Katzenbach and Smith (1993), a team is a small number of people with complementary skills committed to a common purpose, goal performance, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable. In the organization, a team differs with a group in the sense that a team is a group with common goal (*ibid*). A team is important because some goals need team work to be achieved effectively. Thus, teamwork is a spirit which pulls together the efforts for

the success of the whole and it requires collective orientation. The success or failure of a team is shared among team members. Team leadership allows for a collaborative effort which is vital for effective leadership in educational institutions (Obanya, 2002). Collaborative effort gives administrators, educators and other stakeholders the opportunity to deal with complex educational issues as a group. While HoS has responsibility and authority to lead the school through teams, other school leaders participate in setting policies and translating them into strategies (*ibid*). Team management approach has multiple strengths: Some of them delineated by Dimmock (1999) are permitting members to expand their horizons by participating fully in schools' decision - making process, enhancing teachers' professional development and creating a feeling of ownership and a high level of commitment to school decisions and plans.

2.6.2 Decision Making

Recognizing the need to make a decision is a natural prerequisite to making a sound decision. Decision making, according to Shull *etal* (1980) is a conscious human process involving both individual and social phenomenon based upon factual and value premises which concludes with a choice of one behavioural activity from among one or more alternatives with the intention of moving toward some desired state of affairs. Additionally, Lopez (1995) sees a decision as a judgment, a final resolution of a conflict of needs, means or goals; and a commitment to action made in face of uncertainty, complexity, and even irrationality. Generally, decision making is goal-directed, and an act of projecting one's own mind upon a course of action. It means the presence of many alternatives, but the most desirable one is chosen to solve the problem or to arrive at expected result (*ibid*).

At school level, the HoS head of school is responsible for making decisions because proper decisions leads to effective instructional performance. The school head compares and evaluates various alternatives as to how they contribute to students' learning. Heads of Schools as decision makers, as Prasad (2006) puts it, have to choose best alternative based on experience, experimentation and research and analysis, and then implement it. Implementation of a decision requires communication to subordinates by getting their acceptance and support. It should also be implemented at an appropriate time for better results (*ibid*).

2.6.3 Role model /Leading by example

According to Davis (2005) a role model leader is the one who leads by showing examples. Leading by example promotes teaching and learning because it serves to improve learners' and teachers' behaviour and demonstrate high standard. For example, if there is alienation between the teachers and the learners and the teachers are negative, the quickest and best way to improve this situation is for the HoS to model professional behaviour by showing how he/she expects teachers to behave with children (*ibid*). In contemporary educational arena, HoSs are required to not only create conducive working environment for teachers but also engage whole heartedly practising classroom instructional activities. Modelling is acknowledged to be one of the most powerful means for transmitting values, attitudes, and behaviours. A social learning perspective (Bandura, 1977) suggests that leaders influence their followers by way of modelling processes in that employees learn what to and not to do, by observing their leaders' behaviour and its consequences. According to Kohlberg (1969) most people think at the "conventional" level of cognitive development. This means that individuals look outside to the significant others in

their environment for guidance when determining the right thing to do. Supervisors should be the source of guidance to subordinates since they watch appropriate or inappropriate behaviour from them. Also, House (1977), Bass (1985), and Kouzes and Posner (1995) referred to role modelling as essential leaders' behaviour. Similarly, charismatic or transformational leaders partly influence their followers through modelling process (Avolio, 1999). However, the biggest challenge in leading by example is behaving consistently. In this case, HoS has to be true to his/her values all the time. As Davis (2005) puts it; that creation of practice model tends to become difficult when the supervisor does not believe and engage heartily on it. So, HoS needs to observe clarity and give examples about his/her beliefs and values.

2.6.4 Monitoring Ability

Monitoring has been defined differently. For example UNDP (2009) defined it as the on-going process by which stakeholders obtain regular feedback on the progress being made towards goals and objectives. It is the regular systematic observation of teachers' and learners' actions in order to improve students' learning (*ibid*). Generally, monitoring is the routine collection and analysis of information to track progress against set plans and check compliance to establish standard. So, it focuses on what is being implemented, procedures, budget and results. The major purpose of monitoring is to check progress, inform decisions and remedial actions, update plans and support accountability. According to Oberman & Symonds (2005) effective monitoring must be constructive as it has to encourage greater observation of instructional practices in the classroom such as being frequent and observing teacher's needs for effective teaching. For example, schools with weekly analysis of

students' performance and teaching strategies achieve better instructional performance than those performing it monthly (*ibid*). Lastly, effective monitoring observes adult's actions since students' achievement results are considered in both scores and assessment of teaching and leadership practices. Therefore, HoSs who engage themselves in frequent monitoring engage themselves in improving teachers' accountability in classrooms and hence students' instructional performance.

2.6.5 Motivation

Employees' motivation in organizations leads to high performance. According to Dubin (1974), motivation means complex forces starting and keeping a person at work. It is something that moves a person to action, and continues him in the course of action already initiated. It is a result of motivating actions where superiors induce subordinates to engage in work behaviour by ensuring that their motives are met. Rue (1999) sees motivation as getting people to exert a high degree of effort on the job. In fostering instructional performance at school, one key element is teacher motivation. According to Tracey (2000), motivation means all those inner striving conditions that stimulate the interest of a person in an activity. More importantly this study concentrates on teacher motivation, and how teachers' motivation is important towards instructional performance. Hence, teachers' motivation can be defined as the attitudes that teachers have towards their work performance (Rowland, 2008). However, supervisors have to understand that employees are motivated differently because people work for different reasons too. For example, while some work to occupy time, others want money and the rest work just because they like to work. For this reason, several theories on motivation exist: For instance, traditional theory regards money as the primary motivator; hence financial rewards moves employees

to work harder. According to Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of Needs theory, needs are fulfilled from lower to higher levels. From the lowest level the needs are physical, safety, social, esteem or ego and self actualization. When lower needs are fulfilled, the need to fulfil higher needs arises. Hence the roles of supervisors in an organization are to make work interesting, relating rewards to performance and providing valued rewards. Others are, treating employees as individuals, encouraging participation and cooperation and providing timely and accurate feedback to employees.

2.7 Empirical Literature Review

This section provides a literature review on the empirical studies done relevant to this study. The aim is to capture what other researchers have done so as to establish the gap or to use their findings as inputs to the current study.

2.7.1 Teachers and Students Perceptions on Female School Headship

Traditionally, men have been seen as better suited than women to hold executive positions because the qualities associated with being a successful manager have been associated with masculinity. Women have been seen as lacking the necessary personal characteristics, as they are claimed to be dependent, submissive, and conforming (Burns, 1978), and therefore lack the abilities to make them good managers. However, several scholars have researched on the women abilities to leadership. The following are some of them:

Panigrahi (2013) studied the perception of secondary school stakeholders towards women representation in educational leadership and to find the barriers that cause this perception and determine the possible solutions for these problems. The study

employed descriptive method and involved 75 male teachers, 34 female teachers and 12 school principals. It also involved 2 Deputy Directors, 8 Bureau officials and 4 PTA. Random sampling techniques were used to select the respondents. Both qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods were employed.

The findings of the study revealed that (though perceptions of secondary school stakeholders have changed over time), many still believed that women were reluctant to accept responsibilities of school leadership for cultural reasons. Men were thought to be better leaders because of their masculinity, self reliance practice and ambitiousness. Contrary, women were found to lack necessary leadership skills, unable to discipline students, supervise teachers and criticize constructively. They also lacked confidence, capabilities, qualifications and experience.

Another study by Panigrahi (2013) aimed at finding leaders', teachers' and students' perceptions on female leadership in schools. The study was both quantitative and qualitative and employed descriptive method to study male and female, supervisors, bureau officials and deputy directors selected using stratified random sampling techniques. The findings revealed that majority of the school leaders, teachers and students agreed that women could make strong decision and were committed to the organization and their careers but lacked confidence in their capabilities, qualifications and experience (*ibid*). However, FHoS themselves disagreed with this perception. Furthermore, majority of teachers and students disagreed with the perception that women place is in the home not in leadership, and that the ideal school leader must be male. Additionally, the perceptions that women were dependent on males, passive, emotional, and uncertain of themselves, less sensitive

and weak leaders were disputed. Hence, women were able to lead secondary schools constructively (*ibid*).

Also, Nzeli (2013) did a study on “Challenges of female leadership in Kenya”. The study established teachers’ perceptions on female leadership in schools and revealed that majority of the teachers (75%) held good perception towards their FHoS. About 80% of the teachers noted that the students accorded male and female teachers the same level of respect. The study concluded that teachers viewed their female head teachers positively because they were approachable by students and encouraged them to attain their goals in schools. Moreover, they were effective in regard to time management and accurately followed the laid down policies to achieve their schools’ goals.

Moreover, the study by Elisha (2012) explored the perceptions of teachers on women principals in the Solomon Islands. The study employed qualitative methodology to explore perceptions of teachers who had worked under female principals. A thematic approach was used in analyzing data. It was found that teachers valued and appreciated the leadership of their women principals despite the challenges on the status of women principals and their leadership in the island. Female teachers even aspired for leadership because women principals became role models to them. Lastly the findings showed that teachers viewed their female principals positively because their leadership styles were said to be effective. Generally, the study showed that both male and female teachers appreciated female leadership and encouraged more women to aspire for principal ship in schools.

Although research suggests that women are slowly entering educational leadership positions, but attitudes within organizations are still a major constraint. For example Shum & Cheng (1997) noted that “women are still not widely accepted as equals when they reach senior positions.” Attitudes from both males and females within the organization need to change in order for females to be accorded the same opportunities as males on the same managerial level (*ibid*). Mindsets within the organizations need to change to embrace different perspectives of management that females bring to the table. Organizational barriers not only discriminate against women, but might positively favour men.

Summary of the Section

This part has discussed both teachers’ and students’ perceptions of female headship in schools. It has shown that some stereotypical images exist about women leadership because leadership has been associated with personal masculinity characteristics rather than femininity. However, both male and female teachers viewed female school leaders positively because of their capability in supervising instructions in schools.

2.7.2 Challenges Facing Female Heads of Schools

Despite the fact that non-sexism is one of the principles embodied in the TETPO (1995) and the research findings that female educators make up more than 60% of the educators (Mbepera, 2008); women are still underrepresented in the leadership positions because of different reasons shown below;

For example, Maseko (2013) did “A Comparative Study of Challenges Faced by Women in Leadership: A Case of Foskor and the Department of Labour In

Mhlathuze Municipality.” The study intended to improve women leaders’ competence in the province. The study findings showed that women leaders in the respective departments faced several challenges such as social and cultural stereotypes, psychological factor, the problem of balancing reproductive and workplace functions and lack of networking. Also, the study established that female managers had greater barriers to overcome than males. Lastly gender discrimination was a major obstacle to their career advancement.

Makura (2007) did a study on challenges faced by female heads of primary schools in Zimbabwe. A sample of nineteen female primary school heads in the Masvingo province of Zimbabwe responded to a questionnaires and interviews. Results showed that organizational factors, culture, women’s personalities and colonial legacies were obstacles to the effectiveness of females in school administration. Specifically, shortage of financial and material resources and teachers' negative attitudes towards female primary school heads were cited as major impediments to effective school administration. The study implored governments to continue appointing more women to school leadership positions despite the identified challenges.

Also, Nzeli (2013) did a study on challenges faced by female head teachers in the management of secondary schools in Kagundo County, Kenya. Among the objectives of the study were to find out if cultural and social barriers interfered with management of secondary schools. This study employed a descriptive survey design to assess attitudes, opinions and draw conclusions based on the findings. The study revealed that 80% of the teachers liked the way the head teachers managed the school. Fifty six (57%) of the teachers noted that the head teachers were good in

performing their duties with regard to time management, 80% of them also noted that cultural and social issues interfered with the management of school affairs. Half (50%) of the head teachers said there was no role conflict between domestic and professional roles while 50% of head teachers felt that there was conflict. On the psychological factors influencing the head teachers' performance, 86.7% of the teachers said that biological traits did not limit the head teachers from performing school duties. This was because they had a teaching experience, were assertive and aggressive. It also revealed that training programs on education management for teachers were not organized in schools. The schools lacked funds to organize training for head teachers. The study concluded that female head teachers were effective to achieve the goals of their schools. Although cultural and social barriers interfered with the management of school affairs, there was need for female head teachers to be encouraged to achieve leadership positions since they could manage the roles of leaders through mentorship.

Additionally, Sam (2013) did a study on constraints for women in educational leadership positions. The study included all HoS, teachers and students in Ashanti region. The study revealed that family responsibility was the main constraint for women in educational leadership positions. Other barriers identified were discrimination against women and cultural influence. This result agreed with studies conducted by Shakeshaft (1987), who found that family responsibility was a prominent and direct impediment for females in attaining administrative position.

Moreover, Khumalo (2006) conducted studies in the Republic of South Africa on "Challenges faced by women as school managers in Warmbaths area." These studies

showed that the challenges that hindered female managers from achieving school objectives compared to their male colleagues were either within the person herself, school or outside the school. Similarly, Sanda & Sackey (2010) believed that internal or personal barriers that influence the life of women were generally regarded as the inadequacies within women because of their femaleness.

In Kenya, Kamau (2004) conducted a study on the problems faced by female head teachers in administration of secondary schools in Thika district. She found that sex role stereotyping, insecurity in schools, role conflicts between traditional and administrative roles as well as personal barriers were major challenges faced by female head teachers in the administration of secondary schools.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

The Conceptual Framework used for studying the effectiveness of FHoS suggested that when FHoS was able to employ leadership practices, deal with perceptions and challenges while controlling mediating variables such as family obligations, she could become effective instructional leader.

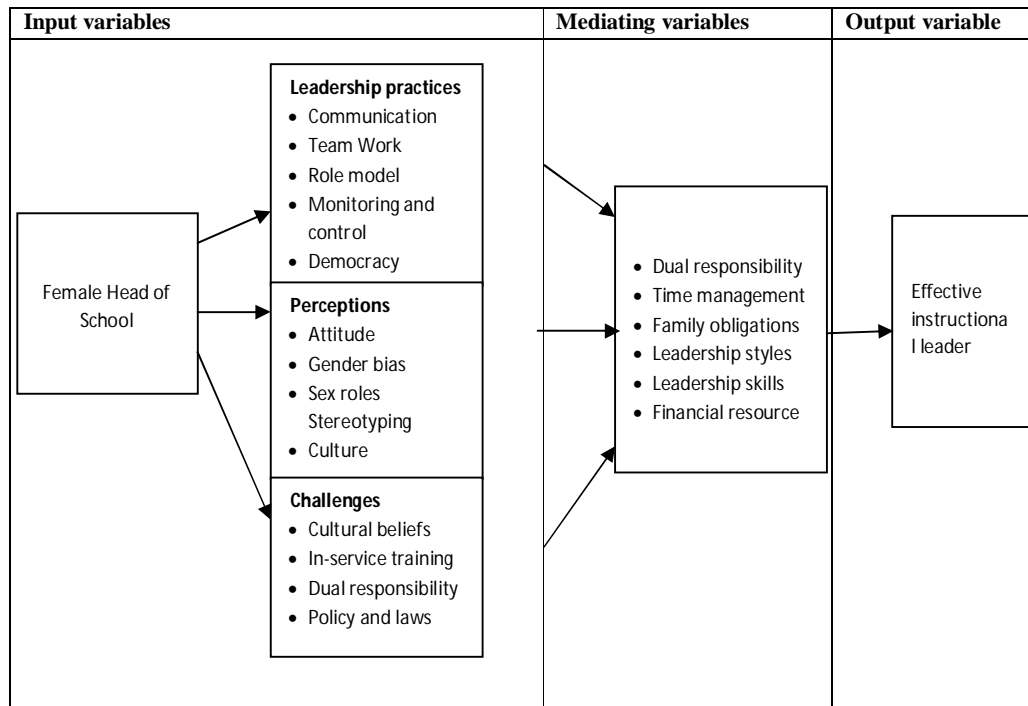


Figure 2. 1: Conceptual Framework for Studying the Effectiveness of FHoS

Source: Adopted and modified from Social System Theory, Waweru (2005)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methods and procedures for studying the roles of FHoS in fostering instructional leadership in public secondary schools in Kibaha district, Tanzania. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed in data collection.

3.2 The Study Location and Population

The study was conducted in Kibaha district in Tanzania. Kibaha is the administrative capital of Coast Region. The district has two Councils: Kibaha Town Council (KTC) and Kibaha District Council (KDC). The study confined itself to KTC only. KTC is estimated to have a population of 139,000 people (NBS, 2013). Also, it has thirteen public secondary schools. KTC was chosen because it has a larger number of female teachers than males, and it is also believed that the government of Tanzania had selected it to be the centre for women to practice leadership (interview with SI). This was evidenced by the fact that KTC had thirteen SS where six were headed by females. Hence, it was easy to assess their effectiveness in fostering instructional leadership, perceptions of teachers and students on FHoS leadership and the challenges they face. However, Lusekelo (2009) reported to have difficulties in internal efficiency in the management of schools in Tanzania particularly among FHoS. This rationale influenced the researcher to conduct the study in KTC to investigate the way FHoS supervised schools in terms of instructional matters. Four schools headed by FHoS were purposively selected for the study.

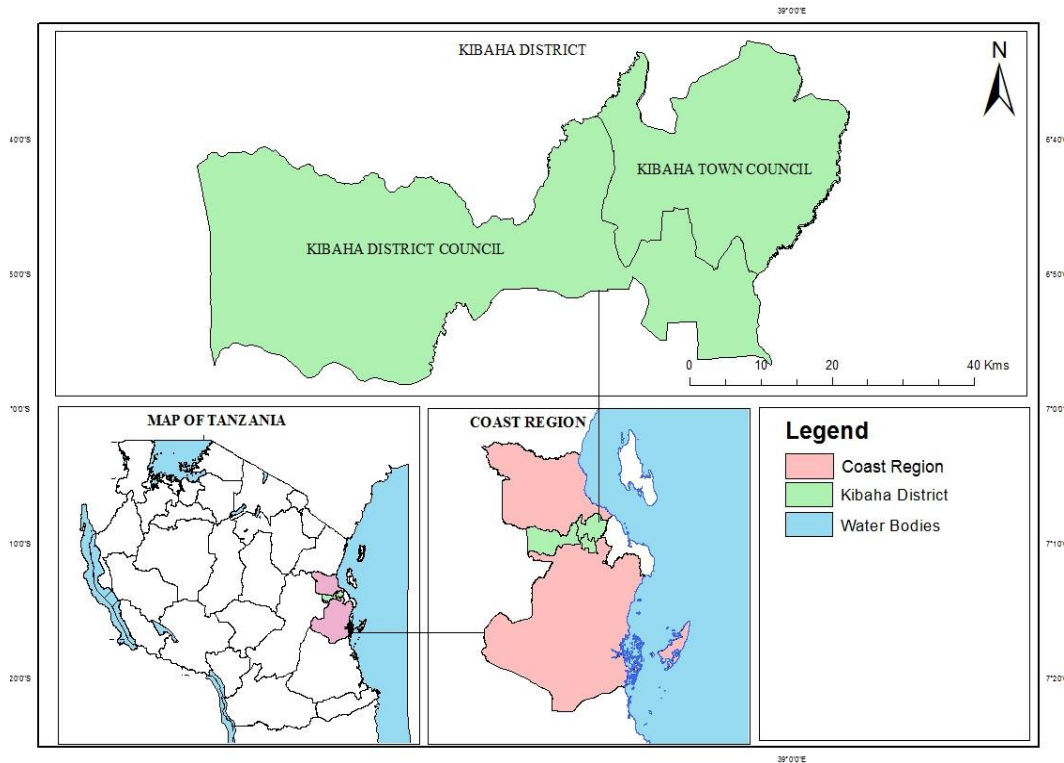


Figure 3.1: Map of Tanzania showing Kibaha District

Source: GIS Laboratory, Geography Department, University of Dar es Salaam

3.3 Research Design

Research design is a comprehensive plan for data collection which a researcher uses in order to answer specific research questions (Bhattacharjee, 2012). A research design involves a logical plan of organizing the collection and analysis of data to provide meaningful information depending on the nature and purpose of a particular study (Leedy & Ormroad, 2001). A cross-sectional research design involving purposive and simple random sampling was used in selecting schools and respondents respectively. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches for data collection were employed in this study.

Qualitative design used was case study design. The design is a method of study in depth rather than broadness and involves a careful and complete observation of social unit or a person (Kothari, 2010). This design was appropriate for examining leadership practices of HoS because it allowed the researcher to examine the case in depth to get detailed information of real life context and also reflecting on the perspectives of participants involved in the study (Gall, Borg & Gall, 2007). The design was also useful to investigate bounded roles and organization of HoSs and determined how they influenced teachers to perform better in their day-to-day instructional matters in schools. Also, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) and documentary review were the methods used to collect qualitative data.

The advantage of using qualitative approach is that it places the researcher into the social, political and cultural context of the area under study (Kothari, 2004). It also helps the researcher to know the community's experiences and feelings about the topic under study through the interactions with the community members. A quantitative approach on the other hand is applied to phenomena that can be expressed in terms of quantity (*ibid*). With this approach it is possible to achieve greater uniformity crucial for comparability (*ibid*). The quantitative approach employed in this study was questionnaire which was used to collect primary data from teachers.

3.3.1 Sampling Procedure

A sample is a group or subset of population in which a researcher selects for the purpose of the study and from which generalization is made about the characteristics

of the population (Ary, *etal* 1996). Sampling techniques refer to the process of selecting the participants of the study in a sample from the population. The study employed purposive sampling techniques for selecting schools and informants (*ibid*).

Purposive and simple random sampling techniques were applied in selecting the study units. The four target public schools studied were purposely identified based on the sex of the head of school. Besides, simple random sampling was used to select the four schools out of the six headed by females.

Purposive sampling was also used to select the key informants: The District Secondary Education Officer (DSEO) and School Inspectors (SI). These informants, by virtue of their job positions had relevant information on the way HoSs influenced instructional leadership. Some of the information sought from these officers included; leadership practices of both male and female heads of schools, procedures of appointing them, training and in-service training for HoS, communication in schools, and challenges facing FHoS.

While purposive sampling technique was used to select six class monitors in each school to form FGD, simple random sampling gave each class monitor an equal chance of being selected for the study. A total of four FGDs were conducted. The reason for using this sample was that students were the beneficiary of the instructional activities at school. Thus, their experiences and personal accounts were useful insights in understanding their perceptions and that of their teachers on female leadership in secondary schools.

3.3.2 Sample Size

A sample size is defined by Bailey (1987) as the number of representative respondents selected for interview from a research population. The number depends on the accuracy needed, population size, population heterogeneity and resources available. The sample size for this study comprised 60 respondents. These respondents represented about 600 teachers in Kibaha district. Both male and female teachers, from the four selected schools, served more than three years, formed this population of teachers. While purposive sampling procedure was used to select teachers based on their sex and work experience, simple random sampling technique determined teachers who responded to questionnaires in each sex category. In each school, the researcher ensured that each sex category was represented at least by 50% of the total population selected. Teachers responded to questions related to common leadership practices of FHoS and stated their perceptions on FHoS leadership.

The study employed purposive and simple random sampling techniques to select schools and informants. Purposive sampling was used to sample four schools and their FHoS. Only public schools under FHoS headship were selected because they operate under similar policy guidelines and that the instructional situation was almost the same. Purposive sampling was also used to select the DSEO and two school inspectors who by virtue of their positions had key information regarding instructional matters in their areas of jurisdictions. Moreover, three girls and three boys composed six students selected in each of the four schools, formed a sample of 24 students for the FGDs. While purposive sampling technique was used to select class monitors, simple random sampling was used to give each class monitor an

equal chance to be selected for the study. Only co-sex schools were sampled. Students were used because they are the beneficiary of the instructional activities at school. Thus, they had useful insights in understanding their perceptions and that of their teachers on female leadership in secondary schools.

3.4 Data Collection Strategy

Individuals in different social settings were involved to produce data pertinent to the problem. The related problem necessitated the study to use two kinds of data namely primary and secondary data.

According to Kothari (2004), primary data are those collected for the first time from informants. In fact, it is the original data collected from the study area. Primary data required in this study were those collected from HoS, SI, DSEO, teachers and students. Data collection techniques used, were face-to-face interview guides, questionnaire, and FGD guide.

Secondary data, according to Kothari (2004), refers to data that is already available, which has already been collected and analyzed. Documentary Review/Analysis was employed as the technique for collecting secondary data. To obtain this kind of data, documents related to the topic under study were deeply reviewed and critically analyzed. Secondary data opted for this study were those obtained through reviewing of documents such as examination records, lesson plan books, schemes of work, class journals, Heads of school manual and log books. Others were class and school time tables, school daily routine and the academic calendar. The information obtained from these sources was used to check consistency of information generated through the use of questionnaires and interview. Hence, this research employed four

types of data collection tools which were structured and non-structured questionnaire, key informant interview (KII), Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and document review.

3.4.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a sequence of questions designed to elicit information from respondents (Creswell, 2009). Questionnaire was used to collect quantitative information from the sampled teachers regarding common leadership practices that FHoSs employ in executing their duties. It was also used to understand their perceptions regarding female leadership in SS. Both open and closed-ended questions were used. Open-ended questions gave room for respondents to express their thoughts, thus provide in-depth information on female's leadership practices while closed-ended questions provided alternatives from which the respondents had to choose correct corresponding answers. Closed-ended questions were easier to administer, compile and analyze.

3.4.2 Key Informant Interviews

A key informant interview is a technique used for collecting data on individuals' personal histories, perspectives, and experiences (Kumar, 1989). Interview involves asking series of questions and then probing more deeply with open-ended form of questions to obtain additional information (Gall & Borg, 2007). According to Neuman (2000), face-to-face interviews have highest response rates and interviewers can also observe the surroundings, use non-verbal communication and visual aids to understand respondents' insights. A semi-structured interview was a method of research used to collect data for this study from headmistresses, education officers

and school inspectors. A semi-structured interview is open, and allows new ideas to be brought up during the interview as a result of what the interviewee says. This instrument was opted for because it allowed obtaining first hand and in-depth information from the informants. It also provided the interactive relationship between the researcher and informants. Interview enabled the researcher to collect a lot of information from few respondents. In fact, this technique enabled the researcher to discuss in detail with participants their inner understanding about the effectiveness of FHoS and challenges they faced from their own point of view. English language was used in conducting the interviews because it was the medium of instruction in secondary schools and all the respondents were secondary school teachers by principle and educational qualification. It was thus expected that both the researcher and his informants were conversant with English language. The researcher conducted the interview in person and the interviewees' responses were noted in a note book.

3.4.3 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

A Focus Group is a group of individuals who share common characteristics relevant for the study where the suggested number of participants in FGD ranges between 6 and 12 people (Wily, 2002). FGD helps to draw upon respondents' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a way that would not be feasible using other methods, such as observation, one-to-one interviewing, or questionnaire surveys (Powell & Single, 1996). In this study, focus group discussions were used to collect data from students in all four schools. There were four FGDs; one in each school. Each FGD comprised three girls and three boys to form a sample of six students in each selected school. While purposive sampling technique was used to select class prefects mainly referred to as monitors, simple random sampling was

used to give each class monitor an equal chance to be selected for the study. FGD was opted for because it allowed gaining insights from students since they were the beneficiary of good instructional leadership. A set of open-ended questions in English served as a guide for the FGDs. English was opted for because it is the medium of instruction in secondary schools. However, the researcher also used Kiswahili language to probe for clarification. It was important to use Kiswahili because it gave students confidence and freedom of expressing their insights as some of them could not express themselves well in English. FGDs were conducted in a way that assured students' confidentiality because the discussion involved some sensitive issues on the roles performed by FHoS in instructional matters. Through FGDs students revealed the way HoSs and teachers influenced them in classroom activities and how their instructional problems were attended in different situations.

3.4.4 Documentary Review

Documentary review is a technique of data collection which involves subjecting documents related to the topic under study to deep and critical analysis (Neuman, 2007). In this study, official documents such examination results, Training manual for teachers and TETPO were reviewed. Other documents reviewed were teachers' attendance books, students' attendance registers and class journals. Moreover, term schedules, Heads of schools' manual, schemes of work, lesson plans and school timetable were also examined. These documents were asked for and reviewed in the head of schools' office. The information obtained from these sources was used to check for consistency of information generated through the use of primary sources such as questionnaires and interviews.

3.5 Data Analysis and Presentation

According to Neuman and Robson (2009), data analysis refers to a search for patterns in data recurrent behaviours, objects or body of knowledge. Once a pattern is identified, it is interpreted in terms of a social theory or the setting in which it occurred. Below is a brief description of the analysis procedure for each type of data analysis

3.5.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

According to (Berg, 2007) qualitative data analysis begins during data collection. In this study, qualitative data were analyzed before quantitative data where results of early data analysis guided the subsequent data collection. Qualitative data from FGDs and KIIs were transcribed manually, sorted and put together under specific themes or codes and analyzed through structural-functional and content analysis approach. According to Kajembe (1994), structural-functional analysis seeks to explain social facts that relate to each other within the social system and the manner in which they are related to the physical surroundings. On the other hand, documents were examined and major points summarized. The coding of qualitative data involved organizing data into themes, refining, and finally drawing links between themes to arrive to the conclusion.

Therefore, data analysis was an on-going process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytic questions, and writing memos. It also entailed recording and making quotes of data that seemed to make sense and answer research questions. In fact qualitative analysis was conducted concurrently with gathering data, making interpretations and writing reports.

3.5.2 Quantitative Data analysis

Quantitative data from the questionnaire were thoroughly examined, coded and organized. It was also analyzed and converted into percentages, tables and figures by using both SPSS computer software version 20 and Microsoft Excel to determine their occurrence. With SPSS, frequencies, percentages, and mean were computed and used for analysis

3.6 Credibility of the Study

This study employed different strategies to remain credible. First, in collecting information, the study used the triangulation of data collected from the heads of schools, school inspectors, secondary education officers, teachers and students. This strategy avoided the incidence of some informants to give wrong information. Second, the triangulation of methods; the researcher employed several methods of data collection to ensure validity and reliability of the study. Also, the use of multiple methods served the researcher to avoid insufficiency of the instrument to collect desired information, control instrumentation errors and was able to cross check data.

Third, the validation of instruments was very important in ensuring the credibility of the study. Therefore, before going to the field, the inquirer sought the expert opinion from the supervisor who went through interview and FDG guiding questions and provided expert advice. Also the researcher sought advice from other research students and senior research advisers who were in work place. This process added insight on the existing condition of instruments. Fourth, credibility was one of the strengths of qualitative research and it based on determining whether the findings were accurate from the stand point of the researcher, participants and the readers of

the accounts (Creswell, 2009). In this study the researcher used member checking to determine the accuracy of qualitative findings through taking back the specific themes to participants and determining whether participants felt they were accurate. The themes that were taken to member participants were those related to teacher's motivation, in-service support, human relation and communication in schools between the head of school, teachers and students. Lastly, the credibility of study was maintained through checking the transcripts to make sure that they did not contain obvious mistakes made during transcription and making sure that there was no shift in the definition of codes and their meaning.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Ethical standards were observed in planning and conducting the study, and in access and acceptance stages, where by the researcher sought for a research permit from the Vice Chancellor of the OUT who issued research permit on behalf of the Government of Tanzania. Thereafter, the researcher asked for another permit from the Coast Regional Administrative Secretary who had power to allow studies to be conducted in her jurisdiction.

The regional research permit enabled the researcher to be accepted to the KTC Executive Director (ED) who owned the public secondary schools on behalf of the government. The ED ensured the researcher's access and acceptability in the schools and other officials relevant for the study.

During data collection stage, ethical standards were strictly observed. Informants who participated in the study were asked their informed consent and therefore it was

their will to participate in the study. This was done through explaining to them the purpose of the study and ensuring their privacy and confidentiality of information.

Also, the researcher ensured the security of informants from physical, psychological and social harm by keeping the collected data for the predetermined purpose and obstructed unauthorized persons to get access to the data. In reporting the findings, neither the names of schools nor names of people included in the sample were referred to. The names of respondents were replaced by their occupations and names of schools were in pseudo-names format.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyzes, and discusses the research findings based on the three research objectives stipulated in Chapter One. Before presenting the data, demographic characteristics of the respondents in relation to sex and age are presented. This is followed by the presentation and analysis of data, organized based on key issues related to the research objectives.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

A total of 60 respondents were interviewed as Table 4.1 shows:

Table 4.1: Age and Sex of Respondents

Age	Female	Male	Total
18-25	00	02	02
25-40	18	22	40
40-60	12	06	18
Total	30	30	60

The table shows that 40 of the respondents, equivalent to 66.6% aged 25 to 40. This age was significant because these teachers took gender studies while in colleges, hence the information they provided was valid and reliable. Additionally, the age range of 40-60 years of the 18 teachers who constituted 30% of the respondents brought into the research valued experiential information regarding the differences between FHoSs and MHoSs in SS leadership.

4.3 Common Leadership Practices Employed by Female Heads of Secondary Schools

The first objective was to determine the common leadership practices employed by female heads of secondary schools in enhancing instructional leadership. This objective was determined by the participants responding to some aspects of leadership style that shows whether the leader is autocratic or democratic. These aspects include: communication practice; teamwork practice; democratic practice; leading by example/being a role model; monitoring strategy and motivation strategies. These aspects are presented in the table below:

Table 4.2: Common Leadership Practices Employed by Female Heads of Secondary Schools

Leadership Practice	School	n	Respondents' Choices					Total
			None	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Collegial communication	Boko	10	00	00	01	06	03	10
	Sofu	20	00	01	01	12	06	20
	Tanita	12	00	00	01	09	02	12
	Msikitini	18	00	01	03	10	04	18
Total		60	00	02	06	37	15	60
Team work	Boko	10	00	00	00	08	02	10
	Sofu	20	01	01	02	07	09	20
	Tanita	12	01	00	00	04	07	12
	Msikitini	18	01	03	04	06	04	18
Total		60	03	04	06	25	22	60
Leading by Example	Boko	10	00	00	01	06	03	10
	Sofu	20	00	01	04	09	06	20
	Tanita	12	01	00	03	05	03	12
	Msikitini	18	01	00	11	03	03	18
Total		60	02	01	19	23	15	60
Monitoring Strategy	Boko	10	00	00	01	06	03	10
	Sofu	20	00	01	02	12	05	20
	Tanita	12	00	00	00	12	00	12
	Msikitini	18	00	03	03	11	01	18
Total		60	00	04	06	41	09	60
Motivation	Boko	10	00	00	02	02	06	10
	Sofu	20	00	01	05	06	08	20
	Tanita	12	01	01	04	06	00	12

	Msikitini	18	00	02	06	06	04	18
Total		60	01	04	17	20	18	60
Leadership approaches of Female Heads of Schools	School	n	Respondents' Choices				Total	
			Democ ratic	Laissez faire	Dictatorship			
	Boko	10	09	00	01	10		
	Sofu	20	17	03	00	20		
	Tanita	12	08	00	04	12		
Msikitini	18	10	03	05	18			
Total		60	44	06	10	60		

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2016

4.3.1 Communication

The researcher wanted to know if FHoS communicated to teachers politely and in a more attractive way which affected their duties positively.

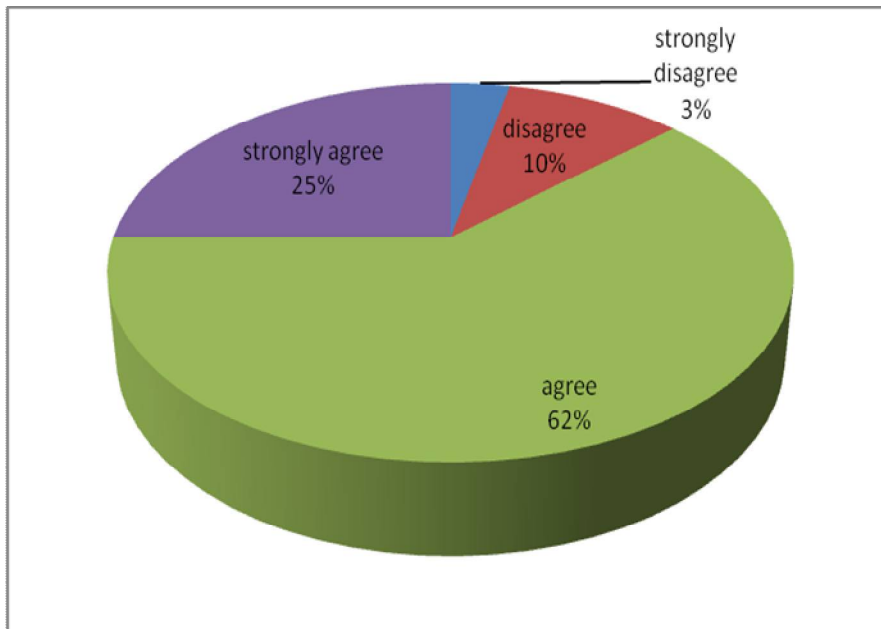


Figure 4.1: Communication Practice of FHoS

Data presented in the figure shows that 62% of the respondents agreed while 25% strongly agreed that FHoS communicated to them politely and positively in a way that made them teach students better. On the other hand, the DSEO stressed the

importance of communication in school leadership as being important for improving students' performance. She stated that they communicated with (HoS) through letters and meetings. However, FHoS attended meetings often as compared to MHoS. The DSEO said:

“There is importance for HoS to attend meetings to exchange ideas and share experiences. However, FHoS often attend meetings compared to MHoS. This makes FHoS to communicate to teachers and students the directives we give them.”

In addition, it was revealed by school inspectors that FHoS responded politely to teachers' instructional needs compared to MHoS. He said:

“Last year we inspected Msikitini SS. During inspection, it was revealed that one Physics teacher had not been teaching his class. The teacher defended himself that, the school had no Physics book; he had asked the Headmaster to buy at least one book, but he received no response. So, he decided not to teach”.

On the other hand, the students in their FGD reported that at Sofu SS, every morning, students and teachers assembled, and various issues were informed and the Headmistress had frequent meetings with both students and teachers where pedagogical issues were discussed.

From the above quotation and explanation, it was enlightened that good communication between the head of school and both teachers and students was one of the pillars of instructional success in schools. This finding matched with Neagley and Evans (1987) who agreed with the observation that teachers need to be involved in supervision to overcome the isolation they experience in order to facilitate students' learning effectively. This means that when everybody was aware of what was implemented at school, instructional performance improved, but where communication was poor, students' learning was in vain. Hence, the finding agreed

with Koontz and Weihrich (1988) who viewed communication as the means that link people together in organizations to achieve common goals. It also concurred with Kezar, (2000) who evaluated differences of male and female university faculty deans and found that women were more communitarians than their male counterparts.

4.3.2 Team Work

Team work is essential to schools' success. At school, a student learns different subjects taught by different teachers. It is therefore important that good teams are established in order to enable students learn better. The question wanted to know if FHoS were capable in building team spirit and working as part of the team. The findings are presented in the following figure:

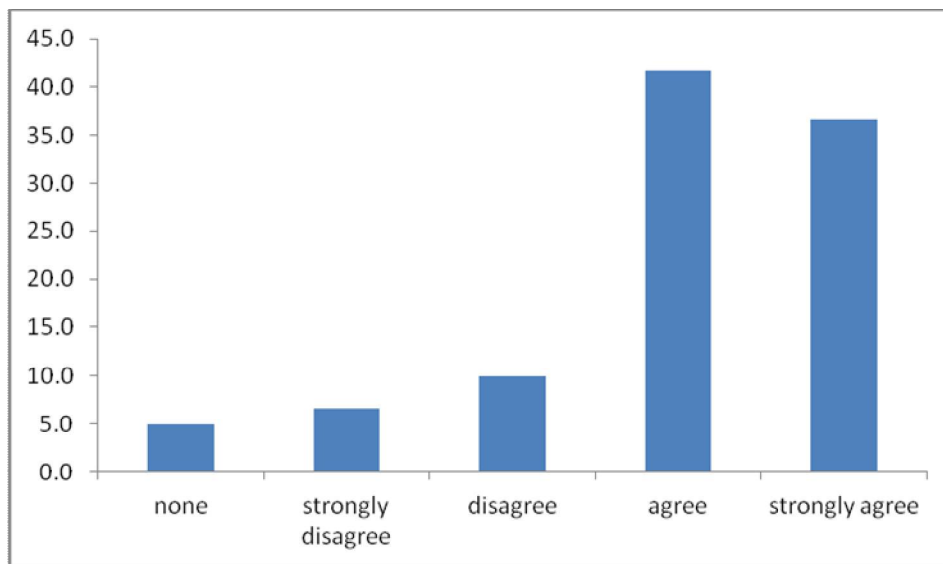


Figure 4.2: Team Work Practice of FHoS

Findings revealed that 42% agreed while 37% strongly agreed that FHoSs were capable of building teams and work as part of the teams. Results from the FGDs held with students in three schools showed that the Headmistresses involved themselves

in teaching. For example, students at Tanita SS said that their Headmistress taught Chemistry. This is contrary to common practice where HoS did not engage themselves in classroom teaching on the ground that they had many duties regarding school administration. School inspectors informed that most HoS didn't teach although they were supposed to teach some lessons since teaching was their primary job.

In responding the question whether she taught any class, the Headmistress at Tanita SS said:

“I teach Chemistry in Form IIIB. I believe, by participating in actual teaching, I prove to teachers that I am part of the teaching team. It also gives me confidence to assess and challenge teachers who fail to perform their duties effectively.”

This quotation shows that team work spirit has to begin with the HoS him/her self before influencing teachers to work in the teams. One has to be a democratic leader in order to be able to form and work in a team. This finding matched with Dimmock (1999) who found that team approach includes participating subordinates in decision - making process in all areas of the total school environment, thereby enhancing their professional development.

On the other hand, school inspectors identified that when HoS taught some lessons, teachers were encouraged to devote their energy and time to improve teaching and learning. The following quotation by a male SI proved the idea;

“Female heads of schools are committed and prefer team work leadership. In schools where the HoS teaches some lessons, teachers' absenteeism in classroom is minimized to a greater extent. In my experience, males are over-confident and they normally do not trust teachers as they believe to have knowledge than their subordinates. So, they don't see needs for team work.”

When team leadership is implemented in schools, educational success becomes a reality. This is because everyone; teachers, students and HoS will be accountable to their duties. The findings concurred with Obanya (2002) who revealed that cooperation gives administrators, educators, students and other stakeholders the opportunity to deal with complex educational issues as a group. It can therefore be concluded that teamwork generates a feeling of ownership and a high level of commitment to the success of the decisions and school plans.

4.3.3 Leading by Example

A leader who leads by example influences subordinates to fulfil their responsibilities fully. In this leadership practice, the researcher wanted to know the extent that FHoSs lead by examples and convinced to be a role model in what they instructed others. The respondents had to show their degree of agreement. The following figure presents the finding:

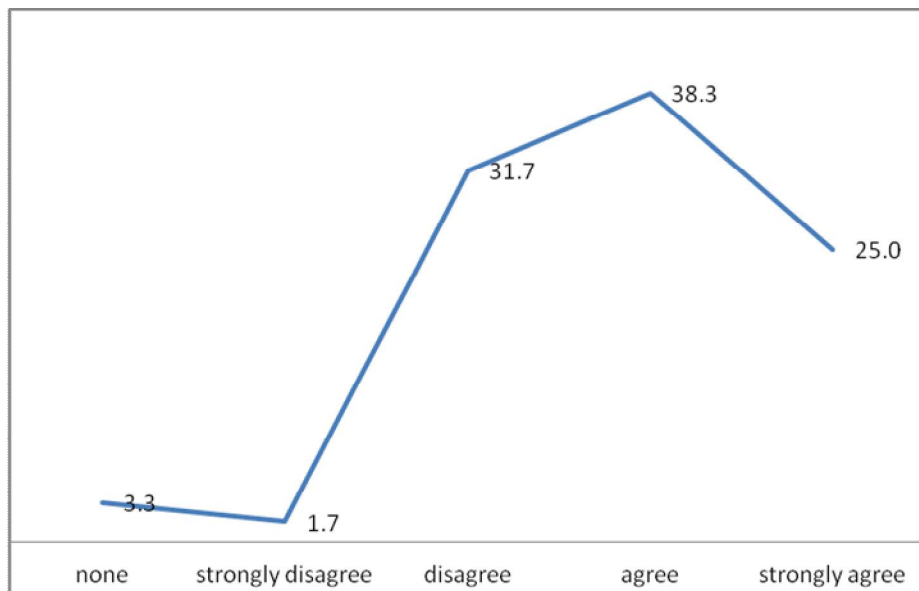


Figure 4.3: Leading by Example Practice of FHoS

Findings from the above figure shows that 38.3% agreed that FHoS lead by example while 25% strongly agreed on this aspect. This means that 63.3% believed that FHoS lead by example. Yet, a total of about 33% of those who both strongly disagreed and disagreed cannot be ignored completely. This means that there were FHoS who did not engage themselves in instructional activities. However, responses from other respondents provided clear understanding that FHoS exemplified what they instructed others to do. For example through FGDs students in three schools informed that they had seen their Headmistresses teaching. One male student said:

“Our Headmistress teaches Chemistry in Form Three B. Sometimes she doesn’t come to class due to many duties, but when she gets time she finds extra time to compensate the lost periods.”

The above quotation shows that FHoS engaged in classroom teaching, and that was a way to influence teachers engage in performing instructional work effectively.

On the opposite side, at Sofu SS the students had not seen their Headmistress engaging in actual classroom teaching. They also didn’t know what subject she was supposed to teach. Similarly, at Boko SS where students said that their school head involved in teaching, her name was not in the school timetable, and her teaching load was not officially known. Further investigation revealed that she used to teach only once per week because there was another teacher who was fully responsible for the class.

Interviews held with DSEO and SI identified that HoSs were supposed to teach some lessons, at least six periods per week because teaching was their primary work. One SI said:

“Being a HoS doesn’t mean that one shouldn’t engage in actual classroom teaching. Despite having many duties, they have to teach some periods. Most HoSs don’t engage themselves in teaching but in administrative matters. When we visit schools for inspections we don’t see them having lesson plan books.”

Two of the FHoSs who engaged themselves in teaching stated that shortage of teachers forced them to engage in teaching. They were science subject teachers and their schools had a shortage of science subject teachers. So, they had to assist them. However, given the roles of the office of the HoS such as managing school fund and supervising instruction, it was hard to manage both. One of them explained:

“Being the HoS, I am the chief decision maker and advisor. I have to be available all the time. Once you engage in teaching, there are moments when your lessons are interrupted because you are needed to tackle other administrative issues. So, I teach as a substitute teacher.”

From the above findings, it is worth to state that FHoS were willing to engage themselves in instructional activities but the office of the HoS was saddled with many managerial duties. Some of their duties were; controlling the discipline of both teaching and non-teaching staff and that of the students. They were also supposed to walk around checking instructional progress, managing school fiscal and physical resources and building relations within the school community. This conception matched with Galabawa (2001) that the major roles of a HoS are to monitor curriculum and instruction, physical facilities, school management, pupil, staff personnel and school community relationships. Therefore, FHoSs’ attempt to engage whole heartedly in exemplifying teaching was weakened. Hence, Davis (2005) was right when he stated that the creation of practice model becomes difficult when a supervisor does not engage heartily on it.

However, the 63.3% of those who agreed and strongly agreed that FHoS engaged themselves in leading by example proved that they were role models to teachers in the way instructional activities were supposed to be performed. It was also found that FHoS showed how teachers were supposed to behave, dress, speak and be punctual when fulfilling their responsibilities. Hence, the findings were in line with Kohlberg (1969) who found that Supervisors should guide employees about what behaviour is appropriate or inappropriate.

4.3.4 Democratic Leadership

Schools as learning organizations are supposed to involve different stakeholders in planning and implementing the curriculum with the central concern being the student. The researcher wanted to know the extent to which democratic practice was used by female heads of schools. The respondents were asked to identify the extent to which FHoSs used participatory approach to influence students' and teachers' instructional performance. Results from the respondents are presented in the figure 4.4

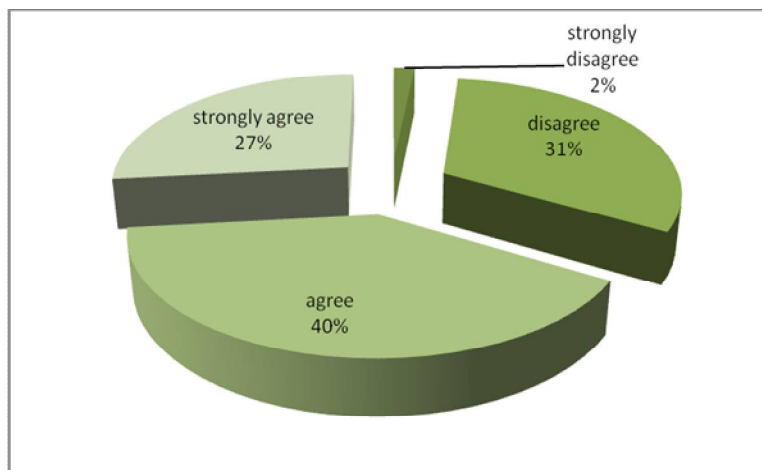


Figure 4.4: Participatory/Democratic Practice of FHoS

Data presented in the figure shows that the total percent of the respondents who agreed and strongly agreed was 67%. Thus, FHoSs employed participatory approach in their leadership. The above research finding was supported by students at Tanita, Boko and Msikitini schools that their FHoSs allowed them to give their opinion before making some decisions related to their learning. Although teachers stated that the use of democratic approach delayed the process of decision making, they felt that they were the owners of the decisions and they implemented the decisions without complaints. On top of that, teachers were asked to state with reasons their preference of the sex of the HoS. While 52% preferred FHoS, 23% preferred MHoS and 22% preferred both. However, 3% were undecided. The major reason given for the preference of FHoS was their democratic practice while MHoS were blamed for their autocratic practices such as their preference of giving directives to teachers. An example below represents these views from what one student said:

“We are allowed to talk to the Headmistress every Thursday. If we have our suggestions, we take them to her and she would respond quickly. For example, teachers in this school used to go to classrooms with their mobile phones and use them when lessons were in progress. We talked to the Headmistress, now teachers are not doing it again.”

The above quotation shows that FHoSs were democratic in their leadership. Students felt that their views were respected hence positive perception about female school headship. The finding matched with Nzeli (2013) who found that FHoSs were positively viewed by their teachers and students because they were approachable and encouraged them to work to attain their goals in schools.

On the other hand, the DSEO and SI were asked to explain with examples the differences between FHoSs and MHoSs leadership. Various differences on strength and shortcomings of each category were explained, but on the aspect of employing

participatory leadership skill, FHoSs were far better than their male counterpart. One of the male SI said:

“The big difference is in decision making. MHoS are over-confident to the extent of thinking that they can make any decision rightly for the school without involving their subordinates. Sometimes these decisions bring a lot of complaints from teachers.”

Despite the fact that females were rated high in employing democratic approach, some of the respondents thought that FHoS were unconfident and couldn't trust themselves about their capability to make decisions independently. So, they often involved their subordinates to camouflage their weakness. In response to this kind of conceptions, the DSEO said:

“Believe me; females are very smart in their leadership. Involving others in decisions is not a weakness. Schools are complex institutions; the HoS cannot be everywhere at the same time, so teachers and prefects have to be involved in leadership for better schools results.”

On their side, FHoSs themselves rejected the conception that they involved their subordinates because of their weakness. A quote from one of them explained:

“There are similar guidelines for all heads of schools irrespective of their sex. The Training manual for heads of schools guides us how to form a School Management Team (SMT). This team is responsible for making school's decisions. So, involving other teachers is not a personal decision but a requirement.”

From both quotations above, it is a truism that FHoS highly employed democratic approach than males for better instructional performance. In fact FHoS involved their subordinates naturally. Participatory approach was in their heart since they also involve children in domestic work at home. This view matched with Farrant (1975) who believed that a leader, like a General in the army, cannot win the battle alone but

by involving those with whom he serves. The outcome of involving subordinates was evidenced by the students' performance in the Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSEE) results. For example in KTC, among community schools, the school that was leading for better CSEE results was under female leadership. Hence, the finding concurred with Ndunguru (2013) who reported that democracy avoided the occurrence of unnecessary conflicts between HoS and teachers, hence improved students' performance. Therefore the finding matched with Fieldler (1995) who viewed that participative leadership invites, consults, builds confidence and seeks ideas from subordinates and integrates their suggestions in organizational decisions.

Generally, a total of 67% of the respondents who agreed and strongly agreed that FHoS were democratic than MHoS concurred with Blackmore (2002) who found that women's leadership styles were less hierarchical and more democratic than men. Also, it matched with Weiner (1995) who revealed that females felt that traditional male's aggressive behavior, control and a strong competitive nature were unappealing in school management.

4.3.5 Monitoring Strategy

In schools monitoring serves to encourage greater observation of instructional practices in the classroom such as observing what the teacher is missing in the classroom for effective teaching. It also seeks to check progress, inform decisions and remedial actions, update plans and support accountability. The researcher wanted to know the extent to which FHoS monitored their strategies and without despair. Field data is presented in the figure below:

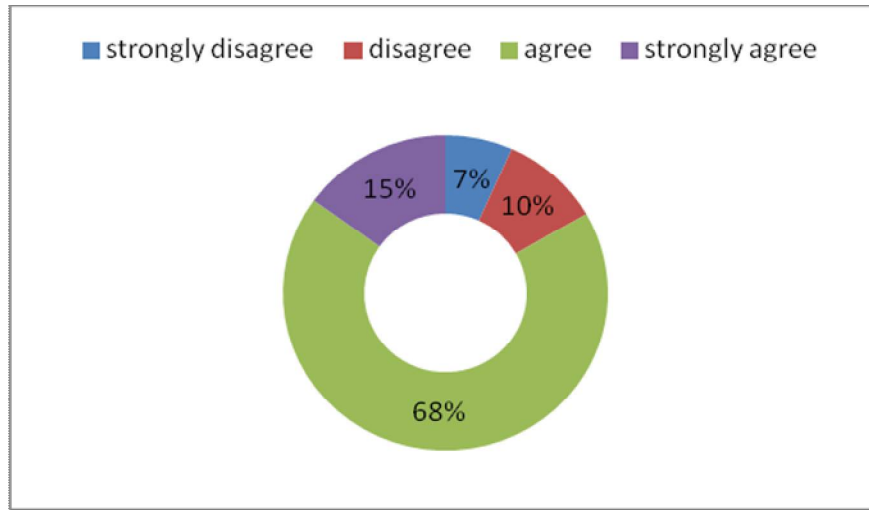


Figure 4.5: Monitoring Ability of FHoS

The findings indicate that 68% and 15% agreed and strongly agreed respectively that FHoS were capable of setting plans and monitoring them for effective instructions. Monitoring strategy helped them to track the implementation of school goals and instructional progress in classrooms. Hence, it enhanced instructional supervision. For example, documents reviewed at Tanita SS showed that there were class journals in classrooms where teachers had to write the concepts they had taught in a particular periods and the number of students who had attended their lessons. This means that the FHoSs engaged themselves in daily monitoring of the instructional activities at school.

On the other hand, students were asked whether their HoSs often visited their classes when teachers were teaching. The students at Tanita responded that most of the time their HoSs moved around the classroom checking whether the teachers were in the classroom or not. If they found a class without a teacher, she would go in to check which teacher was responsible, then would call her if she didn't know the reason for

her/his absence. They also reported that there were class journals monitored by class monitors and the Class monitors had to prove whether what the teacher taught their class or not. However, at Sofu SS, they reported that their HoS visited classes daily when present, checked class journals in the classroom, and asked students how teaching progressed on that particular day. She randomly picked and checked students' exercise books. This shows that FHoS involved themselves in effectively monitoring instructional performance.

In support of the ability of FHoS to monitor strategies, the DSEO revealed that FHoS could effectively monitor strategies for better students' academic performance. The DSEO stated that for consecutively three years, that is 2012, 2013 and 2014 Sofu SS, headed by female, had been leading in students' academic performance in the district among Community schools. Further investigation identified that, this was a Girls' School. In addition, the DSEO said:

“From the 2012 CSEE results in KTC, only 36 girls were selected to join High School, twenty five (25) out of them came from Sofu SS. I believe this success was because of her ability to plan and monitor strategies.”

Therefore, the above quotation proves that FHoS were able to monitor strategies that influenced teachers and students to fulfill their responsibilities to yield positive instructional outcome. This finding concurred with Ibukun (2004) and Northouse (2001) who viewed school leadership as the art of influencing teachers and students to work enthusiastically towards the achievement of school goals.

Moreover, FHoSs were asked to explain the strategies they used to achieve school goals. From the interviews held with them, it was revealed that, they planned school objectives together with the teachers, and then they ensured that the strategies were well supervised. The Headmistress at Boko SS said:

“If you want to succeed in monitoring schools strategies, first of all, you have to be around. Then you have to ensure that the school’s daily routine is well monitored and that teachers have the teaching resources they need. In our school, we also have weekly tests to monitor students’ learning.”

From the above quotation, it is true to say that FHoS were supposed to be present at school in order to do effective monitoring. Most of the time teachers have been absent from school because of the absence of HoS. Heads of schools were also supposed to ensure the availability of teaching and learning materials in order to bringing about general educational transformation and improve students’ performance and teachers’ accountability in classrooms. This finding matched with Oberman and Symonds (2005) with the view that monitoring must be constructive to encourage greater observation of instructional practices in the classroom such as observing what the teacher is missing in the classroom for effective teaching. Also, it must assess teaching and leadership practices and concentrate on students’ instructional achievement. It also concurred with Galabawa (2001) who established that the major roles of the HoS is to monitor curriculum and instruction, physical facilities, school management, pupil, staff personnel and school community relationships.

4.3.6 Motivation

Teachers’ motivation to teach can decrease if their expectations aren’t met. The researcher wanted to know whether headmistresses motivated teachers to feel proud of their work. Data from the field revealed that 30% strongly agreed while 33% agreed that FHoS motivated their teachers. Additionally, 28% disagreed, 7% strongly disagreed while 2% remained silent about FHoSs on teachers’ motivation. This data showed that teachers were satisfied with the way their FHoSs motivated them. Since

it was also found that FHoSs involved teachers in decision making, it can be concluded that teachers were motivated because they were involved in decision making pertaining to their jobs. This view concurred with Dubin (1974) that motivation is a result of motivating actions where superiors induce subordinates to engage in work behavior.

However, FHoSs faced challenges in motivating teachers in terms of meeting their physical, safety, social, esteem or ego and self actualization needs based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow A.H, 1954). Headmistresses were ready to motivate teachers but the challenge was financial ability. The HoS identified that the language of many teachers regarding motivation was money but the schools didn't have enough money to motivate teachers financially. For example, the HoS of Tanita explained:

“I try my best to regard my teachers as individuals, appraise their good work verbally and in writings and involving them in planning goals and school strategies. However, I fail to meet their basic needs due to shortage of fund, so sometimes they get despaired.”

Based on the above quotation it was revealed that schools were poorly funded by the government, hence it was difficult for HoSs to ensure that schools had teachers' houses. In addition, some teachers lived more than 50 kilometres from the schools. Yet transport was a problem that lowered motivation. For example some teachers were reported to spend 8,000/= Tanzanian Shillings for transport every day due to lack of public transport to the school directions. Hence the working environment didn't move teachers to feel proud of their work. On the other hand it was found that offering lunch to teachers would motivate them to like their jobs. Most teachers

remained hungry and became angry during instructional time hence poor students' performance.

On their side, students informed that sometimes those who performed better in terminal and annual examinations were rewarded, but sometimes no rewards were given. The students also thought that maybe money was the problem because they used to hear the HoS complaining about shortage of fund whenever they asked for some needs to be fulfilled at school.

Speaking on the issues of school funding, the DSEO identified that it was true that fund given to schools was not enough to cater for all needs such as motivating teachers. This was her suggestion:

“Heads of schools have to set priority based on the fund they receive. They have also to be creative to find money from other stake holders who can assist the government to tackle educational challenges.”

Although it is true that the HoSs could look for fund somewhere else, the truth that the government had to fund its schools well remained unchanged. So, the government was expected to provide enough funds to include the aspect of teachers' motivation. However, despite the shortage of fund, FHoSs were found to be smart in finding other ways such as encouraging teachers through the use of soft language, documenting teachers' success and reporting them to the higher authorities. Hence this conception was in agreement with Rue (1999) that supervisors in an organization are supposed to, treat employees as individuals, encourage participation and cooperation and providing them timely and accurate feedback to employees. Therefore, FHoSs were able to motivate teachers to improve students' performance as Michaelowa (2002) noted that motivated teachers have willingness, drive or desire to engage in good teaching.

4.4 Teachers' and Students' Perception on the Effectiveness of Female Heads of Secondary Schools

The second objective was to assess the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools. This objective was to determine whether the community generally had positive or negative perceptions and provide reasons for the views. Three aspects were used to assess their perception: firstly, they had to state whether they had experienced both male and female school leadership, and then state their preferences with reasons. Lastly, they were supposed to explain strengths of female over male school leadership. Findings revealed the following:

Findings revealed that 72% of the respondents had experienced both male and female school headship while 28% had not experienced male school headship. The following figure shows the percentage of the respondents who had negative and positive perceptions.

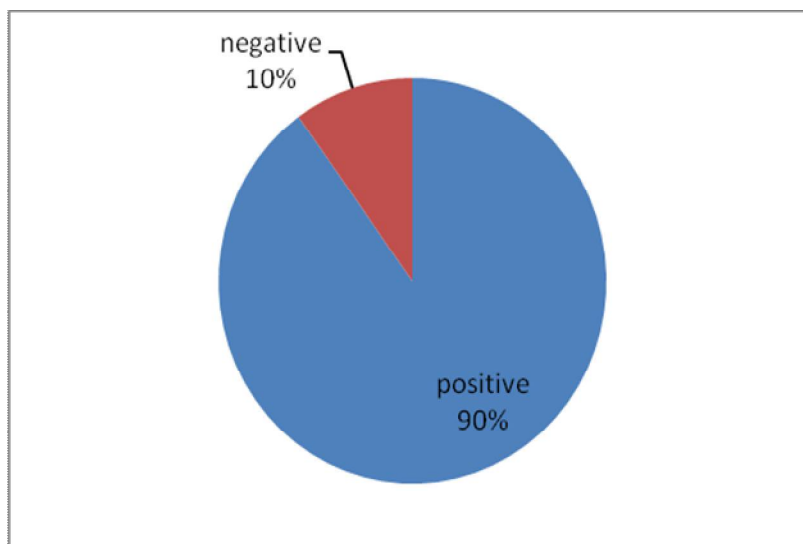


Figure 4.6: Respondents Perceptions of FHoS

As data shows in the above figure, majority of the teachers irrespective of their sex were very positive about female school leadership. Data on the preference of teachers on either male or female headship showed that 52% and 23% preferred female male school leadership respectively while 22% preferred both. However, 3% of the respondents remained silent. On the other hand, 63% of the respondents provided reasons based on the strengths of FHoS whereas 37% didn't supply reasons for their preference over female school headship. Below were some of the views towards positive perceptions regarding female school headship:

4.4.1 Firmness in Decision Making

Teachers viewed that FHoS were firm in their decision making. This means that they were invited to share the processes of goal planning and implementation. Teachers felt that they were valued and their views respected by their HoSs. On their side, students were asked if they were allowed to talk to their HoS at whenever they had a problem. The students reported that they were free to talk to their HoS any time. For example, during student – teachers meetings, students were encouraged to be open when expressing challenges facing them at school. One student said:

“I remember, one day we had a school meeting. Students complained about one Mathematics teacher who used to insult students in the classroom. The Headmistress asked him to respond to it. He agreed and asked for forgiveness. At last everyone was happy.”

This quotation shows that FHoS employed firmness in decision making in their leadership style.

4.4.2 Females' transparency in leadership

Thirty percent (30%) of the respondents perceived that FHoS were having effective leadership because of their transparency especially in financial matters. Teachers

reported that their HoSs informed them about the fund they received from the government, and the SMT was involved in the budgeting. Transparency helped to minimize fights between the teachers and the HoS. It also meant that school fund was properly managed for the purpose of improving instructional performance. Hence everyone concentrated on instructional issues. On their side, students stated that FHoS were open in speaking the truth about financial matters. For example one student said:

“Many times we hear the Headmistress telling us that our school has got money to buy books and other equipment. For example, last year, we asked her to buy us balls but she said that the school had no enough money. Last month she informed us that our school had received money, and teachers had agreed to buy balls for us. We are very happy about that.”

The quotation shows that the students were satisfied with the openness of their HoS hence, they did not riot. Furthermore the researcher found that in three schools, there were notices/announcements on the notice boards which informed about how the fund received from the government was to be used whereas in one school there was nothing on the notice board, but teachers said that they were informed and involved in deciding how to spend the money they had received. From the above evidence, it can be concluded that the fact that FHoSs were open to financial matters encouraged both teachers and students to willingly and highly engage themselves in fulfilling instructional goals because they understood the financial ability of the school. This finding supports Akao (2008) who held that women were transparent in school issues including financial matters. It also matched with Strachan, J. (2009) who posed that female principals were open to teachers.

4.4.3 Females' Punctuality and Attendance in Schools

Teachers who had experienced both male and female school headship felt that among the differences of male and female leadership was the presence and punctuality of HoS. While FHoS were reported to be available early and remained at school most of the time, their male counterparts were reported to be absent many times. This conception was proved by a SI who reported that when doing uninformed inspection in schools, they were likely to find FHoSs than MHoSs. This means that teachers and students preferred a school head who insisted on punctuality and attendance to both students and teachers but she herself believed and practiced it. This is because teachers' absenteeism has negative impact on students' performance (Finlayson, 2009).

4.4.4 Females' Ability to Care and Nurture

Research findings revealed that FHoS employed softer approach when supervising instructions in schools. The use of this approach improved relationship with teachers. Teachers agreed that FHoS often handled issues as mothers in addition to being leaders. One of the male teachers said:

“In this school, our Headmistress is called “mother. We call her mother because of caring us. When one has a problem, she responds quickly by giving correct assistance.”

The fact that female heads were called mothers was very peculiar because it related to their sense of nurturing and caring. For this reason, teachers felt that it was unfair not to fulfil their responsibilities if their school head nurtured them as her children.

This finding concurred with Weiner (1995) who observed that female leadership characteristics such as, nurturing were supposed to be part of human leadership

behaviour. On the contrary, traditional male traits such as aggressiveness and control appealed to teachers negatively. None of the teachers and students reported to call the Headmasters “father,” instead, some of them were nicknamed “*Nduli*” which means a dictator.

On their side, students were reported to be satisfied with the way FHoSs managed their schools. They felt more comfortable being under FHoS than MHoS. One could think that preference on female school headship by students was due to females’ weakness of being aggressive. This conception is not true because good leadership doesn’t mean aggressiveness, but the ability to influence others to behave in a required manner. It was also revealed that FHoSs were highly respected by the students because the good caring they received from them. One of the students supported by claps from other students said:

“My own mother is younger than our Headmistress age wise. If I don’t respect her it would mean that I don’t even respect my mother. Our Headmistress loves and cares us a lot. She even calls us “my children.” When we need something for our studies, she will ensure that we have it.”

The above quotation means that caring was not a weakness but a quality that women have. Women exercise leadership daily. Therefore, Growe and Montgomery (2000) were right to state that “Good school administration is more attuned to feminine than masculine modes of leadership behaviour because their attributes of nurturing, being sensitive, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, cooperative, and accommodative were associated with effective leadership. Also, the finding that FHoS possessed caring ability concurred with Porat (1991) who identified that caring was an innate leadership characteristic.

4.4.5 Fairness in Implementing Rules and Regulations

Although FHoSs have been blamed for being so strict on rules and regulations that guide instruction in schools; both male and female teachers appreciated the degree of fair treatment and equal administration of rules to both female and male teachers. Teachers felt that FHoSs tried their best to act on school rules without bias. This means that FHoSs took gender bias into consideration. One of the male teachers said:

“This is my second school to teach. In my first school, I had MHoS. When I came here, I thought that the HoS would be favour female teachers. I can assure you that this woman is trying her best to be fair. If you make a mistake or do something good, she would respond in the same way to both male and female teachers.”

Also, it has been a belief that women hate one another, and that one woman cannot appreciate leadership success of the other. This misconception was disputed by a female teacher, saying:

“I think men pretend to be fair to because they are afraid of resistance from their fellow men, but they have hidden agenda over women. In our school, the former HoS was a man. He seemed to be fair, but in fact he had hidden love relationships with female teachers and some student.”

Looking at the examples above, we can therefore say that FHoS were found to be fair with regard to distribution of responsibilities, punishing and rewarding teachers and students. Fair treatment minimized unnecessary complains, hence teachers spent much time in instructional matters. This finding agreed with Strachan, J. (2009) who found that female principals take gender bias into consideration to the extent that teachers voiced that they are fair when it comes to decision making. It also concurred with Elisha (2012) who observed that after working with a woman principal, teachers created a different understanding by perceiving leadership to base on individual capabilities and confidence but not gender biasness. So, there is need to give more

opportunities for both male and female teachers to experience female leadership so as to improve instructional performance in schools.

Conclusively, it can be said that both teachers and students perceive female leadership in secondary schools as effective and this is also supported by the literature.

4.5 Challenges Facing Female Heads of Schools

The third and the last objective was to assess the challenges that female heads of schools were facing as they negotiate their leadership roles in secondary schools in Kibaha. In this part, respondents were asked to rate four challenges facing FHoSs in the course of negotiating their leadership roles in secondary schools. They were also asked to identify other challenges that acted as barriers to women success in leadership. Findings from the field are presented in the figure below:

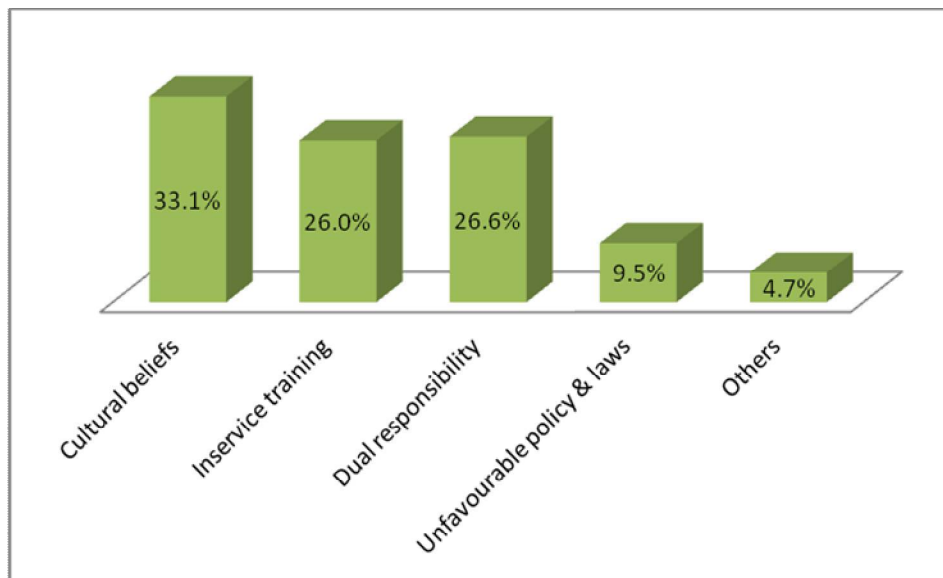


Figure 4.7: Rated Challenges facing Female Heads of Schools

Source: Field Data (2016)

4.5.1 Cultural beliefs and Mentality that Women are Incapable

Data presented in the above figure shows that FHoSs were punished because of the long-held cultural beliefs based on the patriarchal system that put men in the position of dominating women. Without any logical reason, women were seen to be placed in the second category of human beings regardless their professional and inborn leadership talents. In Tanzania and many other African societies, women fulfil almost all duties of caring the family, but decision making has remained totally men's role. Few women, who managed to break the barriers and climb the leadership ladder, found them facing resistance from both men and their fellow women. While men thought that leadership was associated with masculinity traits, cultural beliefs forced female to believe that it was men who were supposed to rule. Therefore, both men and women believed that women were incapable of taking roles of a HoS. This conception was in agreement with UNESCO (2009) that long held societal attitudes assume women to be poor leaders.

Cultural beliefs also were manifested in the working environment where teachers, who are part of society, carried with them their cultural beliefs at school hence resisted women attempts to excel in leadership. For example belief that women were inferior to men was evident in schools. One of the male teachers said:

“There are some male teachers who don't accept our Headmistress. They think that our Second Master was supposed to be the HoS and not her. Sometimes they fail to obey directives from her with view that it is a taboo for them to be instructed by a woman.”

The quotation shows that women were being stereotyped only because of cultural settings. Thus, Lessing (2004) was right to point out that men have greater credibility as authority figures, whereas women tend to be recognized for stereotypical qualities

such as sympathy, creativity, openness and patience, and thus are viewed as less suited for leadership.

Moreover, FHoSs themselves agreed that they faced some barriers in leadership though people had started changing their mindset on the position of women in leadership in the society. It was found that the native inhabitants of Kibaha District preferred taking their daughters to initiation rites after puberty. So there was conflict between school and upholding traditional values. Since the government had threatened to jail parents who denied their daughters right to education, such parents went to ask for permission to HoSs for their daughters to attend initiation rites when school was in session. Both male and female HoSs suggested that the girl should continue with studies, and if necessary, they could do so during holidays. However, a response from MHoS was accepted but that from the FHoS resulted into a rain of insults to her. This was because of the negative cultural mentality against FHoSs. Hence, research findings agreed with Dorsey (1989) who argued that problems females faced were rooted in "the pattern of gender socialization and belief systems" while Manwa (2002) & Schein (1994) perceived and portrayed leadership as a masculine construct based on masculine values in the society. The society is therefore urged to live away this mentality so as to give women freedom and more time to spend on instructional supervision rather than responding to socio-cultural issues which limit their success in instructional leadership.

4.5.2 Orientation and in- Service Training

Findings revealed that 26.6% of the respondents chose in-service training as among the challenges facing FHoS. Apart from having teaching professionalism, FHoSs

required leadership training because it was a tool for guiding school headship. Further findings identified that FHoSSs had partial or lacked leadership training. Also, they didn't receive general orientation of the tasks of the head of school before they assumed the office. Heads of schools were asked to state if they received any orientation training regarding the roles of the HoS. Three of the teachers had not attended any training before they began working. One of them was given some guideline for a day, and she was told that you will know many things when you begin working. So, most HoS were left to sail alone in leadership because they lacked necessary trainings which could orient them to take leadership roles effectively. The view concurred with Amodeo & Emislie (1985) who viewed that school administrators were normally inadequately prepared for the post and the demands of that office. The most important question is, how could they facilitate good school headship without being equipped with leadership skills?

It was further unveiled that some procedures needed to be followed when appointing a teacher to the position of HoS were skipped. According to one male school inspector, the name of the teacher was to be suggested from a school, the DSEO had to seek advice from the Inspectorate Department, and then submit the suggested names to the Regional Administrative Secretary for appointment; thereafter, they were supposed to be trained or oriented to their roles.

However, the current practice of appointing HoSs was reported not to involve school inspectors and lacked training. So after appointment, the heads of schools were left to start on their own without training. As a result they had to resort to "copy copy style" in that they had to imitate practices from experienced HoSs sometimes without

considering their situations. Hence schools failed to deliver required output. This finding agreed with Gwarinda, (1995) and Motsamai, (1994) who noted that heads of schools were, in essence, “senior teachers” who run schools without pre-service training in headship and hence did not possess requisite skills of supervision, accounting, time-tabling, administration, management, and curriculum.

Not only pre-service training but also, HoSs lacked in-service training. Heads of schools occasionally received training pertaining to leadership in general and financial management but little indeed on instructional supervision as Renihan (1997) & Gwarinda (1995) noted that most HoSs were untrained in school administration. Lack of capacity building affected schools adversely as it resulted to poor school instructional supervision as HoSs were unconfident, lacked creativity and caused many delays in taking actions over issues which needed immediate actions. In fact, many issues were implemented haphazardly and students’ academic performance suffered due to poor coordination of school programs. The observation concurred with Anit and Anat (2001) who revealed that training given to HoSs did not equip them well with leadership skills of supervising instructional programs. Also HoSs failed to assign duties to teachers and discipline them. The finding concurred with the Republic of Kenya (1988) which described that HoSs in effective schools could assign duties and supervise teachers effectively.

4.5.3 Dual Responsibility

Dual responsibility was among the challenges found to face FHoSs when executing their roles of school heads. Women were supposed to equally fulfill school and family roles; and in so doing, they found themselves overwhelmed with family rather

than school roles because their husbands failed to support them at home. Hence Brown & Ralph (1996) were right to acknowledge that the major barrier towards women's advancement is the role of women in the home. In traditional societies, the role of women in looking after the family has influenced women in our century. Hence some of them don't seek leadership positions because they would cost their time. It was also reported that some women got resistance from their husbands who didn't want their wives to excel in leadership. This view was supported by one SI by saying that:

“Women as mothers have to ensure that the children and the husband are well fed and get treatment when they fall sick. If a child is sick for instance, it is her role to take her to hospital.”

It was also noted that sometimes the husbands knew that their wives were at work, but they could phone and asked where they were, and that they needed them home. Because of the patriarchal traditions, women were not supposed to reject a call from the husband – this suggests that work was placed second after husband. For example, the DSEO said:

“Women lack support from teachers. Sometimes we are in meetings, a woman goes out to receive a phone, then comes back to ask for permission to leave the meeting because she has to attend a family matter at home.”

The above quotation shows that due to family roles, women failed to be accountable to school headship roles. The fact that they failed to attend important meetings, seminars or training workshops made them miss important skills, guidelines and training needed for them to be effective school leaders. Also, women were reported to be responsible for everything at home, hence when a female headed a school she faced many difficulties that hindered her to fulfil her duties effectively. One SI had experienced FHoS whose husband wanted her to be responsible at home for 100%

because he only knew that she was his wife. At last, she failed to attend a seminar about supervision of CSEE. The authorities demoted her for being ineffective.

Therefore, it is important to note that gender roles division in the family has accorded women with full family responsibilities compared to men. Men have traditional power over women and that, women themselves cannot decide on issues which affect their lives. Therefore, it is more than a truism that there are many women who are unable to head schools due to being highly occupied with domestic work. This observation agreed with Sam (2013) who stated that FHoSs have to perform dual responsibilities; caring the family and attending the duties of the head of school. Hence, Burns (1978) concludes that the major impact had been female submissiveness and dependent on men and that leadership becomes associated with masculinity while regarding women as individuals lacking skills in school headship.

4.5.4 Policy and Laws

Research findings showed that 9.5% of the respondents indicated that unfavourable policies and laws were a barrier to FHoSs in executing their leadership in secondary schools. This means that majority of the respondents had views that there was good policy and laws arrangements in Tanzania regarding giving women equal rights to enjoy leadership positions as men do. For example, the constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (URT) (1977) clearly indicates that the country is committed to promote gender equality and equity. The government of Tanzania (GoT) has facilitated the formulation of the WGDP (2000). This policy laid foundation in promoting gender equality and equity in all sectors and levels in the country. Also, the National Strategy for Gender Development (URT, 2000) highlights the major

issues of concern to gender equality where women's participation in leadership is one key area of concern. Not only that but also, the language of equality means that in leadership positions, men and women have to be given equal chances regardless of their sex. Hence, policies and legislations to ensure participation of women in leadership exist but they are constrained by lack of willingness to enforce them due to the existing cultural mentality that regard women unfit for leadership in the society.

Further investigation from the interviews with the DSEO and SI revealed that, sex of the teacher was not a requirement set for a teacher to be appointed HoS but professionalism and ability. One DSEO said;

“When appointing a teacher for the post of the HoS, several factors are considered. These are teaching experience of more than five years, educational level of at least first degree but in the past it was Diploma and commitment to work. Others are ethical conducts and good relationship with other teachers, students and the community at large.”

The quotation doesn't mention sex among the criteria for appointing a teacher to acquire the role of a head of school. However, the fact that men are preferred more often than women is the outcome of the long persisted social – cultural norms that men were leaders while women were family care-givers. Therefore, there is need to dismantle the patriarchal system that hinders harnessing the leadership talents of women in improving instructional performance in secondary schools especially at this era where majority students' performance in CSEE is poor.

4.5.5 Other Challenges

Apart from the four key aspects asked, the respondents were also asked to identify other challenges facing FHoS in executing their duties in SSs. Several factors, shown as “others”, and which constitute 4.7% in the figure were named. Some of the most

mentioned by students, teachers, HoSs, DSEO and SI were shortage of school funding which made the HoSs unable to purchase teaching and learning resources and motivating students and teachers for better instructional performance. Also, truancy of students and teachers and lack of cooperation from parents and the community was another big constraint. Social resistance just for the sake of resistance made women unacceptable for school headship. Not only that but also, some women had developed fear just because they were women, though majority of the respondents stated that women were confident leaders. Moreover, females' practice of democratic leadership, though useful for involving others to share decisions, consumed a lot of time to reach consensus. Lastly though for the purpose of this study, due to the existing of cultural gender imbalances that favoured men for leadership, conflict and lack of unity among and between students, teachers, FHoS and the community because some of them didn't accept that women could improve instructional situation for better students' performance.

Conclusively, the key challenges that female heads of schools faced in Kibaha were; cultural beliefs which regard men superior for leadership than women, lack of in-service training to equip their leadership performance and dual responsibility which pressed women with both family care and school leadership.

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the findings of the research that were based on three objectives: to determine the common leadership practices employed by female heads of secondary schools in enhancing instructional leadership; to assess the perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools;

and to assess the challenges that female heads of schools were facing as they negotiated their leadership roles in secondary schools. The key findings show that FHoS were good communitarians because of their democratic leadership practice. Also, they led by example, motivated teachers and students to fulfil their roles in addition to their preferences in working in teams. However, even though teachers and students held a positive perception regarding FHoSs ability to supervise teaching and learning in SS, the main challenge they faced largely emanated from social-cultural beliefs which graded women second to men in enjoying leadership opportunities. Dual responsibility and lack of training were other challenges which affected women adversely when fulfilling their leadership roles.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Traditionally women have been considered less effective in school headship as compared to men despite their large number in the teaching profession. Thus, there have been gender imbalances in the leadership of secondary schools. The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of female heads of secondary schools in fostering instructional leadership in public secondary schools in Kibaha District in Tanzania.

5.2 Summary of the Study

In examining the effectiveness of FHoSs in fostering instructional leadership, the study specifically, sought to; firstly, identify common leadership practices employed by female heads of secondary schools in enhancing instructional leadership in schools, secondly, assess perceptions of teachers and students on the effectiveness of female leadership in secondary schools, and thirdly, find out the challenges that female heads of schools faced when negotiating their roles in secondary schools.

The study employed a Social System Theory conceptual framework adapted and modified from, Waweru (2005) where input, mediating and output variables were identified. It was established that when FHoS employed leadership practices positively, was perceived positively by teachers and students and dealt with challenges, she would be able to foster effective instructional leadership.

The review of literatures of this study covered several aspects which included leadership theories, common leadership practices employed by FHoSs in

instructional leadership, teachers' and students' perceptions on female school headship, and the challenges facing them.

Furthermore, the study was a case study design where both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed. The study involved 60 respondents who were both males and females teachers. Each of these respondents filled a questionnaire and out of them four were also interviewed. However, for purposes of triangulation, two DSEOs, two SI and four FHoSs were interviewed as key informants. Four FGDs where each consisted of six students were carried in each of the four schools. Data were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. Qualitative analysis was conducted concurrently with gathering data, making interpretations and writing reports while quantitative data from the questionnaire were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer software version 20.

5.3 Summary of the Main Findings

5.3.1 Common Leadership Practices of Female Heads of Secondary Schools

The first research task was to identify common leadership practices employed by FHoSs in fostering instructional leadership in secondary schools. The study established that FHoSs were good communitarians and preferred working in and with teams. They were also a good role model to other teachers, hence lead by example. Women were also found to be democratic as they invited teachers to share in the process of making decisions at school. Also, FHoSs were found effective in monitoring planned strategies and in the whole course of motivating teachers and students. As Hallinger (2005) noted, that schools are held accountable for students' performance, given the increase in the number of students who fail in CSEE in

Kibaha SS and Tanzania in general, the findings could help to harness women leadership talents to improve classroom teaching and resource allocation for school improvement as noted by Robinson, (2007). This is because once given opportunity, women become accountable and flexible to adapt to changes in education as Bandiho, (2009) identified.

5.3.2 The Perceptions of Teachers and Students on the Effectiveness of Female Leadership in Secondary Schools

The second research task was to assess the teachers' and students' perceptions on the female leadership in secondary schools. It was found that both teachers and students viewed FHoSs positively. Females were positively viewed because of using democratic leadership approach and employing transparency. They were also found to observe punctuality and regular attendance at school where according to Finlayson (2009) teachers' absenteeism has negative impact on students' performance. Yet, FHoSs were found to be fair and care teachers and students. Hence, as was established by Michaelowa (2002) that motivated teachers were willing to engage in good teaching, the fact that teachers and students viewed FHoSs positively suggests that women were able to improve students' performance in SS.

5.3.3 Challenges Facing Female Heads of Schools in their Duties

The study also assessed the challenges facing FHoSs when fulfilling their duties. The study disclosed that socio- cultural values, similar to UNESCO (2009) punished FHoSs in Kibaha as they were considered second class category of citizens compared to men. Additionally, as Brown & Ralph (1996) found, dual responsibility where women were responsible for both family care and school leadership limited FHoSs in

fulfilling their duties in Kibaha. Lack of pre and in-service training as noted by Gwarinda, (1995) and Motsamai, (1994) was another challenge. Hence there is need to address these challenges in the community so that women's leadership talents could be utilized to improve pedagogy in SS.

5.4 Conclusions on Research Objectives

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that bad school leadership contributes to poor instructional performance in secondary schools. Although FHoSs have leadership ability which can facilitate good students' instructional performance, the society has failed to utilize women's leadership ability due to social-cultural beliefs such as gender stereotyping which places women in the second category of human beings compared to men, hence unable to assume leadership roles in secondary schools. However, since both teachers and students who work closely with FHoSs daily perceived FHoSs positively by respecting them and appreciating their ability to lead and improve instructional performance in secondary schools, it is therefore high time for the society to do away with cultural values which segregate women from participating in secondary school leadership.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the conclusions two types of recommendations are provided, namely recommendation for action and for further studies as follows:

5.5.1 Recommendations for Action

The recommendations for action are directed to the specific organs as follows:

First, the Ministry of Education Science and Technology should take full responsibility in ensuring that HoS perform their duties of supervising instructions in

schools effectively. Therefore, it should ensure that fair regulations of appointing teachers to assume the role of HoS equally apply irrespective of the teacher's sex but leadership ability. It should also sensitize the community to abandon traditional ties that regard FHoS incapable to promote students' instructional performance.

Additionally, it has to take responsibility to strengthen co-operation between schools and other education stakeholders such as communities, educational institutions and policy and planning units to improve instructional leadership in schools. Moreover, the ministry needs to allocate adequate funds to schools in order for the HoS to improve instructional environment and motivate teachers to perform better in the classroom. Specifically, it has to give priority of training and professional development for HoS and teachers.

Secondly, heads of schools have to understand that school is a place where knowledge is the core asset. Hence, in such environment, teaching and learning is the vehicle for growth and development. Therefore, schools should always struggle to deal with challenges that affect students' learning. Specifically, FHoS need to continue to learn and be responsible for their own learning as well as to help others to learn and take charge of their own learning through self-development efforts and systematic training programs. This will increase confidence and leadership capacity which traditionally has affected them.

Thirdly, the whole community should unite to fight against all forms of gender stereotyping especially those which have affected women for quite some time by changing their negative mindset on women's ability in school leadership. It has to understand that caring and nurturing ability that women show at home can be harvested for school success.

5.5.2 Recommendations for Further Research

More researches based on the effectiveness of FHoS in fostering effective instructional leadership are necessary to build on these research findings. Specifically, a comparative study involving a bigger sample of more than one district in Tanzania can prove beneficial as it will provide a vivid picture regarding the strengths of FHoS as instructional leaders not only in secondary schools but also all educational levels.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Teachers

This study aims at assessing the role of female heads of secondary schools in Fostering instructional Leadership in Kibaha District.

Please fill this questionnaire bearing in mind that your responses will be kept secret and used for study purpose only.

- Age: below 18 ()
 18-25 ()
 25-40 ()
 40-60 ()
- Sex: female ()
 Male ()

Carefully use information and condition given when responding to each question.

Key: 5.Strongly agrees 4. Agree 3. Disagree 2.Strongly disagree 1. None

1. How would you measure /rate your headmistress in the way she practices the following leader ship practises.
 - i. Our headmistress communicates to us politely and in a more attractive way which affect our duties positively

5. Strongly agree	()
4. Agree	()
3. Disagree	()
2. Strongly disagree	()
1. None	()
 - ii. She is capable in building team spirit and she works as part of the team

5. Strongly agree	()
4. Agree	()
3. Disagree	()
2. Strongly disagree	()
1. None	()

iii. In decision making our headmistress more often uses participatory approach to all matters that affect your school affairs.

- 5. Strongly agree ()
- 4. Agree ()
- 3. Dis agrees ()
- 2. Strongly disagree ()
- 1. None ()

iv. She leads by examples and convinces to be a role model in what she instructs others

- 5. Strongly agree ()
- 4. Agree ()
- 3. Disagree ()
- 2. Strongly disagree ()
- 1. None ()

v. She constantly monitors Strategy and does not show sign of despair.

- 5. Strongly agree ()
- 4. Agree ()
- 3. Disagree ()
- 2. Strongly disagree ()
- 1. None ()

vi. Your headmistress motivates you to feel proud of your work?

- 5. Strongly agree ()
- 4. Agree ()
- 3. Disagree ()
- 2. Strongly disagree ()
- 1. None ()

2. What approach do you think your head mistress uses in leading? (Put \surd)

- I. Democratic approach ()
- II. Lesser fair approach ()
- III. Authoritative/Dictatorship ()

3. In variable two above what do you think are the problems your school is facing from constant application of the leading approach you have selected above?

- I.
- II.
- III.

4. Is your school implementing what has been planned to reflect your planned objectives?

Yes ()
No ()

5. If no what would you comment on your supervisors planning process?

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.....
.....

6. On challenges facing female heads of secondary school put (√) on what you think are the most challenging aspects that female heads of schools are facing?

- I. Cultural beliefs ()
- II. In services training ()
- III. Social resistances ()
- IV. Unfavourable policy and laws ()
- Others if any

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.....

7. What is your general perception on female head of school roles in fostering instructional leadership in your school? Put (√) where appropriate.

- I. Positive ()
- II. Negative ()

If negative in 7 (ii) above what are the reasons for your negative perception?

- I.
.....
.....
- II.
.....
- III.
.....
.....
.....

8. Have you ever experienced both male and female head of school leadership?

- i. NO ()
- ii. YES ()

If YES, what are the strengths of the female head of school over male head of school?

i.
.....
.....
.....

ii. Would you prefer being under male or female headship? Why?
.....
.....

Appendix 2: Interview Guide for Teachers

Please, answer the questions below bearing in mind that the answers given will be used for research purpose only and will not be revealed to anyone for other purposes.

1. Does the head of school provide you with all necessary instructional materials to facilitate teaching?
2. Is the head of school always available to assist you and students in instructional matters? What assistance does she give?
3. Is there a good relationship between the head of school, teachers and students? Why?
4. Do you share your goals with the head of school? What does the head of school do when you fail to meet the goals?
5. Does the head of school set time to exchange ideas with teachers and students on how to improve students' academic performance?
6. Are you satisfied being under the female head of school? Do you think academic performance would have improved if the head was male or female?
7. What could the head of school do to improve performance in your school?
8. What challenges do you think the head of school face in executing his/her daily responsibilities

Appendix 3: Interview guide for Female Heads of Secondary schools

Please, answer the questions below bearing in mind that the answers given will be used for research purpose only and will not be revealed to anyone.

1. For how long have you been in the position of the Head of school?
2. What are your roles as the head of school?
3. How do people, including your subordinates and students perceive you as their leader?
4. What do you normally do to achieve school goals?
5. Do you plan goals with the teachers? How?
6. What action do you take when a teacher fails to meet the intended goal?
7. What challenges do you always experience in the performance of your roles?
8. Have you attended any leadership training? Please explain

**Appendix 4: Interview guide for District Secondary school Education Officers
and School inspectors**

Please, answer the questions below bearing in mind that the answers given will be used for research purpose only and will not be revealed to anyone.

1. How many secondary schools are there in your district?
2. How many schools are headed by females?
3. What are the procedures that are used for appointing heads of schools?
4. Is there any leadership orientation course provided to appointed heads of schools before they begin their work?
5. Can you explain the difference between female and male leadership? Please provide examples.
6. Do female heads of schools execute their duties similarly to males?
7. What are the key challenges faced by the heads of schools in your district?
8. Do female heads of schools face the same challenges? Please explain.

Appendix 5: Guiding questions for Students' Focus Group Discussions

Please, answer the questions below bearing in mind that the answers given will be used for research purpose only and will not be revealed to anyone.

1. What are your roles as class leaders?
2. How often does the head of school visit classes when teachers are teaching?
3. Does the head of school teach any subject?
4. Does the head of school communicate with you regarding classroom activities? How often does the head of school talk to you regarding academic issues?
5. Are you allowed to talk to your head of school whenever you have any problem?
6. Are you satisfied with the way the head of school support you in academic issues? How?
7. Do you think female heads of schools perform their duties effectively as male heads of schools?
8. What is the academic performance in your school? Do you think if your school had a male/female head of school performance would have improved? Why do you think so?
9. What do you think are the challenges facing your head of school in trying to improve students' academic performance?
10. What do you like or dislike about your head of school?

Appendix 6: Documentary Search

Name of school.....

Documents	Remarks
Training manual for heads of schools	
Examination results from NECTA	
Education and training policy	
Secondary Education Development Program	
Education acts and circulars	
School records: Staff Attendance book Internal exams results' records School general and Class Time tables, School and academic calendars Staff meeting minutes School Management Team meeting minutes Students' individual records Teachers' Reward Book Students' Reward Book Selected students to join A-levels or colleges Inspectors' reports Students' registry book Class journals Students' Attendance Register Subject Log Books Lesson Plan Books Schemes of work	