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An investigation into the effectiveness of the leadership
development of female headteachers working in girls' state
secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

A Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Institute of Education

By

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late father, who was and remains a role model to me. His ambitious personality is something I always admired and aspire to emulate every day.

My mother, who always believed in me and was patient during the long years that I have been far from her.

My husband Saad, who has been so considerate and supportive throughout my academic research. His patience, love, and encouragement have been the main source of my motivation in carrying out my research.

My beloved sister Ghadah, whose bubbly personality always makes me smile throughout stressful times.

I love you all.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DECLARATION

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Wafa Alshamrani

ABSTRACT

This thesis seeks to gain in-depth insights into the views of female headteachers working in girls' state secondary schools (students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia regarding the effectiveness of the current arrangements for leadership development both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post. The analysis of the data collected in this research has been assisted by theories of learning.

An interpretivist approach was employed for this research. The data were collected in two stages. In the first stage, a questionnaire was sent electronically to a sample of 131 headteachers working in schools in one area of high population density in Saudi Arabia. These headteachers were asked to complete the survey only if they had been in post for five years or less (42 responses). The second stage involved a representative sample of these headteachers (seven in total) to be interviewed in semi-structured face-to-face interviews.

The main findings from this study indicate that (i) many of those in the sample had not previously served as a deputy headteacher; (ii) the importance of family support emerged as a key factor in acting as a motivator for teachers to take on this role; (iii) the existing courses (i.e., Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (TQCNH)) were not considered to be wide-ranging enough to cover the many different problems a newly appointed headteacher faces; (iv) observing good role models is important for helping in the development of a new identity as a headteacher; and (v) budget issues and limited authority were the most significant challenges that the headteachers faced when taking up the leadership.

As a result of this study, a number of recommendations can be made which might help improve the quality of leadership development and make the ongoing supply of new headteachers more effective and sustainable in the long run in Saudi Arabia.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CPD   Continuing Professional Development

EPD   Early Professional Development

ICT   Information and Communication Technology

MoE   Ministry of Education

OECD   Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

PISA   Programme for International Student Assessment

TIMSS   Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

TQCNH   Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers

UK   United Kingdom

UNESCO   United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

ZPD   Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introduction

This research investigates the effectiveness of the leadership development of female headteachers who work in secondary schools (with female students 15–18 years old) both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post. More specifically, it examines headteachers' perceptions regarding their preparation and continued development of leadership opportunities in the context of Saudi Arabia.

This chapter presents the personal and professional experiences (Section 1.2), the rationale for conducting the study (Section 1.3), and the significance of the study (Section 1.4); sets out the aim, objectives, and research questions (Section 1.5); and offers an outline of the structure of this thesis (Section 1.6).

1.2   Personal and professional experiences

The original stimulus for the study was the result of several critical incidents which occurred when the researcher worked as a teacher in different schools Saudi Arabia. For example, as a physics teacher in a secondary school in Jeddah (the second biggest city in Saudi Arabia), I can still remember when a fire broke out during the school day, potentially endangering approximately 400 girls who attended the school. Surprisingly, the school's headteacher ran away, abandoning her responsibility to manage such a crisis. However, the evacuation process was carried out successfully by the deputy headteachers and help from the majority of teachers. This incident triggered questions in my mind about the reality of leadership development of female secondary school headteachers as well as the reasons behind why headteachers accept the role of headship.

Another example occurred when I worked in a rural secondary school run by a new headteacher who had been appointed to lead the school directly after her graduation from university. Approximately 250 girls attended this school. It should be noted that, in Saudi Arabia, it is customary to appoint headteachers without any experience in remote areas due to the scarcity of those wishing to accept the full responsibilities of the headteacher role or even work in schools in these areas. My experience in this school was difficult because of poor school leadership. For instance, the headteacher lacked self-confidence and the ability to make decisions, which might be expected due to her lack of leadership knowledge and skills at the time. Unfortunately, this headteacher's attitude resulted in a negative influence on students' behaviour and achievement as well as poor relationships between her and the staff.

Although I did not have enough experience in teaching at that time, I was aware of some characteristics that a headteacher must have, such as the ability to build good relationships with staff, effective decision-making, and self-confidence. My knowledge of these matters might be constructed as a result of observing headteachers when I was studying in outstanding intermediate and secondary schools in Jeddah. This increased my interest to gain a deeper understanding of female headteachers' leadership development and the nature of support they receive, in addition to improving my own knowledge of the difficulties they face during the early years of headship. The findings from this research might help enhance the provision of support for headteachers when taking the post and achieve better quality in their professional development.

In contrast with the work experience previously discussed, a much more positive influence was offered by an experienced headteacher which came about as a result of being employed as a teacher in another secondary school in Riyadh (the capital city of Saudi Arabia). It was a large girl's school with more than 600 students. However, the

headteacher led the school confidently and well in terms of applying school discipline, placing a great deal of emphasis on improving students' achievement and their behaviour, and creating a good relationship with students, teachers, and parents. In this school, I gained the opportunity to do some administrative work alongside this headteacher for three years. This shift in working with an experienced headteacher, positively different in knowledge and skills than the previous very inexperienced headteachers, helped me create a more comprehensive understanding of the diverse role of a school headteacher and the importance of 'lived experiences'. Such a variation provided the motivation to undertake this study to get a better understanding of the following aspects: motives and support behind their acceptance of the headship role, an investigation of the arrangements for leadership development of headteachers both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post, their perceptions of the effectiveness of their transition when becoming a head of school, and the main challenges that they faced.

Given my belief that the headteacher is the most important person in the school, playing a vital role in terms of school governance and being responsible for the education of all students and related processes, headteacher preparation and development are essential for increasing school performance. My interest was further supported by a desire to gain a theoretical understanding in the area of leadership development and then find out to what extent leadership development approaches in a Western context might be applied in Saudi Arabia.

1.3   Rationale for conducting the study

In addition to my personal interest, there has been worldwide interest in leadership development and its possible influence on raising the standards of teaching and learning. Leadership is a key factor in school improvement. Therefore, improving the quality of

school leadership remains a top priority. The Saudi Arabian education system has not remained untouched by the effect of global international policies. Saudi Arabia faces pressure to provide highly competitive education to produce 21st-century globally fit graduates, who can function effectively in a rapidly changing global and technological world (Faruk, 2013). As a result, it has been continuously reforming its education system through different projects, such as King Abdullah's Public Education Project (Tatweer) (see Section 2.7).

Although the Saudi government has implemented school development initiatives as part of public services reform, teachers' professional development is an area with a great deal of room for improvement (Alaqeel, 2005). The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics (UNESCO) (2010) noted that Saudi Arabian universities serve as the main platform for improving teachers' qualifications. UNESCO's (2010) report asserted that teachers in Saudi Arabia have to satisfy the demands of a wide-ranging curriculum consisting of courses related to education theory and specific scientific disciplines. However, the result of students in Trends in Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, 2015), which was organised by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), ranked Saudi Arabia's fourth- and eighth-grade students (10 and 14 years old) within the worst five performers in mathematics and science, along with Kuwait, Morocco, Jordan, and South Africa. Therefore, the Saudi government is still seeking to introduce reforms in the education sector to raise the level of student achievement and "prepare its citizens for life and work in a modern, global economy" (Al-Faisal, 2006, p. 415), which in turn will lead to increasing the levels of responsibility placed on headteachers' shoulders. According to

Bush (2003), positive change relies on high-quality leadership. Similarly, Burke (2008) argued that leadership is vital in determining whether schools will survive and adapt to the constant demands for change from politicians and civil servants. However, the Ministry of Education (MoE) tends to assume that headteachers are capable of administering the reforms successfully without taking into account the importance of the preparation and leadership development required for this to be possible. Vandenberghe (2003) summarised the conflict between the expectations of external bodies, such as the MoE, and the day-to-day reality of headteachers as follows:

> Being a principal nowadays means being continually confronted with disconnected demands, with expectations of a very different nature linked to different aspects of the daily operation of a school and with the conflicting demands of several external constituencies. (p. 3)

One can argue that this might lead to a disproportionate amount of pressure being placed on headteachers, which may explain the growing rate of early retirement among female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Consequently, the MoE might face an unanticipated shortage of experienced headteachers and be forced to accept underqualified candidates. Therefore, more attention has to be given to supplying better-trained and more appropriately qualified headteachers.

According to Mathis (2010), school headteachers acquire little or no leadership development before taking up the role of headship. Research (e.g., Aldarweesh, 2003; Alsharari, 2010) has found that headteachers in Saudi Arabia vary in their level of experience and qualifications. In addition, the requirements for obtaining a headteacher

position in Saudi Arabia are quite imprecise (for more details on selecting and appointing new headteachers in Saudi Arabia, see Section 2.9). For example, Aldarweesh (2003) noted that, "in Saudi Arabia, any teacher could apply to be a principal or principal's assistant after a few years of teaching experience" (p. 1). As a result, one can argue that inexperienced and underqualified headteachers will encounter many difficulties when implementing new reforms at a local level, which ultimately threatens the Saudi national vision for improving the education sector. The MoE should aim to ensure that all who reach the position of headship are well qualified for the role so that, ultimately, headteachers will be able to effectively work with the Ministry to achieve positive changes in educational attainment.

The established system of education within Saudi Arabia is highly centralised (Alyami, 2014). According to Alyami (2014), school headteachers in Saudi Arabia rely on decisions made by the MoE with respect to the academic curriculum, which can affect headteacher development. For example, school supervisors (inspectors) in Saudi Arabia currently lack the means to implement their own educational initiatives without obtaining direct consent from the MoE (more detail about school supervisors is provided in Section 2.9). Notably, Meemar (2014) claimed that headteachers in Saudi Arabia desire a higher degree of independence. It could be argued that, if headteachers could become more independent, they could drive the school forward and develop their skills by implementing their own vision. However, one might argue that headteachers must be

appropriately qualified and experienced to handle such independence that many civil servants in the MoE are not accustomed to. This discussion serves as an additional justification for the choice of leadership development area for headteachers in Saudi Arabia as the focus of this study.

Headship is a complex process with many different stakeholders. It is also greatly impacted by the political, economic, and social circumstances in which a headteacher operates (Walker & Qian, 2006). Considering the social context in which Saudi female headteachers work, it is very important when examining their leadership development. Conservative Saudi society perceives men's social norm and duties to be the breadwinner in the family and provide for the household. Contrastingly, women are expected to oversee the household and care for their children's needs. However, Saudi women are not constrained solely to the role of a housewife. Indeed, there are many employment and higher education opportunities available to females. For example, more than half of students enrolled in universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia are female (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2020). Nevertheless, there is a social expectation placed on married women to prioritise their role as wives and mothers. One could argue that the dual burden placed on Saudi teachers to balance their household responsibilities and development opportunities creates great pressure, which might result in female teachers becoming reluctant to pursue a leadership position. As a result, the MoE might experience difficulties due to the lack of potential female headteachers to lead all girls' schools across

the country (Section 3.8 discusses women and leadership from both a Western and an Arabic cultural perspective in more detail).

The family-oriented culture in Saudi Arabia involves female dependency on their male family members; thus, males tend to adopt more of a leadership role in the household. Therefore, Saudi females might not be accustomed to exercising leadership in wider society and, as a result, novice female headteachers might encounter difficulties in their post, which may hinder the quality of headship in girl schools. Therefore, this research sought to highlight the importance of leadership development of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia in the hopes that the MoE will pay more attention to this important aspect.

This study did not adopt a feminist approach as its ideology does not align with the aim of this research. The study aimed to uncover the effectiveness and limitations of the current forms of preparation that female headteachers experience before and after taking up the role of headship and did not focus specifically on female emancipation or a comparison of leadership development opportunities offered to male and female headteachers. In addition, neither male nor female headteachers can operate independently in Saudi Arabia as the education system is highly centralised and directly controlled by the MoE. Moreover, if the feminist approach was adopted, the researcher would have to consider male headteachers' perspectives in order to achieve an accurate comparison between the leadership development provided to both male and female headteachers. As a female researcher, this would have posed practical issues due to the

gender segregation within Saudi schools. In schools in Saudi Arabia, girls attend separate schools than boys, and only females can work in girls' schools while only male teachers work in boys' schools. Therefore, Saudi cultural constraints would make it difficult for the researcher to collect data on male headteachers' perceptions on their leadership development. One might argue that this obstacle could have been overcome if the researcher had received assistance from a male representative, such as a family member, to collect data from male headteachers. Indeed, in Alsharari's (2010) study on training courses available to male and female headteachers in Aljouf and Alqurayat (small cities in the northern part of Saudi Arabia), the researcher acquired assistance from his sister to interview female headteachers. Yet such an approach might hold a high degree of risk for miscommunication and interpretation, thereby undermining the validity of the data. Therefore, the researcher decided to focus on female headteachers in order to gain a deeper understanding of their preparation. In addition, the researcher took into account that leadership development is not limited to attending courses, but instead goes beyond that to include coaching, mentoring, and job shadowing. It also attempts to take into account the experiences of female headteachers who have previously undertaken a deputy headship role.

The next section discusses the significance of the study and identifies the gaps in relation to the Saudi educational context on headteachers' preparation and leadership

development opportunities as well as the transition to headship and challenges faced in early headship.

1.4   Significance of the study

In Saudi Arabia, female students must be taught by teachers of the same sex. As the number of female pupils attending schools rises, the number of female teachers needs to increase to provide this education (Alyami, 2014). Yet a significant increase means that there may not be enough qualified applicants to fill the spaces available and, as a result, less qualified or even unqualified teachers may be hired. A shortage of qualified teachers might stem from the perception that teaching is no longer considered an attractive career. In addition, Alsharari (2010) argued that the MoE could fail to provide female pupils with adequate education by appointing unqualified headteachers. As this study seeks to examine the effects of preparation and development on female headteachers, it is assumed that any issues arising can be documented and reviewed. The significance of this study will be derived from these results, as the issues highlighted could be directed toward improving the current policy and practice in preparing and developing female headteachers in secondary schools.

Studies on the topic of female leadership are not new, although in the context of Saudi Arabia they are somewhat limited. Various studies (e.g., Aldarweesh, 2003; Badawood, 2003; Mathis, 2010) have examined educational leadership within the Saudi context, but much of their research has related to the leadership models of headteachers and the corresponding teacher perceptions of these leadership models. Aldarweesh (2003) conducted her study in the city of Alahsa in the eastern part of Saudi Arabia and sought to understand the leadership behaviour of headteachers from their point of view and from

their teachers' perceptions. She distributed two questionnaires: one for 28 headteachers and another for 248 teachers working in primary girls' schools. The main findings of the study were (i) the lack of differences between headteachers' and teachers' perceptions and (ii) headteachers of different ages viewed themselves as effective leaders while teachers considered their headteachers to be effective leaders. According to Aldarweesh (2003), most headteachers who participated in the study had a great deal of experience in school leadership.

Badawood's (2003) study aimed mainly to investigate the concept of leadership among headteachers of private boys' secondary schools in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, and to determine whether a relationship exists between the headteachers' understanding of the concept of leadership and their leadership behaviour along with investigating the teachers' perceptions of headteachers' leadership behaviours. Badawood's (2003) study included 31 headteachers who worked in private boys' secondary in addition to 142 teachers in charge of student services in the same schools. Badawood (2003) found that the majority of the headteachers had positive attitudes toward leadership. This study's findings were consistent with those of Aldarweesh's (2003) study as most headteachers viewed themselves as effective leaders.

Mathis's (2010) study aimed to understand female headteachers' perceptions in terms of their leadership role in the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia. She interviewed 12 female headteachers working in primary, intermediate, and secondary schools who had been selected at random. Mathis (2010) found that headteachers described their leadership role as (i) creating a positive educational and working environment, (ii) fulfilling the objectives of the MoE, and (iii) taking on a huge responsibility. Interestingly, she also reported that prior development was not a prerequisite for obtaining a school headteacher position, which raises an issue of whether the skills of female headteachers in Saudi

Arabia were developed appropriately. In other words, based on Mathis's (2010) results, headteacher preparation needed to be investigated in order to uncover valuable insights related to the position of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Thus, numerous aspects have to be accounted for in this research to achieve a comprehensive review of the practical applications of secondary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia concerning the effectiveness of their preparation and leadership development opportunities.

Alsharari (2010) examined the perceived training needs of female headteachers compared to the training needs of male headteachers in Aljouf and Alqurayat (small cities in the northern part of Saudi Arabia). He used a mixed methods approach of questionnaires (completed by 470 headteachers, both female and male) and interviews (18 male headteachers and 18 female headteachers) to determine the training needs of those headteachers. His study comprised all male and female headteachers in Aljouf province and Alqurayat governorate in Saudi Arabia for the three stages of education: primary, intermediate, and secondary schools. Alsharari (2010) found that both male and female headteachers required more training in information and communication technologies (ICT), administrative requirements, student affairs, and staff development. In contrast, this study is focused on secondary school female headteachers in a highly populated area in Saudi Arabia.

Despite the fact that the studies discussed thus far offer valuable insights and highlight educational leadership in Saudi Arabia, questions remain surrounding how educational leadership can be developed. In addition, much of the research has been conducted by male researchers and might not always depict an accurate representation of the situation in female schools. Therefore, this study focused only on female headteachers and did not include male headteachers working in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia (for more

details on the reasons behind not including male headteachers in this study, see Section 1.3).

Although the educational system in Saudi Arabia is constantly changing, the leadership development of headteachers in girls' schools in Saudi Arabia is largely a neglected area. Headteachers need a continuing training schedule when new strategies arise and new policies have to be implemented (Crawford, 2014). In addition, Bush (2003) argued that useful changes cannot be effective unless they are driven by high-quality leadership. Therefore, it is hoped that the findings of this study will provide practitioners and policymakers in Saudi Arabia with a better understanding of the ways to improve educational leadership development for headteachers.

1.5   Aim, objectives, and research questions

1.5.1   Aim

The aim of this research is to investigate the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development of female headteachers, working in girls' state secondary schools (students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia, both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post.

1.5.2   Objectives

The objectives of this research are:

1- To identify the motivational aspects that encouraged headteachers to apply for a headship position.

2- To investigate whether the current leadership development strategies for female headteachers in state girls' schools in Saudi Arabia can be considered satisfactory.

3- To understand the effects of the headship role on a headteacher's emerging identity.

4- To identify the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during their early years of headship.

1.5.3   Research question and sub-questions

The main research question to be addressed in this thesis is: to what extent is the leadership development of female headteachers effective for those working in state secondary schools (for female students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia?

In order to help answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were devised:

RSQ1. What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?

RSQ2. What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post?

RSQ3. How effective was the headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?

RSQ4. What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?

1.6   Structure of the thesis

The rest of this thesis is organised as follows. Chapter II, the context of the study, it presents general aspects of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia context (e.g., demography geography); it also provides the relationship between structure and Saudi culture, the development of both education and girls' education in Saudi Arabia, the document guiding Saudi Arabian education policy, the country's educational system, the role of the MoE, the selecting and appointing of new headteachers in Saudi Arabia, and in-service headteachers' training in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter III, the literature review, explains the theoretical framework used in this study as well as the research literature regarding school culture and the importance of leadership and management in education. It contains a review of literature from both Western and Saudi perspectives on educational leadership, professional development, leadership development, and women and leadership in the education sphere. It also provides critical analyses of the effectiveness of the leadership preparation of female headteachers. Consideration is also given to the transition to headship and its impact on headteachers' identity formation. Finally, the challenges school headteachers face in their early years in the position is discussed.

Chapter IV, on the research design and methodology, offers the methodological framework for employing a mixed methods approach in addressing the research questions. Several aspects are also addressed in detail, such as a justification for the use of the chosen research methods, sampling, data collection, data analysis, reliability and validity of the instruments of the study, and ethical issues.

Chapter V, which presents the findings, discusses the findings derived from a survey of 42 secondary headteachers with a maximum of 5 years in post and interviews with 7

headteachers. From an analysis of the data, four themes emerged: (a) motivational aspects of leadership development; (b) leadership development opportunities that headteachers gained both before and after taking up the role of headship; (c) the effectiveness of transition to headship; and (d) the challenges that headteachers faced during the early years of headship.

Chapter VI, which focuses on the findings, discusses the results from this research, as presented in Chapter V, in relation to the relevant literature and theoretical ideas underpinning the study to derive interpretations and judgments related to the main findings.

Chapter VII, the conclusion, summarises the findings of the thesis and provides answers to the main research question and the sub-questions. Consideration is also given to the originality of this research. The chapter also identifies some limitations of the study and discusses the implications of the findings for future practice of leadership development. Finally, some recommendations are offered for future research related to this topic.

CHAPTER II – THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1   Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development of female headteachers, working in girls' state secondary schools in Saudi Arabia, both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post. Thus, numerous aspects have to be accounted for in this research to achieve a comprehensive review of the practical applications of secondary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia concerning the effectiveness of their preparation and leadership development opportunities.

Each country has its own specific context that shapes the education systems, policies and procedures (Catarci & Fiorucci, 2015). Therefore, the chapter has provided a picture of the environment within which Saudi Arabia has been managing its education system (Section 2.2). In addition, the relationship between structure and Saudi culture is discussed in Section 2.3. The development of both education and girls' education in Saudi Arabia is discussed in Section 2.4 and Section 2.5, respectively. Followed by a discussion of the document guiding Saudi Arabian education policy (Section 2.6) and an explanation of the country's educational system (Section 2.7). The role of the MoE is discussed in Section 2.8. Finally, the process of selecting and appointing new headteachers in Saudi Arabia (Section 2.9) and Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (in-service headteachers' training) will be discussed (Section 2.10).

2.2 General characteristics of Saudi Arabian context

This section provides an overview of the context in which this study was conducted by focusing on five key characteristics: geographical, demographic, economic, political, and social.

2.2.1 Geography

The Arabian Peninsula is mostly occupied by the country of Saudi Arabia (Figure 2.1), which is one of the largest nations in the world without any permanent bodies of water or perennial rivers. Saudi Arabia covers a total area of just under two and a quarter million square kilometres. It contains the world's largest area of continuous sand desert, called al-Rab al-Khali ("Empty Quarter" in Arabic), most of which is uninhabited, and is dominated by a climate of dry, harsh, extreme temperatures. The country's highest point is Jabal Sawda, which reaches a height of 3,133 metres in the Asir region in the south-west part of the country (Shwehdi, 2005).

Figure 2.1   Saudi Arabia Map**.** From *World Trade Press.* Retrieved from www.worldtradepress.com. Copyright 2007 by World Trade Press.

Only 1.5 percent of the land area is arable, with less than 2 percent hosting permanent cropping. Although the government has attempted to provide every village with a school, the mountains and desert regions make the transportation of the materials necessary to build such establishments, as well as staffing them, very difficult (Al-Zarah, 2008).

2.2.2   Demography

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is one among the largest Arab states. The General Authority for Statistics reported that Saudi Arabia had a population of 33,413,660 million (GAS, 2018). The main demographic distribution is concentrated in the Eastern Province, the Western Province, and Riyadh, the capital city, as these are commercial hubs (Saudi

Vision 2030, 2016). The continued growth in the population is causing increased concerns related to housing, schooling, and employment; therefore, Saudi Vision 2030 has been commissioned to devise and put into place many planning strategies to ameliorate the expected challenges.

2.2.3 Economic characteristics

Of the numerous historical events and aspects, the most important for the economy of Saudi Arabia was the discovery of huge oil fields near the Arabian Gulf in 1938, which significantly changed the country's prospects. Fourteen years later, the largest oil field found, the Ghawar, started production. The resulting income enabled Saudi Arabia to develop rapidly in all areas and changed its economic profile entirely, as a result of the well supported argument that a major contributor to any country's economic growth is that of quality education (Maroun, Samman, Moujaes, & Abouchakra, 2008). Although a large proportion of Saudi Arabia's economy and production is based on the natural resources of petroleum, iron ore, natural gas, copper, and gold, one of the main objectives of Saudi Vision 2030 is economic diversification by "unlock[ing the] potential of non-oil sectors" and "grow[ing] non-oil exports" (KSA Vision 2030, 2017, p. 20). Therefore, the National Industrial Development and Logistics Programme (NIDLP) has been mandated to transform the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia into a leading industrial powerhouse and a global logistics hub by focusing on four key sectors: industry, mining, energy, and logistics (NIDLP, 2017).

2.2.4 Political characteristics

Saudi Arabia has an observable connection with the United States in terms of education, with most Saudi postgraduate students earning degrees from schools in the United States

(Taylor & Albasri, 2014). A meeting involving officials of the Ministry of Education (MoE), various academics, and American educational experts in 2013 considered the exploration of innovative solutions and better strategies to develop Saudi Arabia's education and create "a knowledge-based economy" (Fatany, 2013). Although the Saudi government has allotted a large budget to the education field, the problems concern not only available resources, but also the need for a more fundamental change in the curriculum. More recently, many political changes have been made in the educational domain, including the closing of both the Council of Civil Service and the Education Policy Committee and merging of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education in 2015 to become the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2015).

2.2.5   Social characteristics

The accompanying economic development brought about social changes, such as when Saudi women obtained the right to vote, take part in municipal elections, and win seats on the Shura Council in 2011 and when they were granted the right to drive in 2017. These significant events have given weight and power to individuals of both genders in their desire to access a complete educational system, from kindergarten through university. There is growing interest in the provision of education for all ages and for every individual to be able to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to use the various ideas presented by the general curriculum in their daily working lives (Al-Shaer, 2007). Ozmon and Craver (1999) further clarified this as follows:

> When people fail to teach a child how to read and write they doom that
> child to difficulty in finding a job, in understanding vital information, the
> child will become a liability rather than an asset to society. In the same
> way, when people fail to teach a child the kind of preparation and skills

needed for technological and scientific development, they are not using school to their fullest capacity. (p. 77)

This quote reveals the importance of education for a child to make her/his life meaningful and help them achieve their full potential. Ozmon and Craver (1999) emphasised that effective education of the child is the basic foundation of the life.

2.3   Relationship between structure and culture in Saudi Arabia

The education system in Saudi Arabia is very different than that of the United Kingdom (UK) due to the polarising cultures of Eastern and Western societies. Northhouse (2007) defined culture as the "learned beliefs, values, rules, norms, symbols, and traditions that are common to a group of people" (p. 302). According to Bush (2003), leadership is inevitably affected by the culture of a society as "societal culture is one important aspect of the context within which leaders must operate" (p. 159). Similarly, Dimmock and Walker (2000) argued that incorporating societal culture as a factor when investigating "curriculum, teaching and learning, leadership and school-based management is an imperative for the future development of the field" (p. 304). Thus, what is classified as effective leadership in one society, like Saudi Arabia, may not align with the Western view.

The education system in Saudi Arabia is highly centralised, with decision-making restricted to the MoE (for more on the role of the MoE, see Section 2.8). The MoE's decision-making power is not limited to educational laws and regulations; it also includes issues such as appointing teachers to schools. These decisions cannot be questioned, and

headteachers must passively accept their judgement. This mirrors the monarchical political system in Saudi Arabia, making it the norm for Saudis to submissively accept decisions made by the government.

The MoE consists of numerous structural levels, with a long chain of command, thereby reinforcing the notion of a rigid bureaucracy. As a result, the main purpose of the MoE is to maintain the education system rather than develop it (Algarni & Male, 2014). This approach reflects the traditional nature of Saudi culture, which is dominated by tribal practices that are still significant in Saudi society (Al-Qaradawi, 1998). These tribal customs are passed down from one generation to another in order to keep the traditions alive, and many Saudis hold a sense of pride over their tribe and consider it a big part of their identity. For this reason, many tribes have rules surrounding marriage, such as not marrying outside one's own tribe in order to maintain their deep bloodline, which can be traced back hundreds of years. Yet some tribes allow marrying outside the tribe, although the marriage should take place with a person of tribal origins. Although tribes share common rules that differentiate them from non-tribal people (for example, all tribes value tribalism, honour, and hospitality), it is difficult to make generalisations surrounding tribes' viewpoints on topics such as women's rights, which depend on individuals' knowledge and awareness, not their tribal affiliation. Some individuals support women and encourage them to take up leadership positions whereas other discourage it,

regardless of their tribal background. The latter group might be driven by a fear of women neglecting their role in the family as mothers and wives.

2.4   Development of education in Saudi Arabia

The education system in Saudi Arabia can be traced back to the early 1900s. In its early stages, education mainly involved teaching the Bedouin (the nomadic Arabs living in the desert) Islamic beliefs in mosques (Alharbi, 2012). Between 1921 and 1925, King Abdelaziz, the founder of the kingdom, successfully took over the regions of Najd (the central region of Saudi) and Hijaz (the western region of Saudi). He prioritised education, and one of his early actions was to gather educators and scholars to promote education. As a result, the Knowledge Directorate was established in 1926 as the first educational institution in the kingdom (Alharbi, 2012). Its initial aim was to monitor boys' education in Najd and Hijaz. However, when the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was established in 1932, the Knowledge Directorate's power stretched across the rest of the kingdom, making it responsible for education in not only the Najd and Hijaz regions, but also throughout the rest of the country. Initially, there were only 12 schools serving 700 male students from wealthy families (Alamri, 2011).

In 1945, King Abdelaziz started an extensive programme that aimed to establish schools throughout the country. By 1951, the Knowledge Directorate had been renamed as the Ministry of Knowledge, and 226 schools were established with 29,887 male students (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2020). The exponential development in the number of

schools can be linked to the discovery of oil in 1938, which led to rapid wealth education and in turn aided in the funding of the education sector. Therefore, compulsory and free primary education was made available, and the first university in the kingdom—King Saud University—was founded in Riyadh, the capital city of the kingdom, in 1957 (Algamdi & Abdeljawad, 2010; Alharbi, 2012).

Since then, the number of schools and universities has grown and, as of 2018, numbered more than 50 universities, with nearly two thirds of them being public—more than 37,000 schools and many colleges and institutions of learning—which are open to all citizens (Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia, 2020).

This section has illustrated the general development of the Saudi education system. The following section will clarify the development of girls' education and will consider the religious and cultural challenges that affected its development.

2.5 Development of girls' education in Saudi Arabia

Before the late 1950s, formal education was not available to girls in Saudi Arabia. Families who wished to educate their daughters were limited to private tuition, which mainly included Islamic studies, Arabic, and other subjects relevant to girls' future roles as wives and mothers (Alyami, 2014). This approach reflected a pre-modernist view that the education of girls was not considered necessary as their future role was based on caring for the family.

Attempts to introduce education for girls can be traced back to 1956, when King Faisal opened the first private school for girls in Jeddah. Named the Dar Alfalah private school, it consisted of kindergarten, primary, intermediate, and secondary schools (Al-Zarah, 2008; for more detail on the education system in Saudi Arabia, see Section 2.7). King Faisal was a prominent advocate for girls' education. According to Altorki (1986), this was due to the discovery of oil in the late 1930s which generated new wealth in the kingdom. Thus, by the 1940s, wealthy families were able to travel outside the country and, as a result, their views on girls' education changed. King Faisal's decision to open the Dar Alfalah private school was welcomed by many in the kingdom, especially young educated men who wanted to marry Saudi women of equal intellectual standing (AlMunajjed, 1997). However, King Faisal faced strong opposition, mainly from Islamic scholars (also known as the *ulama*), who used a literal interpretation of Quranic text as support for their opposition (Hamdan, 2005). They mainly feared that schools would destroy girls' morals and undermine Saudi Muslim family values (van Geel, 2016). There were also concerns surrounding co-education and the negative impact it may have on students, which was prevalent in other countries in the Middle East at the time (Al-Qasim, Al-Lihaidan, & Al-Mutlaq, 2008). Despite such negative responses, 14 more private schools were established across the kingdom in the subsequent years.

In 1959, King Saud gathered support from clerics to help educate Saudis on the necessity of girls' education (Alamri, 2011). In the following year, the first public primary school

for girls was established. Vocational education was also made available for girls who wished to acquire knowledge and experience for their future roles in the community (Al-Qasim et al., 2008). At the same time, the General Presidency for Girls' Education was founded as an official educational body responsible for managing, planning, and monitoring girls' education. Since then, the number of public girls' schools has increased steadily, enrolling more girls; between 1960 and 2003, more than 13,000 schools were established, and more than 3 million female students have attended these schools (Bubshait, 2008).

As a result of the increased number of schools and universities available to women, Saudi women are able to obtain leadership roles in education, such as headteachers in schools and leadership supervisors in education offices. One major development in Saudi education was when Mrs. Norah Al-Fayez was appointed as the first female deputy minister in the kingdom in 2009, which illustrated the progressive, modernist changes that were directly caused by the introduction of female education. In addition, the King Abdullah Scholarship Program launched in 2005 gave Saudi women and men an equal opportunity to study abroad.

As can be deduced from the discussion thus far, formal education for girls in Saudi Arabia began 36 years after the introduction of boys' education. The delay in the development of female education was mainly due to resistance from those who embraced a more

traditional Saudi culture and not Islamic beliefs. In this sense, AlMunajjed (1997) argued that:

> Misconceptions about the role of women in the Islamic society can only be extirpated by differentiating between the teachings of Islam as a religion and a way of life and local customs and traditions, which are often conceived as part of it. (p. 31)

In a similar vein, Al Rawaf and Simmons (1991) attributed the delay in the introduction of girls' education to Saudi society's highly conservative culture, which viewed women's involvement in education as unacceptable and not in line with Islamic teaching.

Education is a fundamental principle and forms the foundation of Islam. In its humble beginnings, Islam was revealed to the prophet Muhammad, peace be upon him, when God ordered him to *Read*. At the time, the prophet was illiterate; thus, this was an explicit call to seek knowledge and renounce ignorance. Furthermore, the Quran, the holy book in Islam, stresses the importance of education and never confines it to a particular gender, as evident in the Quran verse: *Say (unto them, O Muhammad): Are those who know equal with those who know not?* (Al-Zumar 36 39/9). This verse underscores that an educated person is not equal to an ignorant one, which indicates that knowledge is highly valued in Islam. However, tribal practices are predominant in Arabic societies, including Saudi Arabia. Al-Qaradawi (1998) argued that these tribal traditions shape the norms of Arabic societies, which include not only patriarchy and male domination but also the belief that a woman's role is in the household, serving the family. Therefore, women faced a major

barrier in attempting to access education due to the difficulty of integrating traditional

Saudi customs with a modernising society (Al-Qaradawi, 1998; El Saadawi, 1982).

2.6   Saudi Arabia's education policy

"Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia" is an authoritative document issued

in December 1969 with the major objective of promoting education systematically across

the country by emphasising efforts to meet religious, economic, and social needs while

also eradicating illiteracy among the Saudi Arabian population (Abo-Arrad, 2004). This

policy addressed issues related to women's education and empowerment, but gender bias

was clearly evident in the selection of study subjects and post-graduation jobs. This

document was formulated to bring women up in a sound Islamic way so they could

properly fulfil their roles and responsibilities as ideal wives and good mothers and as

teachers or nurses (Profanter, Cate, & Maestri, 2014). Yet the Saudi Arabian Education

Policy (1969) did not empower females to face new challenges, which is why it was

criticised for being a biased document. Indeed, educational academics in Saudi Arabia

continue to demand updates to the education policy document to meet the requirements

of the 21st century.

Several government agencies in Saudi Arabia, such as the National Commission for

Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) and the Technical and Vocational

Training Corporation (TVTC) (UNESCO, 2010), are involved in the implementation,

administration, and planning of educational policies (Ramady, 2010). However, the MoE

establishes and prescribes the country's educational standards overall, including both

private and public (Wang, 2014). The Saudi Arabian Education Policy (1969) established

different types of education for males and females as their expected jobs after graduation

and/or objectives differed, but the function of the school administration remained the same for both male and female headteachers (Tarrow, 2014). The next section discusses the educational system in Saudi Arabia in more detail.

2.7   Educational system in Saudi Arabia

This section explains Saudi Arabia's educational system and the national curriculum in the Saudi education system. It also presents an example of reforms that the Saudi government has introduced into its educational system.

Education in Saudi Arabia is mostly a government-operated system, meaning it is a highly centralised system (Al-Khaldi, 2007). The basic education (i.e., primary, intermediate, and secondary school) is compulsory and free of charge for all levels, including textbooks (Saudi Educational Policy Document, 1969). At the age of six, children are required to attend 6 years of primary school, followed by 3 years of intermediate school, and 3 years of secondary school. Kindergarten (3–5 years old) is optional. Because the number of state kindergartens is limited, private schools have spread to this stage throughout the country.

All levels of basic education follow the national curriculum. Religion is taught simultaneously with other subjects in Saudi Arabia, such as Arabic language, maths, science, arts, and physical education, at all levels and is studied in five domains of: Tajwid (Qur'an recitation), Tafsir (Qur'an commentary), Hadith (prophetic sayings), Figh (Islamic jurisprudence), and Tawhid (Islamic creed). The study plan for all stages of education, from primary education upwards, places great emphasis on the study of religious studies and Arabic. These two disciplines form the main focus of weekly sessions, and one of the main purposes is to instil "the correct Islamic creed" (primary education), to work on "strengthening and advancing [the student's…] Islamic character"

(intermediate education), and focus on "strengthening [the student's...] Islamic doctrine" (secondary education) (UNESCO, 2010, p. 10).

In addition to the Arabic language studies, the teaching of English as a second language was introduced from the age of 10 and was developed in parallel to Saudi Arabia's economic and general integration into the world system as it was considered a core skill to enable educated individuals to obtain jobs (Faruk, 2013). However, Elyas and Picard (2010) stated that many Saudis needed considerable encouragement to learn the language. Faruk (2013) subsequently argued that Saudis consider English as a second language to be a useful tool for progressing socially and economically and promoting Islam at all levels, whether national or international, because it is an international language that is an inevitable part of the 21st century's globalisation.

Mathematics and science are also taught at primary and intermediate schools; at the secondary level, both subjects are required in the first year and then become optional for students starting in the second year. In light of the reforms in the education sector in Saudi Arabia, the MoE recently concluded that it is important to measure students' performance in subjects like mathematics and science by participating in international tests, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international study by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). PISA tests were first administered in 2000 and are repeated every 3 years. These evaluate 15-year-old students' knowledge and skills in reading, science, and mathematics as well as financial literacy and problem solving. Saudi Arabia first took part in these international tests in 2018, and the results were published in December 2019; thus, comparisons cannot be made for past performances. According to the 2018 PISA results, Saudi students scored lower than the average of other OECD countries in all aspects of the tests. In reading literacy, the average in OECD countries was 487, compared to 399 for Saudi students.

Saudi ranked third for having the largest difference between girls' and boys' performance in reading, with girls performing considerably better than boys. Surprisingly, girls also exceeded boys in both mathematics and science, traditionally perceived as male-dominated subjects, contradicting the view that Saudi schools prepare girls for their future roles as wives and mothers. However, the Saudi government implemented reforms in the education sector, such as one example discussed in the following paragraphs, before ever administering the PISA test.

To maintain the quality of education to compete in the world markets, the Saudi government has made some notable reforms in the education sector. One example was the secondary education improvement programme (Tatweer) for public education proposed by King Abdullah Bin Abdul-Aziz in 2007. King Abdullah's Public Education Project (Tatweer) was a major landmark in developing education in the history of Saudi Arabia. This project, introduced in 2007, was implemented in 50 schools in three major cities, Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dammam, in 2011. The project is independent of the MoE and is run by the Tatweer Education Company. It addresses problems related to curricula, leadership, the education environment, and non-class activities (Saudi-US Relations Information Service [SUSRIS], 2015).

The project adheres to the belief that the development of curriculum is a continuous process because it has to meet the needs of the rapidly changing society while also preserving the values and traditions. According to Wang (2014), the project focuses on producing qualified teachers by managing training in two stages: pre-teaching training conducted by the university and at-work training conducted by the employer. Similarly, this project has focused on developing an appropriate teaching and learning environment by defining the roles and responsibilities of different stakeholders of the education institutes. Furthermore, to develop students' interpersonal skills, it has emphasised out-

of-the-classroom activities like sports, tours, and participation in social activities (Wiseman, Alromi, & Alshumrani, 2014). According to Alyami (2014), Tatweer schools have served as a model for ensuring that all secondary schools employed a programme of self-evaluation and planning, meaning that schools were obliged to carry out their own assessments and plan developmental activities to uplift their educational performance.

The project was implemented with the following principles in mind (King Abdulla Project for Public Educational Development, 2011):

- *Excellence for all*: This principle focuses on realising the full potential of every child together with the achievement of excellence in teaching through teacher development.

- *Commitment from everyone:* This principle emphasises increasing commitment from school staff to believe in a mission, adhere to specific values, and strive to achieve objectives.

- *Accountability for all*: By giving individual responsibilities for their performance, the school management becomes responsible for reinforcing and modifying behaviour in relation to employees' quality of performance.

- *Professionalism from everyone*: This principle promotes professionalism by emphasising staff practices based on knowledge-driven and sensible decisions informed by scientific theories.

- *Transparency and clarity*: By promoting transparency and clarity across the school system by demonstrating performance levels to stakeholders (e.g., parents and other interested parties), this principal strives to make the education system fair and transparent.

Although Saudi Arabia has implemented ambitious educational reforms, it is difficult to discuss the effectiveness of these reforms due to the scarcity of empirical evidence. A study that focused on the success of Saudi educational policy and reforms was conducted by Alyami (2014). The main aim of her study was to identify the perceptions of headteachers toward Tatweer secondary schools. Alyami (2014) adopted a qualitative approach, using interviews and focus groups with schools' headteachers in three Tatweer schools in Riyadh, and concluded that the Saudi education system has started to introduce many shifts through Tatweer schools, such as the decentralisation of decision-making, team learning, open schools, and the promotion of partnership with society. These shifts have positively impacted students', teachers' and parents' attitude as well as students' outcomes and academic achievements (Alyami, 2014).

2.8   Ministry of Education

The MoE is the main government entity in charge of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It is responsible for providing free education for all Saudi citizens and residents. The Saudi government has allocated more than 20 percent of their fiscal budget to the educational sector (Ministry of Finance, 2020). The MoE oversees a range of educational institutions, including girls' and boys' public education, private education, and Holy Quran study schools.

Between 1960 and 2015, girls' education and higher education were managed by separate educational institutions: the General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE) and the Ministry of Higher Education. In 2003, the GPGE was dissolved, and its functions were transferred to the MoE (Hamdan, 2005). Meanwhile, the Ministry of Higher Education merged with the MoE in 2015, making the MoE responsible for managing, planning, and coordinating higher education services across the country (Ministry of Education, 2015).

The education system in Saudi Arabia is highly centralised as the responsibility for decision-making is maintained by the MoE, which has complete control over funding, employment of staff, and curriculum content. In addition, the MoE is solely responsible for passing laws and regulations relating to education. The education system consists of other authoritative bodies responsible for delivering and implementing educational policies in the kingdom. Cities in Saudi Arabia are divided into several educational districts depending on their size. Each district is allocated two Education Departments: one responsible for boys' education and the other for girls' education. Both of these departments act as the link between schools in their assigned district and the Ministry. The Education Department of the region oversees the Administration of the Educational Supervision, which is mainly responsible for inspecting schools in their assigned region in order to evaluate their performance. Similar to the region's Education Department, the Administration of the Educational Supervision is also segregated to meet the educational needs of boys and girls. Due to the MoE's autocratic nature, few decisions can be made independently by those employees working in regional Education Departments and the Administration of the Educational Supervision; therefore, all decisions, however routine, need to be reported to the Ministry for confirmation.

2.9   Selecting and appointing new headteachers in Saudi Arabia

Concerning the process and mechanism of the nomination and appointment of the new headteachers, this study relies on the instructions and circulars issued by the MoE in this regard—mainly, the ministerial circular No. 34/2Q/1T, dated 13/02/1429 AH 20/02/2008 AD, entitled "Rules and Procedures of Headteachers and Deputy Headteachers in Girls' Schools" (Ministry of Education, 2008). According to this

circular, in the state girls' schools, the following are the minimum requirements for candidates for headteacher and deputy headteacher positions:

1. The candidate must have a bachelor's degree. However, candidates who have a diploma from intermediate colleges or a certificate from female teachers' training institutes will be eligible only for the head and deputy headteacher positions of kindergarten and primary schools in villages and rural areas.

2. Candidates for a deputy headteacher post must have four years' experience as a teacher, and candidates for a headteacher post must have two years' experience as a deputy headteacher.

3. Candidates must have an evaluation of excellent performance for the two years preceding application for the position.

4. Candidates must not have received any administrative penalty within the three years before applying for the position. Also, candidates must not be a part of or the subject of any ongoing administrative cases or investigations.

5. Candidates must have the ability to use computers.

6. Apart from maternity and bereavement leave, a candidate's total days of absence during the last two years must not exceed:

   a. 60 days with approved excuse;

   b. 60 days of exceptional leave; and/or

   c. 10 days without an excuse.

However, the circular stated that, in cases when no one meets all or some of these requirements, which could be the case for posts in rural and remote schools, the

Headteacher/Deputy Headteacher Appointments Committee must choose the closest candidates who meet these conditions. The reasons for this shall be recorded the committee's meeting report and shall be a provisional procedure until a qualified candidate becomes available.

The Headteacher/Deputy Headteacher Appointments Committee is a recruitment committee in each education office that is responsible for following up on the appointments of new head and deputy headteachers and ensuring that the candidates meet the conditions stipulated in the circular. This committee is headed by the head of the Education Office, and its members include the following:

- The assistant of the School Administration Unit

- The head of the School Management Unit

- The head of the Teachers Affairs Unit

- Three supervisors from the Education Office

Regarding the Education Offices, cities in Saudi Arabia are divided into several educational districts depending on the size of the city. Each district follows an education office, and all educational offices are controlled by the Administration of the Educational Supervision, which in turn follows the Education Department of the Region, which also operates under the umbrella of the MoE, based in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia.

The same circular stipulates the steps to be followed when applying for headteacher and deputy headteacher positions as well as the nomination procedures:

- The main Department of Education in each region should issue an announcement at the beginning of each academic year, explaining the terms and conditions of

the nomination and asking those who wish to work as a headteacher or deputy headteacher to fill out a nomination form.

- The nomination could be made by the nominee's school headteacher or the school administration supervisor; however, the nomination form must be filled out by the candidate herself. All teachers who meet the nomination conditions have the right to nominate themselves and fill out the form.

- The schools' headteachers and administration supervisors fill out the Deputy Headteacher Assessment Form for all nominees to work as a deputy and the Headteacher Assessment Form for all candidates to work as a headteacher.

- The School Management Unit in the district Educational Supervision Office examine all applications, ensuring that all candidates meet the nomination conditions, and make a database record of candidates renewed (annually).

- Personal interviews with deputy headteacher candidates are conducted by the Headteacher/Deputy Headteacher Appointments Committee.

- Headteacher and deputy headteacher candidates are compared according to the post requirements and ranked in descending order in the candidate database.

- The candidates will be distributed to schools according to needs and desires and the decisions of the Headteacher/Deputy Headteacher Appointments Committee.

Following the completion of the nomination process, the Education Offices submit a list of candidates that they believe are best suited for the role to the Administration of the Educational Supervision for approval. The final list is then sent to the head of the region's Education Department to issue the resolution appointment. After approval from the Education Department of the Region, new headteachers start working at their schools and will be offered training and qualification courses, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.10 Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (TQCNH)

Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (TQCNH) includes several courses offered to newly appointed headteachers starting two months after the start of the school year. The courses last from one to two days and are held during different periods of the school year. These courses take place at the Education Offices and are offered by the schools' leadership supervisors. Examples of the provided courses include the following:

- Strategic planning for school development

- Improving the quality of school leadership

- Applying regulatory and procedural guidelines

Unfortunately, the researcher was unable to obtain the content of these courses. The lack of transparency might be due to regular policy changes that require new courses to be arranged. Nevertheless, participant headteachers in this study commented on the effectiveness of these courses in their preparation and professional development, as discussed in Chapter V, Section 5.4.2, and Chapter VI, Section 6.3.2.

2.11 Summary

This chapter has discussed the current study in its international and Saudi contexts. The key points of this chapter are summarised as follows:

(i)   This chapter discussed five general characteristics of the Saudi Arabi context: geographic, demographic, economic, political, and social issues.

(ii) It explored the relationship between the education system in Saudi Arabia, namely the Ministry of Education, and the strong culture in Saudi society, including tribal customs and traditions.

(iii) The chapter reviewed the general history of education in Saudi Arabia and specifically explored the history of girls' education, including the cultural and religious challenges affecting its development.

(iv) It presented the main objective of the "Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia" and the criticism it faced for being biased, especially towards women.

(v) This chapter discussed the structure of the kingdom's education system and the national curriculum. It also outlined the structure of the Ministry of Education and how it operates to fulfil its role.

(vi) It also discussed important aspects related to this study—mainly, selecting and appointing new headteachers in Saudi Arabia and training in-service headteachers (TQCNH).

The next chapter explains the theoretical framework used in this study and reviews literature from both Western and Saudi perspectives on educational leadership, leadership development, and school culture. Consideration is also given to the transition to headship and its impact on headteachers' identity formation as well as challenges school headteachers face.

CHAPTER III – LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1   Introduction

The main research question that this research aims to answer is: "To what extent is the leadership development of female headteachers effective for those working in state secondary schools (for female students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia?" In order to answer this question, the following four sub-questions were developed:

RSQ1.   What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?

RSQ2.   What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post?

RSQ3.   How effective was the headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?

RSQ4.   What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?

To address these questions, a literature review was conducted to determine researchers' findings on this topic. This chapter consists of several sections. Section 3.2 focuses on the theories related to this study, including constructivism, experiential learning, situated learning and observational learning. Section 3.3 focuses on school culture. Section 3.4 discusses the importance of leadership and management in education and gives different perspectives on both terms. The subsequent sections review literature on both Western and Saudi perspectives on educational leadership (3.5), professional development (3.6),

and leadership development (3.7), establishing working definitions of these concepts for use in this thesis. Section 3.8 focuses on women and leadership in the education sphere from a critical perspective, first examining Western-centric perspectives of women and leadership, then women and leadership in the Arab context. Section 3.9 critically analyses the effectiveness of the leadership preparation of women headteachers to determine if preparation can be truly effective for women. Section 3.10 discusses the transition to headship. It begins with an analysis of how people's professional position affects their identity and describes how a headteacher transitions from teaching to headship. The discussion will then examine the factor of support when headteachers take up a headship position and culminate in a review of motivation to change the professional identity by a female teacher. Section 3.11 considers the challenges school headteachers face in their early years in the position which includes: inadequate training, lack of support, resistance to changing school culture, lack of purpose-built schools and weak school–home partnerships.

3.2   Theoretical framework

This section discusses the theories used for this study. It covers the theory of constructivism as a broader learning theory. However, it does not refer to behaviourism and cognitivism, although these are two other broad theoretical frameworks related to learning, because this research focuses on headteacher learning and development, meaning it is about adult learning, not children's learning. In relation to constructivism, this chapter analyses other learning theories, including experiential learning (Kolb, 2015), situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and observational learning (Bandura, 1977).

3.2.1 Constructivism

Constructivism assumes that "the learner is much more actively involved in a joint enterprise with the teacher and peers in creating (constructing) meaning" (Harasim, 2017, p. 12). According to constructivism, adults learn by constructing knowledge and understanding on their own, and both experience and reflection play a key role in knowledge construction. Harasim (2017) also argued that human beings are active creators of their own knowledge by reconciling their previous ideas and adopting new information and experiences. Crawford (2014) explained that headteachers' values and beliefs, such as bringing positive changes to young people, are important in their leadership roles. Constructivists accept the notion that people can change their ideas, discard new knowledge based on their investigations, ask questions, assess what they know, and negotiate what they know with others (Harasim, 2017). According to Jolliffe (2017), constructivism views learners as actively engaged with problem solving in meaningful contexts. She stated that constructivists equate "learning with creating meaning from experience" (p. 41). These definitions, therefore, suggest that both experience and reflection play an important role in constructing new learning.

One of the foundations of constructivism is Vygotsky's theory. This research relies on Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. Vygotsky argued that learning is a social process that takes place in a society or culture. He claimed that social interaction is essential in cognitive development and proposed two levels of learning. The first level is the interaction between the learner and people around him or her; the second is the learned behaviour or knowledge being integrated into the learner's mental structure (Vygotsky, 1978). From the sociocultural perspective to learning, the one who is preparing to lead should receive opportunities for learning from an existing leader who helps the prospective leader actively build process-based knowledge in practical ways (Kalainoff

& Clark, 2017). This build-up of knowledge then needs to be challenged to achieve higher levels of knowledge and skills. Vygotsky (1978) proposed the theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which suggests that a learner needs a more experienced person to guide him/her in learning. Bruner's scaffolding theory can be used to explain an experienced person's involvement when novice headteachers are taking up the role of headship. Bruner (1966) argued that, when individuals learn new knowledge and skills, they need active support from more experienced others. Therefore, the sociocultural model of leadership development places a significant importance on communicative and context-bound interactions between the learner and the current leader.

Constructivism, in its social form, can offer headteachers' learning opportunities thanks to its focus on interactions among other members of the teaching community. One advantage of adopting this theory of learning is that it will encourage active learning because constructivists view learning as an active process rather than a passive one (Harasim, 2017). Active learning is defined as learning by doing something meaningful. Bonwell and Eison (1991) defined active learning as an approach where "students engage in activities, such as reading, writing, discussion, or problem solving, that promote analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of class content" (p. 68). From an individual constructivist perspective, constructivism encourages individuals to learn through reflection (Bandura, 1986). Reflection on action can help headteachers think about past experiences and learn from them (Burr, 2015; Pocklington & Weindling, 1996). However, constructivists' ideas of learning require practical work experience (Cakir, 2008), but in some situations, this may not be possible. For example, some teachers in Saudi Arabia are promoted to headteachers fresh out of their formal education, without having sufficient practical experience in the field. In such cases, learning from observing role models (e.g., previous headteacher) may be more useful for prospective headteachers

than learning through experience and active participation in decision-making at the headteacher level. Learning from role models may help identity development, as Kempster (2006) suggested. One example is copying the behaviours of a former headteacher (Manaseh, 2016) (Section 3.10 discusses identity development in more detail).

In the context of Saudi Arabia, this theory might be applied when preparing headteachers for their headship role, especially with those who have already worked with experienced headteachers. Both experience and reflection play an important role in improving the quality of their new learning. However, in Saudi Arabia, not all headteachers have the opportunity to work with an experienced headteacher. Alsharari (2010) found a lack of experience in school leadership as some headteachers have been appointed to lead schools without having sufficient practical experience in the field. In such a case, one can argue that headteachers with no previous experience leading a school (e.g., being a deputy headteacher) can learn from observing their role models and/or by experiential learning, which will be discussed in the following section.

3.2.2 Experiential learning

Kolb (2015) advocated the term 'experiential learning', although many authors have defined it. For example, Lewis and Williams (1994) offered the following definition of experiential learning:

> In its simplest form, experiential learning means learning from experience or learning by doing. Experiential education first immerses learners in an experience and then encourages reflection about the experience to develop new skills, new attitudes, or new ways of thinking.
> (p. 5)

According to this definition, experiential learning may be built upon a constructivist framework of learning. However, it is a simplistic generalised definition, not specifically about leadership development among headteachers. In addition, Moon (2004) defined experiential learning by the qualities it provided to learners; yet once more this definition was not specific to headteacher learning and development. Moon (2004) argued that successful experiential learners have a high level of willingness to change, alter, and reorder their initial learning and conceptions. Experiential learning also allows them to reason for themselves to explain their purpose with the learning tasks and apply self-management skills that are necessary to perform successfully within their workplace both individually as well as in a group. However, as Day (2005) argued, contexts and circumstances may have an impact on an individual's experience that may be considered learnable. For example, when a headteacher repeats the same activities for a number of years, this might not lead to further learning as the work is repetitive. Lastly, "experiential learners are in control of their voice" (Moon, 2004, p. 163), which means that they are aware of the role of emotion during their learning process (Moon, 2004; O'Brien, Plotnikova, & Mills, 2013).

In contrast, Kolb (2015) defined experience learning as a cycle with four stages. The first stage is concrete experience, during which a learner actively performs a task. In the context of a school environment, headteachers may gain many concrete experiences, such as talking to a parent about her child's misbehaviour (Khalsa, 2007) or having an exchange with a teacher who finds it difficult to control his/her students during a lesson. The second stage in Kolb's (2015) experience learning is reflective observation, whereby the learner is consciously reflecting on his/her experience (Pollard, 2008). Using the school context previously referred to, the headteacher may reflect on the exchange between her and the parent. The third stage in Kolb's theory is abstract conceptualisation,

whereby the learner tries to form a theory or model of what is observed. Using the previous example, the headteacher may conceptualise a new way of doing things using the exchange he/she had with the parent. The fourth stage of Kolb's theory, active experimentation, occurs when the learner plans how to test what is learned from the experienced events and observations made (Cameron & Green, 2017).

Kolb's (2015) experiential learning theory focuses on adult learning. According to Kolb (2015), mature learners can benefit greatly from experiential learning because it offers them the motivation they need through contextualised learning. For this reason, it has many benefits for teacher development as it encourages learning through practical experience. This aspect can improve motivation to learn because practical work gives meaning to the learners (Kolb, 2015). In addition, experiential learning can provide opportunities for those people who find formal training difficult or unaffordable and are in need of a different method to learn to be successful in their careers. Experiential learning has been applied widely in Saudi Arabia due to the lack of formal training opportunities (e.g., training courses, shadowing and mentoring) offered to novice female headteachers (Alsharari, 2010). Therefore, one can argue that if a headteacher does not have experience in leadership and has not had formal opportunities for preparation and development, he/she will often rely to learning through experiential learning.

Another problem with experiential learning is that it ignores social and institutional factors in learning situations. In Saudi Arabia, schools are run according to the policies and rules set out by the central government, and major decisions are taken by the MoE. In such situations, experiential learning alone would not be enough for teachers, deputy headteachers, and headteachers. Therefore, other forms of learning are needed for headteacher development.

3.2.3 Situated learning

Lave and Wenger (1991) argued that learning is situated, which means that learning is built-in within culture, context, and activity. Thus, this model of learning is relevant to adult learning and learning in the workplace (e.g., schools and colleges). Situated learning is more informal, occurring through social interactions rather than planned and structured learning. Thus, this approach is based on self-motivation (Gkorezis & Kastritsi, 2017) and authentic and meaningful learning for learners (Wang & Noe, 2010). These authors argued that knowledge must be imparted in authentic contexts where learners participate in practical experiences. However, many formal education programmes, such as undergraduate and postgraduate courses, do not offer such opportunities to gain practical experience (Kempster, 2006). In these courses, learners often receive only theoretical understandings of the area of study. Therefore, giving leadership responsibility to headteachers before they take up the role is important because learning skills rely on the work context. For example, headteachers can learn while leading their school, thereby deliberately formulating the necessary plans to learn. This process of learning is known as "legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98).

Lave and Wenger (1991) introduced the term legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) as a central characteristic of situated learning. They defined LPP as "learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and that the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the sociocultural practices of a community" (p. 29). This concept of learning suggests the need for learners to work with more experienced members of a professional community in order for them to master new knowledge and skills to become effective leaders in the future, as Coetzee (2009) discussed. This may be more applicable when the school system is diverse and has different perceptions of young people's development (Ready & Wright, 2011).

According to Lave and Wenger (1991), one of the advantages of the idea of LPP is that it allows individuals to focus on how the relationship between those people who are established in an organisation and newcomers, thereby contributing to the newcomers' learning. It also provides a way to explain identities, activities, and communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). LPP may be more relevant when the school system is described as being highly complex with a defined hierarchy (Morrison, 2008). For example, a school is a community of practice in which newcomers can have social interactions with much more experienced staff and collaborate with them in an environment of situated learning. This involvement can help the newcomers develop positive attitudes and their own ideas about what it means to be an effective headteacher, a system of doing things, and behaviours that would increase their productivity and performance. Although a novice teacher commences his/her work on the periphery of a professional community, he/she can move to the centre of the community and become an expert through active learning, engagement within the existing culture, and acquired experience (Farnsworth, Kleanthous, & Wenger-Trayner, 2016; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

However, the theory of LPP was initially developed within a business context based on the relatively few incidents of observable teaching, and it did not recognise learning through imitation and observations (Savin-Baden & Wilkie, 2006). One can argue that the claim that communities of practice can help newcomers become experts is not true in all situations. For example, if the community is dominated by a single class of people, it may be difficult for people from other backgrounds to become leaders (Park, 2015). In the context of Saudi Arabia, although schools provide LPP for new teachers within communities of practice, not all teachers gain sufficient knowledge and skills to hold leadership positions. For this reason, a teacher who aspires to become a headteacher in

Saudi Arabia needs to learn from other methods, such as observational learning and formal learning.

3.2.4 Observational learning

Although constructivism does not consider learners' behavioural changes, Bandura (1977), a behavioural psychologist, introduced a theory of observational learning in which he assumed that observations play a key role in behavioural change. Observational learning is defined as learning through shaping, imitating, modelling, watching, and vicarious reinforcement (Bandura, 1977). Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory assumed that learning is a cognitive process, but Bandura did not deny the influence of environmental and biological factors in human learning. He suggested four characteristics of effective observational learning: attention (paying attention), retention (retaining the information), reproduction (use the retained information), and motivation (self-motivation to mimic the learned behaviour). Headteachers can use these four components to develop their professional identities (Crow & Moller, 2017). However, Bandura's structure around learning through observation needs to be treated with caution because the person being observed might not be characterising what "ideal" headteacher personalities or characteristics are. Therefore, any individual observing a headteacher needs to understand what key characteristics should be retained to become an effective headteacher.

Observational learning gives many benefits to adults in an organisational context, such as working in a school. For example, teachers can observe the headteacher as their role model, whose performance has learning potential because teachers can reproduce the observed behaviour in future practice (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, this approach can be beneficial for headteachers through coaching (Connor & Pokora, 2012). Although this

might be the case, there is little understanding about the effectiveness of observational learning in enhancing task performance (Hoover, Giambatista, & Belkin, 2012). Furthermore, it is not clear to what extent observers demonstrate behaviour in their workplace that was learned from direct experience of their observation (Hoover et al., 2012). However, according to Bandura (1977), when learners lack confidence in their own abilities and are rewarded for imitating people in authoritative positions, they likely learn new knowledge and skills through observational learning. In the context of Saudi schools, one of the ways in which deputy headteachers learn leadership and management skills is by observing how the headteacher runs the school. Indeed, teachers promoted to headship with only a few years of teaching experience can lead their schools by observing their headteacher as their role model.

A conceptual framework is just as important as a theoretical framework because it discusses concepts that help achieve the research purpose. The main concept in this study is leadership development and its link to other important concepts—mainly, leadership, culture, and professional identity. Therefore, in order to frame this study, the ideas behind these concepts will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

3.3   School culture

Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) defined school culture as "the guiding beliefs and expectations" (p. 37) that can be seen from the way a school is run. It encompasses all the values, basic assumptions, expected behaviours, and attitudes that can have an impact on how the school functions. The primary aim of school leaders in the context of the prevailing culture is to get staff members to accept a set of values and practice on a day-to-day basis and develop a model shared by all. Not only does it help solve problems in schools, but it also acts as a survival mechanism (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Increased

group cohesion, where every staff member agrees to carry out work in a certain way, may improve the standard of school. On the other hand, if every staff member does not fulfil her/his role, it is likely that nothing will be achieved; hence, school goals and objectives will not be accomplished. Therefore, organisational culture, like culture in a school, is a "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one organisation from another" (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 180).

Several types of school cultures may be identified. Bulach, Lunenburg, and Potter (2008) suggested four different kinds of school culture: "the laissez-faire school culture, the underperforming school"; "the traditional school culture, the low-performing school"; "the enlightened traditional school culture, the above average-performing school"; and "the high performing school" (p. 51). Creating a successful school is what a school leader is required to do because, as Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) argued, shaping an effective and strong school culture is a primary responsibility of a school principal.

3.3.1 Cultural beliefs in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is a very conservative country, and changes to the society are introduced very slowly. Unlike Western culture, Saudi school culture is highly influenced by Islamic values and beliefs, which are shaped by Unitarism, obedience, and acceptance of power differences (Long, 2005). Saudis believe that their lives should be shaped by the teachings of the Quran and the sayings and life examples of the Prophet. Islam is their religion and their way of life (for more details, see Section 2.7). Wahhabism, the ideology that informs the way of life in Saudi Arabia, does not allow for the mixing of sexes; thus, gender segregation occurs within Saudi society. This segregation has led to the formation of single-sex schools for girls and boys. Women cannot work in boys' schools, nor can men work in girls' schools (Hamdan, 2005). Although more women graduate from universities

than men in Saudi Arabia, only a fraction of women are actively participating in the labour market (Alsharari, 2010).

The conservatism existing in Saudi society forces individuals to be committed to the traditional values and beliefs; consequently, Saudis are cautious about innovation, new ideas, and change. Such trends in Saudi Arabia might be reinforced in a centralised education system. According to Alzaidi (2008b), the Saudi school system is a centralised one, and school headteachers have no options but to follow instructions from the top. Thus, school headteachers have a very limited opportunity to change policies and practices within a school.

Saudi Arabia is generally a collectivist society, which means that people have a strong commitment to family. Saudi society is close-knit, consisting of extended family relationships. The national culture is reflected in how parents behave towards school activities. Alotaibi (2016) discussed cultural problems' impact on schooling in Saudi Arabia. According to Alotaibi, parents are very uncooperative when it comes to talking about their children's problems due to cultural issues. The confidentiality of students' problems becomes significant because of close ties, familial bonds, and tribal traditions. These values make it difficult for having a close relationship between parents and teachers, especially with expatriate teachers as suggested by Lewis and Murphy (2008). Lewis and Murphy (2008) also claimed that successful principals are those who establish a close link between the local community and the school. The importance of building and maintaining a close relationship between parents and local communities was stressed in Dougill, Raleigh, Blatchford, Fryer, Robinson and Richmond 's (2011) study conducted in England. They visited a number of schools which had moved from good to outstanding in order to gain the perspectives of headteachers and other staff at these schools in relation to the period when the schools made this shift.

School reform literature suggests that there are many areas in which Saudi schools should change in order to improve the delivery of quality education in Saudi Arabia. In her four areas of school development, Alyamani (2016) suggested two key areas: maintaining school–family partnerships and focusing on professional development. Increasing the learning opportunities for both students and teachers and creating school culture as a professional body of learning have been discussed in many school improvement studies, such as the study conducted by Dougill et al. (2011).

3.3.2   Saudi school culture

If Bulach et al. (2008) typology of school cultures, discussed in Section 3.3, were to be used to characterise the culture of Saudi schools, then it would not be uncommon to find "the traditional school culture, the low-performing school" (p. 51). According to Alammar (2015), the quality of teaching and learning in schools is a major concern in Saudi Arabia; therefore, there is a public demand to improve the quality of education to reach an acceptable level. Not only does the examination-promotion culture get the blame for the poor performance, but the leadership models of school headteachers have also been in the spotlight of many academic discussions. Alammar (2015) further argued that students should pass certain examinations in order to be promoted to the next grade, and teachers' effectiveness should be determined by students' results in these examinations. Therefore, teachers' main concern is to prepare students for their examinations, transmitting information and encouraging students to memorise the contents for the exams. The emphasis on memorisation and exam-based teaching leads teachers to use teacher-centred method of teaching rather than other teaching approaches, including active learning, explorative learning, and student-centred learning.

In contrast, an effective school culture is characterised by many qualities that are different from examination-oriented and teacher-centred teaching practices. In their study, Purkey and Smith (1983) identified seven significant characteristics of successful schools: curriculum-based school leadership; supportive school climate; a focus on teaching and learning; high expectations for children and clear goals; an effective system for performance and achievement monitoring; continuous teachers' professional development activities; and a high level of parental support and involvement. Rowe (2007) found that quality-focused school culture plays a significant role in school effectiveness. He stated that:

> effective schools are characterized by an ethos or culture oriented towards learning, expressed in terms of high achievement standards and expectations of students, an emphasis on basic skills, a high level of involvement in decision-making and professionalism among teachers, cohesiveness, clear policies on matters such as homework and student behaviour. (p. 65)

Therefore, there is an urgent need for Saudi schools to embrace a school culture that places learning at its heart and create a learning organisation as a priority of school leadership.

3.3.3 Emerging school cultures in Western countries

In direct contrast to the centralised system in Saudi Arabia, Western school leaders aim to develop a collaborative school culture (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). Recent research has suggested the need for schools to reform to incorporate the idea of collaborative culture (Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). In such cultures, the principal's main role is to provide direction for the members of a school and

develop a system of participative decision-making. According to Waldron and McLeskey (2010), this participatory approach ensures that school staff are involved in school improvement efforts and share the leader's vision—that is, to put energy and resources into improving teaching practices and student attainment and achievement. Leithwood et al. (2008) argued that, if school headteachers want their schools to be successful, they should believe that it is important to focus on improving teaching and learning.

Furthermore, Hoy and Miskel (2008) pointed out that school development efforts require shared learning and collaboration. According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), attention has been focused on promoting school achievement in schools with a strong culture in which teachers collaborate with the school. Indeed, many studies (e.g., DuFour & Marzano, 2009; Wilhelm, 2010; Williams & Rutter, 2015) have found that a collaborative school culture has a strong positive impact on school achievement. In addition, collaborative culture is relevant to the current study as it promotes school staff members' learning and professional development, which is important for school leadership development (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Waldron and McLeskey (2010) pointed out that school leadership must use different methods of professional development to help teachers improve their teaching practices as well as be identified as effective teachers. This identity may help them to stay in the teaching profession and continue to learn to provide the quality education that society demands from them.

Moreover, creating a collaborative school culture means increasing teachers' accountability in terms of raising the quality of teaching and learning (Alammar, 2015). This requires sharing responsibilities among the members of the school community; creating such a school culture will require the school headteacher to apply a distributed leadership approach. Sharing leadership roles or distributed leadership has recently received significant attention in school leadership literature. For example, in his study,

Harris (2010) argued that the potential exists for headteachers to adopt distributed leadership in order to bring about improvements and changes to schools.

School culture or ethos refers to the way a school conducts its teaching and learning process, and it has been found that school cultures that put learning at the centre of their existence are more likely to be effective in terms of achieving their goals. A strong school culture promotes student-centred learning, has high expectations of students, aims to create a positive learning climate, and gets support from parents and local communities. However, the existing literature suggests that Saudi classrooms are teacher-led, and the teachers' main concern is to prepare students for their examinations. Therefore, there is a need for schools to adopt a more collaborative school culture in which there is a focus on learning and professional development.

3.4   Importance of leadership and management in education

The terms *leadership* and *management* are key subjects of debate in the area of education (Perez & Barkhurst, 2012), despite the fact that various scholars have defined their importance differently. However, it is imperative to note that the majority of scholars have highlighted the importance of both leadership and management qualities in headteachers. Furthermore, these qualities are interconnected. For example, Staveley (2004) stated that more than 500 definitions of the term *leadership* exist. Northouse (2018) explained both terms from a complementary perspective because leadership involves coping with change while management entails dealing with complexity.

In the absence of leadership, it is almost impossible for a headteacher to bring about innovation in the education. Managers often try to maintain the status quo because they want to avoid any risk or change, but leaders do not necessarily fear change (Gulati, Mayo, & Nohria, 2016). According to Bush (2010), effective management and leadership

are fundamental elements used to develop an outstanding level of education. In order to deliver high-quality education, most education institutions in different countries focus on developing headteachers' leadership and managerial attributes (Maak & Pless, 2006). Headteachers are the managers or leaders whose decision-making quality as well as ability to formulate and implement strategies play a key role in the course of exploring the optimum potentiality, increasing the commitment and enhancing the performance of teachers and other staff (Bush, 2008).

As Bolman and Deal (1997) noted, educational management and leadership are areas of conceptual pluralism, meaning they encompass a number of opposing viewpoints that have led to a great deal of debate with regard to the precise nature of the field. Bush (2010) asserted that the field of educational leadership and management must concern itself solely with the aims of education, but it needs to continue to learn from other settings. The aims of education must deliver a vital sense of direction to reinforce educational management. If there is no clear and umbilical connection between aims and management, Bush (2010) insisted, there becomes a risk of managerialism, leading to "a stress on procedures at the expense of educational purpose and values" (p. 40).

Compared to leadership, which focuses on the capability of a leader to influence and motivate others to achieve the organisation's goals, management is mainly associated with technical issues and implementation (Bush, 2010). West-Burnham (2014) referred to management as pertaining to the operations, practice, and realistic nature. Although he highlighted how leadership rather than management is being emphasised, he nonetheless stressed the importance of the latter, describing it as an "essential element in any organisation's effective functioning" (p. 1). For West-Burnham, the area of leadership can be "muddied" by issues such as the nature of relations, the clarity of purpose, and varying levels of commitment to change.

West-Burnham (2014) insisted on the importance of achieving a good balance between the practices of leadership and management, asserting that both an educational institution that has outstanding management but weak leadership and one that has exceptional leadership but poor management will be dysfunctional; thus, headteachers must give equal value to management and leadership if they want the educational institutions to function properly to achieve their aims. "Leading and managing are distinct, but both are important... The challenge of modern organisations requires the objective perspective of the manager as well as the flashes of vision and commitment wise leadership provides" (Bolman & Deal, 1997, pp. xiii–xiv).

According to Thrupp and Willmot (2003), the distinction is not between management and leadership, but rather between two different forms of leadership: critical and uncritical leadership. Thrupp and Willmot (2003) defined critical leadership as involving independent, critical thinking whereas uncritical leadership involves dependent, uncritical thinking. Independent critical leaders provide constructive, innovative, and creative criticism while an uncritical dependent leader only follows orders from above.

Headteachers play a major role in educational institutions, providing high-quality education. According to Waters and Marzano (2006), educational leadership is associated with the essential processes of change. In addition, Bush (2010) explained that it evolved along with the fulfilment of aims, objectives, and values of the human beings. According to West-Burnham (2009), in order to deliver quality education, headteachers need to not only manage their institutions effectively, but also demonstrate leadership qualities. He explained the possible reasons for this specific emphasis. Reiterating Waters and Marzano's association between leadership and change, he insisted that "we need leaders because we need to change" and further asserted that "the transition from good to

outstanding cannot be managed; it has to be a process that is led" (West-Burnham, 2014, p. 4).

According to Ball (1987), headteachers manage schools in different ways as some rely on their own leadership perspectives whereas others focus on their bureaucratic responsibilities. For example, in the UK, decision-making tends to be the headteacher's prerogative; however, in Denmark, decision-making is a fully democratic process in which all teachers participate (Riley & Louis, 2013). Yet education leadership roles at school have been changing considerably across the world (Khalsa, 2007) due to specific national and cultural values; thus, no leadership model can be generalisable everywhere (Brundrett, Burton, & Smith, 2003).

However, scholars have identified some generalisable roles, tasks, and training needs of the headteachers in order to develop effective leadership and managerial qualities. For example, Bolam, McMahon, Pocklington, and Weindling (1993) researched 57 schools in England and Wales and found several common features among headteachers, such as: values, purposive leadership by headteachers, strong, broad agreement, mission and policies and consistency between headteacher and teachers on school goals. Kotter (1990) argued that leadership qualities have consistency everywhere, yet there are several other constraints, so these qualities alone do not ensure the quality of education.

3.5   Educational leadership

This section reviews literature on both Western and Saudi perspectives of leadership. De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) defined leadership as "the process of influencing others towards achieving some kind of desired outcome" (p. 44). As there is no universal definition of leadership, this study used Northouse's (2018) definition: "Defining leadership as a process means that it is not a trait or a characteristic that resides in the

leader, but rather a transactional event that occurs between the leader and the follower" (p. 6). This part of the literature review, however, aims to understand leadership differences, if any, between the common characteristics of Western leadership behaviours and Saudi perspectives on leadership roles.

3.5.1 Western perspectives on educational leadership

Much of the research on leadership has been influenced by Western perspectives of leadership (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). In the context of education, different models of leadership exist, including transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and distributed leadership. Miller and Miller (2001) defined transactional leadership as "leadership in which relationships with teachers are based upon exchange for some valued resource. To the teacher, interaction between administrators and teachers is usually episodic, short-lived and limited to the exchange transaction" (p. 182). Meanwhile, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) defined transformational leadership as "leader behaviours that transform and inspire followers to perform beyond expectations while transcending self-interest for the good of the organization" (p. 423). A simple definition for distributed leadership, in the context of school leadership, is that distributed leadership gives leadership roles to other individuals and groups (power sharing) in school management, beyond those in formal leadership positions (Harris, 2011). Harris defined it as "leadership shared within and between schools" (p. 16). The inclusion of all these different types of leaderships in leadership discussions suggests that there is no one best leadership model when it comes to exerting influence on staff in a school. Leadership is all about an "act of motivating people to act by non-coercive means" (Amagoh, 2009, p. 989). Therefore, the leadership model a school leader adopts matters.

Western school leaders achieve a higher level of motivation through innovation, responding to changes in society, focusing on high performance, and creatively meeting the existing challenges (Amagoh, 2009). Western leaders aim to adapt to transformative, situational, and democratic leadership models (Ivey & Kline, 2010). For example, in their Canadian study, Ivey and Kline (2010) found that the frequency of transformative leadership behaviour increased as employees advanced their job ranks. The main reason for this is because transformational leadership promotes a positive relationship to employee satisfaction in an effort to increase motivation, commitment, and, hence, employee performance.

How staff are motivated in the workplace is also influenced by their national culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to Hofstede et al. (2010), the leadership ideas developed in Western countries derive from their individualised culture. Thus, in many Western countries such as the USA and UK, the relationship between employee and organisation is based on mutual benefits rather than on unquestionable loyalty due to family connections. Jogulu (2010) found significant differences between cultural groups and leadership models. The study found that individualism was linked to transformational leadership. Jogulu's (2010) study also found that transactional leadership was associated with Malaysian managers whereas Australian managers preferred transformational leadership to transactional leadership. Therefore, research has confirmed some variations of leadership models between Western and Asian countries.

Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Harris, Leithwood, Gu, and Kington (2009) conducted studies related to the impact of leadership systems on UK school capacity and argued that leadership systems are of little consequence to overall school performance and learner attainment. They suggested that leadership indirectly impacts only 5 to 7 per cent of school learners when their final grades are considered. However, they also determined

that the divergent school structure that operates in the UK results in around a quarter of all learners being directly affected, both positively and negatively. Presumably, therefore, the first figure offered relates directly to mainstream educational services overseen by professional quality bodies (e.g., College of Teachers [CoT] and Institute of Leadership & Management [ILM]). Nevertheless, they recognise that quality bodies consider that leadership systems directly impact around a third of all learners when they are seeking to attain to their optimum potential. This issue aside, Leithwood and Riehl (2005) believed that a number of changes have occurred within the strategic management aspect of education, which has affected the leadership issue in schools. Indeed, the premise that Leithwood and Riehl (2005) suggested that the divergences that exist between schools and quality inspectorates indicates that there is a general misunderstanding over what constitutes as a leadership practice and what is managerial. The blurring of these issues has been reflected via recent change management processes intended to support the shift towards multi-agency practices.

Leithwood and Riehl (2005) believed that the diffuse nature of school leadership scenarios and guidance systems is being undermined by a failure to coherently understand the subtle differences that exist between the concepts of leadership and management. They cited four policy directives that promote this perspective. The first of these relates to the issue of building a vision as well as setting direction. Here, the underlying issue can be considered in terms of leadership being used in change management. This issue "carries the bulk of the effort to motivate leaders' colleagues and is about the establishment of shared purpose as a basic stimulant for one's work" (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005, p. 24). Second, the issue of understanding and developing people can now be discussed. Leithwood and Riehl (2005) argued that the issue should be seen as a leadership issue, but confusion emerges between the concepts of leadership and

management, materialising in policy documentation. Here, the main aim of those developing their leadership is to encourage professional development and improved skill sets so that practitioners can realise a number of organisational goals via increased commitment, personal practitioner and school capacity, and resilience. Third, the processes that encourage the redesigning of an overall organisation are indicative of change management and are a mainstay of managerial aspects. Within this area of concern, a number of specific practices are intended to develop decent working conditions that help practitioners manage their professional motivation as well as their commitment and professional capacities. Finally, Leithwood and Reihl (2005) argued that managing a teaching and learning programme is not a leadership task but a primary managerial task. The reason for this is that redesigning the organisation is, again, a change management system. In addition, a number of specific practices have been cited to realise this policy aim, including fostering organisational stability and strengthening the school's infrastructure.

3.5.2   Saudi perspective on educational leadership

Despite the numerous studies on leadership models, educational leadership literature related to Saudi is scarce (Khalil & Karim, 2016). However, the available literature suggests that the leadership models being used by single-sex schools in Saudi Arabia are similar to those of Western schools. For example, in her study, Taleb (2010) interviewed some female heads of single-sex schools in Saudi Arabia to determine the relationship between gender and female leadership models. In her qualitative study, Taleb (2010) interviewed seven females who were in senior management of single-sex schools. After analysing the data collected from the semi-structured interviews, Taleb (2010) found that female headteachers in the case study were inclined to use "stereotypical attributes of

female qualities of leadership" (p. 287). In addition, the study revealed that female school headteachers preferred to use interpersonally oriented models, including democratic and transformational leadership models instead of task-oriented, transactional, and autocratic leadership models. Therefore, Taleb (2010) concluded that leadership models adopted by female headteachers in Saudi single-sex schools, to a considerable extent, had become the common model.

Similarly, Wirba and Shmailan's (2015) quantitative study found that most Saudi leaders in educational institutions (universities) used transformational leadership, followed by transactional leadership. The laissez-faire style was the least practised leadership model within the education system (Wirba & Shmailan, 2015). Therefore, the most recent evidence in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia suggests that Saudi leaders prefer similar leadership models to Western models of leadership. Nevertheless, leadership literature concerning the common leadership models adopted by Saudi leaders in the 1990s suggests that they used an autocratic leadership model to become authoritative when leading people to achieve their personal interests (Malaika, 1993). This change might reflect the impact of globalisation on education.

Furthermore, a review of Saudi philosophical approaches to educational leadership indicates that those issues undermining the potential for improved leadership programmes relate directly to issues of job satisfaction. Abubakar and Musa (2015) agreed with this issue and framed a recent debate about educational leadership within the realms of job satisfaction. In this regard, Abubakar and Musa (2015) also argued that, as within the UK educational arena, headteachers need to wear a number of 'hats' simultaneously, including manager, politician, leader, supervisor, mentor, and advocate. Indeed, Mathis (2010) noted that female headteachers possess an unusual amount of responsibility as these roles also require responsibility over safety issues and managing

issues raised by the MoE and public opinion. For Mathis (2010), these issues are not factors within the working roles undertaken by their male counterparts. However, as in Western contexts, specifically UK educational circles, a number of criteria are not specifically related to the concept of leadership. Again, there is a blurring between this concept and the issue of management.

Alhammad (2000) discussed the blurring of leadership and management in Saudi Arabia. He believed that a number of issues exist between those in managerial, leadership, and supervisory positions when compared to those who operate in the classroom. Alhammad (2000) considered this issue to be a factor in the low levels of job satisfaction that arguably exist within female school establishments in the country. In effect, one can argue that a number of structural issues undermine the educational efficiencies in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, a contemporary review of Saudi educational practices dominates arguments over the delivery of curricular activities that relate to the delivery of religious-based, or - focused, education as a prelude to the creation of a structured and ideal society. Al-Mughaidi (1997) and Al-Qurashi (1994) highlighted these issues, which remain an ongoing issue for Abdulkareem (2010), who believed they are pertinent when local school performance and capacity are considered. In effect, a number of structural issues are in play in the local Saudi educational system. Thus, Abubakar and Musa (2015) argued that nearly 40 per cent of female headteachers are dissatisfied with their working conditions, thereby implying that job satisfaction levels are a mitigating issue for school leadership promotion.

Abdulkareem (2014) believed that current supervisory practices undertaken within the local Saudi education sector are rooted within guidance systems that see tradition and personal perspectives as more important than the promotion of ideas accepted in the academic literature when deciding upon the progression of educational programmes. This

assertion arguably undermines the potential for the creation of a defined curricular programme, as per the body of knowledge intended to encourage learner development (Abdulkareem, 2014). He further argued that approximately three quarters of all Saudi schools do not possess clear strategic guidelines or policies for developing their schools via enhanced teacher training programmes. This perspective is also indicative of a long-term failing in the local educational sector, which Almakushi (2003) had earlier been critical of. However, Almakushi (2003) argued that, although it was feasible that educational situations possessed the potential to differ between schools and regions, virtually all members of staff, at all levels, continued to carry out similar tasks in their day-to-day practices, as per MoE guidelines.

Therefore, leadership issues exist in the Saudi educational environment that are structurally inadequate when considering educational attainment aspirations. However, a framework exists for developing a coherent school leadership and management structure capable of addressing these issues. This section has assessed that the issues that do undermine local educational systems (i.e., blurring of leadership and management, lack of job satisfaction, structural issues and supervisory practices) tend to result in poor leadership capabilities. These low capabilities also affect performance and job satisfaction. In order to address these issues, reform is considered vital.

3.6 Professional development

There is a general consensus in the literature that high-quality teaching necessitates knowledgeable, qualified, and skilful teachers (Day & Sachs, 2004). Scholars such as Biancarosa, Bryk, and Dexter (2010) have highlighted the fact that promoting quality education in school is concomitant with the professional development of teachers because professional development is conceptualised as "an essential component for creating a positive impact on their pedagogy and teaching practices" (p. 7). Kennedy's (2007) stated

that professional development activities are a vehicle for encouraging career promotion as more skills can be gained through both formal and informal training. The working definition for professional development in this thesis is as suggested by Day (2002):

> consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives. (p.4).

Indeed, there is evidence that professional development can positively affect pedagogy, curriculum, teacher–student relations, and teachers' sense of commitment and performance (Matsumura, Garnier, Correnti, Junker, & DiPrima Bickel, 2010; Pomerantz & Pierce, 2013). Various models of professional development have been proposed in the literature (e.g., situated learning, observational learning, coaching, and mentoring), each with their merits and limitations. The following sections discuss these models first from a Western perspective and then within the context of Saudi Arabia.

3.6.1 Professional development from Western perspectives

In the UK, for example, teachers can participate in various forms of professional learning that enable them to develop as leaders from the beginning of their careers onwards. This can take the form of an early professional development (EPD) programme which applies

to newly qualified teachers (NQT) in their first year at a post and to beginner teachers (BT) in their second and third years of teaching (Ashby, Hobson, Tracey, Malderez, Tomlinson, Roper, & Healy, 2008). The form of continuing professional development (CPD) activities which might include mentoring, coaching, classroom observation, etc.

Within the education sector, the CPD approach is indicative of the promotion of lifelong learning and, with this, CPD assists with professionals, such as educational practitioners, being given an opportunity to take control of their own professional careers. For the UK government (DCSF, 2008), this approach is carried out in line with processes of the wider assessment for learning (AfL) educational strategy. AfL, used with pupils, is an educational learning approach whereby those who undertake continuous learning can be offered a clear, although informal, progress report on their own attainment of personal achievements, as well as help identify the areas in which practitioners are weak or underachieving so that they can develop a more rounded approach to their professional practice as part of an attempt to realise professional self-actualisation (DCSF, 2008). In effect this approach offers a two-tier approach to the utility of CPD, in terms of both professional and personal development.

Essentially, the UK's approach to CPD can be considered as a tool for adding legitimacy to the educational sector, as well as individual establishments and practitioners. The approach comprises a system of building blocks that oversees and impacts upon professional development and career progression; it is carried out because there exists an amalgamation of educational practice capabilities and experience. There is a level of importance offered to both formal and informal training as well as ongoing systems of coaching and mentoring, but it is directly linked to the time afforded to actual professional practice. The basic forms of leadership development for staff can be in terms of their initial responsibilities (e.g., put in charge of teaching a subject; assessment in a key stage).

These have a built-in requirement to work with other staff and engage in teamwork. Indeed, this is where career progression can be realised.

Simos and Smith (2017) argued that "professional development must allow teachers to focus on content and pedagogical knowledge, provide opportunities for real-time implementation and develop important collaboration and reflection that lead to improved teacher practice and student achievement" (p.2). In this sense, Lave and Wenger (1991) stated that knowledge can be acquired in authentic contexts where learners participate in practical experiences. In other words, situated learning occurs through social interactions between the communities of practice within a cultural environment. Fullan (2007) argued that schools are "learning organisations" not only for students, but also for teachers, and he stressed the importance of interactions between the communities of practice within and between schools. Therefore, learning takes place in authentic work-related contexts rather than by attending a workshop or seminar (for more details on situated learning, see Section 3.2.3). In keeping with this premise, situational learning techniques such as instructional coaching have been conceptualised as crucial for teachers' professional development. Various studies have supported the idea that coaching is effective for transforming teacher practices, thereby enhancing student achievement (Fletcher & Mullen, 2012; Gupta & Daniels, 2012; Huston & Weaver, 2008; Stern & Brackett, 2012). Indeed, "coaching provides opportunities for implementation of new instruction, collaborative dialogue among classroom teachers, deep reflection, and constructive feedback, all of which are proven to be successful in increasing teacher knowledge of pedagogy and content" (Griffith, Ruan, Stepp, & Kimmel, 2014, p. 189). Although Lofthouse, Leat, and Towler (2010) concluded that school headteachers need to give more attention to coaching as it is one of the most cost-effective learning methods, one can argue that coaching could also just be imitation without any real in-depth

understanding of what is being coached or how the skill being coached might be effective. In addition, an individual headteacher may not have observed good practices when working with colleagues in the past (i.e., poor role models); consequently, she may start acting in a far too authoritarian manner, which would not gain staff support. In addition, any CPD involving coaching or mentoring relies on mutual trust being established, although this might not always be possible due to personality clashes. Therefore, even when coaching helps promote a learning culture within schools (Downey, 2015), school leadership needs to play a vital role in ensuring the success of this practice.

The emphasis on situational learning is reflective of changes to professional development whereby practitioners are increasingly focusing on methods that can foment long-term professional learning for teachers, thus substantially impacting the quality of teaching and learning. One key method that has been increasingly incorporated into professional development models is experiential learning. Beard and Wilson (2018) suggested that "learning occurs only if we engage with the experience in a meaningful way, i.e. we reflect on the situations we are involved in because only such an interaction with the external environment will result in learning" (p. 12). In this model, previous knowledge might be leveraged to enable new meanings in an interaction. The knowledge base of individuals built from previous educational and/or life experiences becomes a toolkit to which they can refer during new experiences (Kolb, 2015). Experiential models ultimately draw from Kolb's (2015) learning cycle, within which "the continuity of the *concrete experience*, *reflection*, *abstraction* and *experimentation* provide a holistic approach involving the perceptual, affective, symbolic and behavioural aspects of learning, even if development does not necessarily occur in all dimensions at the same rate" (Taylor, Marienau & Fiddler, 2000, pp. 23–25; Section 3.2.2 discusses Kolb's learning cycle in more detail). This model has been widely incorporated into Western

models of professional development as the evidence suggests that it enables deeper and more meaningful learning by integrating experience and learning, which is then translated into improved performance (Bonder, Bouchard & Bellemare, 2011). This form of structured learning can be useful for both on-the- job training and in the context of self-development (Bonder et al., 2011). There are, however, some disadvantages that accompany this approach. For instance, as experiential learning draws from the various experiences of the learner, this decentralised approach may be conceptualised as lacking in structure, which may be problematic for teachers with an authoritative style of teaching. It is also time-consuming and, as with situational approaches, requires patience on the part of the facilitator or instructor.

3.6.2   Professional development from Saudi perspectives

Saudi approaches to professional development are quite different from the previously discussed Western models. For the most part, pre-service training is the preferred method for teacher colleges and universities, while the Saudi MoE assumes the primary role for the provision of in-service programmes (Alharbi, 2012). The need for better quality professional development of teachers in Saudi Arabia has gained traction in the past decade, and the MoE has attempted to enhance its approach to boost teachers' professional development. However, the evidence from the literature suggests that these efforts require further development and, thus far, have not been effective enough to influence changes in teacher attitudes or pedagogy (Alghamdi & Li, 2011). The dominant training model "usually depends on a training plan established to meet the educational priorities of a central authority (e.g., Ministry of Education) in terms of identifying the needed skills and competences of the teachers" (Sabah, Fayez, Alshamrani, & Mansour, 2014, p. 96). In Saudi Arabia, professional development models are predicated on single-shot designs including workshops and courses. In contrast to Western models that

emphasise teachers' autonomy, this approach is top-down in nature and does not conceptualise teachers "as a source for critical and reflective practise that leads to their professional development" (Sabah et al., 2014, p. 96). The top-down models implemented in the Saudi context include lecture-style forms of group learning, concept maps, case studies, discussions, and the direct application of teacher guides. These are encapsulated in the educational training programmes, lasting from 1 day to 6 months, as well as the educational rehabilitation programmes typically implemented by the government (Alghamdi & Li, 2011). The aim of these programmes is to "cover different areas with respect to teaching and learning, such as the formulation of behavioural objectives, use of technology, measurement and evaluation of student performance, teaching competences, educational communication, and classroom management" (Alghamdi & Li, 2011, p.15).

Furthermore, these programmes provide teachers with the opportunity to enhance their education and receive qualifications at the postgraduate level. In as much as there is a distinction between Saudi and Western approaches, Saudi approaches have been specifically designed to meet the needs of teachers in the context of the shortfalls of the institutional environment and education sector in general. Teachers are not placed at the centre of professional development in terms of being presented with opportunities for critical and reflective practice that can enhance their professional development.

Turning now to the use of a more critical perspective when considering CPD for headteachers from a Saudi perspective. Formally organised courses for headteachers might not meet the needs of individuals, and/or it might be very challenging to implement the ideas being discussed due to the highly centralised education system in Saudi Arabia (Alzaidi, 2008b). In addition, Alsharari (2010) stated that attending courses can present a real challenge to headteachers in rural schools as access can be very difficult. He also

found that female headteachers in rural schools were not be able to attend outside courses because of some cultural difficulties. For example, for cultural reasons, women cannot travel alone; if their husbands are busy, they might not have time to accompany their wives. However, one can argue that the theoretical knowledge that headteachers might gain from these courses is very unlikely to be adequate on its own for them to lead a school; it should be strengthened with on-the-job experience in order to test the theories and apply them in real-world practices.

One might argue that, as the education sector continues to develop, the successful features of professional development in the West might be increasingly incorporated into an Arabic context. Ultimately, these models might not even be conducive for the local context. For example, very little attention has been paid to mentoring, where an experienced headteacher works with a newly appointed headteacher. As suggested by Bruner's (1966) scaffolding theory, the intervention from an experienced person when new headteachers begin their roles is important because, when individuals learn new knowledge and skills, they need active support from more experienced headteachers. This support is progressively reduced as they become more independent through experience. However, some experienced headteachers are not aware of the new technological developments in education (Alsharari, 2010) and, therefore, will not be able to train these essential skills in managing schools. Therefore, coaching and mentoring might be valuable for newly appointed headteachers, but they need to have the appropriate skills and knowledge to apply these practices within their schools. The implementation of mentoring could help change the school culture to a learning one, whereby experience and knowledge sharing will become more commonly available.

Grimmett and Crehan (1992) argued that a number of practitioners possess an indifferent or ignorant approach concerning the benefits of a collaborative approach to educational

practice and still do not see the importance of professional development. Indeed, Shah, Hussein, and Nasseef (2013) continued to promote this idea because CPD systems in Saudi Arabia are primarily overseen at the local level and do not comprise part of a wider strategic programme. Therefore, one can argue that professional development in Saudi Arabia remains a secondary consideration in educational advancement, as opposed to, for example, the increased usage of technology in KSA classes (Al-Maliki, 2013).

3.7   Leadership development

Leadership development is about enhancing learning opportunities to develop leadership capability (Bolden, 2005). According to Sessa (2017), part of leadership development is to have an in-depth understanding of what leadership involves and how one can lead others. The working definition for leadership development in this thesis is as suggested by Bolam (2003):

> an ongoing process of education, training, learning and support activities taking place in either external or work-based settings proactively engaged in by qualified, professional teachers, headteachers and other school leaders aimed primarily at promoting the learning and development of professionally appropriate knowledge, skills and values to help school leaders to decide on and implement valued changes in their leadership and management behaviour so that they can promote high quality education for their students more effectively thus achieving an agreed balance between individual, school and national needs. (p. 75)

However, this definition might have limitations when applied to the Saudi context. For example, Alsharari (2010) pointed out that some headteachers have been appointed to lead schools without having sufficient practical experience in the field, which means that the leadership development in Saudi Arabia is not "an ongoing process of education" (Bolam, 2003, p.75). However, the approach a school headteacher adopts to develop staff's skills may depend on how he or she views leadership development. The following sections review literature on both Western and Eastern perspectives on leadership development.

3.7.1 Leadership development from Western perspectives

Western researchers in leadership have developed leadership development models. One such model is the leadership development framework developed by Rodgers, Frearson, Holden, and Gold (2003) (see Figure 3.1).
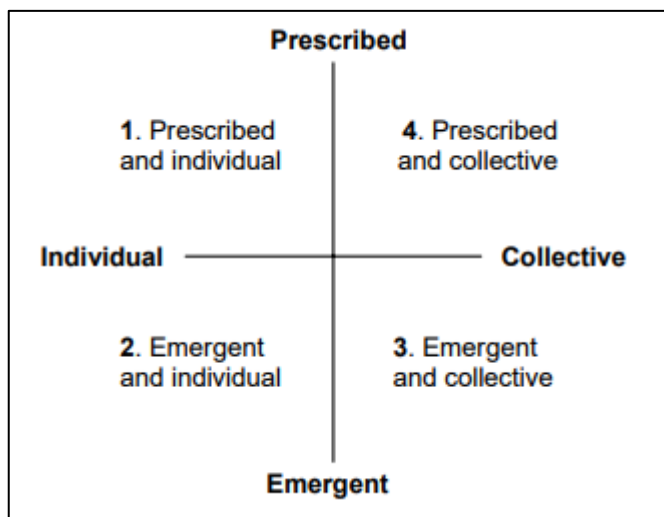
Figure 3.1   Framework of Leadership Development. Adapted from "The rush to leadership" by. Rodgers et al. 2003, *Management theory at work Conference,* Lancaster, England. Copyright (2003) by Lancaster University.

Rodgers et al. (2003) conducted a study to determine the impact of leadership development on overall performance of several public sectors, including education. They noticed that, in the UK in particular and in North America, Australia, Japan and Europe, there has been a race to taking on leadership roles, which leads to many courses on leadership development being offered in the public sector as well as established leadership development institutions (e.g., National College for Schools Leadership). Rodgers et al. (2003) introduced a framework showing two main dimensions (see Figure 3.1). The first dimension represents the collective or individual nature of leadership (e.g., distributed leadership). The second dimension represents the scope to which leadership is emergent or prescriptive. Prescriptive here means the possibility of identifying the inputs (e.g., skills) and outputs (e.g., performance) required for leadership development. However, most of these courses focus on individual and prescribed leadership.

According to Rodgers et al. (2003), only Cell 1 (prescribed and individual) and Cell 2 (emergent and individual) have been used by leadership development efforts. Although Cell 3 (emergent and collective) and Cell 4 (prescribed and collective) are more valuable for organisations because of their emphasis on shared leadership, they are often ignored by organisations (Bolden, 2005). This might have been the case, but sharing leadership roles or distributed leadership has recently received significant attention in school leadership literature. For example, in her study, Harris (2013) argued that there is a potential for principals to adopt distributed leadership in order to bring improvements and changes to schools. Harris (2013) also found a trend among school leaders to move away from a leadership position that dictates his/her power and authority for one that increases interaction between the leader and his/her colleagues.

Many leadership development approaches are practised by Western organisations (Bolden, 2005). In his American study, Xavier (2007) argued that the best person to

develop an organisation's future leaders is its present leader. However, leaders' views of leadership development can affect how prospective leaders are prepared. Modern thinking surrounding the idea of leadership development adopts the behaviourists' model of leadership, arguing that how leaders behave is more important than their innate ability. In this context, Reichard, Walker, Putter, Middleton, and Johnson (2017) asserted that the effectiveness of leader development depends on his/her beliefs about his/her ability to grow as leaders.

Bush (2018) proposed a model for leadership preparation and induction for educational leadership development (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Model for Leadership Preparation and Induction

Development phase	Purpose
Succession planning	Talent identification
Leadership preparation	To develop leadership understanding and skills
Recruitment and selection	Careful matching of qualified candidates with schools
Induction	An ongoing process focused on professional learning
In-service development	Leadership learning as a career-long process

Note. Adapted from "Preparation and induction for school principals: global perspectives" by T. Bush. 2018, Management in Education, 32(2), pp. 66-71. Copyright (2018) by SAGE Publications.

As shown in Table 3.1, Bush's model of leadership preparation includes five stages. The first stage is succession planning, which is defined as identifying talented teachers who have the leadership potential to assume a school leadership role. Rothwell (2015) also pointed out the importance of succession planning for school continuity and for effective succession planning, concluding that systematic professional development should be considered (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The second stage is the leadership preparation step, in which leadership understanding and skills are provided. This can happen in a number of ways, such as shadowing, mentoring, and coaching to increase leadership knowledge. This stage is followed by recruitment and selection (Bush, 2018), when a leadership vacancy arises. In this stage, the applicants are carefully matched with the school culture, and the best fit is selected. Once the best person is selected, he/she receives

an induction, whereby information about the new role is explained and relationships are established. Finally, to sustain effective leadership, in-service training should be continued, and ongoing professional development programmes need to be offered (Bush, 2018).

Bush's model may work in Singapore or other developed countries such as the UK. However, in practice, the school leadership preparation in Saudi Arabia does not follow such distinct stages suggested by Bush (2018). Far from it as some headteachers are appointed straight from graduation. This method of headteacher recruitment may lack effective matching between the person and the school culture (Derks, 2003) and required experience to lead a complex organisation such as a school (Leatherbarrow & Fletcher, 2014). Therefore, Bush's model does not apply to the Saudi Arabian context. Others are promoted to a headship with some years of teaching experience. They might have ideas about the school culture, but they may lack theoretical understanding of the complexity of running a school. Again, what Bush suggested does not apply in the context of Saudi Arabia. Still others are offered headship roles with some leadership experience in working as deputy headteachers. However, a lack of learning opportunities (either formal or informal) may prevent these individuals from becoming successful in leading a school (Ismail, Lai, Ayub, Ahmed, & Wan, 2016). Therefore, both succession planning and recruitment and selection for school headteachers are not done in Saudi Arabia the way Bush's model suggests.

3.7.2 Leadership development in Saudi Arabia

Recent years have seen professional development play a more important role in educational practitioners' development. Shah, Hussain, and Nasseef (2013) argued that the main reason why this outcome has been realised is because of a changing teaching

culture. In any educational system, particularly where there has been an emphasis upon learning, processes of professional development become increasingly important as they assist practitioners in improving their professional competencies and standards. That said, a number of practitioners have found it difficult to alter their practice and related belief systems in order to cater to new requirements, such as incorporating a number of new principles heavily related to communicative language teaching (Shah et al., 2013). Indeed, as Day (2002) observed, "the quality of teaching clearly depends on teachers continuing to learn as teaching contexts, pupil behaviour and expectations of teachers change" (p. ix). In this context, therefore, professional development for Saudi practitioners can be considered important as a way of raising teaching standards, particularly in subject areas such as teaching English as a foreign language. However, the delivery of professional development in Saudi Arabia tends to be conducted and overseen at the local level, as opposed to being overseen as part of a strategic initiative affecting teaching quality.

Research, such as that conducted by Rockoff (2004), indicated that the quality of teachers and the related educational student outcomes are positively correlated. This perspective is supported by Bangs and Frost (2012), who argued that the educational culture as well as students' learning styles offer educational practitioners with an enhanced opportunity to contribute positively towards realising a number of generalised as well as specific educational and teaching goals. However, educational practitioners are central to student achievement and are the most influential agents for developing and advancing the education system through ongoing reform (Jamil, Razak, Raju, & Mohamed, 2011). With this the issue of promoting and focusing on the progression and advancement of the sector through improved levels of practitioner knowledge and skills can result in high-quality teaching (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009). These

methodical working approaches are beneficial for educational practitioners as well as their establishments because they not only imply that the establishment is encouraging the sharing of resources and working collectively, but also help increase the school's capacity for learning. That said, this altered practice and change of attitude lend themselves to an increased level of commitment in terms of effort, time, and skills in order for practitioners to become more effective in their professional obligations. Added to these benefits, there is also a side issue of practitioners remoulding their professional identities (Hargreaves, 2000). Thus, in effect, the Saudi education sector has altered its domain to incorporate what has been termed as a "collegial professional age", as Hargreaves (2000, p. 41) promoted.

Some Saudi studies (for example, Aldarweesh, 2003; Badawood, 2003) have examined issues related to school leadership (for more details on these studies, see Section 1.4). Badawood (2003) found that school headteachers placed significant importance on learning the concept of leadership. Similarly, Aldarweesh (2003) examined school leadership behaviour from female teachers' and school heads' perspectives. Although both studies were conducted in Saudi Arabia, they failed to focus on leadership development. However, these two studies examined school headteachers' perceptions of their individual leadership ability. According to these studies, school headteachers in Saudi Arabia identify themselves as having a high level of leadership knowledge and skills.

However, Alammar's (2015) study aimed mainly to identify the issues related to state school effectiveness in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. She distributed a questionnaire to a sample of teachers (179) and conducted a semi-structured interview with 11 headteachers. In her study, Alammar (2015) found that the key factor of school effectiveness in Saudi Arabia is effective school headteachers, followed by high-quality teachers and school

environment. Almannie (2015) argued that Saudi headteachers should be trained in order to deliver quality education and participate in better decision-making processes. In his mixed method study (470 questionnaires answered by schools' male and female headteachers and 36 interviews from 18 male and 18 female headteachers), Al Sharari (2010) found that many unqualified headteachers in Saudi schools lack the capabilities of programme management, problem-solving, and communication skills. He concludes that school headteachers in Saudi Arabia need additional training in the following areas: management, educational technology and communication; students' affairs; and staff development. However, the question remains: how can school leaders effectively develop their leadership skills?

Coaching is one of the effective training methods used by many school headteachers to develop teachers to become prospective school leaders (Downey, 2015; Lofthouse *et al*., 2010). In his study, Algarfi (2010) conducted a 10-hour coaching programme for two participants—one with 19 years of work experience and the other with 12—on cooperative learning. This study found that both teachers had initially very limited knowledge about cooperative learning; however, with the coaching programme, they changed their teaching style from one that was teacher-centred to a student-centred approach. Although this study did not relate to leadership development, it showed the effectiveness of coaching to change behaviour and practices of professionals. Another effective training method headteachers use to develop teachers is engaging them in school responsibilities and create a collaborative school culture focusing on learning and professional development.

3.8   Women and leadership

In most societies, women's access to leadership in the education sphere has been limited as a result of systemic and socially constructed expectations (Agosto & Roland, 2018). The available evidence suggests that women inherently aspire to forge successful relationships (Coleman, 2020; Fuller, 2015) while men might be more motivated by prestige and status. With more women entering the labour market as they begin to assume leadership roles in education, a wealth of literature focuses on their educational leadership experiences (Fuller, 2015). However, it is also fraught with some limitations. Fuller (2017a) argued that existing literature is skewed towards discussions about inequality in the allocation of headteachers' positions based on gender, challenges that female headteachers face in their position, and the different attitudes between male and female headteachers in Western cultures. Thus, there is not an extensive focus on the nuances and differences between various groups of women, including Arab women. Therefore, this section attempts to adopt a critical stance and examines the existing literature on women and leadership.

Sections 3.8.1 and 3.8.2 review the literature on both Western and Arab perspectives of women in leadership roles. There is a notable gap in the literature concerning studies on women in Saudi Arabia, but some relevant literature on females in leadership roles in other Arab countries exists and can be considered due to the similar societal, cultural, and religious contexts.

3.8.1   Women and leadership from Western perspectives

The available empirical and theoretical studies on women and educational leadership has enabled an in-depth understanding of the wider socio-political context within which women as leaders operate as a minority group (Clarke & O'Donoghue, 2017; Coleman,

2020; Fuller, 2015, 2017a; Grundy, 2017; Hill, McDonald, & Ward, 2017; Miller, 2017; Niesche & Gowlett, 2019; Robinson, Shakeshaft, Grogan, & Newcomb, 2017; Thorpe, 2019). The majority of these studies critically examined the professional and occupational challenges the women experience, in conjunction with the diverse professional and personal strategies that they employ during their exercise of leadership. If taken together as a body of literature, these challenges come with an element of risk. There is an implicit suggestion that women have a collective identity that is invariably linked to their gender. This notion of a "universal sisterhood"—that all women, despite their ethnicity, class, race, and/or nationality experience oppression linked to patriarchy (Sherrick, 1982)—is erroneous and lacking in nuance. Arguably, it is based on Western traditions and experiences of privilege and power.

Research conducted in the United States and Europe has suggested that women in leadership roles experience gender-related obstacles. There are cultural narratives that conceptualise femininity as being incompatible with effective management, gendered role perceptions, discrimination, stereotyping, limitations to employment mobility, and male domination in educational management (Coleman, 2020; Fuller, 2015; Robinson et al., 2017). Sanchez and Thornton (2010) reviewed the literature related to obstacles faced by headteachers in primary and secondary schools in the United States and found that stereotyping is considered the main obstacle for female headteachers and affects their motivation to do more in their positions. They also identified that family tasks and low income were among the barriers that those headteachers faced. Sanchez-Hucles and Davis (2010) added that African American female school headteachers faced extra challenges because of their race. Another study conducted in Greece by Kaparou and Bush (2007) examined the professional lives of six secondary school female headteachers. They found that all participants acknowledged that equal leadership

opportunities existed for both sexes. However, those female headteachers faced internal and external challenges in their professional development. They described the internal difficulties as those related to personal traits, while the external challenges were associated with cultural attitudes towards the roles of women in leadership. Shakeshaft (2015) showed that women experience internal barriers that undermine their advancement in leadership roles, including "low self-image, lack of confidence, and lack of motivation or aspiration" (p. 83). In addition, women's emotional and physical weakness compared to men affects their performance in disciplining students, especially in the secondary school context (Lumby et al., 2010).

Research has also suggested that family-related considerations undermine the development of women as leaders (Shakeshaft, 2015). Benson (2013) conducted a study in Texas with six female headteachers. She found that family considerations and social expectations placed on women's shoulders were the main challenges for them. Stewart (2014) argued that balancing family life and work is an ongoing challenge. In her study, Parker (2015) conducted six in-depth interviews with working mothers who were secondary school headteachers in the United States. The study found that the headteachers suffered from pressure, heavy workloads, and difficulty achieving balance between their roles as mothers and leaders, which led them to feel frustrated. Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) concluded that "women's family responsibilities can severely limit their careers in ways that do not generally affect men" (p. 409). Metz (2005) added that "having children weakens the relationship between work hours and managerial advancement" (p. 228).

When appointed as headteachers, women's leadership experience differs from that of men (Agosto & Roland, 2018), which has been linked to the gendered responses received

from students, staff, and parents. Grundy (2017) showed that women have a different set of values, leading them to employ different leadership styles than men. Furthermore, as part of their roles as headteachers, women may experience prescriptive and persistent stereotypes; despite their competencies, they may internalise these stereotypes or, in some instances, reject them. Female headteachers are constantly striving towards one socially prescribed label: as a woman or a leader (Fuller, 2017b). Traditional notions of femininity link women with motherhood; Acker (2012) showed that some female leaders reject this stereotype of motherhood by adopting more traditional masculine stereotypical aspects of leadership. Other female leaders demonstrate female nurturing qualities (Acker, 2012). Devine, Grummell, and Lynch (2011) showed that some women leaders accept these stereotypes to succeed in their line of work, projecting "a distinct feminine identity so as not to be ridiculed for appearing overly masculine" (p. 363). Although Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2003) showed that women have increasingly adopted androgynous methods of leading, Hughes (2004) demonstrated that women are constantly struggling to achieve a balance in their roles. This can be summarised as: "too masculine and she is threatening. Too feminine and she is wimpish. The feminine 'touch' is just a little make-up. Too much and one is the sexual working-class woman. None at all and one is of suspect sexuality" (Hughes, 2004, p. 538).

These research findings have generally been presented as a universal occurrence as opposed to being culturally specific. It is imperative that the impact of gender on leadership is discussed more strongly with an emphasis on context. This is despite the argument that, "whilst definitive universal differences cannot be drawn between the expected attitudes and behaviours of men and women, the socially approved parameters within which each function may represent different 'bandwidths' with wider opportunities open to men than to women globally" (Nentwich, 2006, p. 513). Although

women from minority groups are under-represented in the literature, in recent years, some studies focusing on Arab women in educational management have been conducted and will be discussed in the following section.

3.8.2 Women and leadership from an Arabic cultural perspective

Historically, the leadership experiences of women in Arab societies have been afforded little attention, hampering knowledge about the cultural determinants that impinge on women as part of roles as headteachers (Al-Suwaihal, 2010; Arar, 2018, 2019; Arar, Shapira, Azaiza, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2013; Omair, 2008; Samier, 2015). The lives of Arab women have been altered dramatically in recent decades from long-accepted descriptions as "scared, inferior, domestic women who hardly leave their houses" (Omair, 2008, p. 107). Arab women are increasingly being elevated to parliamentary and ministerial positions, and these trends are also evident in the education sector (Arar, 2019). For example, Saudi women obtained the right to vote, take part in municipal elections, and win seats on the Shura Council in 2011. In the education sector, Saudi women reached senior leadership positions in February 2009, when Mrs. Norah Al-Fayez was appointed as the first female deputy minister of education overseeing girls' education.

However, Arar (2019) showed that male hegemony serves as a significant obstacle to women's leadership in the education sector. He noted that "Arab women are seen as unfit and lacking the necessary skills and abilities to become leaders, thus justifying male dominance" (Arar, 2019, p.4). Continued male dominance in the education sector is linked to broader structural factors; more specifically, "despite global pressures for more democratic structures and improvement in human rights and more liberal policies, most Arab countries have failed to democratize governmental and political structures and, in

some cases, have even become more repressive and unaccountable" (Arar, 2019, p.4). Aside from these challenges, female inhibitions are also hindering Arab women's adoption of leadership roles in the education sector. Al-Lamky (2007) showed that many Arab women lack the intrinsic motivation to adopt such positions because of a lack of confidence, a lack of a competitive drive, or feelings of weakness or dependency on men. Al-Hussein (2011), describing the context in Jordan, showed that women in senior education roles are hindered by both male and female stereotypes of women as well as a a lack of self-efficacy, ambition, and confidence. In his social learning theory, Bandura (1977) argued that a positive self-belief of one's capability enhances the chances of success. Similarly, Garza, Drysdale, Gurr, Jacobson, and Merchant (2014) concluded that successful headteachers were those motivated to sustain their efforts to become more effective leaders.

The home–career conflict has also undermined opportunities for women in the Arab context. Moghadam (2009) argued that difficulties in achieving a balance between a career and homemaker duties have prevented many women in the Arab world from pursuing senior positions in the education sector. Yet Moghadam (2009) found that women who have close family support are able to adopt such roles. According to Al-Suwaihal (2010), success for Kuwaiti female headteachers requires spousal support, family support, personal development, and a balance between professional and home tasks.

Arar (2018) noted that, although cultural challenges and segregation policies are not necessarily explicit, they continue to restrict deployment, training, and mobility opportunities for female headteachers. Abalkhail (2017) established similar findings in the context of Saudi Arabia based on a qualitative study that analysed 22 in-depth

interviews of Saudi female lecturers working in two higher education institutions. The researcher found that segregation policies between both genders prevented women from attending and participating in strategic meetings. Abalkhail (2017) also identified a lack of training for women, resulting in discrimination in job promotion that favoured males. Arar (2018) further noted that personal traits, including a lack of empowerment during childhood and independence, undermined women's leadership experiences.

Samier (2015) described the United Arab Emirates as a country that "exemplifies many of the best virtues of Islamic and Arab culture. In many ways it is unique in the organisation of its social institutions and, in particular, in the rights and opportunities provided for women" (p. 6). In the past, religion and culture served as a barrier to women's participation in leadership roles, yet modernisation and political intervention have led to a change in women's status. Women are now enjoying both educational and professional status linked to the political vision of Shaikh Zayed Al Nahyan (Samier, 2015). This vision entailed the inclusion of women in all sectors of society (Samier, 2015) and has culminated in the extensive construction of an educational infrastructure that has enabled many Emirati women to pursue higher education both in and out of the country. A corollary of this trend is that women now have higher levels of participation in higher education and in professional leadership roles (Samier, 2015). Yet at the same time, in modernising organisations, Emirati women must carve out leadership roles for themselves that balance the requirements of Emirati culture and Islam with Western organisational expectations, which is why "in these contexts, creating a leadership identity is difficult" (Samier, 2015, p. 11). Thus, while women have experienced significant advancements, they have primarily occurred within the barriers of Emirati culture and Islam.

The experiences of women in the West and those in Arab societies are clearly divergent. Whereas women in the West have increasingly adopted leadership roles in the education sector, which has become the subject of many research studies, women in Arab societies continue to experience obstacles to pursuing such careers, resulting in the suggestion that replicating Western notions of leadership in the Arab context is problematic. Women in both societies have some similar experiences linked to their gender, indicating that some ideas on Western leadership might be useful in the Arab context. However, the vast cultural, religious, social, and political differences between the two societies necessitate a more nuanced outlook.

3.9   Effectiveness of leadership preparation for female headteachers

According to the literature, in organised education systems, headteachers are commonly seen as the most influential figure in the success of their school (Male, 2006). Taking up this central role involves merging personal values and beliefs with the demand of the system in order to feel comfortable in that position. This is a joint process, by which both the individual and the system exert influence on each other (Male, 2006). To be placed in such a position, leadership preparation has been conceptualised as imperative for teachers, often through the implementation of professional development programmes (Matsumura et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2000). Leadership preparation is conceptualised as effective when headteachers can attain confidence in their roles (Male, 2006). According to Male (2006), headteachers become more confident in their role when they are able to reconcile their personal values and beliefs with those of their school in order to meet the learning needs of their students in a way that is acceptable to all the stakeholders within the school community. Despite Male's (2006) ideas on how leadership preparation may be deemed effective, effectiveness is ultimately difficult to ascertain.

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To begin with, there is no universal approach to leadership preparation; therefore, effectiveness cannot be conceptualised from a universal perspective and must be culturally defined. Leadership preparation has different goals according to specific national, political, and social contexts. The effectiveness of such approaches can be extremely difficult to ascertain; in addition, the question remains a matter of debate in terms of the extent to which such approaches can be considered truly effective for female headteachers. Can such approaches be truly effective for women?

This question is very important because women have workplace experiences influenced by their gender that may limit their ability to implement these skills regardless of the leadership preparation they receive. An important intersection exists between gender and leadership that must be conceptualised from a nuanced perspective in evaluating the effectiveness of any kind of leadership preparation. Ultimately, effective preparation for women would entail approaches that equip them with the requisite tools to ensure the best student outcomes while concurrently acknowledging the limitations they experience in the workplace as a result of gender perceptions (Fuller, 2015).

The concept of effectiveness is normally used in the context of quantitative research studies whereby a school is deemed effective if students perform better than expected but ineffective if students do not achieve their potential. However, the concept of effectiveness is rooted in the ability to process large amounts of hard data and then subject these data to careful statistical analysis. With respect to headteacher preparation, existing models to which quantitative researchers can refer are lacking. The nearest equivalent in this context would be the use of predetermined standards that might be used to indicate the extent of headteachers' preparation. However, such standards do not exist in the Saudi context as they do in England, for example (i.e., the National Standards of Excellence for

Headteachers; Department for Education, 2015) which uses a competence model. Such a model can go a long way in enhancing self-development and could be useful for governors of a school in relation to performance management. Orr (2006) argued that focusing on leadership preparation will result in better management, leadership, and organisational practices, thereby improving teaching, learning, and the overall performance of the school. However, effective preparation for headteachers is difficult to investigate because capturing the full complexities of the role is problematic. These complexities are linked to the wide varieties of stakeholders, including pupils, parents, governors, supervisors, and policymakers involved in the preparation process. Schools also have various structures, making it difficult to adopt a one-size-fits-all approach to effectiveness (Kempster & Parry, 2014).

The evidence relevant to Western educational contexts suggests that leadership preparation programmes or courses run at the graduate level might help promote effective leadership through learning (Orr & Orphanos, 2011). Leadership courses and internship opportunities have been shown to positively enhance participants' leadership knowledge in a way that positively reflects on their leadership practices (Orr & Orphanos, 2011). Specifically, participants of such courses learn about what effective leadership entails, and they apply the principles and skills that they learn in the school context, leading to overall school improvement (Orr & Orphanos, 2011). The importance of graduate-level leadership preparation programmes is reflected in the significant reforms that have been made to such programmes over the years to ensure that innovative approaches that can enhance leadership outcomes, organisational practices, and management are implemented (Orr, 2006). Evidence from Walker and Dimmock (2006) indicates that graduate-level leadership preparation programmes equip headteachers with the requisite knowledge, skills, teaching practices, learning practices, and attributes to excel

effectively in their roles. However, these programmes usually adopt a one-size-fits-all approach. Consequently, they do not consider headteachers' individual needs or the complexity of the school environment.

Although attendance at training courses has been shown to be important for developing headteachers' leadership skills, another important component of training carried out in the in-service context has also been recognised (Kempster, 2006). The logic that underpins this approach is that successful headship is ideally about developing others' leadership skills, which requires real-world learning in the school context (Dimmock, 2003). In-service leadership preparation has been shown to be effective because headteachers are trained within the contexts of the schools in which they work and, therefore, acquire skills and knowledge directly related to the needs of that school (Zenger, Ulrich, & Smallwood, 2000). Thus, learning is a social process, as advocated by Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. The interactions between the headteachers and teachers in schools provide opportunities for potential leaders to form their social identities through group affiliations (Ibarra, 1999). Ultimately, there is a wide-ranging number of innovative courses and in-service training methods (e.g., coaching and mentoring) that directly address the learning needs of headteachers but have not been developed extensively in the context of Saudi Arabia.

3.10   Transition to headship

This section begins with an analysis of how a person's identity is affected by his/her professional position and career goals (Section 3.10.1), and describes how a person transitions from teaching to headship (Section 3.10.2). This will be followed by a discussion about the support needed to become a school head (Section 3.10.3), and the

section ends with a discussion about some motivational factors which explain why an individual might wish to become a headteacher (Section 3.10.4).

3.10.1 Effects of headship role on identity

Ibarra (1999), an American scholar, put forward three fundamental processes for leadership development. The first one is to observe role models to recognise some potential identities. The second one is to experiment with "provisional selves" (p. 764), and the third is to evaluate the new behaviour against the existing standards and obtain feedback from others. Ibarra (1999) defined identity as "the various meanings attached to a person by self and others" (p. 766). Ibarra also grouped identity into social and personal identities. Social identity concerns social roles as well as group membership, whereas personal identity refers to the character traits displayed by an individual. Social identity theorists like Ellemers, De Gilder, and Haslam (2004) and Reicher, Haslam, and Hopkins (2005) argued that leadership is a process of social influence as suggested by Vygotsky (1978) in his sociocultural theory.

Ibarra (1999) stated that people change their identity with their career transitions. Here, identity is referred to as people's professional identity rather than personal identity. According to Costello (2005), professional identity gives a person a sense of self-worth and meaning as an individual and as a member of the teaching profession. Changes in professional identity will require the professional to improve his/her competency in the concerned profession. In a school, changing from a teacher to a school headteacher means changing attitudes, behaviours, and interaction patterns as well as acquiring new knowledge and skills, which may give the person a new self-definition (Ibarra, 1999).

Changing professional identity also increases individuals' emotional experiences. In her study, Armstrong (2011) interviewed eight recently appointed assistant headteachers to

understand their emotions and the new challenges and responsibilities of their new role. Armstrong (2011) wanted to capture the emotions and lived experience of these individuals of becoming and being new assistant headteachers. This study found that these individuals' initial idea of the assistant headteacher's role changed with their lived experiences to knowing that school headteachers have a diverse set of responsibilities and roles within the school. Therefore, they associate a totally different meaning to their new positions and changed their views about the role of the head of a school.

3.10.2 Headship structure

In Saudi Arabia, the appointment of school headteachers seems to have different mechanism. In many Western countries, a formal promotion structure within the school system means that only people with previous experience in a leadership role, such as being a deputy headteacher, can hold a position to lead a school (Shewbridge, Hulshof, Nusche & Staehr, 2014). As in the Western system, the career ladder for a school headteacher in Saudi Arabia may begin as a teacher. However, it is possible for teachers in Saudi Arabia to become a school headteacher without any leadership qualifications, as suggested by Al Sharari (2010). Thus, teachers can also be promoted directly to a position of the headteacher of a school, even if they have not worked in a deputy headteacher role (Al Sharari , 2010).

Alsharari (2010) argued that there is no fit-for-purpose training programme for Saudi female headteachers; consequently, girls' schools are unable to achieve the desired education standards. Alsharari (2010) offered the following observations:

> Some female head teachers in Saudi Arabia become head teachers
> straight from teaching posts in an arbitrary way and without having
> gained experience from having first held the post of deputy head teacher.

Lack of experience and the absence of training courses and preparation

programmes present great problems for female head teachers. (p. 2)

The absence of adequate training for female school heads in Saudi Arabia might give them a reputation as unqualified school heads. As Alsharari (2010) pointed out, the lack of training and experience in a leadership position has made it difficult for female school heads looking to solve problems faced during the course of their leadership career. This highlights a professional identity perceived to be undesirable for female heads of schools, negatively affecting their motivation to stay in the headship. On the other hand, those female headteachers who came forward to take up the responsibilities of running a school received support from many different sources (e.g., staff and mentors).

3.10.3 Support for headship

Alsharari's (2010) study reported that inexperienced headteachers are often appointed as school heads and receive support when applying for headship roles. One way this can happen is through the assistance of the existing head of school from a distributed leadership perspective. Harris (2004, 2013) pointed out that teachers could be prepared to take leadership responsibilities via distributed leadership roles among teachers. In this context, school headteachers can develop teachers' skills in different stages to build effective school leadership (Harris, 2004). Harris (2010) stated that "distributing leadership to teachers may contribute to building professional learning communities within and between schools" (p. 313). Therefore, it could be argued that experienced headteachers can train and develop prospective headteachers, preparing them for their future leadership positions.

Potential headteachers can also gain external support in addition to internal guidance and learning opportunities. Family support is critical if a female teacher is wanting to change

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her role to become a headteacher because, according to Thomas et al. (2003), in the UK, primary school headteachers work more than 58 hours per week. Although the workload figures concerning Saudi headteachers are not available, headteachers in Saudi Arabia also work long hours. If female headteachers have children, assuming headship responsibilities is almost impossible without support from their families. Furthermore, family support is also necessary for female headteachers as there are "powerful discourses", which may facilitate or constrain their "ways of being" (Jones, 2016, p. 907). The constraining factors may have a negative impact on female headteachers' work and their professional lives (Jones, 2016). In the context of Saudi Arabia, female headteachers may face challenges due to the lack of autonomy and external supervision of their performance (Huber, 2008). If school headteachers are not given the opportunity to introduce new ideas to improve school, then the difficulty they face when bringing new changes to the school culture may affect teachers' motivation to become heads of schools.

3.10.4 Motivation to become a head of school

Motivation, or the reasons for wanting a leadership role, is an important factor for a teacher seeking to assume leadership responsibilities. Motivation is defined as the need or desire that causes an individual to act or "the expenditure of effort to accomplish result" (Williams & Williams, 2011, p. 2). According to Guay et al. (2010), motivation refers to the "reasons underlying behaviour" (p. 712). Abeysekera and Dawson (2015) described it as a process with which goal-oriented behaviours are initiated, guided, and maintained. Maurer and Lippstreu (2005) defined motivation as developing "the desire to develop or improve leadership skills and attributes through effort" (p. 5). These definitions suggest that there is no universal agreement on what motivation involves;

however, there is a general agreement that motivation is essential for an individual to achieve results (Williams & Williams, 2011).

The existing literature has offered several motivational theories, including needs theories (e.g., Maslow, 1943) and process theories (e.g., Locke, 1967). However, Ryan and Deci (2000) suggested that motivation is either self-directed (intrinsic motivation) or can be derived from external sources (extrinsic motivation). Intrinsic motivation is based on a desire to carry out an activity to gain satisfaction and pleasure inherent in the activity. Many teachers who are intrinsically motivated look for intangible benefits, such as more responsibilities (Thomas, 2010), recognition and interesting work (Han, Yin, & Boylan, 2016), involvement in decision-making (Friedman, Friedman, & Markow, 2008), creation of a new identity (Crow & Moller, 2017), and efforts to build a better reputation (Ankli & Palliam, 2012). In contrast, extrinsic motivation comes from the desire to do something in exchange for attaining positive outcomes, such as financial rewards, and to avoid having negative consequences, such as escapes from demotion, downgrading pay scales, or no learning and development opportunities (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

One advantage of intrinsic motivation is that an intrinsically motivated teacher is doing his or her work out of interest and love for doing it; hence, there is no need for another person to reward him/her to perform it effectively. According to Ankli and Palliam (2012), a teacher's personality can also be a great source of a motivational determinant if the teacher has the ambition to become a headteacher. Another advantage of this type of motivation is that the individual is committed to and engaged in achieving what he/she wants. In the same vein, self-motivation (Kaplan & Patrick, 2016) is important for a teacher or a deputy headteacher seeking to assume the headship role. Some headteachers look for intrinsic motivation when recruiting new teachers. For example, Whitaker, Whitaker, and Lumpa (2009) described the expectation of a headteacher when recruiting

new teachers as follows: "when I hire new staff, I want them to take a vocal leadership role in the school. I expect them to speak up at faculty meetings" (p. 223).

In contrast, a teacher can be motivated to become a school leader because of external pressure, extrinsic rewards, or incentives rather than internal desires (Ankli & Palliam, 2012). This is sometimes true in Saudi Arabia because some teachers wanted to accept the headship position due to pressure from their family or colleagues. One reason this happens is the lack of training opportunities (Alsharari, 2010). However, a balance needs to be established between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in order to sustain motivation to work as a headteacher (Ankli & Palliam, 2012).

The existing literature (e.g., Armstrong,2011) suggests that changing career positions will have an impact on individuals' identities and roles in an organisation. Creating a new professional identity means developing new knowledge and skills. It also means changing the patterns of socialisation and altering one's views of the responsibilities of headship. The traditional roles of a headteacher are changing to adopting an instructional leadership model focusing on learning and creating a learning organisation. More importantly, adopting a new professional identity means facing fresh challenges that require solutions for novice headteachers.

3.11   Challenges of early headship

School headteachers, in the early years of headship, face a number of challenges. Armstrong (2011) identified some of these challenges and stated that headteachers face emotional difficulties. In addition, Alsharari (2010) identified five key issues, including inadequate leadership training, lack of support from within, resistance to change of school culture, lack of purposefully built schools, and weak school–home relationships. Each of these are now discussed in turn.

3.11.1 Inadequate training

The lack of leadership capabilities has been reported as a major difficulty faced by school headteachers in their earlier periods of leadership (Alsharari, 2010). He claimed that there is no headteachers' preparation programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, although there is one for males across all provinces in the kingdom. Furthermore, it is not uncommon in Saudi Arabia's female schools to appoint inexperienced teachers as headteachers (Alsharari, 2010).

Predictably, when one does not have sufficient experience and without adequate training or a skill-set, the new role can present many difficulties and challenges for female headteachers. As Alsharari (2010) pointed out, like male headteachers in Saudi schools, female headteachers are also responsible for running a school by solving problems as and when they appear and removing any barriers that arise in efforts to achieve school goals. Most importantly, female headteachers should ensure that they improve their school in a way that enhances learning. The poor quality of education in Saudi schools has been a significant issue in a rapidly changing society in Saudi Arabia.

3.11.2 Lack of support

Another factor that may contribute to increasing problems to novice headteachers is the lack of support from existing headteachers. The leadership model adopted by the majority of school leaders does not provide leadership support for those who would be replacing the existing school headteacher. According to Alzaidi (2008a), Saudi Arabia has a centralised school system, and the assumed role of a school headteacher is to conduct himself as an operational manager rather than an instructional leader. This leadership approach does not focus on creating a learning environment among the teachers, nor does

the headteacher see training methods such as coaching, mentoring, shadowing, and succession planning as important for school operations. If schools have succession planning, new headteachers would probably know how to deal with difficult situations and be experienced in solving problems. Furthermore, as Harris (2010) suggested, the application of distributed leadership in Saudi schools may also help overcome the leadership capability issue. Even if young headteachers have adequate leadership education, they face a great deal of resistance from teachers who have been in their positions for a considerable period of time.

In addition, young headteachers would need teachers' support to make their vision a reality as they bring bold ambition and new enthusiasms to achieve success under their leadership. If teachers do not give adequate support to and work alongside the new head of school, then there is not much that the novice headteacher can achieve.

3.11.3 Resistance to changing school culture

In Saudi Arabia, changing teacher-centred teaching to student-centred teaching is difficult (Idris, 2016). In his Saudi-based study, Idris (2016) found that some teachers did not want to use a student-centred approach to learning in their classrooms. If this is the case, changing the classroom practice can be difficult for a newly appointed head of school because resistance to change will come from these teachers.

According to Muhammad (2009), resistance may come from different sources, such as distraction from both internal and external sources. Although this a weak form of resistance, negative comments and commentary from parents and the public can distract the school improvement plans put forward by the new headteacher, giving him/her more challenges and additional problems when seeking to improve his/her performance (Muhammad, 2009). This may not happen in all schools because, according to some

headteachers, in some schools, teachers may need someone to direct them in bringing about improvements to classrooms learning to achieve a satisfactory environment (Connolly & James, 2000). Alternatively, Connolly and James (2000) suggested that, on some occasions, teachers openly oppose the changes in programmes the headteacher has put forth to promote school improvement. Therefore, resistance to change may cause some problems for newly appointed headteachers.

Again, the issue of inadequate leadership training creeps in when thinking about how to overcome existing resistance to change. According to Tang, Lu, and Hallinger (2014), a headteacher is a significant player not only in leading change in the school, but also in successfully managing change. Garza et al. (2014) pointed out the importance of change management. In their research report, Garza et al. (2014) concluded that "principals clearly articulated views on education and helped their schools set appropriate directions" (p. 798). Successful headteachers are those who change their leadership roles to become instructional leaders with a clear focus on bringing about changes needed to improve teaching and learning (Garza et al., 2014). Therefore, managing change effectively is an essential skill that new school headteachers should learn during their early days of headship.

3.11.4 Lack of purposefully built schools

Many schools in Saudi Arabia rent buildings without the necessary features of modern schools. Al-Ajmi and Al-Harthy (2004) earlier pointed out that MoE had no option but to rent these buildings to turn them into schools as the growth rate of education had been unanticipated. According to Alsharari (2010), these buildings are not appropriate for schools because they consist of small rooms that are not suitable for classroom teaching. The buildings also do not have enough open spaces for students to play and participate in

extracurricular activities; in addition, there are no properly equipped laboratories for teachers to carry out science lessons (Alsharari, 2010). Furthermore, Al-Ajmi and Al-Harthy (2004) noted that the school buildings failed to meet the health and safety standards, adding to school management problems. Although the school buildings may present some challenges, the situation has received considerable attention from the educational authorities in recent times.

Therefore, the setup of the educational settings may not allow young and ambitious headteachers to bring about the kinds of changes they want to see in their schools. For this reason, Alsharari (2010) stressed the importance of constructing purposefully built school buildings to replace the old-fashioned buildings being rented by the MoE. Sufficient space is needed if students and teachers are to interact with one another in educationally appropriate environments, where there is a focus on learning and success. According to Alsharari (2010), it important to avoid renting inappropriate buildings in order to achieve a better quality of education.

3.11.5 Weak school–home partnerships

Having positive and close relationships between the school and parents and the community is a factor for school success (Alyamani, 2016; Garza et al., 2014). However, Alsharari (2010) found a weak partnership between Saudi schools and families. If this is the case, then it will obviously create a major challenge for young and inexperienced headteachers to meet the expectations of them from outside agents. Parents are a key stakeholder in education and, without their support, there is little headteachers can achieve. In their research, Garza et al. (2014) found that successful headteachers built a community and established a close link, reaching out to families rather than working in isolation.

One reason for a lack of closeness in Saudi Arabia is the nature of parents' attitude towards education. Alaqeel (2005) conducted research to explore the relationship between school and family, adopting male and female headteachers' points of view. After analysing the qualitative data collected from the headteachers, Alaqeel (2005) found that a major complaint of headteachers was the lack of cooperation among parents towards school activities. In addition, Alaqeel (2005) stated that the parents often failed to attend parents' evenings and refused to visit the school to discuss matters related to their children's education. If communicating with parents is very difficult, it will affect students' learning as parental involvement and expectations are linked to academic success. Rowe (2007) argued that having high expectations for students is essential for enhancing students' academic outcomes. Therefore, the lack of parental support can pose huge challenges for a newly appointed headteacher to improve teaching and learning.

3.12   Summary

The key points of this chapter are summarised as follows:

(i)   The study has been grounded in constructivism as the broader learning theory. It is influenced by Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. The theory of the zone of proximal development assumes that a more learned person is needed to generate new knowledge and skills. This chapter also analysed other learning theories, including experiential learning (Kolb, 2015), situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), observational learning (Bandura, 1977), and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theories (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

(ii)   The importance of leadership and management in education and different perspectives on both terms were discussed. It was also emphasised that headteachers must give equal value to management and leadership if they

want educational institutions to function properly and achieve their goals. Thus, it is important that headteachers seek to achieve a balance between the practices of leadership and management, as stated by West-Burnham (2014).

(iii)   This chapter reviewed literature on both Western and Saudi perspectives on educational leadership, professional development, leadership development, and school culture. Educational leadership is a process of influencing others in a school system to motivate and engage them in achieving the school's goals. Western professional development models have focused mainly on situational and experiential learning models, whereas Saudi approaches have been specifically designed to meet the needs of teachers in terms of the shortfalls of the institutional environment and education sector. Literature related to school culture and its relation to school and leadership development was also presented. This is illustrated by the importance of creating a collaborative school culture by headteachers by sharing responsibilities with their school members, which may positively affect teachers' learning and development.

(iv)   Women in leadership roles experience gender-related obstacles and cultural narratives that conceptualise femininity as incompatible with effective leadership. The experiences of women in the West and those in Arab societies are divergent. Whereas women in the West have increasingly adopted leadership roles in the education sector, women in Arab societies continue to experience obstacles to pursuing such careers. Thus, replicating Western notions of leadership in the Arab context is problematic.

(v)   Although women's leadership preparation as headteachers has been conceptualised as important, preparation can only be effective when it equips

women with the requisite tools to ensure the best student outcomes while concurrently acknowledging the limitations they experience in the workplace as a result of gender perceptions.

(vi)   The transition to headship was discussed. Changing from a teacher to a headteacher involves changes in attitudes, behaviours, and interaction patterns as well as acquiring new knowledge and skills, which may give the person a new self-definition (Ibarra, 1999). Thus, headteachers' identity is affected by their professional position. In addition, an inspiring headteacher can be motivated and gain support from internal (e.g., former headteachers) and external (e.g., family) factors. For example, former school headteachers can train and develop a prospective headteacher, preparing him/her for the future leadership position.

(vii)   In Saudi Arabia, although distributed leadership is rarely practiced, teachers are often appointed as school heads. These teachers often get support from their family, but they lack leadership experience and skills. Consequently, they face huge challenges in bringing about new school improvements. Lacking change management experience and knowledge, these newly appointed headteachers face many problems, including resistance to change from their colleagues and distractions from the external environment. Although some discussions have been put forward by authors, empirical evidence revealing how newly appointed headteachers are prepared for their headship is scarce, and it is not very clear what kinds of challenges they face during the early years of their leadership roles. For these reasons, further research is needed to understand what support is available for these new appointments from both within the school and outside the school.

The next chapter presents the research methods that were chosen in order to address the questions of this study.

CHAPTER IV – RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

As outlined in Chapter I, this research aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development of headteachers both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in a post. The main research question addressed in this study was: "To what extent is the leadership development of female headteachers effective for those working in state secondary schools (for female students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia?" In order to help answer this question, the following sub-questions were devised:

RSQ1.   What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?

RSQ2.   What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post?

RSQ3.   How effective was the headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?

RSQ4.   What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?

The methodology chapter is often considered as an important part in any study because it represents a road map for the researcher. This map helps the researcher achieve the objectives of the study by focusing on the fundamental literature that underlies the reasons behind the choice of data collection. According to Wellington (2015),

methodology is the "activity or business of choosing, reflecting upon, evaluating and justifying the methods you use" (p.22). This chapter will address several aspects in detail, including the rationale for the research methodology chosen (Section 4.2); justification for the use of the chosen research methods (Section 4.3); sampling (Section4.4); data collection (Section 4.5); data analysis (Section4.6); reliability and validity of the instruments of the study (4.7); and ethical issues (Section 4.8).

4.2   Rationale for the research methodology chosen

Methodology is at the core of research as it provides the group of concepts that underpin the relationship between the studied phenomena in order to understand how and why new knowledge is acquired (Briggs & Coleman, 2012).

Research studies into leadership tend to rely on employing one of four common philosophies: positivism, critical, humanistic, and instrumental philosophies (Gunter, 2001). Traditional philosophies tend to employ two opposing approaches to the social world: subjective and objective. These opposing approaches are each characterised by four sets of assumptions: ontological, epistemological, human nature, and methodology (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). These assumptions underpin research methodology with a purely subjective philosophy, referred to as interpretivist, and purely an objective philosophy, referred to as positivist (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Instrumental philosophy is considered very similar to positivism, as described by Gunter (2001). Ontological and epistemological perspectives will be discussed in 4.2.1, focusing on the positivist approach in Section 4.2.1.1 and the interpretivist approach in Section 4.2.1.2. Subjective and objective approaches will then be discussed in Section 4.2.1.3, followed by the determinist approach in Section 4.2.1.4.

4.2.1 Ontological and epistemological perspectives

Ontology relates to the nature of reality or the basis of knowing (Briggs & Coleman, 2012). It is determined by politics and interests based on individual values and beliefs. Thus, it is socially constructed by human interpretation with the consequence that some views of reality are over-represented and others less represented (Cohen et al., 2011).

Epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge, including how and when it is discovered as well as the way it is used. This approach seeks to distinguish truth or reality from untruths (Briggs & Coleman, 2012). Knowledge depends on the type of perceived reality, or ontology, and therefore affects the nature of the relationship between the researcher and the participant groups researched; consequently, power, equality, and esteem in relationships are shaped by it (Cohen et al., 2011).

4.2.1.1 Positivist approach

From a positivist perspective, reality relates to objectively measured truth and order as well as the nature of reality being real, external, and independent of human influence; the researcher is independent from the research (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). Its key weakness is that it ignores the impact that human interpretation has on the effectiveness of the outcome, such as the degree to which followers create the reality as the leader perceives it (Cohen et al., 2011).

Positivist epistemology has its roots in technical rationality (Eraut, 2000). Knowledge is established by means of the scientific method, which reveals measurable and observable facts such as law-like general statements linking cause and effect (Saunders et al., 2016). The weakness of a positivist view of epistemology is its simplistic nature, which takes no account of the means by which practitioners achieve their outcomes and fails to consider

how different situations can also result in competent outcomes (Eraut, 2000). The epistemological approach in leadership research measures "cause and effect" relationships of school leaders on the followers' behaviour, function, and emotions and on student learning outcomes. These are usually statistically devised. Its universal nature as a leadership model embracing little innovation can be seen as a weakness and is employed in compulsory leadership training programmes to promote factual knowledge (Gunter, 2001).

4.2.1.2 Interpretive approach

In the interpretivist approach, reality is complex due to its diverse socially constructed meaning and multiple truths. Together, these provide a more holistic concept of reality, making research integral to the approach (Saunders et al., 2016). Key weaknesses include the idea that no objective reality is distinct from the specific meanings humans have of it and that individuals or groups interpret the reality of a situation in different ways, such that the research data may not express the reality envisaged by the participants who provided their oral or written views. The language used by researchers writing official theses in school leadership studies may vary considerably from participants' perceptions of the situation (Briggs & Coleman, 2012).

The use of an interpretive epistemology (Briggs & Coleman, 2012) reveals knowledge through narratives and stories, which can be demonstrated through the experiences of leading a school over time (Gunter, 2001). However, the major disadvantage of this approach in educational leadership research is that specific narratives are chosen for learners to reinforce national standards, with a short-term focus. In this respect, long-term effects are ignored and often perceived as too subjective (Briggs & Coleman, 2012; Gunter, 2001).

4.2.1.3 Subjective and objective approaches

The mechanism for the transfer of knowledge from a knowledgeable individual to an individual who lacks that knowledge is considered by some to be a logical process. Examples include a teacher with factual subject knowledge sharing it with pupils or a headteacher training staff in classroom management. However, Greene, Azevedo, and Torney-Purta (2008) rejected this approach as too simplistic and hindering learning for two reasons: individuals may resist modifying knowledge they have already acquired and development of the capacity for critical thinking might be lacking (Palinscar, 1998). In contrast, individuals are considered to have multiple ways of knowing, suggesting that a personal epistemological approach should be adopted in education, which recognises that each individual has his or her own perspective on what constitutes knowledge; such a perspective serves as the basis of knowing and, thus, is a subjective approach (Greene et al., 2008). An individual's knowledge foundation changes as the individual develops, and s/he perceives knowledge in a more complex manner. To explain such changes, Greene et al. (2008) suggested a model of cognitive development. Therefore, ontological and epistemological approaches move from realism in young children to scepticism and dogmatism (explained in the following paragraph) in early teenage years, and then rationalism in late secondary and postgraduate education.

Realism follows an objective approach, focusing on factual knowledge which an authoritative person can confirm. The sceptic individual considers all knowledge subjective, whereas the dogmatist would rely on someone in authority to confirm that proposed knowledge and the rationalist would employ personal experience and reason to evaluate what knowledge is and then adopt that meaning, unless proven otherwise, for instance by changing circumstances (Greene et al., 2008). Thus, applying this concept of

personal epistemology appears relevant to headteacher training and development and his/her perception of cognitive development of staff/students.

4.2.1.4 Determinist approach

In contrast, the determinist approach proposes that events occur as a result of a trigger or initiator, and hard science is based on finding out and understanding these causes; it perceives events in the natural world as being replicable (Cohen et al., 2011). This concept is often applied to educational practice and situational knowledge, as demonstrated by Eraut (1994), with regard to the acquisition of confidence in the workplace. The individual's performance is rated by how s/he conforms to defined actions, with each believed to produce a desired result in a particular context (e.g., the competences required to be considered a 'good' headteacher). However, in developing situational knowledge, the individual moves from novice to expert, according to Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Summary of Dreyfus Model of Progression (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986)

Level 1	**Novice**
	Rigid adherence to taught rules or plans
	Little situational perception
	No discretionary judgement
Level 2	**Advanced Beginner**
	Guidelines for action based on attributes or aspects characteristics of situations recognisable only after some prior experience)
	Situational perception still limited
	All attributes and aspects are treated separately and given equal importance
Level 3	**Competent**
	Coping with crowdedness
	Now sees actions at least partially in terms of longer—term goals
	Conscious deliberate planning
	Standardised and routinised procedures
Level 4	**Proficient**
	See situations holistically rather than in terms of aspects
	See what is most important in a situation
	Perceives deviations from the normal pattern
	Decision—making less laboured
	Uses maxims for guidance, whose meaning varies according to the situation
Level 5	**Expert**
	No longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims
	Intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding
	Analytic approaches used only in novel situations, when problems occur or when justifying conclusions
	Vision of what is possible

Note. Adapted from "Workplace learning and the applicability of cognitive apprenticeship" by M. Tariq. 2014, *17th AKU Symposium*. Copyright (2014) by The Aga Khan University.

In the initial stages the headteacher would be a novice as leader and expert as teacher, but would need to acquire/possess six types of knowledge, that of: people, the situation, practice, concepts, processes and control. In each case the acquisition of knowledge relies on what has gone before, a deterministic cause of effect approach, other information received being filtered out. In addition, senior managers often receive information from others, who pass on their interpretation of what facts are required, as also frequently occurs in training courses (Eraut, 2000). However, this deterministic approach will restrict the individual's capacity to operate effectively in a complex world, to unlearn the past, and take on new forms of knowledge and reality. Situational knowledge, for example, is the most difficult to develop, but is achieved in a tacit way by listening to narratives and interaction with others, implicit acquisition and processing of knowledge (Eraut, 2000), and is collaborative socially constructed learning which develops and changes, in the way envisaged by Vygotsky (Hyde, 2015).

4.2.2   Research paradigms

A research paradigm is "a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, how results should be interpreted, and so on" (Bryman, 2003, p. 4). There are two major schools of thought regarding the nature of research, referred to as research paradigms or philosophies (Ritchie & Lewis, 2010). These have been variously mentioned as positivist and anti-positivist or normative and interpretivist (Cohen et al., 2011) as well as positivist and interpretivist. These paradigms are discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.2.2.1 Normative paradigm

The normative paradigm has two major aspects: (i) behaviour is determined by rules and (ii) behaviour should be investigated using scientific-like procedures (Cohen et al., 2011). In this paradigm, facts and values are distinct entities; thus, an objective stance can be taken in the research and the researcher can distance herself from any influences that might interfere with her capacity to conduct analysis of the data (Ritchie & Lewis, 2010). In the normative paradigm, behaviour relates to either the external environment (e.g., demands of society) or internal stimuli (e.g., the individual's need to achieve). In each case, the behaviour is caused by past experience. Therefore, researchers devise and then validate theories (Cohen et al., 2011). The normative paradigm is characterised by objectivity, measurement, control, and defined patterns. Critical theory is also normative and focuses on what behaviour should be in a social democracy; it is political and has the purpose of changing phenomena so that democracy and equality exist for all members of society (Cohen et al. 2011). As the overarching aim of this study is to gain nuanced insights into female headteachers' opinions with respect to the effectiveness of existing arrangements for leadership development, a normative paradigm and its focus on objectivity, control, and behaviour was deemed inappropriate for this research. The tenor of this research is rooted in subjectivity and the quest to tap into the phenomenological experiences of headteachers; thus, the normative paradigm would not have provided the required parameters and instruments for pursuing the research objectives of this study.

The perceived weakness of normative philosophies is that the social world is too complex to be explained by laws. In this sense, Sparkes (2012) argued that:

> While the natural science approach with its positivistic assumptions may
> be appropriate for the study of the physical world they are not

appropriate for the study of the physical world (but) it is not appropriate

for the study of the social world which they see as having very different

characteristics. (p. 25)

Thus, the use of the normative paradigm would not be appropriate for this research because it seeks to establish quantifiable categories that can be measured in order to test predetermined hypotheses. In the context of educational leadership, this objectivity would infer that prescribed leadership training is 'one size fits all' and staff do not deviate from their job descriptions. Therefore, adopting this stance means that valuable insights into the complexity within the school environment are lost.

4.2.2.2 Interpretivist paradigm

In contrast the interpretivist paradigm is based on human experience, which is a subjective phenomenon. Research based on this perspective attempts to discover how each person interprets the events s/he experiences. Lawthom and Tindall (2011) stated that the interpretivist paradigm is associated with theories in social science that explore the social world from an individual's viewpoint rather than an objective view: "The aim is to gain an understanding of the participants' lived experiences in their own terms, to focus on the uniqueness of experience from the point of view of those who live it" (p. 8). Behaviour in the interpretivist context is dependent on action and behaviour that has meaning (Cohen et al., 2011). Hence, research examines the event that has occurred instead of relying on a particular past experience or the significance of his/her interpretation (Ritchie & Lewis, 2010). Actions only have meaning if others intend to share experiences. Thus, in interpretivism, theories emerge from shared interactions; consequently, theory development cannot precede research being undertaken (Cohen et al., 2011).

The interpretivist approach, like other paradigms, has its weaknesses and strengths. One weakness, according to Winter (1982), is determining ways to conduct an interpretive analysis of restricted data (i.e., data that cannot be considered generally representative). Cohen et al. (2011) stressed that this paradigm depends on participants' perspective, which might be narrow. However, the strength of interpretivism is its capacity to understand the differences between human beings' attitudes, beliefs and behaviour and to take an empathetic approach to understanding the world from others' point of view (Saunders et al. 2016). Crucially, interpretivist researchers have adopted the view that "access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, and instruments" (Myers, 2008, p. 5). This view aligns with the philosophy underpinning this research, in which female headteachers were perceived as experts who could provide insights into the effectiveness of leadership development schemes based on their social construction of reality and experience from a subjective standpoint. Interpretivist researchers do not adopt a rigid approach in unpacking a particular research phenomenon; rather, they seek to derive information based on the perceived reality of subjects who are mainly people with their own experiences or belong to a particular group or culture of interest to the researcher.

Scholars such as Willis (2007) have argued that the primary aim of interpretivism relates to its focus on and value of subjectivity as "interpretivists eschew the idea that objective research on human behaviour is possible" (p. 110). Subjectivity is at the core of this research and, as interpretivists do not apply methods rooted in objectivity, it is also appropriate for this study. Interpretivists look at the world through the individual eyes of research participants, who share their subjective interpretations of reality to explain a particular research phenomenon. Such an approach is in keeping with the research objectives of this study.

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) argued that those researchers who adopt an interpretivist perspective advocate the notion that reality is a social construct whereby individuals build their understanding of the world by interpreting and attaching meanings to different social situations; as a result, a theory is established based individuals' experiences (Briggs & Coleman, 2007). Unlike the normative paradigm, which aims to create a theory for human and social behaviour, theories constructed within an interpretivist paradigm are based on human experiences and are "likely to be as diverse as the sets of human meanings and understandings that they are to explain" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 22).

The preparation and leadership development of headteachers and the consequent reshaping of professional identities in a school's environment are complex issues that depend on social interactions and individuals' lived experiences in specific contexts. Therefore, the interpretivist paradigm contributes to understanding such a complex reality by deriving information from participants and the meanings they attach to it. In the case of headteachers, this approach is crucial for gaining a deeper insight into their interpretations of their leadership experiences, taking into account important aspects such as diverse work contexts and cultures.

By adopting the interpretivist paradigm, the researcher could recognise that she is part of the educational and social worlds she is studying; consequently, her understanding of the world is "reflected in, and affected by, the norms and values that have been absorbed as part of life experiences" (Briggs & Coleman 2007, p. 32). This refers to the important concept of reflexivity. Briggs and Coleman (2007) defined reflexivity as "the process by which researchers come to understand how they are positioned in relation to the knowledge they are producing" (p. 32). The researcher believed that the investigation of leadership development in the social sciences should be carried out from a subjective

perspective so that headteachers' experiences could be shared in detail with the researcher. This depended on the extent to which the individual headteacher felt secure when discussing the notion of leadership preparation. Thus, the researcher needed to highlight headteachers' perspectives as well as the educational context in which these opinions developed in order to interpret and understand social realities (Cohen et al., 2007; Grix, 2018).

For the above discussion, interpretivist paradigm was vital for answering the research question addressed in this study about the effectiveness of school leadership training, as headteachers may not consider that programmes designed for them are suitable for the environments in which they operate. Although the researcher collected some useful quantitative data through a questionnaire, understanding the reality of the headteachers in Saudi Arabia relied mainly on the qualitative data gathered from semi-structured interviews. The primary aim of using the survey was to provide as complete a picture as possible, without using any statistical analysis and instead using frequencies based on predominantly numerical data. A survey can be embedded in a predominantly qualitative design, as was the case in this study, making the approach mainly a qualitative one. The researcher collected data using two different methods to provide an in-depth and nuanced picture of the leadership development from the research sample. Therefore, this study was conducted under the umbrella of the interpretive paradigm.

The following section considers the research methods as well as the qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods and their part in the development of the research design.

4.2.3   Research design

Three methodologies are commonly used for data gathering and analysis in research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Qualitative research, for example, is associated with meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, images, symbols, and descriptions of objects whereas quantitative research is concerned with measurement and computations. However, some experiences cannot be expressed in numbers; rather, they are based on subjective information, such as the recall of sounds or smells (Berg, 2000). Mixed methods combine the two methodologies to collect and analyse the quantitative and qualitative data gathered separately; the mixed approach minimises the weaknesses of each of the individual methods and provides a more holistic set of findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). However, Cohen et al. (2007) pointed out that, when looking into the appropriate design for research, "there is no single blueprint for planning research. Research design is governed by the notion of fitness and purpose. The purposes of the research determine the methodology and the design of the research" (p. 78). Therefore, the research design for this study was selected according to this view. Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methodology is discussed in the following sub-sections, followed by justification for the choice of the appropriate approach for this research.

4.2.3.1 Using a qualitative approach

Qualitative research aims to interpret rather than measure the social world which is assumed to be subjective and built on an individuals' perceptions. Thus, intellectual traditions of the social world differ from the natural science in terms of procedures in research (Bryman, 2012). Creswell (2009) argued that qualitative research:

is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data. (p. 4)

This approach allows for the exploration of a variety of understanding and meaning that relate to the social and human condition, as well as the problems found within them. As such, within this type of research, participants are provided with the opportunity to express diverse views, which are elicited by the use of a number of open-ended questions put to them in semi-structured interviews or focus groups, for example (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The researcher usually frames the phenomenon under study as a sentence or question. A small number of respondents participate in such research, thereby enabling the researcher to obtain rich, in-depth insights into the issue. The data gathered through these interventions are analysed for patterns or themes by scrutinising the words and phrases expressed. The researcher then examines the data to interpret the meanings the participants associated with specific expressions used.

The weaknesses of qualitative research include the possibility of ambiguous findings because participant numbers are low, bias in the interpretation of the data on the part of the researcher, and the time and cost associated with the method. According to Patton (2014), "qualitative methods typically produce a wealth of detailed information about a much smaller number of people and cases. This increases the depth of understanding of the cases and situations studied but reduces generalizability" (p. 22). Creswell and Creswell (2018) agreed with Patton on this point, stating that qualitative research findings

allow for more in-depth data collection and analysis, although findings cannot be generalised to a larger audience.

Based on the discussion thus far, this study did not adopt a purely qualitative approach because—despite the in-depth insights into female headteachers' preparation and leadership development that could have been gained—the use of a small sample would have compromised the credibility of the data by not providing a broad enough picture of the issue.

4.2.3.2 Using a quantitative approach

Punch (2013) argued that qualitative studies tend to be related to "theory generation" whereas quantitative studies tend to be related to "theory verification" (p. 16). According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), in a quantitative study the researcher might make:

> postpositivist claims for developing knowledge (i.e., cause and effect
> thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions,
> use of measurement and observation, and the test of theories), employs
> strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data
> on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. (p. 18)

The use of quantitative methods may take an approach to collecting data by means of surveys in which respondents must choose from a restricted number of alternative responses. Prior to the research intervention, the researcher generates hypotheses (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Analysis is conducted using statistical methods, which can also determine the reliability and validity of the data gathered by means of statistical constants (e.g., Cronbach's alpha). Yet the high costs and time resources are major disadvantages for this sort of methodology (Saunders et al., 2016). Denscombe (2010)

emphasised that care should be taken when dealing with quantitative data as they are "only as good as the methods used to collect them and the questions that are asked" (p. 269). He further indicated the risk of the researcher becoming "obsessed with the techniques of analysis" (p. 269).

A large number of participants is an essential characteristic of quantitative methodology, as it ensures the representativeness and generalisability of data collected, which are central to the positivist paradigm. Quantitative researchers assume that "cognition and behaviour are highly predictable and explainable [; therefore] most quantitative researchers try to identify cause and effect relationships that enable them to make probabilistic predictions and generalizations" (Johnson & Christensen, 2019, p. 33). These assumptions contrast greatly with the interpretivist paradigm that views the social world and individual experiences as highly complex and not easily put into rules of behaviour (for more detail on the interpretivist paradigm, see Section 4.2.2.2). Thus, this research was not based solely on the use of a quantitative approach, as it would have only provided a general picture of the preparation and leadership development for female headteachers. Therefore, the reasons underlying the choice of responses to questions could not have been determined (Cohen et al., 2011) and, consequently, the results would have lacked any real depth.

4.2.3.3 Using mixed methods approach

Mixed methods research pertains to a research design that involves the mixing of both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis in a single study (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). In the context of such research, "data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research" (Creswell et al., 2003, p.

212). As all data collection methods are concomitant with limitations, the use of multiple methods can negate the disadvantages of using one particular method. Denscombe (2010) stated that "the use of more than one method can enhance the findings of research by providing a fuller and more complete picture of the thing that is being studied" (p. 141). Scherp (2013) explained the benefits of using a mixed methods approach:

> Quantitative methods such as surveys often suffer from lack of depth and difficulties in knowing how the respondent has perceived the items. Working with cognitive maps makes it possible to combine the advantages of qualitative and quantitative methods. It is a way of using quantitative analysis based on in-depth interviews in a big sample. (p. 80)

Consequently, various scholars have recognised the merits of mixed methods research to boost the methodological robustness of a study. Social phenomena are inherently complex; therefore, the use of various methods are required to gain a nuanced understanding of these complexities. However, Briggs and Coleman (2007) warned against adopting a mixed methods approach for the purpose of balancing the limitations of one method with the strengths of another. Instead, such an approach should be considered relative to its ability to strengthen the research findings. In the context of this research, the use of a mixed methods approach enabled the researcher to obtain a broad view from the survey so that more detailed views could be gathered from semi-structured interviews to gain deeper insights into headteachers' perspectives and their complex experiences prior to and after taking up the role of headship. Although mixed methods research fulfils this requirement, it is not without some disadvantages. According to Flick (2002):

> The problems of combining qualitative and quantitative research . . .
> have not been solved in a satisfying way. Attempts to integrate both
> approaches often end up in a one-after-the-other (with different
> preferences), a side-by-side (with various degrees of independence of
> both strategies) or a dominance (also with different preferences). (p. 67)

To overcome such challenges, prior to constructing mixed methods research design, the researcher needs to decide whether he/she seeks to operate according to one overarching paradigm or not and whether he/she seeks to conduct the research phases sequentially or concurrently (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Traditional mixed methods approach most commonly use the triangulation design (Creswell et al., 2003). For example, evidence is derived from surveys and subsequently a set of interviews to obtain "different but complementary data on the same topic" (Morse, 1991, p. 122). The overarching aim of this design is to combine the divergent strengths of quantitative research, such as generalisation and large sample size, with those of qualitative methods—specifically, small N and in-depth research findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

As part of this approach, researchers gather quantitative data from surveys, for example, in order to generate a hypothesis that can be tested via the use of statistical analyses. Data are then gathered from interviews to acquire qualitative data, thereby enabling the researcher to triangulate the research findings from both data sets in order to address the same research question. Thus, as part of this approach, the qualitative findings collected from one data set complement the quantitative findings of the other. The traditional mixed methods approach entails the separate but concurrent collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data to provide a researcher with a nuanced understanding of

a research problem (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Following the data collection process, the researcher typically merges the two data sets during the analysis.

However, this study did not use a traditional mixed methods approach and, in contrast, opted for an embedded mixed methods research design. As a large number of participants would have been required to generate the findings, diverse views could not have been gathered, and the reasons underlying the choice of responses to questions could not have been determined (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, the use of a traditional mixed methods approach was not appropriate because this study did not seek to make generalisations based on the findings of the research.

An embedded mixed methods design uses a mix of different data sets during the research design, with one data type embedded in the methodology being framed by an overarching data type (Caracelli & Greene, 1997). Within this model, it is possible for the researcher to embed qualitative data within a quantitative research design or vice versa. Although both quantitative and qualitative data are collected, one data set is ascribed a supplemental role as part of the overall design (Creswell, Fetters, Plano Clark, & Morales, 2005). This study embedded a survey in a predominantly qualitative design to gain an in-depth and nuanced picture of the leadership development from the research sample. It sought to gain in-depth insights into the views of female headteachers regarding the effectiveness of their preparation and the leadership development they receive to carry out their role. Thus, the researcher combined the quantitative and qualitative data to provide as complete a picture as possible, without using any statistical analysis as that would have been inappropriate given the relatively small sample size of the survey. By using a survey, the researcher aimed to extract relevant percentages and response frequencies from the questionnaire data. Hence, a predominantly qualitative design with

an embedded qualitative design was used in order to focus on the subjective experiences of the female headteachers.

The following section discusses the two phases of this research—survey and semi-structured interviews—and justifies the reasons behind choosing these instruments.

4.3   Justification of the research methods

In keeping with the mixed methods design of this study, the data collection for this research took place in two phases—namely, a survey and semi-structured interviews. In relation to an interpretivist perspective, knowledge is created in accordance with an inductive approach and can only be appreciated and communicated through an interpretive community (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). An inductive approach means that theory will relate to the outcome of the research rather than directing the process; broad themes can be devised from the data produced by the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Interpretivism lends itself to a qualitative approach to data collection and an interpretative approach to data analysis. Rather than beginning with a theoretical position, researchers inductively develop theory as they progress through the research process (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A combination of questionnaires and interviews was suitable for the interpretivist approach to this research and helped acquire and interpret qualitative data. The following sub-sections justify the choice of these methods.

4.3.1   Survey

A survey was conducted as the first data collection method, allowing the researcher to obtain a broad view, so that more detailed views could be gathered by other means, such as interviews (Cohen et al., 2011). A survey is defined as a research method used to collect data from

a pre-defined group of respondents to gain information and insights on various topics of interest… through the use of standardized procedures whose purpose is to ensure that each respondent is able to answer the questions at a level playing field to avoid biased opinions that could influence the outcome of the research or study. (Fowler, 2013, p. 7)

Although quantitative studies usually employ survey, open questions are used in addition to rating or ranking questions (Saunders et al., 2016). Surveys can include open or closed questions to unpack respondents' opinions and attitudes in varying levels of detail.

Open questions are particularly useful in exploratory research when responses are uncertain, a detailed answer is required, and/or the objective is to determine what the participant perceives to be most important about a particular issue (Saunders et al., 2016). Peterson (2000) stated that "the primary benefit of an open-end question is that its answers can provide extremely insightful information. Because study participants provide answers in their own words, no researcher bias is introduced by presenting or predetermining answers" (p.33).

A questionnaire, like other research tools, has its advantages and disadvantages. Questionnaires are probably the most widely used tool to gather data because of such advantages as their relatively lower cost as well as convenience for the respondents and the researcher (Gray, 2013). Also, data gathered can be easily analysed using computer software programmes (Cohen et al., 2011). In addition, a questionnaire is considered a familiar tool for most respondents (Cohen et al., 2011). In contrast, one of the biggest disadvantages of a questionnaire is the possibility of participants giving inaccurate or incomplete answers, especially if the questionnaire is long. Thus, in this study, questions were logically sequenced to retain participants' interest, and the length was restricted to

encourage completion (Saunders et al., 2016). Another disadvantage is the lack of interaction between the researcher and the participants as questionnaires are designed to be self-completed by participants. To avoid this negative, the questionnaire for this study uses clear and simple language and included researcher's contact information (e.g., phone number and email address) (see Appendix C). According to Cohen et al. (2011), participants might be concerned about being held accountable for their answers in the future. So, the researcher confirmed to the headteachers that the data will be kept in a secure place and that fictitious names will be used instead of their real names (for more details, see Section 4.8).

4.3.2   Interviews

The second method used to collect primary data was semi-structured interviews, which were conducted with a number of female school headteachers in Saudi Arabia. According to Dunn (2005), interviews encapsulate a set of verbal exchanges within which one person, the interviewer, seeks to gain information from another person. In addition, Cohen et al. (2007) referred to an interview as "a conversation between two persons on a specific topic", which "should be guided by the researcher who derives it according to the research aims and objectives in order to have descriptive and explanative information from the interviewees" (p. 351). Interviews are one of the common research tools for obtaining qualitative data that help the researcher understand phenomena in depth. In this context, Merriam (1998) stated that "interviewing is a common means of collecting qualitative data, and the most common form of interview is the person-to-person encounter in which one person elicits information from another" (p. 71). There are mainly three types of interviews: structured, unstructured, and semi-structured (Cohen et al., 2011). Structured interviews entail a predetermined set of standardised questions, with

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semi-structured interviews at the end of the continuum which take place in a conversational manner, enabling participants to voice their opinions in an uninterrupted way. In unstructured interviews such as life stories, the conversation is driven mainly by the interviewee rather than by the questions. These types of interviews are discussed in the following paragraphs.

In structured interviews, closed-ended questions are used and might have a selection of short answers or yes/no answers. In order to ensure that each interviewee responds to the same questions, the researcher usually introduces questions in the same sequence in every interview. Although this type of interview is more objective and easier to analyse than unstructured and semi-structured interviews (Punch, 2013), it was not selected for use in this study as the researcher did not have the freedom to make adjustments to the questions as the content of such an interview is prepared in advance, meaning it might lead to certain constraints in the data collection (Cohen et al., 2011). As a result, interviewees' ability to divulge information would be restricted as well. Therefore, the use of structured interviews was rejected as they do not allow additional questions to be asked and restrict the data collection process.

In contrast, unstructured interviews offer both researchers and participants considerable flexibility and freedom (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The aim of using unstructured interviews is to gain deeper insights into participants' responses (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) by asking open-ended questions which gradually elicit the researcher's desired information. However, because of its open framework, there is a risk that participants may not focus their response sufficiently on the actual question posed, making this method very time consuming and difficult to analyse (Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991). In addition, this method is unfocused and difficult to control, and the collection of relevant

data can be more challenging as the interviewee is likely to provide a great deal of irrelevant information (Cohen et al., 2011).

Finally, semi-structured interviews involve the use of open- and closed-ended questions, meaning they provide the advantages of both structured and unstructured interviews (Judd et al., 1991). They are flexible, as not all questions are prepared in advance, which allows follow up questions to be asked during the interview depending on the interviewee's responses. Moreover, the researcher is able to ask new questions in order to gain greater depth from participants' responses whilst keeping the interview focused (Kadushin, 2013).

Hence, semi-structured interviews were selected for this research because they allowed the researcher to prepare for the data-collection sessions in advance, thereby controlling the interviews and conducting them in a confident, professional manner. A coherent series of open-ended questions were prepared in order to retain the interviewees' interest and gather their views and opinions. Using interviews as a tool to collect data gave the researcher an opportunity to communicate directly with respondents—in this study, headteachers. Such interviews allowed the researcher to ask follow-up questions, thereby gaining further information about points made by the respondents (Cohen et al., 2011). Consequently, interviews offer more flexibility in the questioning process than questionnaires (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, the use of semi-structured interviews can be justified for use in this research.

4.4   The research sample

Purposive sampling is a particular type of non-probability sampling that requires the research to exercise a level of judgement from within the study. Non-probability sampling was selected because the research question required a certain number and type of

headteachers to participate in the study. Although probability sampling is more time efficient and cost-effective (Feild, Pruchno, Bewley, Lemay, & Levinsky, 2006), it was not suitable for this research for two reasons. Firstly, the researcher did not seek to make generalisations based on the findings of this study. The study represents an idiographic approach to investigation, taking account for the contingencies that arise in organisational structures (Luthans & Davis, 1982; Tsoukas, 1989), such as schools. Secondly, the researcher aimed to obtain a depth of insight that cannot be provided by probability sampling.

The target population required that purposive sampling be used. The non-probabilistic method ensured that the sample was representative of the whole population of headteachers in Saudi Arabia, thereby including a variety of both newly appointed headteachers as well as those who have been working for five years or less. Also, the researcher made efforts to include headteachers from a variety of education offices and with a wide range of experience (see Section 5.2). Although the sample was developed from those headteachers who responded to the questionnaire, this was not a convenience sample as some form of judgement were carried out by the researcher to check whether each headteacher was appropriate, particularly in relation to the number of years they spent in practice (see Appendix C). This type of selection process could not have been undertaken if probabilistic sampling had been utilised. Furthermore, there was an element of opportunism in that only headteachers who responded to the questionnaire were able to be involved in the interviews.

The total number of state secondary schools in the city where the study was conducted was 131. However, no statistics were available showing the length of headteachers' experience in a headship position. Therefore, the questionnaire was distributed electronically to all state secondary schools' headteachers. In order to ensure that the

participants represented the required sample, two questions were included to verify that the participants (i) were headteachers at a state secondary school in the city in which the study was conducted and (ii) have been in their posts for five years or less. If the answer to both questions was 'yes', the participant could continue to respond to the questionnaire. If the answer to either question was 'no', the questionnaire would close automatically to ensure that the participants represent the required sample.

Nearly 9% (N=4) who answered the first question were not headteachers for a state secondary school, suggesting that these headteachers worked in private schools and/or an area other than the city that the study was conducted in. These four participants were electronically excluded from completing the questionnaire. The remaining 42 (100%) representing the sample required to participate in this study were able to complete the questionnaire.

The study specified five years for two reasons. First, the researcher collected the data in 2017; approximately eight years before this time, different arrangements were used for selecting headteachers and different methods were used to prepare them for the role of headship. Second, headteachers with extensive experience might not be able to remember their early years of headship. The study also not included female headteachers in primary and intermediate schools for two reasons: (i) as the study adopted the interpretive approach and sought to gain a deep understanding of the research objectives, focusing on secondary schools helped achieve this goal, especially in light of having a large number of state schools from all levels in the city where the study was conducted; and (ii) as the researcher has extensive experience working in secondary schools, she has a good background for the culture of these schools, which helped understand headteachers' perspectives about their own leadership development.

4.5 Data collection

The researcher collected the data in three stages: pilot study (Section 4.5.1), questionnaire (Section 4.5.2) and interviews (Section 4.5.3). This commenced upon receipt of ethical approval, which had to be obtained from the IoE University of Reading Ethics Committee after the submission of the translation of the questionnaire and interview questions to be used. The necessary paperwork and ethics form also had to be completed.

In order to collect the data, the researcher travelled to Saudi Arabia. Completing the research study was required acquiring a letter from the MoE authorising the collection of data. A letter of permission provides the authority required to conduct this type of research (see Appendix F).

4.5.1 Pilot study

Pilot studies are an essential part of good study design (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). Therefore, the researcher conducted a pilot study of all instruments, including five headteachers for the survey and then two of them for interview questions, to achieve specific objectives: (i) to ensure that questions were not leading questions, in guiding the respondents to a certain outcome, but also that they did not contain ambiguous phrases (Saunders et al., 2016) that could create misunderstanding; (ii) to calculate the time required to answer the questions; (iii) to improve the internal reliability and validity of the research (Saunders et al., 2016); and (iv) to provide the opportunity to delete irrelevant questions, thereby ensuring that the relevant data were collected. These reasons combined helped improve the questions' design and, therefore, enhanced the response rate as participants could better understand what was being asked of them and the coherent order of questions encouraged the completion of the questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2011).

The original intention was to distribute the questionnaire to the main sample by hand. Therefore, two headteachers were asked to schedule an appropriate time to conduct the pilot study. Both headteachers asked the researcher to send the questionnaire by email or via WhatsApp because they were busy and preferred to complete the questionnaire after school; they suggested that the questionnaire might be sent to the main sample via social media, especially the WhatsApp application, as they were familiar with the concept of receiving links via the app. In addition, the researcher was informed that each headteacher was supposed to be joining a group of headteachers via WhatsApp controlled by a supervisor from the Education Office. Therefore, approaching those supervisors to ask for help in distributing the questionnaires was highly recommended. Ultimately, the questionnaire was designed on Google Forms and then sent the link to four headteachers, explaining the aim of the pilot study.

Based on the pilot study, some amendments were made to the questionnaire, namely:

1. Making entering the real identity of the participants an optional choice, because according to the feedback that was given in the pilot study, all participated headteachers stated that they would prefer to be anonymous to avoid any accountability to their supervisors.

2. The age of participants was to be optional or to be referenced using a range of ages.

3. A question related to headteachers' motivation was included (i.e., whether a better salary encouraged them to take up the headship or not). The participants in the pilot study mentioned no specific financial benefits for schools' headteachers existed so, the researcher deleted the phrase "Better salary" from question number 6 in part B section (i) in the questionnaire (Appendix C).

4. Some headteachers had not worked as deputy headteachers; therefore, a 'Not Applicable' option was added in the second table of the questionnaire 'Readiness for taking up the post'.

5. For the same reason, a new option was added to question 9 in part B section (ii), as follows: (from teacher to headteacher, if you have not worked as a deputy headteacher).

6. The headteachers who took part in the pilot study informed the researcher that completing the questionnaire took 15 to 20 minutes.

The revised questionnaire is included in Appendix C.

4.5.2   Questionnaires

The main version of the research questionnaire has been constructed in English language and has been validated through the feedback from supervisors and from Reading University's Ethics Committee. As participants' main language is Arabic, the questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic by the researcher. However, it was reviewed by a professional translator to ensure the compatibility of the meaning of the two versions. The questionnaire was sent to the translator via email and, after a few days, the recommended amendments to certain phrases were received by email as well.

Although the questionnaire was designed as a quantitative tool, it included open-ended questions to collect the headteachers' views about the preparation they undertook before commencing their leadership role and the training that they received in early headship. Bryman (2004) noted that important contributions have been made to certain fields of investigation in the sphere of leadership when using qualitative research. However, Bryman (2004) warned that such contributions can be affected by a lack in distinctiveness

when set against quantitative research. In this case, the method of surveying headteachers as a first point of call should set the agenda for the research. By addressing this, the questionnaire was combined both qualitative and quantitative means of collecting information from the respondents. The length of the questionnaire was also an important consideration; if it is too long, it may discourage respondents from taking the full amount of time to complete it. Furthermore, if the questionnaire is too short, it may trivialise the issue. Although it is vital to build upon the work of others in the area of leadership, as Bryman (2004) stressed in relation to the use of qualitative research, the researcher should also be attentive to the value of the experience of the respondents themselves.

4.5.3 Interviews

Seven female headteachers were selected from among those who had completed the questionnaire and consented to participate in the research. The interviews were conducted inside the headteachers' respective schools, specifically in their offices, as per their choice. Place plays a latent, although important role in the research outcomes during interviews because, ultimately, the venue of an interview can positively or adversely impact respondents' responses. It is important that the interview setting be a place of the respondents' convenience to ensure comfort and a safe space within which they can voice their opinions free of disruption. Elwood and Martin (2000) asserted that the location of any research interview is an important consideration in the efficacy of research practices and methods. This stance is more important to consider given that the location of an interview is vital when seeking to acquire information, knowledge, and insights with respect of the social sphere and how those dynamics impact upon personal critiquing and thinking (Elwood & Martin, 2000). They also suggested that the location of an interview offers a "micro-geography" that aids in acquiring insights into social relations. This

approach, as they suggested, also allows for a closer inspection of the interview arena and the dynamics that take place within. Therefore, this approach is akin to an experiential aspect of self-learning and helps the researcher further experience and acknowledge a number of ethical or relations issues with regard to the materials used for the research, including the ordering of the research questions (Elwood & Martin, 2000).

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven headteachers who agreed to take part in the interviews. This type of interview enabled the researcher and respondents to develop verbal exchanges in relation to topics and issues that they felt were important (Longhurst, 2003). With headteachers' permission and by their choice, interviews were recorded. Audio recordings were used as the primary method to document the answers provided by the interviewed headteachers. The recorder was tested extensively to detect any equipment faults prior to conducting the interviews (Seidman, 2013). The shortest interview took only 40 minutes while the longest interview lasted nearly 2 hours. The duration of the interviews varied depending on several factors, including the length of headteachers' responses and the type of follow-up questions. In addition, as interviews took place during the headteachers' working hours, interviews were paused whenever the headteachers had to attend to their normal duties. Finally, handwritten interviews took longer than recorded ones. Ultimately, four of the seven headteachers gave their permission to use the audio recorder whereas the rest preferred the researcher to record their responses in writing. Recording interviews presented a set of unique advantages—mainly, the ability to have a word-for-word account of the interview devoid of the interpretative bias that might occur as a result of note-taking. Audio recording technology also allows researchers to keep the necessary data using a wide variety of repositories, such as solid-state drives or micro-tapes (King & Horrocks, 2010). In addition, researchers relying on this strategy have the option of reviewing the primary evidence

multiple times, which can be highly beneficial when analysing and interpreting the interviewees' opinions and attitudes. Recording interviews allows for a more accurate transcription and enables the researcher to concentrate during the interview process, asking follow-up questions if required, without the interruption of having to jot down notes.

However, one caveat associated with audio recordings is that some individuals can "feel uncomfortable about being recorded" (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 45) and, therefore, might constrain or tailor their responses. Although obtaining consent can lessen this effect, King and Horrocks (2010) implied that this problem can impact the quality of data. For instance, interviewees might be anxious about being held accountable for their responses in the future. Thus, ethics must be considered. In this sense, informed consent was obtained from these participants before proceeding with the recordings. The participants were also informed that audio records would be kept private, with only the researcher having access to the recordings, and that fictitious names would be used instead of their real names. Interviewees were also informed that they would have the opportunity to request the deletion of their audio recordings at any time during the interview without giving a reason and that it would not have any effect on them.

Written interviews do have some advantages particularly for interviewees who may be hesitant or nervous about going "on record". Note-taking may provide a more relaxed environment that can mitigate instances of elusive responses (Bryman, 2003). However, note-taking can be cumbersome (and present specific challenges for the researcher) during the interview, and researchers who lack the requisite training will struggle to transcribe the data accurately. In addition, when using handwritten interviews, respondents' tone is not conveyed well, running the risk of disregarding information that

may seem unimportant but is stressed by the interviewees; indeed, it is not only what they say that is important but also the way they say it. In this research, following the three handwritten interviews, the individual transcripts were produced immediately to reduce instances of forgotten or missed data and to ensure interview accuracy. All headteachers subsequently received copies of the transcripts to review the details and add any information and/or make any changes, as desired.

Tessier (2012) asserted that written interviews create a problem when the researcher seeks to undertake a more accurate approach to recording interview data. She also argued that there is a debate to be had regarding how the utility of the employed recording methods can be applied to research. Indeed, there are also issues of reliability; such issues affect the cost, in terms of time and money spent, and the potential for any data losses that may occur (Tessier, 2012). The researcher must also adopt coding exercises that adhere to ethical issues of anonymity. Technology is a pivotal issue, although the conclusion that new technologies can undermine the need for "old" technologies (such as automatic or manual coding exercises) is far from absolute or objective. Furthermore, Tessier (2012) argued that there is scope for employing a combination of recording methods. The current research applied a combination of audio and handwritten recording, which was found to be more appropriate than exclusive reliance on one or the other techniques. Indeed, Cohen et al. (2011) argued that utilising a combined approach to recording allows for the cross-reference of actual verbal statements and the contemporaneous handwritten notes taken at the time of the interview.

The transcripts from the interviews provided qualitative data that could be analysed. Non-responses had to be taken into account, as they can distort the final results of any research project (Barriball & While, 1994). Furthermore, responses had to be analysed in relation

to the researcher's overarching perspective taken from the questionnaire, the interview process, and knowledge of the school, its policies, and its culture.

4.6   Data analysis

A qualitative data analysis is considered a "challenging, non-linear, contextualised and highly variable" process (Bazeley, 2013, p. 3). Bazeley (2013) asserted that this process is primarily expressed through critical thinking and information synthesis. As this research was concerned with obtaining primary data via the means of questionnaires and interviews, coding was applied to this evidence to ensure that participants' responses remain interpretable and structured. Gibbs (2007) argued that coding in qualitative research is "how you define what the data you are analysing are about" (p.38). Yet this approach was criticised by Grbich (2013), who claimed that coding can distort data; thus, the researcher had to be alert to the broader context of the obtained evidence to circumvent this issue.

4.6.1   Questionnaire data analysis

As discussed in Section 4.3.1, the structure of the questionnaire included both quantitative items and open-ended questions that produced detailed qualitative responses. Consequently, two tools were applied to interpret this evidence: Excel and the NVivo software. The key benefit of using Excel is the vast number of analysis-centric functions embedded in this software (Guerrero, 2010). For instance, researchers are able to utilise charts, histograms, and descriptive statistics to represent the key trends in the gathered primary evidence without referring to other software solutions (Guerrero, 2010). Excel also allows researchers to keep all necessary records in one file, which can then be password-protected to support the rights of the representatives of the research sample.

Furthermore, the Excel interface effectively facilitates data entry as all information can be stored in an interpretable spreadsheet format (Berk & Carey, 2010). Such benefits were highly important within the context of this research. Although the main goal of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of headteacher preparation and development, no causative relationships had to be established to achieve this goal. Therefore, such tools of data analysis as descriptive statistics were sufficient to address the key objectives of this study. In other words, the researcher aimed to extract relevant percentages and response frequencies from the questionnaire data. Therefore, Excel provided the researcher with a high level of convenience.

The data obtained from open-ended questions were analysed using the NVivo software (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). The main advantage of using NVivo is the fact that this tool facilitates data analysis by allowing researchers to manage and interpret evidence within the confines of a single software tool (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). Thus, after transcription, the researcher used NVivo to organise and code the qualitative data from the survey. These codes were regrouped under the main themes of this study, just as with the interview data, to gain a deeper understanding when presenting and discussing the findings (an example of the coding process used with the qualitative data is included in Table 4.2). Data gathered from both the survey and interviews enabled the researcher to provide an in-depth understanding of the outcomes. More details on qualitative data analysis by NVivo are provided in the next section.

4.6.2 Interview data analysis

Semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather qualitative data, and participants' answers (raw data) were transcribed into Arabic by the researcher. All seven transcripts were sent back to the headteachers, so they could review the details and add any

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information and/or make any changes, as desired. The interview recordings were kept in a locked filing cabinet on a password-protected hard drive, with only the researcher having access to these documents. This ensured that the necessary standards of research ethics were maintained in this study (Polonsky & Waller, 2015).

The researcher translated only data relevant to this research from Arabic to English and created transcripts. The English transcripts were checked by a bilingual person to increase the accuracy of the translation. One headteacher's transcript in both languages was included in this thesis (see Appendix E for English language and Appendix J for Arabic language). The data was ordered through the use of the coding process in thematic analysis (see Table 4.2). The researcher used NVivo to aid in organising the qualitative data. She imported the seven transcripts from the individual headteacher interviews into the software. The transcripts were named using fictitious participant names and ordered based on the dates the interviews were conducted, starting with the earliest and ending with the most recent interview. The researcher viewed all seven of the headteacher interviews in order to create codes that corresponded to each research sub-question (see Table 4.2). The codes were then revised to ensure that redundancies were removed; codes were renamed where necessary to ensure that terminology used throughout was consistent (Lichtman, 2013). The researcher then grouped codes that closely related to each other into a shared category. Lichtman (2013) emphasised the importance of revising codes and categories "to move from coding initial data through identification of categories to the recognition of important concepts or themes" (p. 330). Therefore, the categories were regrouped under the main themes of this research to gain in-depth insights into female headteachers' preparation and leadership development.

Table 4.2

The Coding Process for Qualitative Data

Quotes used	Codes	Categories	Themes/Concepts
RSQ1: What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship? • I believe that I have leadership qualities that enable me to lead the school. • I was bored of classroom teaching. • I saw myself as being able to develop the school. • I was forced to take up headship after the retirement of my former headteacher. • …. I preferred to be a headteacher in another school and implement my vision for my school. • .. I had signed a pledge to fill the position when the school is in need of a headteacher… Also, the teachers encouraged me to accept the position • I was bored of teaching…I wanted to enter a new experience … although there were no financial advantages, there were other benefits that led me to run for the leadership. To name but one, the headteacher's office was comfortable and equipped to work. • …. in my very last years, I started to feel bored and I felt that I needed to enter a new experience.	• Having leadership qualities • Boredom of classroom teaching • Ability to develop the school • Forced to take up headship • Implement the headteacher's vision in school • Taking a pledge • Teachers' encouragement • New experience	• Self-motivation • Benefits • Looking for new challenges • External pressure • Family support • Former headteachers' support • Colleagues' support	**Motivational aspects of leadership development (including support)**

• … the Assistant of Educational Affairs offered me to start directly as a headteacher...Frankly I was afraid to refuse. I do not want anyone to think that I only wanted to fill the position of deputy to get rid of teaching. • …since I was a teacher and I always felt that I am a leader…I have successfully led my students to success. I know myself and I think that I have the ability to be a school leader. • ..… the Education Office and teachers asked me to do so…I was afraid that if I refused, ... a leader from outside the school must be nominated. • …the teachers were supportive of the idea of me becoming the headteacher of the school, … they were afraid that if I reject the position, a headteacher from outside the school would be appointed. • I contacted my sister …and she encouraged me to accept the role of headship. • … I was encouraged by my husband. • My mum and my husband…encouraged me to apply for a headship. • … my husband was completely against my decision to accept the leadership position. • My previous headteacher encouraged me to make my decision.	• Non-financial benefits • Pressure from education office • Fear of nominating a headteacher from outside the school • Sister encouragement • Husband support • Mother encouragement • Previous headteacher encouragement		

RSQ2. What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post? (i)Before taking up the role of headship • I read articles on leadership and tried to talk with experienced headtechers…and attend seminars. • I found talking with experienced headteachers very beneficial in addition to reading articles on leadership. • I have a long experience in teaching which meant that I had to lead my students… also, working as a head of the English Language department involved dealing with the English teachers and hold regular meetings with them, helped me to develop some leadership skills. • I believe that if we, as Muslims, follow the principles of the prophet in this regard, we can make great leaders... The Prophet (PBUH) led a nation of Muslims, Jews and Christians. • … I learn from my mistakes …and I will never forget the help I got from the deputy headteacher… she had years of experience working in the school administration …after two years of being a headteacher I started studying master's in Education planning and Administration which had a positive impact on my knowledge on school Administration. • Beside my experience as a teacher I worked … with a deputy headteacher in her office.	• Reading articles • Communicating with a more experienced person (deputy/head teachers) • Attending seminars • Having extensive teaching experience • Being a head of subject department • Being affected by the personality of the Prophet (PBUH) as a leader	• Lived experience • Self-learning • Role model • Knowledge and skills learned from TQCNH • Networking • Coaching • Mentoring • Shadowing	**Leadership development**

• …. working with my former headtecher in her office meant that I got valuable experience in administrate work and how to deal with teachers and students. • I greatly benefited from shadowing my former headteacher and getting involved in administration work. • My work as a deputy headteacher helped me a lot …. I learned a lot from my former headteacher. • I attended some courses which I found useful. • One of the benefits of attending these courses is to meet headteachers who would share their experiences and difficulties and how they dealt with it. • In some courses I met new headteachers who had experience as a deputy headteacher, so they made some useful points… I made good relationships with some of them and I am still in touch with them till now. • Some of the courses are superficial because the supervisors are not qualified. • Sometimes the Education Office doesn't take into consideration the appropriate timing to introduce certain courses.	• Learning from actions and mistakes • Working with an experienced deputy headteacher • Getting a master's degree • Working with a former headteacher • Benefiting from previous experience as a deputy headteacher • Attending training courses • Visiting schools		

• They (supervisors) don't take into account the timing…the course on strategic planning would have helped me avoid mistakes that I made if they offered it at the beginning of the year. • I think that the Education Office shows no interest in supporting the visit of the new headteachers to other schools, despite its importance, especially if it was obtained before starting the leadership position. • My communication with other headteachers is very useful. • When I face any problem, the first thing that comes to mind is to contact other headteachers, they are very supportive. • WhatsApp groups with other headteachers are very useful….and some of these groups include experienced headteachers which are even more useful. • I attended training courses but the most useful thing that helped me, especially in the first year of headship, was communicating with other headteachers. • I benefited from some leadership development chances like training courses …also, I stay in contact with xx (her former headteacher). • I learnt from trial and error…I joined headteacher WhatsApp groups which were very helpful.	• Joining headteacher WhatsApp groups • Being supported by senior professionals • Working with senior professionals		

• Honestly, coaching didn't help me… because I didn't expect the coach to be like that …I felt that she wasn't qualified enough. • I didn't receive mentoring … I don't know why... I have no idea. • No, I didn't get the chance to go through mentoring… I don't know, maybe because there aren't enough mentors. • Before I became a headteacher I used to shadow an experienced headtecher at another school … honestly it benefited me a lot. • The Education Office offered me the chance to visit another school to shadow the headteacher there.			

In addition to the previous discussion on applying NVivo software to the open-ended questionnaire items to aid in data management (Section 4.6.1), NVivo gives researchers an opportunity to freely annotate and code qualitative evidence to store valuable insights (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). In other words, NVivo should allow the researcher to remain continually aware of the context and comments applicable to the interviews. However, qualitative data analysis software such as NVivo has been criticised for relying on data snippets (e.g., sentences) (Willis, Valenti & Inman, 2010). Such criticisms are based on the assumption that singular pieces of data are insufficient to provide a comprehensive analysis (Willis et al., 2010). Therefore, the researcher paid attention to these semantic units of analysis have to be considered with regard to the overall background of the interview.

4.7 Reliability and validity

It is appropriate to refer to the concepts of reliability and validity to outline how the necessary standards of research quality are maintained in this study (Thuyer, 2010). Reliability is the measure of whether the findings of a study can be replicated while validity is concerned with the accuracy of the results (Thuyer, 2010). Two different stances can be adopted with respect to these dimensions. Researchers can argue that qualitative research is inseparable from subjectivity, which is a notable difference between qualitative and quantitative evidence (Thuyer, 2010). In contrast, it can be entailed that qualitative data should be obtained and analysed by relying on the point of view of a natural scientist (Thuyer, 2010). These perspectives can be combined through different methods to circumvent the conflict detailed herein. In the current research, a questionnaire survey and in-depth semi-structured interviews were used to achieve reliability and validity.

4.7.1 Reliability and validity for the questionnaire survey

Questionnaires in research can be rated highly along the dimensions of reliability and validity (Wallace & Van Fleet, 2012). In order to achieve validity in this study, the researcher took many steps before distributing the questionnaire to the main sample. For example, the questionnaire was shown to the researcher's supervisors and the IoE University of Reading Ethics Committee. Based on their feedback, recommended amendments were carried out. Moreover, the researcher conducted a pilot study with five headteachers, who were not involved in the main sample, to increase validity of the questions (see Section 4.5.1). These five headteachers were asked to give their opinion of the questionnaire's language and the clarity of the questions and to make any comments regarding the addition or exclusion of certain items. Using their recommendations, the researcher made the necessary amendments. Questionnaires generally provided respondents with a pre-determined set of answers, meaning that the results of the data analysis can be easily replicated (Wallace & Van Fleet, 2012). Moreover, questionnaires can be valid due to the fact that these tools of data collection can be based on specific real-life phenomena (Wallace & Van Fleet, 2012). Notably, the criteria of reliability and validity are highly dependent on the structure of a questionnaire survey and the way the items are worded (Wallace & Van Fleet, 2012). Therefore, the researcher paid attention when the questionnaire was designed. For example, definitions of several concepts were included in the questionnaire and presented to the interviewees as well to ensure that the Saudi headteachers interpreted the concepts in the same way as in Western literature (see Appendix C, Section D). In addition, two questions were asked twice, but in two different ways, with the repeated questions being reverse coded to increase the reliability (see Appendix C, Section B.ii, statements 2 and 8).

Furthermore, the questionnaire survey utilised in this research included three open-ended questions (see Appendix C). Open-ended questions are primarily aimed at encouraging study participants to generate data without any additional stimuli (Sensing, 2011). All open-ended items in the questionnaire survey focused on specific concepts related to the personal beliefs of the respondents (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). For instance, one question asked headteachers to explain why they considered their transition to the headship position to be effective or not (see Appendix C, Section B, question number 10). Such impressions likely do not change rapidly; thus, the outlined solution should ensure that the answers provided by these individuals can be reliably replicated in other studies.

4.7.2   Reliability and validity for the interview

Reliability and validity of interviews and other methods of gathering qualitative data can be distorted by participants' social agency (Saunders et al., 2016). The current study relied on the framework of measuring qualitative reliability and validity advocated by Martella, Nelson, Morgan, and Marchand-Martella (2013). Specifically, the interview questions attempted to gather a complete set of data related to headteacher leadership development to ensure that all significant factors are accounted for by the researcher. For instance, interviewees were asked to provide a rationale for their answers, which should increase the degree of reliability of the results.

As with the questionnaire, interview questions were shown to the researcher's supervisors and the IoE University of Reading Ethics Committee and adjustments was made based on their feedback. Bell (2014) stressed that all instruments used for data gathering should be piloted. Therefore, the researcher conducted a pilot study with two of the five headteachers being involved in the questionnaire pilot study to increase the validity of

interview questions. Also, audio recordings were used to document the answers provided by the main sample. Researchers relying on this strategy have the option of reviewing the primary evidence multiple times, which can increase the degree of reliability and validity of the results, making it highly beneficial during the analysis process and while interpreting interviewees' opinions and attitudes. Therefore, after each interview, the researcher prepared a transcript of the tape-recorded or handwritten interview, which was sent by email to the headteacher so that she could review it for accuracy and make further comments on any issues as she saw fit. Moreover, the researcher was alert to any inconsistencies in the primary evidence to monitor interview validity (Martella et al., 2013). Data triangulation is a valuable method for study (Martella et al., 2013) as the data gathered from both the questionnaire and the interviews, along with the steps the researcher took when collecting the data to achieve the validity and reliability of the questions, could help achieve triangulation and raise the overall quality of the findings of this study.

4.8   Ethical considerations

It is important to take into account the ethical issues with all forms of research. Cohen et al. (2011) stressed that, "whatever the specific nature of their work, social researchers must take into account the effects of the research on participants, and act in such a way as to preserve their dignity as human beings: responsibility to participants" (p. 84). The key ethical considerations in this study involved a number of stages. The first consideration was obtaining ethical approval from Reading University Ethics Committee. Next, this letter was sent to the Saudi Cultural Bureau in London which in turn provided a letter for the MoE in Saudi Arabia to confirm that the researcher was a PhD student seeking to collect data from secondary schools in a highly populated area in Saudi Arabia.

The researcher then travelled to Saudi Arabia to obtain the permission letter from the MoE and start collecting data.

The researcher distributed the questionnaire electronically to all secondary school headteachers. It included all information related to the study and consent form (see Appendix B). After collecting the questionnaire, the researcher contacted the headteachers who indicated a desire to participate in the interview to introduced herself and arrange an appropriate time for the interview.

Cohen et al. (2011) stated that "the purpose and procedures of the research should be fully explained to the subjects at the outset" (p. 103). Therefore, when the researcher met with the headteachers, she presented the information sheet and explained several aspects to the participants (see Appendix B). The researcher explained the aim of the study and the nature of the questions to be asked. She also clarified how the information that participants would provide would be used and confirmed that these data and any documents would be kept in a secure place and disposed of after the completion of the study.

Participants were also informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any stage if they so desired. Furthermore, the researcher explained how she would respect the privacy and confidentiality of participants. The interviewees were told that fictitious names would be used instead of their real names. The researcher also explained the aim of using a recorder and asked the interviewees to tick the box on the consent form (see Appendix B) if they agreed to be recorded. All decisions, whatever they were, were respected by the researcher, who thanked participants for participating. Finally, the researcher gave the participants an opportunity to ask any questions about the study and the interview procedures before signing the consent form.

4.9   Summary

The key points of this chapter are summarised as follows:

(i)   An interpretive paradigm was selected to obtain a good understanding of the phenomena. In addition, mixed methods approach was chosen in order to gather rich data and answer the research question. This approach enabled the researcher to interpret the qualitative and quantitative data from the lived experiences of the female secondary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

(ii)   The chapter offered justification about the choice of questionnaire and semi-structured interview to obtain the data in this study.

(iii)   Purposive sampling was selected because the research question required a certain number and type of headteachers to participate in the study.

(iv)   The fieldwork was carried out in a highly populated area of Saudi Arabia. The questionnaire was distributed to all state secondary schools' headteachers in Saudi Arabia, but it asked only those headteachers who had been in their posts for five years or less to complete it. Seven headteachers who gave consent were interviewed. Combining these two tools of data collection and analysis enriched the understanding of the extent to which leadership development is effective for female headteachers working in state secondary schools in Saudi Arabia.

(v)   In addition, the researcher used Excel and NVivo software as tools for analysing the quantitative and qualitative data, respectively.

(vi)   The chapter also discussed the reliability and validity of the questionnaire and interview questions, and the ethical issues of the research were also discussed in detail.

The next chapter will present the findings obtained from the questionnaire and interviews.

CHAPTER V – PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1   Introduction

This research aimed to answer the main research question: to what extent is the leadership development of female headteachers effective for those working in state secondary schools (for female students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia? In order to help answer this question, the following sub-questions were devised:

RSQ1.   What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?

RSQ2.   What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post?

RSQ3.   How effective was the headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?

RSQ4.   What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?

This chapter presents the survey and interview results to answer the research sub-questions. Survey data were collected using one questionnaire with headteachers; the answers were analysed using Excel. Meanwhile, the interview data were collected during semi-structured interviews with seven headteachers and then analysed using NVivo. As mentioned in Chapter IV, the survey was used to obtain the broad views of female headteachers regarding the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in a

post, and the semi-structured interviews were used to gain in-depth insights into headteachers' views. Therefore, in this chapter, each section offers the findings from the survey followed by the results from the interviews in order to achieve a clear and deep understanding of the survey results.

The chapter is divided into five main sections. The first section offers background information for the participating headteachers who completed the questionnaire and the seven headteachers who took part on the interviews (Section 5.2). The second section presents the motivational aspects of leadership development in terms of motivation and support that headteachers obtained when applying for the headship role (Section 5.3). The third section reveals leadership development opportunities that headteachers gained both before and after taking up the role of headship (Section 5.4). The fourth section clarifies the effectiveness of transition to headship (Section 5.5). The fifth section presents the challenges that headteachers faced during the early years of headship (Section 5.6).

5.2   Background information

The first part of this section presents personal characteristics of the participating headteachers who completed the questionnaire (e.g., age range, qualification, experience). The second part of this section provides a broad view for the seven headteachers characteristics who were involved in the interview.

5.2.1 Characteristics of the survey sample

(i) Age range

Participants were asked to indicate their age from specified age ranges. As Table 5.1 shows, more than one third of the participants, nearly 35% (N=15), were between 41 and 45 years old and more than 28% (N=12) were 46 to 50 years old. Combining this data suggested that the majority of participants, 64% (N=27), represented approximately one generation. Furthermore, seven of the participants, nearly 17%, were between 31 and 40 years old. In addition, seven others were in their fifties, and three of them (7%) were close to retirement age, which is 60 years old. Interestingly, the data in Table 5.1 show that only one headteacher was between 25 and 30 years old, suggesting that this headteacher might have had limited experience in the education field before taking up the headship role.

Table 5.1

Distribution of Age Ranges Among the Headteachers

Age	25 - 30	31 – 40	41 - 45	46 - 50	51 - 55	56+
N	1	7	15	12	4	3
%	2.4	16.7	35.7	28.6	9.5	7.1

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

(ii) Headteachers' qualifications

The qualifications of participating headteachers are presented in Table 5.2. As can be seen from this table, the clear majority of participants, (88%; N=37), had a bachelor's

degree while nearly one in ten, (9.5%; N=4), possessed postgraduate qualifications. Interestingly, Table 5.2 shows that one headteacher only had a diploma; this same participant had not previously worked as a deputy headteacher either. Such a result is surprising because the system in S.A does not allow for the appointment of a headteacher who does not have at least a bachelor's degree. The possible reason why this headteacher was appointed might be the difficulty in finding someone who has at least a bachelor's degree and willing to become a headteacher.

Table 5.2

Headteachers Qualifications

Qualification	Diploma	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate	Other
N	1	37	4	0	1
%	2.4	88.1	9.5	0	2.4

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

(iii) Headteachers' experience in education

<u>As a teacher</u>

Table 5.3 illustrates that all participants, apart from one, had experience as a teacher before taking up the headship position. More than one third, (36%; N=15), had 16 to 20 years of experience; 26% (N=11) had 11 to 15 years; 19% (N=8) had 6 to 10 years; 7% (N=3) had 21 to 25 years; and nearly 10% (N=4) had only one to five years of experience as a teacher.

Table 5.3

Years of Experience as a Teacher

Years	0	1 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 15	16 - 20	21 - 25
N	1	4	8	11	15	3
%	2.4	9.5	19	26.2	35.7	7.1

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

As a deputy headteacher

A surprising number of the participants took up the role of headteacher with no previous experience as a deputy headteacher. Nearly 62% (N=26) of the headteachers worked as a deputy headteacher compared to 38% (N=16) who did not. This finding is surprising because, according to circular No.34/2Q/1T issued by the MoE, candidates applying for the headship role need at least two years of experience as a deputy headteacher (circular No.34/2Q/1T is discussed in detail in Section 2.9). However, a shortage of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia might explain the reason behind appointing headteachers without previous experience as a deputy.

As demonstrated in Table 5.4, the majority of participants, nearly 31% (N=8), had one year of experience as a deputy headteacher while 23% (N=6) worked as a deputy headteacher for 3 years. Only one participant (nearly 4%) had 6 years of experience and two participants (nearly 8%) had either 1 term or 5 years of experience. The responses show that only three participants worked as deputy for 4 years and four respondents for 2 years.

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Table 5.4

Years of Experience as a Deputy Headteacher

I have been a deputy headteacher for:	N	%
1 term	2	7.7
1 year	8	30.8
2 years	4	15.4
3 years	6	23.1
4 years	3	11.5
5 years	2	7.7
6 years	1	3.9

Note. Total number of responses = 26.

<u>As a headteacher</u>

The experience of the headteachers who took part in the questionnaire is illustrated in Table 5.5. The majority of participants, (26%; N=11), had been a headteacher for one year. Furthermore, an equal percentage of headteachers, 19% (N=8), have been in the role for either two or three years. Nearly 12% (N=5) have been in the position for only one term. In addition, seven participants have been a headteacher for four years and 7% (N=3) have had five years of experience.

Table 5.5

Years of Experience as a Headteacher

I have been a headteacher for:	1 term	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years
N	5	11	8	8	7	3
%	11.9	26.2	19	19	16.7	7.1

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

(iv) Schools' location (Educational Office)

The city that the researcher conducted the study in was divided educationally into nine educational offices (for more details on the Educational Offices, see Section 2.9). The number of schools varies from one office to another according to the population density in the area. The location of the school of the headteachers who participated in the questionnaire was identified through their school's educational office. This rang of offices in the city is similar to the number of offices in other large cities in Saudi Arabia. As Table 5.6 demonstrates, participants came from various schools of education offices: 82% (N=9) from schools located in educational office A; 47% (N=8) from schools in D; nearly 44% (N=7) from educational office of E; 28.5% (N=6) from B; 36% (N=4) from F; 25% (N=3) from C, and nearly 8%, 12.5% (N=2) each from H and I respectively. Unsurprisingly, only one participant was from a school located in educational office G, representing 50% of the schools under this office (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6

School Location

Education office	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Total No.	11	21	12	17	16	11	2	25	16
N	9	6	3	8	7	4	1	2	2
%	82	28.5	25	47	44	36	50	8	12.5

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

(v) Number of students

The question about the number of students attending the participating headteachers' schools was open-ended, but to facilitate the analysis process, the researcher grouped the data into ranges, as shown in Table 5.7. Forty-two responses were gathered for this question. Table 5.7 shows that more than one third of the schools, (36%; N=15), enrolled 401 to 500 students whereas eight schools (19%) enrolled 301 to 400. In addition, nearly 12% (N=5) of the participants worked at schools that enrolled 501 to 600 students and more than 14% (N=6) were at school enrolling between 100 and 300. In contrast, more than 14% (N=6) of respondents worked at schools with between 601 and 800 students. A small number of participants, nearly 5% (N=2), worked at large schools, with 801 to 1000 students.

Table 5.7

Student Numbers Attending Schools in the Sample

No.students	N	%	No.students	N	%
100-200	5	11.9	**601-700**	3	7.14
201-300	1	2.4	**701-800**	3	7.14
301-400	8	19	**801-900**	1	2.4
401-500	15	35.7	**900-1000**	1	2.4
501-600	5	11.9	**1000+**	0	0

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

5.2.2 Characteristics of the interview sample

As mentioned in Chapter IV (Section 4.4), the researcher selected seven headteachers from among those who gave their consent to take part in this research. The researcher interviewed headteachers between February and March 2017 (for the interview questions see Appendix D). A reviewed transcript of an interview with one of the headteachers is included in this thesis (Appendix E). In order to ensure confidentiality, the researcher used pseudonyms for participants' names and their schools, instead of real names.

Table 5.8 shows characteristics of the interviewees. As can be seen, Amal, Norah, and Abeer were between 41 and 45 years old. Two headteachers, Areej and Manal, were 46 to 50 years old. Reem was the youngest participant as she was in her thirties, while Sarah was the oldest headteacher as she was between 51 and 55 years. As evident in Table 5.8, headteachers who participated in the interviews came from various schools' education

offices. However, it is not clear why headteachers in offices F, G, and I did not give their permission to be interviewed.

All headteachers had a bachelor's degree qualification. One headteacher, Abeer, had a master's degree in Education Planning and Administration. Table 5.8 also shows that all participants except Abeer had experience as a teacher before taking up a headship position. Surprisingly, Abeer was directly appointed as a headteacher without any experience as a deputy headteacher or even as a teacher. Norah had the least teaching experience, as she had only been teaching for two years. Manal had taught for 25 years, Areej for 23 years, Reem for 17 years, Amal for 14 years, and Sarah for 7 years. The majority of participants, (N= 5), took up the role of headteacher without previous experience as a deputy headteacher. Two headteachers had experience as deputy headteachers, Sarah with 6 years' and Amal with 4 years' experience. Three participants (Sarah, Areej, and Norah) had been a headteacher for four years. Amal and Reem had been in the position for one year. Abeer had two years of experience, while Manal had been a headteacher for only one term (four months).

In addition, Table 5.8 shows that Sarah, Areej, Reem and Manal's schools enrolled around 500 students, whereas Norah and Abeer's schools enrolled 600 and 670 respectively. Amal worked at a relatively large school that had 748 students.

Table 5.8

Personal Characteristics of the Interview Sample

Headteacher Personal characteristics	Amal	Sarah	Areej	Norah	Reem	Manal	Abeer
Age range	41-45	51-55	46-50	41-45	31-40	46-50	41-45
Experiences as: (i) A teacher	14	7	23	2	17	25	0
(ii) A deputy headteacher	4	6	0	0	0	0	0
(iii) A headteacher	1years	4years	4 years	4years	1year	1 term	2 years
Educational office	D	C	A	H	D	B	E
Names of school (pseudonyms)	Tulip	Gardenia	Lilac	Carnation	Orchid	Lavender	Magnolia
Number of Students attending the school	748	430	502	600	454	500	670

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

5.3   Motivational aspects of leadership development

This section presents headteachers' paths to headship in terms of their motivation (Section 5.3.1) and the support (Section 5.3.2) that they received in applying for headship. Several reasons contributed to their acceptance of the leadership position, and they acknowledged a variety of individuals who played a role in influencing their decision to become headteachers.

5.3.1   Motivation

Regarding headteachers' motivation for taking up headship, as can be seen from Table 5.9, nearly 95% (N=40) of headteachers were looking for headship positions because they believed that their contribution to the education sector while in this position would be valuable. In addition, more than eight out of ten (88%; N=37) believed that taking up the headship position would enable them to implement their particular vision for their schools. Interestingly, more than 92% (N=39) of headteachers did not see that the benefits of this post had an impact on their decisions to take up headship (Table 5.9). This result can be explained by the fact that there is no specific financial benefits for schools' headteachers. Thus, those 39 headteachers might have recognised that the benefits were only monetary, unlike the three who saw that the benefits included non-monetary benefits (e.g., the ability to implement their vision for the school, status and recognition).

Table 5.9

Motivation for Taking on Headship

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-The vision for the school is implemented and practised well when I took up the headship position.	0	0	5	11.9	26	61.9	11	26.2
2-I accepted this headship position because I believed that my contribution to the education sector while in this position would be valuable.	0	0	2	4.8	26	61.9	14	33.3
3-Benefits in this post encouraged me to take the headship.	33	78.6	6	14.3	2	4.8	1	2.4
4-There is an opportunity for social recognition in this headship position.	8	19	20	47.6	9	21.4	5	11.9

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

The data presented in Table 5.10 indicate that half of the participants identified a variety

of other reasons that encouraged them to take up a headship role.

Table 5.10

Other Motives for Taking on Headship from Headteachers' Views

Statement	N	%
1- I believe that I have leadership qualities that enable me to lead the school.	6	28.6
2-I was bored of classroom teaching, so I needed a new challenge	6	28.6
3-I saw myself as being able to develop the school.	5	23.8
4-I was forced to take up headship after the retirement of my former headteacher.	3	14.3
5-During my work as a deputy headteacher, I was not satisfied with my headteacher, so I preferred to be a headteacher in another school and implement my vision for my school.	1	4.8

Note. Total number of responses = 21.

Such comments by the participants illustrate that more than 28% (N=6) believed that they have leadership qualities which enable them to lead the school; a similar percentage of participants felt they needed a new challenge because they were bored with classroom teaching. In addition, approximately 24% (N=5) answered that they had a desire to develop the school. One participant stated that, during her work as a deputy headteacher, she was not satisfied with her headteacher; therefore, she sought a headteacher position in another school, where she could implement her own ideas. In contrast, approximately 14% (N=3) of the participants were forced to take the headship position after their

previous headteachers retired. This can be explained by the pledge that a nominated teacher in S.A undertakes when becoming deputy headteacher, accepting that she will take up the headship position when her school needs her. Therefore, when the current headteacher leaves for any reason, like retirement, the deputy is obliged to take up the position.

Interviews with seven headteachers achieved the desired goal of a deeper understanding of the results from the questionnaire (interview questions are included in Appendix D)

The headteachers indicated their motives behind the decision to accept the headship position:

> I was the only deputy in the school and I had signed a pledge to fill the position when the school is in need of a headteacher. Also, my colleagues encouraged me to take up the headship as they did not want to have an outsider as their headteacher. (Sarah, Gardenia school)

> كنت الوكيلة الوحيدة في المدرسة وسبق أن وقعت على تعهد بشغل منصب القائدة في حالة احتياج المدرسة.أيضا المعلمات شجعوني على تولي القيادة لعدم لرغبتهم في مجيء قائدة من خارج المدرسة.(ساره)

This headteacher stated that the main reason behind accepting the headship position was the pledge that she signed when she was nominated as deputy. In addition, she experienced comments of a supportive nature from other teachers which helped to secure her in this new post.

Headteacher Amal (Tulip school), who initially worked as a teacher and then a deputy at the same school, mentioned the school's leadership history and its relation to her decision to be a headteacher. She stated that the school's first headteacher was distinguished in

her leadership, and Amal always saw her as a role model. She established a solid foundation and drew clear goals that she sought to achieve. "Our school has clear goals and a path that every headteacher came strives to reach the goals with development." When she was promoted and moved to the Bureau of Planning and Development in the Administration of the Educational Supervision, she was followed by her deputy, who followed the same path as the first headteacher. However, when the second headteacher was also promoted to the private education sector, "all eyes turned to me and to the other deputy who I have a strong friendship with". The head of the Education Office refused to name a new headteacher from outside the school and asked Amal and the other deputy to take over the headship position because they were both aware of the orientation and objectives of the school and the school community.

"مدرستنا لديها مسار وأهداف واضحة، كل قائدة تأتي للمدرسة تسعى جاهدة للوصول إليها وتطويرها".(أمل)

"جميع الأنظار اتجهت نحوي ونحو المساعددة الأخرى ،التي تربطني بها علاقة صداقة قوية".(أمل)

In such a case, the school's leadership tends to be assigned to the most experienced deputy headteachers; had she refused, the matter would have been referred to the second deputy. If both had refused the position, they would have been dismissed as deputy and sent back to work as a classroom teacher, and a new headteacher from outside the school would have been nominated. As Amal had more experience than the other deputy, she commented that:

> The other deputy asked me to lead the school and to accept the position, because my service as a deputy was longer. As well as the Education Office and teachers asked me to do so...Beside my sense of responsibility towards my school, as I was afraid that if I refused, the second deputy might also not accept the position then a leader from outside the school

must be nominated. If that happened and if the standard of the school

decrease under the new leadership, I would feel guilty. (Amal, Tulip

school)

"الوكيلة الأخرى طلبت مني القبول بتولي قيادة المدرسة لأن خدمتي كوكيلة أطول منها.فضلا عن طلب مكتب التعليم

والمعلمات أيضا. إلى جانب شعوري بالمسؤولية تجاه مدرستي، كنت خائفة أنه في حال رفضت قد ترفض أيضا

الوكيلة الأخرى عندها سيتم ترشيح قائدة من خارج المدرسة ثم إذا حصل انخفاض في مستوى المدرسة عندها

سأشعر بالذنب".

(أمل)

In contrast, four of the headteachers had never worked as a deputy because they moved

directly from teaching to leadership positions. The following comments highlight some

common motives for these teachers that pushed them into school leadership.

I wanted to enter a new experience as I did not find teaching was my true

vocation. Although there were no financial advantages, there were other

benefits that led me to run for the leadership. To name but one, the

headteacher's office was comfortable and equipped to work compared to

the situation I was in as a teacher, [where] we were a group of teachers

in one uncomfortable room. This is a simple example of my

unwillingness to continue teaching. Frankly, looking back now I think I

wasn't very mature. (Norah, Carnation school)

"كنت أرغب في دخول تجربة جديدة فأنا لم أجد نفسي في التدريس وعلى الرغم من عدم وجود مزايا

مالية إلا أنه كان هناك مزايا أخرى دفعتني للترشح للقيادة أبسطها غرفة القائدة المريحة والمهيأة للعمل

مقارنة بالوضع اللذي كنت فيه كمعلمة،حيث كنا مجموعة من المعلمات في غرفة واحدة غير مريحة

وهذا مثال بسيط لعدم رغبتي في مواصلة التدريس بصراحة لم أكن آنذاك ناضجة".(نوره)

As Table 5.8 shows that Norah had no previous experience as a deputy headteacher and had only two years' experience as a teacher. For this reason, she might not have been prepared to take drastic decisions. Her vision was narrow in the sense of thinking only of the work environment and not the huge responsibilities and important duties that come with being a headteacher. However, Norah was honest with herself and with the researcher, which may indicate that now she feels confident. Another headteacher commented:

> I enjoyed my work as a physics teacher for 17 years but in my very last
>
> years I started to feel bored and I felt that I needed to change my career.
>
> I applied to be a deputy and I was accepted, but the possible vacancies
>
> were very far from my home. The Education Office offered me a position
>
> as a headteacher in a school closer to my home. I preferred to be a
>
> headteacher in a school close to my home rather than being a deputy in
>
> a distant school. (Reem, Orchid school)

"استمتعت بعملي كمعلمة فيزياء لمدة 17 عام ،لكن في الأعوام الأخيرة بدأت أشعر بالملل وشعوري بالحاجة بالتغيير الوظيفي...قدمت لأكون وكيلة وتم قبولي لكن الشواغر المتاحة كانت بعيدة جدا عن منزلي...مكتب التعليم عرضوا علي العمل كقائدة في مدرسة قريبة من منزلي ففضلت أن أكون قائدة في مدرسة قريبة بدلا من أن أكون وكيلة في مدرسة بعيدة".(ريم)

The motive that headteacher Areej (Lilac, school) mentioned was somewhat similar to Reem's. Areej commented that she applied to be school deputy, but some obstacles arose during the application, which prompted her to go meet with the Assistant of Educational Affairs who offered Areej to start directly as a headteacher for an updated new school because she had the impression that Areej was an outstanding teacher who had a

personality suited to establishing and leading the school. Although Areej felt that it would be best to have a functional gradient, she accepted the offer.

When she explained to the researcher why she agreed, Areej commented: "Frankly I was afraid to refuse. I do not want anyone to think that I only wanted to fill the position of deputy to get rid of teaching." In other words, she might have been afraid of being seen as having no skills or leadership knowledge for leading a school in the future and she wanted to get rid of the burden of teaching by becoming a school deputy, where another headteacher would have the full responsibly for teaching.

" بصراحة كنت أخشى أن أرفض العرض. لا أريد أن يعتقد أي أحد بأنني أردت فقط العمل كمساعدة للتخلص من التدريس". (أريج)

The fourth participant, Manal (Lavender school), never worked as a deputy before becoming a headteacher. She stated that she worked as an English language teacher for 25 years and that the weekly quota was 20 lessons, but in the last year of her service as a teacher the number of classes increased to 24 per week. "Because of that I felt angry and decided to retire", Manal commented. She later explained her anger by saying "because they (the Office of Education) didn't respect me." Nevertheless, Manal's mother and friends succeeded in convincing her to reverse her retirement decision, and she decided to run for leadership.

> I nominated myself for the school leadership...since I was a teacher and
> I always felt that I am a leader. I have successfully led my students to
> success. I know myself and I think that I have the ability to be a school
> leader...I remember that, in school meetings, the staff always gathered
> around my table…I have charisma…everyone trusts me. (Manal,
> Lavender school)

"رشحت نفسي للقيادة المدرسية ...منذ أن كنت معلمة كنت أشعر دائما بأنني قائدة.قدت طالباتي بنجاح إلى النجاح.أعرف نفسي وأعتقد أن لدي القدرة لأكون قائدة مدرسة...أتذكر في اجتماعات المدرسة دائما المعلمات يتجمعون حول طاولتي ..لدي قوة جذب...جميعهم يثقون بي" (منال)

"بسبب ذلك، شعرت بالغضب وقررت التقاعد".......لأنهم (مكتب التعليم) لم يحترموني". (منال)

Surprisingly, one headteacher in this study was directly appointed as a headteacher. "I was compelled to accept the headship position because I wanted a governmental job, although I had absolutely no idea about leadership or administration" (Abeer, Magnolia school). Headteacher Abeer graduated from university specialising in chemistry; she wished to work as a teacher in the city due to special circumstances, but the vacancies were only in villages far from the city. Therefore, Abeer went to work as a teacher with a responsibility for teaching basic literacy skills to illiterate adults for seven years. When Abeer's circumstances changed, she was willing to work in or outside the city, but the recruitment opportunities were very rare, as priority was given to new teachers. The MoE then advertised for headteachers of a state schools provided that the applicants had at least three years of experience in the Ministry's schools. Abeer felt that she had a great opportunity as it was rare for someone with experience in the Ministry schools to apply for a new appointment. The majority have experience in the private sector. She applied for the leadership position of a state school and was interviewed in person. Regarding that interview, Abeer commented: "All questions that related to the school management and leadership I couldn't answer them. I told them that I had no experience in management and leadership, and I was appointed as a headteacher of a secondary school."

"لقد اضطررت لقبول منصب القيادة لأنني أردت وظيفة حكومية ، على الرغم من أنه لم يكن لدي أي فكرة عن القيادة أو الإدارة". (عبير)

"جميع الأسئلة التي تتعلق بإدارة وقيادة المدرسة لم أتمكن من الإجابة عليها. أخبرتهم بأنه ليس لدي أي خبرة في الإدارة والقيادة ، وقد تم تعييني كقائدة مدرسة ثانوية".(عبير)

This result could be explained by the fact that the MoE might been in difficult situation when picking new headteachers and deputy headteachers for schools due to increases in the number of vacancies needing to be filled. This was mentioned in multiple interviews. Participants stated that the increases might be due to high rates of retirement and teachers' reluctance to pursue principalship. Some interviewees expressed the view that the MoE might feel obliged to appoint any headteacher nominated for the post.

5.3.2   Support

Related to the support that the 42 headteachers received when applying for headship, as Table 5.11 shows, more than three quarters of the respondents (76%; N=32) received support from their family ('agree' or 'strongly agree') whereas approximately 64% (N=27) of participants were not encouraged by their previous headteachers to accept the role of headship ('disagree' or 'strongly disagree'). A possible reason behind this result might be that previous headteachers of these participants were not satisfied in their position and therefore they did not encourage their colleagues to take up a headship role. Furthermore, half of the headteacher respondents (50%; N=21) stated that they gained support from their colleagues. This raises a question: why did the other 50% not receive support from their colleagues? One possible reason behind this is that these headteachers did not inform their colleagues about their desire to become a headteacher.

Table 5.11

Support when Applying for a Headteacher Position

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-My colleagues gave me support in accepting the duties of headship.	4	9.5	17	40.5	15	35.7	6	14.3
2-My former headteacher did not encourage me to accept the role of headship.	12	28.6	15	35.7	10	23.8	5	11.9
3-My family supported me when taking up the role of headship.	2	4.8	8	19	23	54.8	9	21.4

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

Regarding the support that the interviewees received when applying for the headship, most headteachers (N = 5) were supported and encouraged by their families to take over the position. Reem (Orchid school) stated that her family encouraged her to take up the headship, including her sister, who had just started working as a headteacher and had previously worked as a teacher. "I contacted my sister who became a headteacher for a secondary school two months before me and she encouraged me to accept the role of headship…She was a living model in front of me."

Similarly, Manal (Lavender school) stated that many members of her family, (e.g. mother and husband) encouraged her to take up the headship position. However, because Manal faced many difficulties after taking over the leadership, she lost her husband's support. "After seeing me suffer, my husband started discouraging me. He said that 'I thought you will have dignity in this position!" The difficulties that Manal faced caused her husband to become unsupportive, which will be further explained in Section 5.6.

" توقف زوجي عن دعمي بعد رؤية معاناتي ، وقال: "اعتقدت أنك ستحظي بالكرامة في هذا المنصب".(منال)

Two participants, Norah and Abeer, reported that their families' encouragement was not based on appropriate awareness and understanding of school leadership. Norah (Carnation, school) stated that, when she consulted her family, the response was a brief "okay, go ahead", without any discussion in relation to the pros and cons or Norah's skills and knowledge related to the headship position. Abeer also mentioned that the encouragement of her family was not a result of awareness of the headship position she commented that:

> Honestly, neither I nor my family had any awareness about leadership and school administration. I was only looking for a government job as me and my family believe it is more secure than jobs in the private sector. Therefore, when I got the chance, I was supported and encouraged by my family no matter whether I would be a school teacher or headteacher.
>
> (Abeer, Magnolia school)

In contrast, Amal and Areej (Lilac school) did not receive any encouragement, mainly because their families worried about the impact of the burden of leadership on their personal lives.

> I did not receive support from my family, and my husband was completely against my decision to accept the leadership position. Therefore, when I became a headteacher I had to pretend at home that I was comfortable and in control of the situation and there was nothing that worried me in terms of my new work. To avoid any blame, I worked hard to organise my work to prove that my new job would not affect my duties as a mother and a wife. (Amal, Tulip school)

"لم أتلقى الدعم من عائلتي وزوجي كان ضد قراري بتولي القيادة بشكل كامل.لذلك عندما أصبحت قائدة
كنت أتظاهر في المنزل بأني مرتاحة ومسيطرة على الوضع ولايوجد مايقلقني من جهة عملي.ولتجنب
اللوم، عملت بجد لتنظيم عملي لإثبات أن عملي الجديد لن يؤثر على مهامي كأم وزوجة".(أمل)

Abeer, who worked directly as a headteacher, considered that the only support she received was from the deputy headteacher that she worked with after taking over the leadership position of the school. Amal, Reem and Manal, 50% of interviewees except Abeer, felt supported and encouraged by their previous headteachers. The following comment is an example:

> My previous headteacher encouraged me to make my decision...even though she needed me to stay with her in the school because of some

administrative work I was doing, but she put my interest over her interests...She was happy when I informed her that I made the decision to take up the headship role, and she did not stand against my decision or try to discourage me. On the contrary, she continued to support me. For example, when I took over the position, I contacted her almost daily, and she was happy to help. (Reem, Orchid school)

"مديرتي السابقة شجعتني على اتخاذ القرار... على الرغم من احتياجها لبقائي معها في المدرسة بسبب بعض الأعمال الإدارية التي كنت أقوم بها، لكنها قدمت مصلحتي على مصلحتها...كانت سعيدة عندما أبلغتها باتخاذي قرار القيادة، لم تقف ضد قراري أو حاولت تثبيطي. بل على العكس استمرت في دعمي. مثلا عندما توليت القيادة تواصلت معها تقريبا بشكل يومي وكانت سعيدة بمساعدتي".(ريم)

Three of the interviewees stated that they gained support from their colleagues when applying for headship. Two of them, Amal and Sarah, were headteachers of the same schools in which they had worked as deputy headteachers and were therefore encouraged by the teachers of those schools. One possible reason behind the teachers' encouragement of Amal and Sarah to take up the headship was that the teachers were worried about any headteachers nominated from outside the school. Meanwhile, Manal (Lavender school) mentioned that her colleagues encouraged her to apply for a headship position when she decided to retire because her workload had increased from 20 to 24 lessons a week. They convinced her to stay and encouraged her to change careers by applying for school leadership. They did so not only because Manal had extensive experience in teaching, but also because they believed that she had the abilities and qualities for the leadership position.

5.4 Leadership development

This section highlights how well secondary school headteachers prepared for the post prior and upon appointment. It begins by presenting their professional experience prior to becoming a headteacher (Section 5.4.1). Followed by the extent to which the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (TQCNH) helped the participants develop their knowledge and skills and continues to show the opportunities that the TQCNH provided headteachers (e.g. sharing experience with experienced headteachers and networking) (Section 5.4.2). Same section (5.4.2), presents some suggestions from the participants' perspectives which might help to improve the TQCNH. The results of this section also present the leadership development opportunities that participants' headteachers involved them in prior to and upon appointment (e.g. coaching and mentoring), and the results also show other aspects of leadership development that the headteachers believed they needed further training on (Section 5.4.3).

5.4.1 Professional experience prior to becoming a headteacher

This section highpoints how well secondary school headteachers felt they had been prepared before taking up their post. The respondents were asked about the impact of their previous professional experiences on their preparation (see Appendix C). This study found that the clear majority (95%; N=40) "agreed" or "strongly agreed" that their personal desire for professional development (e.g., by attending seminars or reading) helped them prepare (see Table 5.12); however, two headteachers disagreed with this. A possible reason for this finding is that these two headteachers might not have been interested in headship because they might have been forced to accept the role. Table 5.12 shows that approximately 38% (N=16) of the participants chose the answer 'not applicable' to the question of whether their previous post of deputy headteacher gave

them a valuable experience that prepared them for the position of headship or not. This finding suggests that those headteachers had not worked as deputy headteachers before taking up the headship position as reflected in their responses when they were asked about their experience as deputy headteachers. However, 59.5% (N=25) benefited from their experience as deputy headteachers. In addition, most of the participants (62%; N=26) "agreed" or "strongly agreed" that their work experience with the previous headteachers had helped them develop their vision for the school (see Table 5.12). However, nearly 31% (N=13) disagreed, which might be because their previous headteachers showed poor leadership. As such, they might not have benefitted from them.

Table 5.12

Previous Professional Experiences

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Not Applicable	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-The previous post of deputy headteacher gave me a valuable experience that prepared me for the position of headship.	0	0	1	2.4	18	42.8	7	16.7	16	38.09
2-My personal desire for professional development (for example, postgraduate studies, seminars, reading) helped me prepare for the headship position.	0	0	2	4.7	27	64.3	13	31	0	0
3-My work experience with the previous headteachers helped me develop my vision for the school.	3	7.1	10	23.8	16	38.1	10	23.8	3	7.1

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

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When the interviewees were asked about the impact of their previous professional experiences prior to becoming headteachers on their preparation for headship, all participants (N=7) agreed that their personal desire for professional development helped them prepare. Areej and Norah mentioned that they sought to attend seminars, read articles and academic journals relating to leadership, and communicate with experienced headteachers.

Headteacher Manal (Lavender school) felt that her personal desire for professional development truly helped her prepare for leadership. She commented that she considers herself a leader; she led her peers when she was a child, led her students after becoming a teacher, and—when she became head of the English language department—led the subject's teachers and met with them regularly. She added that she decided to take the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) as a role model in leadership, so she focused on reading books that analyse the Prophet's leadership characteristics: "I believe that if we, as Muslims, follow the principles of the prophet in this regard, we can make great leaders... The Prophet (PBUH) led a nation of Muslims, Jews and Christians".

"مؤمنه أنه إذا اتبعنا ، كمسلمين ، مبادئ النبي في هذا الصدد ، فإننا سنتمكن من صنع قادة عظماء ... لقد قاد النبي (صلى الله عليه وسلم) أمة من المسلمين واليهود والمسيحيين".(منال)

Headteacher Abeer (Magnolia school), who was appointed directly as headteacher, stated that she endeavoured to develop professionally through postgraduate studies. She obtained her master's degree in Education Planning and Administration, although that was two years after she started working as a headteacher. On the other hand, headteacher Reem (Orchid school) believed that she benefited from the one-year work experience as the technical deputy of the Evaluation and Achievement Programme. According to Reem, candidates had the option to do so for only one year. As she explained, the related tasks

were mainly staying in the deputy's' office and participating in the office activities throughout the school day (e.g., when the deputy reviews test questions with teachers and analyses students' results on these tests). She was nominated by her headteacher, who was aware of Reem's desire to work as a deputy. Her work at the office near the deputy earned her a good experience. "I was there seeing the deputy running school affairs, and the deputy herself was generous in giving, explaining to me administrative matters because she knew I wanted to run for leadership." (Reem, Orchid school).

" كنت هناك أرى الوكيلة وهي تدير شؤون المعلمات، وكانت الوكيلة نفسها كريمة في العطاء وشرح الأمور الإدارية ، لأنها كانت تعلم أنني أرغب في الترشح للقيادة".(ريم)

The majority of the Interviewees (N = 5) had never worked as deputies before taking over their leadership positions. Manal and Reem mentioned that some of the administrative work they were doing along with their former headteachers had a positive impact on their leadership professional development and their work. Indeed, Areej, Abeer, Manal, Norah, and Reem all believed that they missed a valuable opportunity which could have prepared them for headship. On the other hand, Sarah and Amal were the only interviewees who had worked as deputies before becoming headteachers. They both stated that their previous work as deputies working alongside their former headteachers was a valuable and useful experience that played an important role in their professional development and preparation for leadership. Amal commented, "I learned a lot from my former headteacher, especially the way to interact with others. I learnt from her how to lead diplomatically. I really benefited from her."

" تعلمت الكثير من مديرتي السابقة ، وخاصة طريقة التفاعل مع الآخرين. تعلمت منها كيف تقودين بدبلوماسية. حقا استفدت منها".(أمل)

5.4.2 Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (TQCNH)

The survey was designed to identify which aspects of the TQCNH helped headteachers acquire the essential skills and knowledge required for the headship position (for more detail on TQCNH see Section2.10). The survey results showed participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of the TQCNH. Although not all the participants have completed all the TQCNH, the results in Table 5.13 indicate that the vast majority of the survey respondents (more than 97%; N=41) 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that the TQCNH provided support in applying regulatory and procedural guidelines; a similar percentage 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that building a good relationship with staff and cooperating with them were important. Table 5.13 also demonstrates that the TQCNH provided support to the participants in additional areas: improving the quality of school leadership (93%; N=39), strengthening school management and organisation (83%; N=35), dealing with family problems that may have an impact on students' achievement and their behaviour nearly (79%; N=33), engaging in strategic planning for school development (76%; N=32), applying new information communications technologies (ICT) in school organisations nearly (74%; N=31), and applying internal audit and school discipline (71%; N=30). Interestingly, all the participants (100%; N=42) recommended the TQCNH to anybody who aspires or is willing to take on the headship post. However, some participants disagreed with the first statement and around a quarter of headteachers also disagreed with the fourth statement. Possible reasons for these two findings could be that (i) these headteachers did not attend the course regarding school management and ICT and (ii) the supervisors who led these courses were not well qualified.

Table 5.13

The Effectiveness of Different Features of the TQCNH

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-School management and organisation.	1	2.4	6	14.3	28	66.7	7	16.7
2-Applying internal audit and school discipline.	2	4.8	10	23.8	21	50	9	21.4
3-Strategic planning for school development.	3	7.1	7	16.7	21	50	11	26.2
4-Applying new Information Communications Technologies (ICT) in school organisation.	1	2.4	10	23.8	18	42.9	13	31
5-Dealing with family problems that may have an impact on students' achievement and their behaviour.	4	9.5	5	11.9	23	54.8	10	23.8
6-Improving the quality of school leadership.	1	2.4	2	4.8	28	66.7	11	26.1
7-Building a good relationship with staff and cooperating with them.	0	0	1	2.4	24	57.1	17	40.5
8-I recommend the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers to all newly appointed headteachers.	0	0	0	0	18	42.9	24	57.1
9-Applying regulatory and procedural guidelines.	1	2.4	0	0	26	61.9	15	35.7

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

The results of the interviews in general showed that the interviewees all agreed that the

benefits from the TQCNH helped them develop some of the skills and knowledge they

needed for their new roles as headteachers. Thus, they all recommended that novice headteachers attend the TQCNH. Yet they also mentioned some proposals that would, in their view, improve these courses. Interestingly, they all pointed out that the courses did not offer anything about dealing with family problems that may affect students' achievements and behaviours. For example, Norah commented that:

> The way in which family problems are dealt with is not addressed in the courses…The ministry provides such courses to the guidance counsellors only and not the headteachers. Anyway, I attended similar courses which were provided by a third party and not by the ministry. (Norah, Carnation school)

"لم يتم التطرق في الدورات لطريقة التعامل مع المشاكل الأسرية ..تكتفي الوزارة بتقديمها فقط لمرشدات الطالبات دون المديرات.لكن على كل حال حصلت عليها من جهة خارجية وليست من الوزارة".(نوره)

Norah was interested in taking a course on dealing with family problems that could affect students' achievements and behaviours. She stated that she considers herself fully responsible for the school, including students and staff, and the problems that may affect their behaviours or performances. "I want to be ready. Someday the guidance counsellor may face health issues and then miss school for some time."

" أريد أن أكون جاهزة، يوما ما قد تواجه المرشدة الطلابية مشاكل صحية ثم تتغيب عن المدرسة لبعض الوقت".(نوره)

Table 5.14 indicates that the TQCNH provided the participants with opportunities to stay in contact with other headteachers and create a good relationship with them (98%; N=41) as well as exchange experiences and knowledge with novice headteachers (93%; N=39)

(more details about the TQCNH, e.g. organisers and duration of this courses, were explained in Chapter II Section 2.10). However, the TQCNH did not appear ('strongly disagree' or 'disagree') to provide opportunities for exchanging experiences and knowledge with experienced headteachers (98%; N=41). The outcomes of interviews which presented in the second paragraph, might explain the reason behind this result.

Table 5.14

The Opportunities that the TQCNH Provided for Headteachers

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-Exchange experiences and knowledge with novice headteachers.	0	0	3	7.1	26	61.9	13	31
2-Exchange experiences and knowledge with experienced headteachers.	26	61.9	15	35.7	1	2.4	0	0
3-Stay in contact with other headteachers and create a good relationship with them.	0	0	1	2.4	28	66.7	13	31

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

The interview findings confirmed the survey results concerning interviewees' views about the opportunities they gained from the TQCNH provided for headteachers. All participants agreed that the courses allowed them to exchange experiences and knowledge with novice headteachers and then stay in contact with some of them. For

example, Manal (Lavender school) considered the courses to be an opportunity to exchange knowledge with other headteachers; she exchanged phone numbers with other headteachers to communicate and create a good relationship with them.

Similarly, according to the results of the questionnaire, all interview participants except Norah (Orchid school) mentioned that the TQCNH did not provide them with opportunities to exchange experiences and knowledge with experienced headteachers. They indicated that experienced headteachers were not involved in running the TQCNH, which may explain the outcome of the questionnaire on that point.

Norah took a different view on this point. She commented that, although new headteachers generally attend these courses, she attended a course that included an experienced headteacher, concluding that "quite frankly, I benefited from her participation." When asked why this headteacher attended the course, Norah commented that—although the courses target new headteachers—experienced headteachers who have transferred from outside the city attend the courses as the Office of Education considers them to be newer headteachers.

"بصراحة تامة ، استفدت من مشاركتها".(نوره)

Respondents were asked to suggest how the TQCNH could be improved. As can be seen in Table 5.15, respondents offered three different suggestions. First, headteachers need to be prepared before taking up the headship (60%; N=12). It is more likely that this suggestion was made by the headteachers who had not worked as a deputy, so they missed benefitting from this opportunity which could have prepared them for headship. Second, experienced headteachers need to be involved in the TQCNH (30%; N=6). Interestingly, of all the participants in this study, only one (Norah, Carnation school) had the opportunity to meet an experienced headteacher in one course of TQCNH (this finding

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was discussed in the previous paragraph). The findings in this study showed that some headteachers did not benefit from TQCNH courses, which might be because these courses were led by unqualified supervisors; as such, this might explain why the third suggestion made by the participants was that supervisors should be more qualified.

Table 5.15

Participants' Suggestions to Improve the TQCNH

Statement	N	%
1-Headteachers need to be prepared before taking up the headship.	12	60
2-Experienced headteachers need to be involved in the TQCNH.	6	30
3-The supervisors should be more qualified.	2	10

Note. Total number of responses = 20.

None of the interviewees except Sarah (Gardenia school) and Areej (Lilac school) answered this question on the questionnaire; therefore, during the interviews, the researcher gave them another opportunity to offer suggestions on how to improve the TQCNH. The most frequently mentioned suggestions were giving equal opportunities to all headteachers to attend the courses and choosing the appropriate time to introduce these courses.

For example, Amal (Tulip school) and Sarah (Gardenia school) pointed to the unequal opportunities among the headteachers to attend the courses. She commented that the Office of Education does not inform all headteachers, resulting in only a limited number

of headteachers attending, although she could not explain why. Regarding the timing of the courses, Reem and Abeer mentioned that the courses were not in line with their needs as they took courses on strategic planning for school development and how to deal with school budget during the midpoint of the academic year. They both believed that, if they had completed the course at the beginning of the year, they could have avoided many of the errors that they made.

Abeer, Areej and Reem stressed the importance of involving experienced headteachers in the courses offered to new headteachers to share their experiences and present some of the problems that new headteachers might encounter as well as ways to solve them. Abeer (Magnolia school) pointed out the importance of giving prospective headteachers an opportunity to work with experienced headteachers. In her view, courses alone are not enough to prepare headteachers; she asserted that experiential learning is the basis for this. Giving the candidate headteacher a real concomitant opportunity to work with an experienced headteacher before assuming leadership is very important.

Abeer, Manal, and Norah agreed that the courses could be improved if they were provided by appropriately qualified supervisors. Manal stated (Lavender school) "Some of the courses are superficial because the supervisors are not qualified ... Sometimes I regret attending a course because of the weakness of the supervisor and, thus, the content,". She added, "they keep repeating the difference between the leader and the manager."

"بعض الدورات تكون سطحية لأن المدربات (المشرفات) غير مؤهلات ... أحياناً أشعر بالندم لحضور دورة ما، بسبب ضعف المشرفة وبالتالي المحتوى".(عبير)

"يستمرون في تكرار الفرق بين القائد والمدير".(عبير)

Norah and Manal suggested increasing ICT courses that are in line with the requirements of the technology era. Norah explained that "the Ministry offers administrative courses

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and ignores technology...Technology is the language of the age." She added, "nowadays, there are many young headteachers who have the enthusiasm to learn and use whatever technology is offered to facilitate their work."

" تقدم الوزارة دورات إدارية وتتجاهل التكنولوجيا ... التكنولوجيا هي لغة العصر"..." في الوقت الحاضر، هناك العديد من القائدات الشابات اللاتي لديهن الحماس للتعلم واستخدام أي تقنية يتم تقديمها لتسهيل عملهن".(نوره)

5.4.3 Other forms of leadership development

This section presents the results related to the leadership development for headteachers. It focuses on leadership development opportunities that participants' headteachers involved them in prior to and upon appointment that prepared them for the headship position. Definitions for coaching, mentoring, supportive networks, and training courses were included in the questionnaire (Appendix C, Section D).

Table 5.16

Leadership Development Opportunities

Opportunity in:	Yes		No		Do not know	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Coaching	30	71.4	12	28.6	0	0
Mentoring	6	14.3	30	71.4	6	14.3
Supportive Networks	39	92.9	0	0	3	7.14
Training Courses	38	90.5	4	9.5	0	0

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

The data in Table 5.16 demonstrate that the majority of participants had received leadership development opportunities through supportive networks (about 93%; N=39), training courses (nearly 91%; N=38) and coaching (71%; N=30). In contrast, more than seven out of ten (71%; N=30) participants indicated that they did not have any opportunities to develop their leadership via mentoring, and a minority of participants (14%; N=6) answered that they 'do not know' (Table 5.16). Respondents who answered 'no' to this question were asked to justify their answers. Four of the participants who did not receive coaching claimed that they did not get any support from their supervisors. Six participants who did not receive mentoring could not justify their response. Three participants explained that they had not had any training courses because they never were given the opportunity to take them despite applying for them numerous times.

Along with the survey findings, interviewees' views concerning their leadership development opportunities identified networking and coaching as the most useful aspects for preparing them for the headship position. All interviewed headteachers indicated that supportive networks have been and remained the most useful way to develop their leadership, followed by coaching, which all headteachers found to be heavily reliant on networks for exchanging knowledge and finding answers for their questions. They are often interconnected through the WhatsApp groups, which may sometimes be joined by experienced headteachers who make them more useful. Many participants explained that there is no expert source of information to answer their enquiries. Although other WhatsApp groups exist and normally include a supervisor from the Education Office with headteachers in the same district, those organised groups sometimes seem ineffective because supervisors cannot always answer headteachers' questions and must refer back to the head of the Education Office. For example, Norah commented:

There is no known official reference … I communicated with the supervisor and she communicated in turn with the office to come back with a reply. The answers I got were "we do not know". We did not reach any clarification from the ministry. In this regard, you can contact your friends' headteachers. When communicating with friends, you do not find confirmed answers. Because there is centralisation, there must be a reference because this is a waste of energy in the wrong way. (Norah, Carnation school)

"لايوجد مرجعية رسمية معروفة...تواصلت مع المشرفة وتواصلت بدورها مع المكتب للإجابة على تسائلي. الإجابة التي حصلت عليها "لانعلم" لم يصلنا توضيح من الوزارة.بإمكانك التواصل مع صديقاتك القائدات.وعند التواصل مع الصديقات لاتجدين إجابة مؤكدة. لأن هناك مركزية إذا لابد من وجود مرجعية هذا استنزاف طاقة بطريقة خاطئة".(نوره)

Based on this finding, five headteachers (Sarah, Amal, Abeer, Norah, and Manal) agreed that mentoring had not been implemented in their school, so they could not benefit from this strategy. Abeer, Norah, and Manal offered a possible reason for why mentoring had not been implemented in their schools—namely, the limited number of qualified and experienced mentors. However, Areej and Reem considered the mentors who worked at their schools to be unqualified and unable to provide the support they were expected to offer. Both of them claimed that the mentors did not come to monitor the standards of students' work which might help improve their school performance; instead their work focused on revising administrative files not associated with students.

In terms of coaching, all participants stated that they had benefited from it, although four of the respondents felt that the coaches were not properly qualified. In contrast, only two of the seven received a chance to visit schools and participate in job shadowing, which

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they believed had a positive impact on their professional development. Areej and Abeer were offered the opportunity to spend a full day once a week and for a month with a long-experienced headteacher in another high school. The other participants did not know why they did not get a chance to visit other schools even though the ministry approved of this strategy. In this regard, as Interviewee Norah indicated:

> I think that the Education Office shows no interest in supporting the visit of the new headteachers to other schools, despite its importance, especially if it was obtained before starting the leadership position. Perhaps the office is presenting this strategy to some new headteachers, but not all ... I mean there is no equal opportunity. (Norah, Carnation school)

"اعتقد أن مكتب التعليم ليس لديه توجه لدعم زيارة المديرات المستجدات لمدارس أخرى على الرغم من أهميتها خاصة لو تم الحصول عليها قبل تولي القيادة ..أو ربما يقوم المكتب بعرض هذه الاستراتيجية على بعض القائدات المستجدات لكن ليس الكل..أقصد لايوجد تكافؤ الفرص".(نوره)

Respondents were asked to indicate other aspects of leadership development that they believed they needed further training on in order to carry their duties effectively. There were 20 responses to this question out of 42. As can be seen from Table 5.17, participants who answered this question gave a range of areas in which they needed further training: half of the respondents (50%; N=10) believed that they needed further training in strategic planning for school development; others mentioned applying information communications technology (ICT) in school organisation and in teaching (15%; N=3), raising students' achievement (15%; N=3), engaging in crisis management (10%; N=2), building a good relationship with staff (5%; N=1) and managing time effectively (5%; N=1).

Table 5.17

Further Aspects for Leadership Development

Training in:	N	%
1-Strategic planning for school development.	10	50
2-Applying information communications technology (ICT) in school organisation and in teaching.	3	15
3-Raising students' achievement.	3	15
4-Crisis management.	2	10
5-Building a good relationship with staff.	1	5
6-Managing time effectively.	1	5

Note. Total number of responses = 20.

5.5 The transition to headship

The participants were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of their transition when they moved from deputy headteacher to headteacher or from classroom teacher to headteacher for those who have not worked as a deputy headteacher (see Appendix C, Section B, question number 9). In response to this question, more than half of those surveyed (52%; N=22) indicated that the preparation was moderately effective, while more than third of the participants (36%; N=15) answered 'not effective at all' or 'slightly effective'. Only 12% (N=5) answered 'very effective'. None of the participants found the preparation completely effective.

To understand participants' responses to the question presented about transition, they were given an opportunity to explain their answer in more detail by asking them why they considered their preparation to be effective or not. The total number of responses for this question was 23 responses. It is apparent from Table 5.18 that more than 47% of the participants who responded to this question considered their preparation to be moderately effective for three main reasons: (i) job shadowing of the previous headteacher helped them transition to headship (13%; N=3); (ii) the TQCNH and the support that the headteachers received from the staff in education offices helped them transition to headship (17%; N=4), and (iii) their previous experience as deputy head teachers helped them transition to headship (about 17%; N=4).

In contrast, more than 52% of the responses to this question indicated that their preparation had been ineffective for the following three reasons: (i) they became headteachers without any adequate preparation which made their transition to the headship difficult (nearly 35%; N=8); (ii) the preparation courses were insufficient (about 4%; N=1) and (iii) some believed that their preparation was not effective because they moved from teacher to headteacher without any specific preparation (13%; N=3) (see Table 5.18).

Table 5.18

Evaluate the Effectiveness of the Preparation from the Headteachers' Perspectives

Moderately Effective	N	%	Ineffective	N	%
The TQCNH and the support I received from the Education Office helped me transition to headship.	4	17.4	I did not get any preparation (I gained leadership knowledge and skills through self-learning).	8	34.8
My previous experience as a deputy helped me transition to headship.	4	17.4	I moved from teacher to headteacher without any specific preparation.	3	13
The job shadowing of the previous headteacher helped me transition to headship.	3	13	The preparation courses were insufficient.	1	4.3

Note. Total number of responses = 23.

Two interviewees considered their transition to headship to be relatively straightforward while others argued it was difficult. Amal and Sarah agreed that their prior work as deputy headteachers in the same schools had greatly facilitated the transition to leadership; thus, they considered the stage of preparation to be very effective. Amal (Tulip school) added that she has exercised leadership since she became a deputy; the former headteacher gave her the authority and the green light to make decisions. The remaining headteachers (except Areej) considered their preparation to be ineffective, and they found it difficult to move from classroom teaching to the headship position.

The reason it was difficult to transition to headship was that they lost the opportunity to work as a deputy headteacher, which from their point of view was an important stage for preparing them for leadership positions. Therefore, Manal, Norah, Reem, and Abeer agreed that their preparation was through self-learning. For example, Reem (Orchid, school) commented she wished there would be at least a short period (e.g., a week) to read and communicate with experienced headteachers before taking up the role. In her case, this was not possible because she received the appointment letter stating that she had to go to the school and take over as headteacher the next day, which she did. Another headteacher commented: "There was no preparation easing the transition to work as a headteacher ... I was left in the field on my own and the first period was self-teaching of leadership ... learning from mistakes." (Norah, Carnation school).

" لم يكن هناك أي إعداد لتسهيل الانتقال للعمل كقائدة ... لقد تركت في الميدان بمفردي وكانت الفترة الأولى تعليم ذاتي على القيادة... التعلم من الأخطاء".(نوره)

On the other hand, Areej (Lilac, school) considered her preparation to be moderately effective despite her direct transition from working as a teacher to a headteacher. However, she had about six months in which she managed to develop herself professionally by reading some articles about successful school leadership, attending several courses, and communicating with a number of experienced headteachers. She thought such efforts helped ease the transition phase.

Analysis of the interview data indicates that most headteachers' ideas of leadership have been reshaped by their experiences in practice. Some of the participating headteachers (Areej, Reem and Manal) took over the leadership with only limited ideas acquired from books, seminars and administrative work with their own former headteachers. Norah had previously worked as a teacher for two years before taking up the leadership, and Abeer

was appointed directly as a headteacher. In the interviews, they all admitted being shocked when they realised their limited understanding of leadership. That prompted them to work hard to develop their leadership knowledge and skills through self-learning and communication with experienced headteachers, and Abeer completed a Master in Education Planning and Administration degree. Other headteachers (Amal and Sarah) who had previously worked as deputies before taking the leadership had a more realistic vision of leadership and its demands, making it easier for them to transition from the role of deputy to headteacher. Working with former headteachers also shaped the professional identity of most participants (Amal, Sarah, Reem and Manal). The headteachers agreed that their preparation for leadership was self-taught. They were still learning from their actions and mistakes, which they believed would continue to redefine their identities as headteachers.

The limited authority granted to headteachers has impacted negatively on their ambition. In the interviews, it became clear that all agreed that they were carrying out instructions issued by the MoE and did not actually possess the real authority to act independently (limited authority will be discussed in more detail in Section 5.6). While this has had a clear impact on their ambitions, they were satisfied with their performance and their efforts within their authorities but would welcome greater scope indecision-making processes.

Understanding and adapting the school culture has also played a role in reshaping the headteachers' professional identity, and some of them reported having difficulties in dealing with teachers and students from different cultures. This led Amal, for example, to adopt a diplomatic approach to issues regarding the culture of the school and any changes to be made. Norah, who worked as a teacher for two years in her village before moving to the city to work as a headteacher, was shocked by the culture of the school

community in the city compared to the village. However, she began to inculcate certain moral values in teachers and students while also adapting to the ways of the new culture (more details about the difficulties faced by headteachers are provided in the following section).

5.6   Challenges faced during the early years of headship

Identifying the challenges that secondary female headteachers faced during early headship was one of the aims of this study. The participants were asked to present insights into the challenges they encountered during the early years of their headship (see Appendix C, Section B.iii).

As can be seen from Table 5.19, almost all participants highlighted the importance of the interacting and working together with the local authorities (98%; N=41) and an understanding of the background of pupils (98%; N=41) in effective leadership. There was only one participant who selected 'not applicable' as an answer to the question of whether the interacting and working together with the local authorities are important factors for effective leadership or not. One possible reason for this result might be that this headteacher believed that she had not benefitted from the local authority's efforts. In addition, all respondents (100%; N=42) had the view that coordination and cooperation between staff members were important features for successful headship (see Table 5.19).

Table 5.19

Challenges During Early Years of Headship

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Not Applicable	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-Interacting and working together with the local authority (e.g., Education Office) are important factors for effective leadership.	0	0	0	0	19	45.2	22	52.4	1	2.4
2-An understanding of the students' background is important for effective headship.	0	0	1	2.4	18	42.9	23	54.8	0	0
3- Effective school leadership can be achieved if coordination and cooperation exist between staff members.	0	0	0	0	11	26.2	31	73.8	0	0
4-I feel insufficiently prepared to overcome the challenges I may encounter during headship.	9	21.4	7	16.7	6	14.3	20	47.6	0	0
5-I had knowledge of the obstacles and challenges I would encounter in the early years of headship.	3	7.1	12	28.6	21	50	6	14.3	0	0

Note. Total number of responses = 42.

When the participants were asked whether they had knowledge of the obstacles and challenges they would encounter in the early years of headship, nearly two thirds (64%; N=27) 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed', compared to one third (36%; N=15) who did not agree that they were aware of such obstacles (See Table 5.19). Interestingly, a minority of participants (38%; N=16) indicated that they felt prepared to overcome the challenges they might face during headship, while nearly two thirds of the participants (62%; N=26) felt unprepared to do so.

Very surprisingly, although 16 of the 42 participants had not been a deputy headteacher, most respondents felt that they were ready to take up the headship position. Table 5.20 indicates the headteachers' readiness to (i) take on any task assigned in this headship post (74%; N=31) and (ii) tackle obstacles that they would face in this position (76%; N=32). As mentioned in Section 4.7.1, the question about the readiness to take up the role of headship was asked twice, but in two different ways, to increase the reliability of the questionnaire (see statements 1 and 5 in Table 5.20). The results of these two statements gave an indicator of reliability.

Two questions were posed regarding whether the headteachers had the appropriate skills and knowledge to lead their schools effectively. As can be seen from Table 5.20, the majority of those who responded to this question felt that they have sufficient skills (93%; N=39) and knowledge (81%; N=34) to lead the school effectively. However, more than eight out of ten (88%; N=34) either 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that more training to meet the different requirements was needed (Table 5.20). Table 5.17 shows the training that those participants might need.

Table 5.20

Readiness for Taking up the Post

Statement	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-I was ready to take on any task assigned in this headship post.	2	4.8	9	21.4	20	47.6	11	26.2
2-I need more training to meet the different requirements and needs of the post.	0	0	5	11.9	25	59.5	12	28.6
3-I do not believe that I have the appropriate skills to lead the school effectively.	16	38.1	23	54.8	2	4.8	1	2.4
4-I believe the knowledge and experience I have are sufficient for me to lead the school effectively.	0	0	8	19	23	54.8	11	26.2
5-I do not feel prepared to tackle obstacles that I will face in this post.	13	31	19	45.2	8	19	2	4.8

Note: Total number of responses = 42.

Interviews with headteachers revealed the difficulties they faced on taking up the leadership. Some of these difficulties are ongoing; along with resistance to change among teachers and students, all the participating headteachers agreed that budget issues and their own limited authorities were their most significant challenges. In Saudi Arabia, state schools are fully financed by the Government. However, headteachers noted that delays of up to five months in budget payments by the MoE mean that they must always pay in the first place from their personal account. As they subsequently receive only a portion of the annual budget, they must use their own money until the remainder of the budget arrives at the end of the school year. In this context, Norah made the following comments:

> The budget has always been late, [and] it is typical to finish a full-term funding the school from my own pocket before receiving the budget at the beginning of the next term. Not providing the budget from the beginning of the school year is a huge mistake. This is an ongoing problem that has not been resolved to date and represents an obstacle to the headteacher, whether experienced or a novice. (Norah, Carnation school)

> "دائماً تصلني الميزانية متأخرة .. أعمل ترم كامل وأنا أصرف من جيبي ثم تصلني بداية الترم الثاني
> ...عدم استلام الميزانية من بداية العام الدراسي خطأ فادح هي مشكلة أزليه لم تحل إلى الآن وهذه تمثل
> عقبة للقائدة سواء كانت مستجدة أو قديمة".(نوره)

Additionally, some interviewees (Areej, Abeer, Reem, Norah) agreed that delays in entering the budget in school accounts have hindered completion of certain school tasks. While the budget depends on school size, they do not know exactly how much their school will require. Reem described the issue in the following way.

I know that the budget depends on school size, but we get less than we are supposed to … I know this from comparing our school with others that are smaller. When I ask the education office for the exact amount or the remaining budget, they always tell me to be satisfied with what I get. Because of this, I don't ask anymore. (Reem, Orchid school)

"أعلم أن ميزانية المدرسة تكون على حسب حجمها ولكن مايصلني أقل من المفترض...عرفت ذلك بمقارنة مايصلني مع مدارس أخرى ..لكن لا يحق لي السؤال عن الباقي لأن مكتب التعليم يرفض دائما الإجابة ويقولون ارضي بما قسم لك .. فما صرنا نسأل أصلا".(ريم)

Areej (Lilac, school) also reported that, for a long time last year (more than a full term), she received no financial support. As the pressures on her accumulated, Areej sent several letters to the education office asking about the school's annual budget but received no response. As she had insufficient personal funds to cover those financial obligations, she reached a stage of what she described as 'frustration'.

"احباط" (أريج)

All interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with the limited authority granted to them, which some of them described as a "sham". For example, Manal stated that the MoE has given headteachers the authority to decide to suspend studies following a Meteorological Bureau alert concerning sandstorms or heavy rains. However, she received a subsequent circular informing her that she must seek approval from the education office before commencing any evacuation. In this sense, Norah described headteachers' authority as "merely ink on paper". According to her, the education office requires headteachers to submit a form if they decide to suspend studies before getting permission, explaining the reasons behind the decision. Norah questioned how the headteachers could be considered

to have authority when they could be held accountable if the officials at the education office were unconvinced about the reasons provided.

"حبر على ورق".(نوره)

Sarah was also very upset that headteachers were not granted sufficient authorities to fulfil the headship's role in practice:

> It is painful when students' parents come and speak abusively to you because they know that you have limited authorities…They look at you as an employee who does what they are told by the Ministry of Education…The headteacher must be seen as the decision maker and must have the authority to impose respect for her decisions…Unfortunately, headteachers are not the leaders here but are instead just following instructions. (Sarah, Gardenia school)

"مؤلم أن يأتي أحد والدي طالبة يغلط بالكلام وهو ينظر لك أنك مجرد موظفة تؤدين ما يطلب منك... لابد أن يُنظر لي كقائدة صاحبة قرار.. لابد من صلاحيات تفرض احترامي كقائدة... المديرة هنا ليست قائدة بل منفذة للأوامر".(ساره)

As another example of headteachers' lack of 'basic authority', Sarah reported how her school was without a caretaker for three months because she was not allowed to choose someone for the role. To overcome this problem, she had to bypass the law by offering the job to one of the school bus drivers, asking him to undertake guard duties in addition to his work as a driver in exchange for money from her personal funds.

Three headteachers identified school culture as another source of difficulty. Reem and Sarah reported that they faced resistance from teachers and students when seeking to introduce any new procedures beyond those used during the leadership of the former

headteacher. Reem, who had completed a year as headteacher at her current school, referred to resistance to change among some teachers who wished to preserve the existing culture of the school. For example, when directed to do something in a specific way, they always asked to do it in the way they were used to; 'They compare everything I do or ask them to do with the previous headteacher, and even now, some still resist change'.

" يقارنون كل شئ أعمله أو أطلبهم القيام به بقائدتهم السابقة ، وحتى الآن ، لا يزال البعض يقاوم التغيير".(ريم)

Amal and Sarah both agreed that although they understood the culture of their schools because they had worked there before (Sarah as deputy and Amal as deputy and teacher), they also encountered resistance against the new functional relationship. Amal stated that teachers wanted to maintain the same informal relationship with her as before. While Sarah commented:

> I understand how the teachers feel, as the Ministry of Education constantly imposes changes that make headteachers' job more challenging. When I took over the headship role, many changes created additional difficulty. Teachers are human beings, and human beings do not like change. (Sarah, Gardenia school)

"أقيس على المعلمات ماأقيسه على نفسي فالتغييرات المستمرة التي تطرأ على الميدان من قبل وزارة التعليم تشكل تحدي للقائدة وعندما توليت القيادة طرأت تغييرات كثيرة شكلت صعوبة اضافية علي...المعلمات بشر والبشر بطبعهم لا يحبون التغيير فأنا لم آتي من برا ويكون سهل علي التغيير".(ساره)

Amal described her situation in the following way.

> Despite my experience and awareness of this school's culture, I encountered some difficulties. Students and teachers told me openly that

they want to maintain the same kind of relationship with me. When I was deputy, my relationship with them was different, as I was very flexible. However, since I became a headteacher, I felt that there should be a change, and that a 'boundary' was needed between me and them in the interests of work. Of course, I found it difficult at the beginning when issuing decisions or instructions to teachers as the authority figure. I tried to start gradually, and they tried to resist any change (hahaha). (Amal, Tulip school)

"على الرغم من عملي السابق كمعلمة ووكيلة في هذه المدرسة وفهمي لثقافة المدرسة الا اني واجهت بعض الصعوبات.. كانت المعلمات والطالبات يقولون لي بكل صراحة لاتتغيرين علينا ههههههه..علاقتي معهم كوكيلة كانت مختلفة كان فيه (ميانه)..لكن كوني اصبحت قائدة أرى أنه لابد من وجود حاجز بيني وبينهم يضمن سيرالعمل بالشكل المطلوب... كنت أجد صعوبة في اصدار قرار أو أوجه المعلمات لأمر ما كصاحبة سلطة...حاولت أبدء بالتدريج وهم كانوا يمارسون الضغط علي بعدم التغيير ههههههه".(أمل)

School discipline was described as a challenge by three headteachers. For example, Sarah and Manal reported a lack of discipline among teachers and students at their school. Sarah noted that the gate of the school was always open during the school day, and teachers were leaving school freely without permission. This was not usual practice at any other schools, and on taking up the headship, Sarah decided to close the gate. This change was not welcomed by teachers at the outset, but they became used to it. Absenteeism was also high among students and teachers, but when Sarah applied the rules for school attendance, this problem diminished significantly.

Although Manal had spent only one term as a headteacher, she agreed with Sarah:

I have had to deal with frequent absences of both students and teachers without convincing reasons. I reviewed the files of the absent students

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and found that they had not received any warnings in the past. Teachers

were informed that absence without excuse would have an impact on

their performance record. Students were told that absence without excuse

would negatively affect their academic achievement, and that warning

letters would be sent to parents. (Manal, Lavender school)

"عانيت من مشكلة الغياب المتكرر للطالبات والمعلمات بدون أسباب مقنعة... راجعت ملفات الطلبات

المتغيبات ووجدت أنهم لم يتلقوا أي انذار.. ابلغت المعلمات أن الغياب بدون عذر سيكون له تأثير على

آداءهم الوظيفي..وشرحت للطالبات أيضا أن الغياب بدون عذر يؤثر سلبا على التحصيل الدراسي وأنه

يستوجب إنذار للوالدين. وطلبت من الجميع إبلاغي بأي تقصير قد يبدر مني أو أمور خاطئة فأنا أتقبل

النقد بصدر رحب".(منال)

Areej described the situation in her school as a 'big mess', she added:

This used to be a distinguished school until the headteacher's retirement.

After that, the school had been without a headteacher for two years, and

the school's status declined significantly, with more complaints from

parents. The school was run by the deputy, who was under severe

pressure. I think she was doing well in administrative work, but she

lacked the leadership skills to solve problems or communicate with

teachers and students. (Areej, Lilac school)

"المدرسة كانت متميزة لكن بعد تقاعد مديرتها ظلت المدرسة بلا قائدة لمدة سنتين وانخفض مستواها بشكل

كبير وكثرت المنازعات داخل المدرسة وشكاوي أولياء الأمور..قادت المدرسة انذاك الوكيلة..التي لم أرى

فيها مهارات القيادة كحل المشكلات أو أساليب تواصل جيدة مع من حولها من موظفات وطالبات..كانت

تحت ضغط شديد..أرى أنها تتقن العمل المكتبي وليس القيادي".(أريج)

Areej overcame this difficulty by distributing a survey among students and parents asking for their opinions about the school's strengths and weaknesses and what they would suggest. There was a very encouraging response, and the answers helped to improve her understanding of the current situation. She began to identify the problems and worked to resolve them, as well as rearranging teachers' tasks to resolve any conflicts between them.

Understanding the school community's background was a real challenge for most participants. Norah strongly believed that it is important for the headteacher to understand the cultural background of students and teachers, as this helps to reduce conflicts. As Norah grew up and graduated in the countryside, she found it hard to adjust to the culture of the city:

> I encountered many disappointments because of the cultural differences. One of these was the parents' lack of respect for the school; perhaps the area where my school was located plays a role in this. In the villages, you find that parents and students have great respect and appreciation for the school. I tried to understand the background of the school community and started talking in the assembly about moral values. I managed to influence the students to some extent, but not by much. You cannot single-handedly change 600 students, and I was not ready to confront them, as I worried that the parents would get involved and make the problem worse. I kept trying, focusing more on the teachers. I think I had more influence on them. (Norah, Carnation school)

"عانيت من احباطات كثيرة نتيجة اختلاف الثقافة هنا الاباء لايجيدون احترام المدرسة ومنسوباتها طبعا ليس الكل لكن بشكل واضح ..ربما الحي الذي تقع فيه المدرسة له دور.. في قريتي تجدين احترام وتقدير كبير للمدرسة من أولياء الأمور وبالتالي من الطالبات أيضا.... فهم الخلفية الثقافية ..بدأت اتكيف مع

The interviewees also stated that because dealing with different personalities was among their difficulties, there was an urgent need for training in this regard (Amal, Areej and Reem). For example, Amal commented that she has two deputies, one of whom is wonderful and can be trusted and empowered to undertake some of the headteacher's tasks. In contrast, the other deputy's sharpness has caused problems with the teachers, who have found it difficult to adjust to her style.

Manal also mentioned the difficulty created by a lack of school deputies. The Lavender school has 500 students, and in Saudi Arabia, the number of deputies depends on the number of students of the school, with one deputy for every 250 students. "I agreed to take the position after I was promised that two deputies will be appointed … I had to assign some administrative tasks to the staff working in the school office, and they are really collaborative." (Manal, Lavender school)

" قبل موافقتي على تولي القيادة وعدوني بوكيلتين .. لذلك كلفت الاداريات بالقيام ببعض مهام الوكيلات

وهن حقا متعاونات".(منال)

5.7   Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of this study gained from both the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interviews. The key findings of this chapter are summarised as follows:

(i)   The headteachers achieved their position due to several reasons: a belief that they can lead a school and their confidence in their knowledge and skills to

manage a school effectively, a pledge that the deputy headteacher would accept the headship position when the need arises, and a desire to take up a new challenge.

(ii)   Family support is seen by the headteachers as the most valuable support they received when applying for headship.

(iii)   The headteachers also developed their leadership knowledge and skills through formal learning activities (e.g., attending TQCNH and coaching) and informal learning opportunities (e.g., networking, modelling, and reading).

(iv)   Surprisingly, 16 out of 42 of the headteachers had not previously served as a deputy headteacher; they moved from classroom teaching to headship straightaway, which made their transition difficult. Meanwhile, the headteachers who had the opportunity to work as a deputy headteacher could transition effectively from their previous role to the current one as a headteacher.

(v)   The study also found that resistance to change among teachers and students, budget issues, and limited authority were the most significant challenges they faced during their early years of headship.

The next chapter will discuss these findings in relation to the relevant theoretical ideas and literature set out in Chapter III.

CHAPTER VI – DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1   Introduction

This research aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development of headteachers both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in a post, as outlined in Chapter I. The main research question addressed in this study was: *"To what extent is the leadership development of female headteachers effective for those working in state secondary schools (for female students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia?"* In order to help answer this question, the following sub-questions were devised:

RSQ1.   What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?

RSQ2.   What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post?

RSQ3.   How effective was headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?

RSQ4.   What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?

This chapter critically examines the findings from this research presented in Chapter V in relation to relevant literature to make interpretations and judgments related to the main findings. This discussion makes reference to four theories: constructivism, experiential learning, situated learning, and observational learning. Constructivism relates to the

research participants' own unique system of knowing (psychological). Experiential learning refers to learning through experiences. Situated learning occurs through social interactions with people within a cultural environment. Finally, observational learning is learning through shaping, imitating, modelling, watching, and engaging in vicarious reinforcement (Bandura, 1977).

This chapter also discusses what the findings might mean in relation to leadership development in Saudi Arabia and why they are important. As the study employed two different methods to collect data (a survey and interview), the discussion refers to the findings from these two sources separately whenever possible. This chapter covers four themes previously identified in Chapter V: motivational aspects (see Section 6.2), leadership development (see Section 6.3), the transition to headship (see Section 6.4), and the challenges faced during the early years of headship (see Section 6.5).

6.2   Motivational aspects of leadership development

Motivational aspects, in this case, might be defined in terms of the research participants' motivation to become the head of a school and the support they received to be a school headteacher. Motivation refers to the reasons for the respondents to express their desires, motives, and interests in relation to taking on the responsibilities of running a school, whereas support means the assistance the headteachers receive from their family, the guidance they obtain from their predecessors, and the moral support gained from colleagues. The following section answers the first research sub-question: *RSQ1. What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?*

6.2.1 Motivation

Maurer and Lippstreu (2005) defined motivation to develop as "the desire to develop or improve leadership skills and attributes through effort" (p. 5). Meanwhile, Ryan and Deci (2000) defined it as "[being] moved to do something" (p. 54). Thus, motivation is related to the question of why one aims to achieve a goal. This section discusses four reasons participants provided for accepting the headteacher position: (i) self-motivation (Section 6.2.1.1); (ii) the benefits of becoming a headteacher (Section 6.2.1.2); (iii) a desire to seek new challenges (Section 6.2.1.3); and (iv) the external pressure placed on some headteachers to accept the role of headship (Section 6.2.1.4).

6.2.1.1 Self-motivation

According to achievement goal theory (Kaplan & Patrick, 2016), an individual's motivational actions can be explained by purpose, beliefs about their ability, and causal attributions. Consistent with this theory, this study found that the overall majority of the survey respondents and interviewees firmly believed that they had the ability to carry out the responsibilities of a headteacher. In other words, female secondary school headteachers' self-efficacy greatly influenced their decision to accept a school leadership position. In his social learning theory, Bandura (1977) argued that a positive self-belief of one's capability enhances the chances of success. However, simply believing they had leadership abilities did not necessarily mean that they actually had them. To be a leader, one needs the day-to-day practice of exercising leadership skills in a specific work context, which is the most powerful situation for shaping leaders' understanding of how to lead.

This study also demonstrated that having leadership qualities encouraged headteachers to accept a school headship role because a clear majority of the respondents from both the survey and the interviews believed that they had the required leadership qualities. Many leadership qualities are associated with effective leaders, including having a clear vision. Leithwood and Riehl (2005) argued the importance of personal vision building, which requires teachers to work on building an agreed-upon vision by examining and re-examining the reasons for entering into teaching. Building a vision is also about sharing ideas with other people, including teachers and headteachers, in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. Data gathered from the survey indicated that most respondents believed that, if they were in a headship position, they could implement their particular vision for the school rather than having to convince someone else to put their plans into operation. This belief might have stemmed from the idea that they had the necessary knowledge and skills to implement programmes for school improvement. One headteacher who initially worked as a teacher (14 years) and then a deputy headteacher (4 years) at the same school was afraid that, if she rejected the position of headship, a headteacher from outside the school would be nominated. Describing her school as an outstanding school, she saw nominating a headteacher from outside the school as a risk because such a headteacher might not appropriately implement the school's vision. Therefore, the belief that the headteachers could contribute valuable service to the school was a key motivational factor for taking up a headship role. However, in the light of the limited authority headteachers in Saudi Arabia have, the vision they wanted to apply might not be possible if not within the limits allowed for them.

Other leadership qualities include courage and commitment as well as the ability to carry out strategic planning and the implementation of these plans (Cameron & Green, 2017).

Garza *et al*. (2014) found that school headteachers' leadership qualities, such as setting an appropriate direction, were the core dimension of school success. Therefore, the fact that most headteachers believed that they had leadership qualities was clearly linked to their willingness to accept their new role. Whitaker *et al*. (2009) argued that self-motivation is important when taking on challenging roles. However, one problem facing female school headteachers in Saudi Arabia is the lack of leadership skills and experience, because nearly a third of the participants took up a headship role straight from classroom teaching, with no additional responsibilities for the work of others. Therefore, this finding leads to the following question: where and how do female headteachers gain these leadership qualities? It could be that leadership qualities are predominantly learned through experiences prior to becoming a headteacher, such as by observing a headteacher (Kempster, 2006). See Section 6.3.1.2, which discussed learning from experiences in more detail.

According to Alsharari (2010), who conducted his study in Aljouf province and Alqurayat governorate in the northern part of Saudi Arabia, female headteachers do not receive any specific training to become headteachers to the same extent as male headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Alsharari (2010) went on to argue that, although male headteachers complete a Head Teachers' Preparation programme, this training course is not offered to female headteachers in Aljouf and Alqurayat, resulting in a lack of focus on training for women headteachers. In this research, most of the survey and interviewees participants attended training courses carried out by the Education Office after they were appointed, which is inconsistent with the findings of Alsharari (2010). Although the data showed a shortage of headteachers in this study as well, the female headteachers had participated in training courses. The possible reasons that might be behind the difference in the results of this study and those of Alsharari's (2010) study are (i) the time difference

(7 years) between these two studies and (ii) Alsharari's study was conducted in two small cities in northern Saudi Arabia (i.e., Aljouf and Alqurayat) whereas this study was conducted in a highly populated area in Saudi Arabia, suggesting that the local educational authorities in Aljouf and Alqurayat had failed to offer female headteachers any training courses that might help them, unlike local authorities in the big city.

6.2.1.2 Benefits

The benefits (tangible and intangible) associated with being a headteacher are another source of motivation, as is the desire to express the willingness to take up more responsibilities than one's current role (Thomas, 2010). Examples of tangible benefits include financial rewards, such as salary increase, bonuses, and allowances, whereas intangible benefits are non-monetary rewards, including recognition and work itself (Han, Yin, & Boylan, 2016). Although both types of rewards have demonstrated motivational power, Friedman, Friedman, and Markow (2008) found that non-financial rewards such as involvement in decision-making are more powerful in motivating employees than financial rewards. Similarly, this study found that financial benefits did not motivate headteachers to take a headteacher position because they received no additional pay incentive; however, a majority of survey respondents and interviewees looked to enjoy the non-financial benefits, such as enhanced status, recognition, and ability to take up new challenges in education. This view is consistent with the identity construction and development of headteachers as suggested by Crow and Moller (2017), which indicated that most newly appointed headteachers' identities are "located in time, space and place, and emotions reflect complex leadership identities situated within social hierarchies which are part of wider structures and social relations of power and control" (p. 265). Thus, as found in this research, social status as a non-monetary reward can be

an influential force for teachers/deputy headteachers to become headteachers. Although monetary rewards may encourage individuals interested to take up leadership roles, Ankli and Palliam (2012) agreed with the notion that one's personality and desire to have a better reputation are a source of motivation for taking up new challenges.

Individuals might be motivated by power, influence, and authority (Crawford, 2014), although the findings did not reveal any evidence suggesting that the new headteachers wanted to take on the school leadership position because of authority. This result could be explained by the fact that the headteachers did not have sufficient authority to fulfil the headship's role in practice, which had a negative impact on their ambition (for more details on the limited authority of headteachers in Saudi Arabia, see Section 6.5).

6.2.1.3 Looking for new challenges

Another reason for accepting the headteacher responsibilities was newly appointed headteachers' desire to take up new challenges. Ryan and Deci (2000) posited that challenging work is a motivator because it encourages them to act on their inherent interest through which they can develop their knowledge and skills. An appropriate level (neither overburdening nor easily undertaken) of challenging work can improve intrinsic motivation, encouraging individuals to behave in a particular way without aiming to achieve any external rewards; however, their sole purpose of doing the job is to enjoy working, seek more opportunities for learning, further develop their skills, and actualise their potential (Gkorezis & Kastritsi, 2017). Gkorezis and Kastritsi (2017) found that unmet needs and work-related boredom cause people to look for more challenging work. This finding is consistent with the results of this study as one eighth of the survey respondents reported that one of the reasons for applying for the headship role was boredom in their previous job. Similarly, Garza *et al*. (2014) concluded that successful

headteachers were those motivated to sustain their efforts to become more effective leaders. However, their study did not focus on the concept of resilience—one aspect that has received significant attention in terms of teacher self-efficacy (Reichard *et al.*, 2017). In this context, resilience means persevering in the headteacher role despite the presence of difficulties and hurdles. Section 6.5 discusses this idea in more detail.

Not every headteacher in this study was initially interested in holding a leadership position due to a desire to take on the additional responsibilities of running a school. Some headteachers faced external pressure to accept the headship.

6.2.1.4 External pressure

This research revealed evidence suggesting that a minority of survey respondents and more than half of the interviewees accepted the headship role because of some external pressure, such as a fear of losing their job and family encouragement. In addition, they felt forced to accept the responsibilities because of their predecessors' retirements, although they were not necessarily ready to lead the school. According to Ankli and Palliam (2012), external pressure can provide a reason for a person to be motivated towards accepting a headship role. It is important to recognise that such acceptance is deemed necessary because of the pledge they take when becoming a deputy headteacher. For example, one interviewee pointed out that she became a headteacher because she felt she had to accept the headship role after taking the deputy headteacher pledge. Although this finding might seem unusual in the UK context, in Saudi Arabia, it is widely accepted that a nominated teacher undertakes such a pledge when becoming a deputy headteacher and will take up the headship position when her school needs her.

This pledge suggests that there is little apparent need for succession planning in school in Saudi Arabia. Succession planning is a process in which the current leadership finds

potential candidates to become future leaders and develops them by providing learning and development opportunities (Rothwell, 2015). The purpose of succession planning is to have well-qualified leaders to replace older ones when they retire, leave the organisation, or die. Therefore, there is a need to explore why schools do not conduct leadership skills needs analysis; if they did, deputy headteachers might not need to be pressured or pledge to accept the headship position when the need arises. Although a newly appointed headteacher who has worked in other schools can bring new ideas to the ways in which the school moves forward, there are some limitations in applying succession planning in Saudi schools. For example, a deputy headteacher who takes the pledge may not want to have the full responsibility of leading a school. In addition, tension may arise if the previous headteacher who delivered the succession plan was not a well-qualified leader. Moreover, there may not be suitable candidates within the school for a headteacher to execute the succession plan on.

6.2.2 Support

The data from the study identified three sources of support for newly appointed headteachers when applying for a headship position: family, former headteachers, and colleagues.

6.2.2.1 Family support

Three quarters of the survey respondents saw family encouragement as the most valuable support they received when accepting their new role. The importance of family support also echoed in the responses given by the majority of the interviewees. As school headteachers work very long hours, family support is vital for their job satisfaction and success (Thomas *et al*., 2003). A clear majority of the interviewees agreed that family

encouragement was even more important for those female headteachers with young children needing care and living in a conservative society. Saudi husbands expect their spouses to spend time on them. If wives are unable to attend to house chores, they may be blamed for not doing the housework as they are expected to play a dual role. Thus, the finding that headteachers received the greatest support from their families is consistent with ideas from existing literature, such as Thomas *et at*. (2003), and societal norms within the Saudi culture.

However, two headteachers reported that they did not receive any encouragement from their families because their families believed that the new post would increase the burden on the headteachers, thereby reducing their ability to serve their children and husbands. Despite this discouragement, they took up the new responsibilities and aimed to become effective headteachers. However, Jones (2016) argued that constraining factors such as the lack of autonomy and discouragement from family may affect female headteachers' performance. Jones's perspective might apply in a society like Saudi Arabia, where family is the main source of support and positive relations between them are essential. Evidence from this study indicated that the headteachers who did not gain support from their family faced pressure to manage their time effectively between their work at school and their home life. This pressure may affect a headteacher's performance in the long term.

6.2.2.2 Former headteachers' support

A school's leader serves as a source of inspiration and a means for sharing new knowledge, skills, and experiences with other less experienced colleagues because of her lived experiences and expert knowledge (Harris, 2010). Harris's view is consistent with the findings in this research, in which two-thirds of the survey respondents and about half

of the interviewees agreed that their predecessors helped them become headteachers—some through positive reinforcement (e.g., support and encouragement to become a school leader) and others through negative reinforcement (e.g., not being able to implement a vision shared by the headteacher). Kempster (2006) argued that learning from former headteachers, who are role models, helps individuals construct their professional identity. By following these role models, headteachers may develop their professional identity because it can give meaning to their professional lives and help shape their attitudes and behaviours (Siebert & Siebert, 2005). Bandura's (1986) theory of observational learning suggested that a role model influences the behaviour of people in a society. Therefore, with more knowledge and experience gained from role models, headteachers may construct their new social and role identity.

A former headteacher can play a critical role in helping teachers take on leadership positions in the future through distributed leadership (Harris, 2010). This leadership model encourages sharing the leadership responsibilities and focuses on teamwork, giving importance to personal interactions among the school headteacher, deputy headteacher, team leaders, and teachers. Applying such a model of leadership would create a collaborative culture for the school (Alammar, 2015) and promote school staff members' learning and professional development, which is important for school leadership development (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Although distributed leadership is a relatively new concept in Saudi Arabia, it can provide sufficient room for others to develop leadership skills, behaviours, and qualities (Harris, 2010). One indication was that some female headteachers in Saudi Arabia felt confident that they had the knowledge and skills to carry out such a leadership approach within their schools. For example, one headteacher stated that she trusted and empowered her deputy to take on some of the headteacher tasks. Such a finding is in line with Harris's (2010) work. However, one can

argue that other headteachers preferred not to apply a distributed leadership approach because, in such a context, if a deputy makes any mistakes, the headteacher then has to accept full responsibility.

6.2.2.3 Colleagues' support

Half of the survey respondents received assistance from their peers during their headship application process, suggesting that the encouragement received from colleagues contributed to individuals accepting the headteacher position. However, surprisingly, a majority of the interviewees did not receive their colleagues' support to become a headteacher. One possible reason behind this finding might be because those headteachers did not inform their colleagues about their desire to apply for headship. Day (2005) argued that work colleagues' support is vital for a headteacher to be successful. Although professional friends might offer support when applying for the headship position, they could reject their friends' future plans and school improvement programmes. For example, a newly appointed headteacher might aim to change the established style of teaching (e.g., teacher-centred method of teaching, which means transmitting knowledge to students) to one that is more student-centred and uses an active learning approach. According to Idris (2016), Saudi teachers predominantly use didactic methods, influenced by the pressure to prepare students for examinations.

Idris (2016) argued that it is difficult for a new headteacher to change teachers' style of teaching in a short period. Connolly and James (2000) also observed a situation whereby teachers openly opposed a new initiative to improve teaching proposed by their headteacher. Thus, although it is important to maintain colleagues' support, newly appointed headteachers need to be aware of the limitations of their support when new changes are introduced. Although this might be the case, work colleagues may help

headteachers learn. Jones (2016) stated that learning is constructed through integrative approaches rather than imparted from an instructor alone. Teachers need to have opportunities to interact with more knowledgeable and senior headteachers to learn from them before they accept greater leading responsibilities such as headship. Vygotsky (1978) argued that, from a social constructivism perspective, guidance and collaboration by a more experienced person are needed to be more competent in one's profession than learning only by attending courses. Thus, constructivism supports the idea of learning from different sources.

Teachers need to carry out many learning activities, such as reflecting on practice, carrying out research, and attending conferences/workshops. In addition to these activities, social interactions are needed for teachers to apply what they learn through formal and informal means. For example, Lave and Wenger's theory of community of practice suggested that people belong to communities with practices, routines, ritual, symbol, histories, stories and conventions (Farnsworth, Kleanthous, & Wenger-Trayner, 2016). Thus, headteachers' interactions with their work colleagues are one way to achieve meaning from their work and evaluate their own work, and colleagues (teachers and other fellow headteachers) can help develop headteachers' leadership skills. However, an integrated approach to learning can be effective only when individuals are provided with the opportunities to apply new skills and knowledge into practice, which is often limited if the leadership encourages individuals to maintain the status quo and continues doing the same style of working.

6.3   Leadership development

As explained in Section 3.7, leadership development is a multifaceted concept; hence, there is no universally agreed-upon definition for it (O'Brien, Plotnikova, & Mills, 2013).

However, a working definition for leadership development used in this thesis was given in Section 3.7 based on Bolam's (2003) definition. Many organisations carry out various programmes and activities to enhance professionalism among their employees. In the education sector, teachers and headteachers need to develop constantly (i.e., continuing professional development) mainly because, as Crawford (2014) suggested, the fast-moving educational world often introduces new policies. In order to answer the second research sub-question—*RSQ2. What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in the post?* —this section discusses the research findings related to the leadership development of headteachers from the relevant literature, focusing on two areas: headteachers' professional experiences prior to becoming a headteacher (Section 6.3.1) and their learning experiences upon appointment (Section 6.3.2). The decisions will draw from theories of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), identity formation (Ibarra, 1999), social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978), and experiential learning (Kolb, 2015).

6.3.1   Learning from prior professional experiences

This section presents an analysis of the findings related to the professional experience of headteachers (participants of this study) prior to becoming a headteacher. The results revealed two aspects explaining how teachers/deputy headteachers prepared for their leadership position: formal learning and informal learning.

6.3.1.1 Formal learning

One way that headteachers developed their professional experience was through formal learning. Most of the survey participants attended training courses (e.g., Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers) organised and carried out by the Education

Office after taking up the role of headship. Such learning opportunities meant valuing teachers' work and developing individuals through promotion (Crawford, 2014). For example, one interviewee mentioned that her previous headteacher nominated her for the headteacher position based on her interest in and desire to lead a school. Any organised learning experience would also empower headteachers as one of their main roles is to be an instructional leader (Manaseh, 2016)—namely, one who sets goals, allocates resources, focuses on managing curriculum and teaching, and assesses teachers' teaching performance in order to enhance student learning and development. Manaseh's (2016) finding concurred with Kennedy's (2007) argument that professional development activities are a vehicle for encouraging career promotion as more skills can be gained through both formal and informal training. More than one-third of the survey respondents and most of the interviewees had never worked as a deputy headteacher, so they did not have the opportunity to attend TQCNH (Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers) before taking up the role of headship. The knowledge and skills learned from TQCNH will be discussed in more detail in Section 6.3.2.

In addition to valuing teachers' work and promoting empowerment, offering professional development opportunities creates a culture promoting teacher learning in Saudi girls' secondary schools. For example, one headteacher mentioned that she and a deputy headteacher learned about an Evaluation and Achievement Programme and benefited enormously from this one-year work experience (see Section 5.4.1). The human resource management literature refers to such work as shadowing (Leatherbarrow & Fletcher, 2014), which is "the practice of accompanying others" with a purpose of observing others at work and acquiring a deeper understanding of the targeted work (Williams & Rutter, 2015, p. 91). This method of professional development fits into Ibarra's (1999) initial process of identity formation: by observing role models, individuals can learn new ways

of doing things. For instance, only two out of the seven headteachers interviewed mentioned that they worked alongside their former headteachers when they were deputies, which provided them with valuable and useful experience as well as the confidence to take up a headship role.

According to constructivist theory (Vygotsky, 1978), learning can be facilitated by a more learned individual helping the learner acquire new knowledge. Vygotsky (1978) claimed that social interaction is necessary for effective learning to take place. Therefore, headteachers argued that they developed their leadership knowledge and skills through shadowing, which is consistent with Vygotsky (1978) and ideas supported by Kalainoff and Clark (2017). In addition to learning within the organisation, some survey participants who had earned their master's degrees without the experience of a deputy headteacher position might have developed their professional knowledge through postgraduate studies. For instance, an interviewee who worked directly as a headteacher mentioned that her postgraduate qualifications enabled her to become a headteacher. However, one can argue that the theoretical knowledge she gained from her leadership studies is very unlikely on its own to be adequate for her to lead a school; it should be strengthened with on-the-job experience in order to test the theories and apply them in real-world practices.

Almost three-quarters of survey respondents reported that they had some coaching experience. Coaching is a type of developmental activity whereby a coach facilitates a learner to achieve his/her personal or professional goals by imparting new knowledge and skills as well as offering guidance (Downey, 2015). One can argue that coaching might be useful, but it could also just be imitation without any real in-depth understanding of what is being coached or how the skill being coached might be effective (e.g., dealing with conflicts between staff or with difficult parents). Despite this, previous research by

Lofthouse, Leat, and Towler (2010) found that schools in England had already established their own version of coaching, although this may not be the case in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the finding that coaching occurs in Saudi female schools is consistent with Lofthouse *et al.*'s (2010) finding.

Professional development through coaching can be theorised by a social constructivist approach to learning (Kalainoff & Clark, 2017) as coaching helps individuals construct learning themselves. This can be explained with reference to constructivist theory, which argues that learners' understanding of the world around them is developed by constructing mental models, advocating learner-centred approaches (Cakir, 2008). The finding that some Saudi schools conduct coaching to develop aspiring headteachers suggests that some principles of constructivism are applied in these schools. Although coaching helps promote a learning culture within schools, school leadership needs to play a vital role in ensuring the success of this practice. Lofthouse *et al.* (2010) concluded that school headteachers need to give more attention to coaching as it is a one of the most cost-effective learning methods. However, implementing coaching in Saudi schools might have some limitations. The effectiveness of coaching is dependent on the skills that former headteachers/coaching leaders have. Therefore, if coaching is carried out by an unqualified leader, it will not achieve its goal. Also, as mentioned in Section 6.2.1.4, in light of the absence of succession planning in Saudi Arabia, coaches might not have adequate time to transfer their experiences to the new headteachers because coaching needs a long time to be effective. Moreover, experienced headteachers may not be effective coaching leaders despite their thorough knowledge and experience in the field because they may not be able to transfer their skills to aspiring teachers. Furthermore, some experienced headteachers are not aware of the new technological developments in

education (Alsharari, 2010) and, therefore, will not be able to train these essential skills in managing schools.

Almost three-quarters of the survey participants stated that they did not have any mentoring practice in their schools, but a few reported that they used mentoring as a professional development activity. Mentoring is a process whereby a more knowledgeable person shares knowledge and experience with an inexperienced and less knowledgeable individual (Connor & Pokora, 2012). It is underpinned by socio-constructivist ideas proposed by Vygotsky (1978). In his theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), Vygotsky argued that a learner needs someone who has more knowledge and experience than she does to teach. The intervention from an experienced person when novice headteachers begin their new roles is explained by Bruner's scaffolding theory, in which he argued that, when individuals learn new knowledge and skills, they need active support from more experienced others (Bruner, 1966). Such support is gradually reduced as they become more independent through experience.

One advantage of mentoring is that it gives the learner the responsibility of taking ownership of learning rather than the mentor deciding what to teach. Thus, the learner is required to have a personal development plan (PDP) prior to undertaking a mentoring programme. Another advantage of mentoring, as mentioned by Pocklington and Weindling (1996), is that "mentoring offers a way of speeding up the process of transition to headship" (p. 189) (Section 6.4 discusses the transition to headship in more detail). A mentor, however, can help facilitate professional learning and development and ease the transition to the role of headship. Connor and Pokora (2012) argued that mentoring is valuable for headteachers because learning is at the heart of changing behaviour and action. Mentors share skills, experiences, values, knowledge, and attitudes; they do not prescribe how things should be carried out.

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Although mentoring benefits inexperienced headteachers, the evidence from this research suggested that it is largely a new practice in Saudi schools because almost all interviewees had limited help from mentoring. One of the reasons for this is the limited number of qualified and experienced mentors among headteachers. Surprisingly, even during the TQCNH, experienced headteachers did not contribute to the development of newly appointed heads of school. The organisers of the TQCNH might not be aware of the importance of engaging experienced headteachers, and the experienced headteachers might not have any desire to be involved in the TQCNH because of retirement or other personal reasons (Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers is discussed in Section 2.10). Therefore, coaching and mentoring might be valuable for newly appointed headteachers, but they need to have the appropriate skills and knowledge to apply these practices within their schools. Implementing the practice of mentoring could help change the school culture to a learning one, whereby experience and knowledge sharing will become more commonly available.

The evidence gathered from the surveys and interviews showed that almost all respondents put some effort into improving themselves professionally—not just through formal education, but also via other means, which will be discussed next.

6.3.1.2 Informal learning

Informal learning is another option for improving new headteachers' professional experiences. For instance, one interviewee mentioned that she read about the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) and learned about his leadership behaviours during different situations because she was interested in leadership knowledge and he was her role model in leadership. Thus, although reading is an informal learning method, it can have a positive impact on one's professional development. This is consistent with Sessa's

(2017) argument that leadership involves having an in-depth understanding of knowing how to lead and put this knowledge into practice. The fact that this interviewee was interested in learning about the Prophet Mohammed's leadership practices indicates that she sought to develop her leadership and management skills, thereby suggesting a genuine interest in understanding "leadership and leadership development" (Hannah & Avolio, 2010, p. 118). Thus, the finding that a desire to learn and develop helped teachers become headteachers is consistent with intrinsic motivation theory to develop leadership skills (Reichard & Beck, 2017).

Although simply reading research is a limited way of learning, the participants drew on reading as a key strategy for developing their leadership skills. One possible reason for this could be that they do not get enough opportunities for professional learning; therefore, tapping into up-to-date reading and supplementing it with Internet sources such as YouTube videos provide them with self-learning opportunities. Reading as an informal learning method is also consistent with the argument put forward by Richards and Farrell (2005), who stated that teachers need to be constantly engaged in reading for new knowledge in their specialised area. Teachers can read the latest research on specific areas or textbooks about leadership skills. Biographies of successful leaders can provide very useful information about their preferred leadership models and behaviours. However, one can argue that learning to be a headteacher by reading is not sufficient, as it will only help with awareness raising and some level of knowledge. Headteachers need direct experience that gives a clear understanding of what being a headteacher might entail. Therefore, headteachers can also use other informal learning methods to help their professional development, such as reflective practice (Crawford, 2014; Pollard, 2008) and networking practices, which are discussed in Section 6.3.2.2.

Section 6.2.1 discussed how motivation plays a role in headteachers' decisions to take on the leadership role. Such motivation might be the result of individuals' personal desire to develop their professional experience. The desire to develop professional experience also relates to a love for learning, which can be explained by theories related to intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to an individual's actions stemming from an inherent interest in professional development (Reichard & Beck, 2017). A clear majority of the survey participants and all seven interviewees agreed that they had the personal desire to develop themselves professionally and prepare for a headship position through the use of informal learning methods (e.g., attending seminars and networking). Thus, participants experienced the motivation to develop themselves (Reichard & Beck, 2017)—perhaps as a pathway to headship.

Learning from experience was found to be an important professional development activity among Saudi female secondary schools. For example, one interviewee commented on the usefulness of previous experiences with former headteachers on current work efforts. Another interviewee offered an account of her being a leader since childhood, which indicated that she had a strong influencing character that enabled her to lead teachers when she became the head of the English Language Department. These examples suggest that experience plays a vital role in one's professional development— a finding consistent with Kolb's (2015) experiential learning theory. Kolb's four-stage cyclical theory is a holistic model that integrates experience with behaviour, perception, and cognition. Kolb (2015) stated that "learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 38). Evidence from this study suggested that previous experience can help develop teachers' professional work and help them become effective headteachers. For instance, the two headteachers who worked as a deputy headteacher found their previous experience valuable and useful practise while

also giving them the confidence to take up a headship role. This finding is consistent with Kempster's (2006) work as he argued that the experience of observing a headteacher at work can be very helpful in terms of learning about being a headteacher as well as developing identity.

However, as discussed in Section 5.2.2, five of the seven interviewees had not worked as a deputy headteacher before they became a headteacher. This lack of leadership experience may have had some negative implications for their current work and could pose a number of challenges (more explanation about challenges faced by headteachers will be given in Section 6.5). According to Crawford (2014), education policies are continuously changing; hence, new decisions need to be taken to implement these new policies at the school level. A lack of experience in decision-making, for example, may lead to problems among teachers and students. If headteachers make decisions by themselves (even within the limited power and authority enshrined within their headship role) without involving teachers, it may become difficult for them to implement school development programmes due to a lack of support from their staff. On the other hand, if they have made effective decisions and led their staff to accomplish the school goals, then such positive experiences may enhance their motivation and confidence to continue as a headteacher rather than leaving the position.

6.3.2   Learning from professional experiences while in post

Newly appointed heads received a formal training course (i.e., TQCNH) that all survey respondents perceived as useful and valuable for headteacher development in Saudi Arabia. The TQCNH is based on instructional learning (giving guidance on carrying out school leadership and management activities), asserting that instruction plays an important role in learning and formulating ideas (Jones, 2016). However, Harasim (2017)

argued that constructivists put the learner in the centre of the learning process rather than treating her as a passive receiver of instruction. The TQCNH enabled newly appointed headteachers to not only be passive listeners, but also ask questions and learn from others. This section discusses the TQCNH's formal learning experiences and networking as an informal learning opportunity shared by the newly appointed headteachers.

6.3.2.1 Knowledge and skills learned from TQCNH experience (formal learning)

Nearly all survey respondents agreed that the TQCNH was a useful formal learning activity that created more awareness of regulatory and procedural guidelines. Regulations often change; so do school policies that reflect regulations (Crawford, 2014). The TQCNH provides an opportunity for new headteachers to enhance their understanding of regulatory requirements. However, this is not the only area in which the TQCNH offers a better understanding. According to most survey respondents, during the TQCNH programme, they developed their knowledge on how to improve the quality of school leadership. As such, the newly appointed headteachers might have been introduced to new information that they could apply in their schools.

Similarly, the same course was an opportunity for these headteachers to learn new ways of strengthening school management and organisation, as indicated by the majority of the survey respondents. In addition, more than three quarters of the newly appointed headteachers who participated in the survey reported that the TQCNH provided them with useful information on how to deal with students' family problems. Failing to handle students with family problems and those from disadvantaged backgrounds appropriately can affect academic achievement. Ready and Wright (2011) explained that it is important for teachers and schools to make efforts to reduce the chances of isolating disadvantaged students. The TQCNH also developed new headteachers' knowledge in many other areas.

For example, most claimed that they gained information on engaging in strategic planning for school improvement, learning new ICT skills, and applying internal audits (i.e., independent assurance that the school's risk management and internal control procedures are functioning effectively) and school discipline.

Yet despite these reported benefits of the TQCNH, the Education Office organised this programme as a one-off training event, which affected the course content, duration, and follow-up activities (Shah *et al.*, 2013). One of the interviewees believed that the content provided in the TQCNH had little chance of reflection; as a result, she was planning to take a course on dealing with students who have family problems to gain guidance on how to address disciplinary issues. Therefore, the TQCNH often provides a restricted view of learning to become a headteacher in a de-contextualised fashion. It can only achieve a degree of professional knowledge and understanding about the role.

6.3.2.2 Networking (informal learning)

Coetzee (2009) defined networking as "making contact with other professionals to seek their help or to offer support" (p. 343). Networking appeared to be one of the most useful strategies in developing the headteachers' leadership knowledge and understanding. For example, a clear majority of the survey participants reported that the TQCNH provided them with opportunities to stay in contact with other headteachers and create good relationships with them. Similarly, all seven interviewees agreed that the TQCNH enabled them to exchange experiences and knowledge with other newly appointed headteachers. The survey results indicated that nearly all the respondents agreed that they had supportive networks. According to Coetzee (2009), networking is a very valuable practice for headteachers' ongoing professional development because it allows for face-to-face discussion, the use of social media, and telephone discussions. If the newly

appointed headteachers can be part of a network with more experienced headteachers, it could facilitate the development of these new headteachers. For example, Richards and Farrell (2005) pointed out that headteachers could share ideas about teaching practices, examining their related views, beliefs, and values. Applying the constructivist principles of learning, these conversations might help the headteachers develop their leadership knowledge and skills. Therefore, networking can be a cost-effective process that helps develop headteachers' professionalism.

Unfortunately, the TQCNH did not provide the research participants with much opportunity to exchange experiences and knowledge with more experienced headteachers, as noted by almost all the survey participants and interviewees as well. These results imply that the TQCNH was only useful for transferring information valuable for managing the school to the newly appointed headteachers, but not providing a networking programme. A notable exception was the headteacher who met an experienced headteacher while attending one of these courses and benefited from her participation. Despite this, the respondents seemed to have expected some contribution from more experienced headteachers during the TQCNH. One of the participants suggested involving experienced headteachers. Networking may not be very difficult and may not require much effort thanks to technologies and software available for connecting people. One could argue that headteachers would be able to purchase Internet-enabled smart phones, thereby facilitating connecting with other headteachers to share knowledge and experiences.

This research explored leadership development activities prior to new headteachers taking up a headship position and learning activities that they had taken part in after becoming a headteacher. Although these two phases have been presented separately, some learning activities (e.g., learning from experience, reading, and networking) appear

to be ongoing professional development activities. Some headteachers looked to previous headteachers as role models to learn about their leadership skills and behaviours, and one headteacher used a well-known leader (i.e., the Prophet Mohammed, peace be upon him) as her role model in leadership. The learning experiences have also been linked to headteachers' desire to learn and grow both personally and professionally. However, some organisational learning activities, such as mentoring and shadowing, have not been common professional development activities in female secondary schools in Saudi Arabia.

6.4   Transition to headship

This section addresses the third research sub-question: *RSQ3. How effective was the headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?* Respondents' general conclusion was that the transition from classroom teacher to headteacher or deputy headteacher to headteacher was not easy. According to more than one-third of the survey respondents, the transition was "not effective at all" because they moved from being a teacher to being a headteacher without any specific preparation; any preparation courses they did attend were judged to be inadequate. As pointed out by several interviewees, they adjusted to their new role through self-directed learning and lived experiences. These headteachers seemed to be what Kempster (2006) called leadership apprenticeships. Kempster (2006) used the metaphor of apprenticeships to understand how situated learning can influence one's efforts in relation to long-term leadership learning. Apprentices are those who learn skills from a more experienced and skilled person. In this context, a teacher learning to become a headteacher can learn new knowledge and skills from her headteacher. The following subsections illustrate how headteachers gained leadership knowledge and skills.

6.4.1   Situated learning

Acquiring leadership skills depends heavily on the work context because the nature of headteacher roles varies according to the size of the school, location of the school, catchment area, and age range of pupils. As mentioned in Section 6.3.1.2 (regarding learning from experience), when learning is situated for headteachers, it means learning is taking place while fulfilling their role at school, deliberately formulating the necessary plans to learn. This process of learning is known as "legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98), whereby learning takes place in authentic work-related contexts rather than by attending a workshop or seminar. Situated learning is beneficial for headteachers because it involves social interactions with students, teachers, parents, and other stakeholders and requires collaborating with them. Both social interaction and collaboration are key aspects of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This view was supported by two interviewee headteachers who claimed that they gained leadership knowledge and skills through self-learning and communication with experienced headteachers. Developing new knowledge and skills through social interaction can affect headteachers' identities and create a new professional identity.

Some headteachers were promoted from deputy headteacher to headteacher within the same school; others had to be moved from one school to another to become a headteacher. Those promoted within the same school found the school culture more accepting as they tended to face the same individuals. However, once their role changed, they saw school issues differently. For instance, surprisingly, colleagues started behaving somewhat differently with them compared to when they were deputy headteachers. Those headteachers who were expected to lead schools where they had never previously worked learned different behaviours and beliefs through situated learning. For example, as one headteacher commented, "I was left in the field on my own and the first period was self-

teaching of leadership ... learning from mistakes", thereby providing further evidence that situated learning took place during the newly appointed headteachers' early days. Furthermore, most of the interviewees agreed that they were continuously learning from their actions and mistakes. This finding is consistent with the result of some studies based in Western countries. Derks (2003), for example, found that, in the Netherlands, "every new head starts his or her job with trial and error" (p. 172). The analysis herein suggests that these headteachers had opportunities to gain new experiences in a "community of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 83), which enabled them to learn new beliefs, skills, and behaviours. Lave and Wenger's ideas of legitimate peripheral participation describe how newly appointed headteachers can become experienced headteachers through community of practice, solving problems and learning on the job. Therefore, although the transition process was more difficult for some headteachers than others, it provided them with opportunities to engage in situated learning.

6.4.2   New identity formation

A smooth transition from classroom teacher to headteacher or deputy to headteacher is important because it is a process of the newly appointed headteachers assuming a new identity. According to Kempster (2006), such a process marks an important step in the headteachers' professional life because they are transitioning from classroom teachers to deputy headteachers to a leadership role within the same school or in a new school. This transition process may provide headteachers with the opportunity to evaluate themselves against internal standards, which is based on what headteachers value in their role, as well as external feedback, which is necessary for creating a new professional identity (Ibarra, 1999).

This study found that deputies who were promoted to headteachers within their schools found it easier to adjust to the new role. They seemed to have taken a more practical approach as they envisioned the challenges and demands of becoming a headteacher. This appears to be an enabling factor for them to have a smooth transition from the role of deputy to headteacher in the same school. In this context, Bush (2018) explained that headteachers need time to adjust to their specific school context in order to know how to lead the school effectively. Crow and Moller (2017) argued that identity formation is linked to leadership development: "understanding…how cultural and historical factors influence the fluid and development nature of identities should motivate us to take such factors into account in our leadership preparation and professional development programs" (p. 755).

On the other hand, the majority of headteachers who had been directly elevated to headship roles faced much more challenging leadership situations. They stressed the importance of gradation on the career ladder (teacher, deputy headteacher, then headteacher). For example, some headteachers mentioned that they faced difficulties in managing their schools due to students' disciplinary issues and parental lack of cooperation. This finding is consistent with Alsharari's (2010) study as he found that the lack of training and experience in a leadership has made it difficult for female headteachers looking to solve problems faced during the course of their leadership career. This highlights a professional identity perceived to be undesirable for female heads of schools, negatively affecting their motivation to stay in the headship. Oplatka (2012) stated that headteachers need to be developed professionally through a series of different stages during their career life, with each period having its distinct features. Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1992) argued that professional experiences affect the construction of professional identity. Moreover, DeRue and Ashford (2010) and Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb

(2011) agreed that the processes of developing both leadership learning and one's identity as a headteacher are similar. They stated that these processes are recursive and mutually reinforcing. Thus, constructing a headteacher's professional identity is shaped via numerous professional experiences and takes a long time before taking up the role.

Such situations suggest that the new headteachers had to negotiate their identity as they transitioned from a lower position to a higher level in the school hierarchy. Kempster (2006) argued that headteachers' identity is constantly being negotiated—not only with the circumstances in which they work, but also with the people with whom they work. Jones (2016) supported Kempster's (2006) argument, adding that female headteachers demonstrate "several contradictory identities revealing qualities, characteristics and leadership styles which diverge from socially prescribed gender-appropriate behaviours" (p. 907). Indeed, in the Saudi society, women are expected to play an important role at home, caring for children and husbands as well as doing the housework. For these reasons, female headteachers in Saudi Arabia need to constantly renegotiate their identity as they lead schools.

6.4.3   Observational learning

About half of the survey respondents thought that their transitions were moderately effective because they had opportunities to engage in job shadowing with their previous headteachers, who helped them with the transition to a headship position. Those survey participants who had worked as deputy headteachers argued that such an experience provided them with a smoother transition to headship. Thus, the effectiveness of their transition process was achieved through observational learning, which is defined as learning that takes place by observing others' behaviour (Bandura, 1977).

The findings from this study are consistent with Bandura's (1977) observational learning theory. Observational learning is important for an effective transitional process in moving from a deputy or classroom teacher to a headteacher because it helps individuals learn and adapt to new behaviours, retaining such experiences for later use. One reason that the majority of the interviewees found the transition process ineffective was that they were not given the opportunity to work closely with another headteacher. From their point of view, the opportunity to shadow or be an apprentice was important for preparing them for their new role. Observational learning is particularly important in the context of Saudi school leadership development as most survey participants believed that they learned their leadership skills from their former headteachers, developing the confidence and competence to lead.

Novice headteachers come to school with their own expectations about the role and responsibilities. In this research, the majority of headteachers who had not worked as a deputy took over the role with a more limited understanding of leadership, and their perspectives were then reshaped by their experiences in practice. Therefore, while in post, headteachers experience many changes in their identity as they adjust to the work demands of enacting the role of headteacher. Even obtaining a job as a deputy headteacher means a significant shift in identity from being a classroom teacher. In this context, Armstrong (2011) found that the initial idea about their role for eight assistant headteachers changed with their lived experiences to knowing that school headteachers have a various set of responsibilities and roles within the school. Thus, professional identity can again be developed along with leadership development (Kolb, 2015).

6.4.4 Experiential learning

For two interviewees, the transition from deputy headteacher to headteacher was relatively straightforward. For these two headteachers, the main reason for the effective transition was their previous position in the same school (deputy headteacher); in addition, their former headteachers gave them the autonomy to make decisions themselves. They stated that they had previously worked as deputies prior to accepting the headship; such previous experience enabled them to develop a more realistic view of leadership, including both its challenges and benefits. Such experience may enhance headteachers' identity formation (Moorosi, 2014).

These two headteachers were describing a learning process known as experiential learning (Kolb, 2015). Kolb (2015, p. xviii) defined experiential learning as "a particular form of learning from life experience; this can be contrasted it with lecture and classroom learning". Applying this definition to the findings in this research, substantial evidence exists to suggest that many newly appointed headteachers achieved a smooth transition from their previous position to the current one through experiential learning. Experience is important because it gives confidence and resilience to headteachers to lead in difficult and challenging situations.

As mentioned in Section 3.7.2, the increasing expectations for high-quality education in Saudi Arabia require schools to be led by experienced and skilled headteachers. However, as indicated by the survey results (16 out of 42), the interview findings (4 out of 7), and one interviewee appointment to headteacher directly after completing higher education, many Saudi headteachers are inexperienced in terms of leading other people when they first move into the headteacher position. Bush (2018) argued that imposing additional responsibilities on headteachers increases the need for headteachers to obtain effective

preparation. "Being qualified only for the very different job of classroom teacher is no longer appropriate" (p. 68). Headteachers who straightaway move from classroom teaching to the headship position have the right to receive appropriate development. Indeed, according to Bush (2018, p. 68), it is "a moral obligation". Therefore, more attention needs to be given to provide future school headteachers with the opportunities to learn by gaining more experience in leading and managing.

6.4.5 Authority of headteachers

Although this research did not examine specific questions about a headteacher's authority to implement new activities and plans, some interviewees referred to the issue of having limited authority. As they are responsible for leading a school, the headteachers would obviously have some authority to do certain things (e.g., appoint their own staff, organise extra-curricular activities, and engage in school policy making) within the stipulated responsibilities. Yet some headteachers found it concerning that they were asked to run schools according to the instructions or directions issued by the MoE. Perhaps, for this reason, some headteachers felt that they did not have much autonomy to run the school as they wished.

The freedom that headteachers need can be explained using ideas about the "structure–agency interaction" (Kempster, 2006, p. 7). Agency refers to the ability of headteachers to take action independently as well as take decisions based on their choices. On the other hand, structure is the social arrangements which either encourage or limit headteachers' ability to make their own decisions. In other words, it is the ability of individual headteachers to exert authority over what goes on in relation to their school management. In general, some headteachers have shown a stronger sense of agency whereas others have described situations depicting themselves as weak in controlling what goes on in

their schools. Although the MoE gives instructions as to how schools should be run, both headteachers and educational authorities share the goal of improving the quality of education. To achieve this goal, it is important for headteachers to have a strong sense of agency. If they are not able to exert authority enshrined within their job description, they might fail to exert control over themselves and influence other people within the school community. As a result, they may become less successful in their job.

6.5   Challenges faced during the early years of headship

This study explored headteachers' perspectives in relation to the challenges they faced in schools and their readiness to overcome these difficulties (i.e., *RSQ4. What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?*). Both the survey results and interview findings indicated that the newly appointed headteachers faced numerous challenges. Although two-thirds of the survey participants agreed that they were aware of the obstacles and challenges, one-third reported they did not have any prior knowledge or understanding of how challenging it might be to hold a headteacher position. Nearly two-thirds of survey participants reported that they were unprepared to overcome the challenges they might face during their early headship. Running a school is a huge challenge for the majority of female headteachers—with or without experience and with or without proper training—because of the multiple roles they fulfil within society (Jones, 2016). The data indicated that headteachers faced many challenges: resistance to change, budgetary constraints, limited basic authority, a lack of discipline, an inadequate understanding of school culture, and the need to deal with difficult personalities. Each of these difficulties is discussed in the following subsections.

6.5.1 Resistance to change

All the interviewees reported that they faced resistance to change from teachers and students, which concurs with other research. For example, according to Gulati, Mayo, and Nohria (2016), implementing a new approach creates room for resistance, making it harder for headteachers to implement new initiatives and sustain them. Complex relationships exist in organisations such as schools; hence, diverse ideas and disagreements might be a reality within such organisations (Morrison, 2008). One reason why teachers resist change is because they might think that there is no reason for change (Zimmerman, 2006). In this research, most headteachers mentioned that some teachers wanted to preserve the existing culture of their school. For example, when these teachers were asked to do something in a particular way, they challenged it and continued doing things the way they were used to. Therefore, unless headteachers could convince these teachers that the new way of doing things was better than the old way, it would be unlikely for the teachers to see a real need for change. Hofstede et al. (2010) argued that organisational culture, like culture in a school, is a "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one organisation from another" (p. 180). One of headteachers' responsibilities is to create school culture where staff members accept a set of values and practices on a day-to-day basis and develop a model shared by all. If a staff member agrees to carry out work in a certain way, it might improve the chances of survival. In contrast, if every staff member stays away from their roles, it is likely that school goals and objectives will not be accomplished.

Another factor contributing to resistance to change is unsuccessful previous change efforts (Zimmerman, 2006), although the respondents in this study did not refer to this. In addition, a fear of the unknown (Zimmerman, 2006) could cause teachers to resist new approaches introduced by headteachers. Guskey (1984) argued that changing teachers'

attitudes and beliefs toward new practices occurred only when teachers see a positive influence on student outcomes. Thus, headteachers in Saudi Arabia need to show teachers evidence of the importance of implementing the new practice on student achievement. Therefore, it is important that newly appointed headteachers learn how to go about managing change or gain relevant experience by being a deputy headteacher before they introduce and implement new changes in the school.

6.5.2   Budgetary constraints

Another major difficulty the interviewees identified was issues with the school budget. Saudi government-administered schools are run with the budget allocated by the MoE according to school size. Although the government-provided financial resources might not be sufficient for headteachers, the primary issue with the budget is the delay of receiving them. The existing bureaucratic education system (an excessively complex education administrative system) in Saudi Arabia might explain the reason for this delay and the Ministry of Education's ineffectiveness (Ismail, Lai, Ayub, Ahmed, & Wan, 2016). In his research, Alzaidi (2008a) concluded that "the highly centralised educational system in Saudi Arabia and the lack of autonomy are factors that affect job satisfaction" (p. 162). Alzaidi conducted his study in the city of Jeddah in Saudi Arabia. The main aim of his study was to identify the factors that might influence the job satisfaction of secondary school headteachers. He also pointed out that the lack of financial resources was one of the factors causing headteachers' dissatisfaction.

One headteacher in the current study explained that she sometimes had to run the school without any budget for up to five months, during which time the headteachers themselves used their personal funds to cover expenses. Such a situation can be very serious because the postponement of the budget may mean limiting the provision of teaching and learning

materials to students and teachers. Delayed budgets can also increase headteachers' stress and make them feel frustrated. In fact, one headteacher mentioned that the budgetary issues increased her frustration in addition to affecting the quality of education and other services provided by the school. Therefore, to enhance headteachers' effectiveness, the MoE needs to improve its own efficiency by ensuring that the annual budget is provided to schools prior to the start of the academic year.

6.5.3   Limited authority

Here, limited authority means the headteacher lacks the authority to make day-to-day decisions. Saudi headteachers do not have the authority to make some decisions themselves, which contradicts the standards in other countries (for more details, see Section 5.6). All interviewees mentioned that they had limited authority, making the management of school a challenging task. This finding is consistent with study by Mathis (2010), which showed that headteachers in Saudi Arabia need to be granted more authority to run their schools. Moreover, Alsahli (2000) identified the issue of employees not having adequate authority to fulfil their responsibilities. He argued that employees should be given sufficient authority in order to achieve their job goals.

Savage (2018) pointed out that headteachers appoint teachers and staff in secondary schools in the UK. However, in Saudi schools, the MoE /educational offices recruit teachers and support staff for schools. An example of the lack of authority to recruit staff was given by a headteacher in this study, who mentioned a situation when she could not appoint a caretaker because she was not allowed to do so, although she had to manage the school without him for three months. In his study, Alzaidi (2008b) found a lack of school autonomy as a result of bureaucracy and the centralised education system, giving headteachers only weak authority. Al-Fozan (1997) conducted a study to evaluate the

authority entrusted in school headteachers in Saudi Arabia. He found that the school headteachers were given many responsibilities through the regulations and circulars.

When parents and students realise that the headteacher has no proper authority to control things in the school, it can have a negative effect on students' and parents' attitudes towards the headteachers. For example, one headteacher mentioned a situation when some parents spoke to her using abusive language because they knew that she has limited authority over the school. This factor could also influence the decision of teachers in Saudi Arabia to pursue headship, thereby leading to a lack of school headteachers. Alzaidi (2008b) found that the lower level of autonomy negatively affected job satisfaction and willingness to take on responsibilities. Alsahli (2000) argued that positive outcomes could be achieved when authority was linked to responsibilities. According to all of the interviewees, Saudi headteachers need to have more authority to manage their school better and more effectively. Thus, it can be argued that devolving authority to school leaders is essential for the introduction of a more flexible approach to education management in Saudi Arabia.

6.5.4   Lack of discipline

Another significant challenge the interviewees reported was school discipline. Nearly half of the interviewees mentioned that they had identified a lack of discipline among teachers and students at their schools. This situation can be explained in various ways. On the one hand, headteachers have a responsibility to show that they are in charge of the school. Bennett (1997) argued that a significant headteacher behaviour found in well-disciplined schools is visibility. Bennett (1997) also concluded that effective headteachers are liked and respected, not feared; moreover, teachers have a close relationship with the headteacher. Lastly, a schoolwide discipline policy with written

rules and regulations exists (Bennett, 1997). Although the MoE in Saudi Arabia provides a schoolwide discipline policy and guidelines, according to the interviewees, teachers and students do not respect the rules in Saudi schools, suggesting that previous headteachers of these schools failed to maintain an acceptable level of discipline. Some interviewees had already implemented policies and strategies to overcome disciplinary issues in their schools. For example, one headteacher took a problem-solving approach by collecting information from students and parents to understand what needed to be changed in terms of improving school discipline.

Another significant discipline issue the headteachers identified was absenteeism. Evidence from interviewees suggested that both teachers and students were regularly absent for school. Indeed, one interviewee described school discipline as a "big mess". If teachers' attendance is low, then students will miss their lessons while headteachers struggle to find someone to cover for the absent teachers. Miller, Murnane, and Willett (2008) found that teachers are the most important factor determining students' academic achievements. Miller*et al*. (2008) further asserted that increased teacher absence can negatively impact students' academic success. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) argued that shaping an effective and strong school culture is a primary responsibility of a school principal. Headteachers should believe that it is important to focus on improving teaching and learning if they want their schools to be successful (Leithwood et al., 2008). Therefore, well-disciplined schools and academic success are correlated, but it seems that Saudi headteachers need to work harder to establish discipline in their schools.

6.5.5 Inadequate understanding of the local school community background

Students and teachers have different personalities, beliefs, and attitudes, even in the school community, meaning that understanding teachers' and students' cultural

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backgrounds is important for headteachers. In fact, nearly all the survey participants highlighted the importance of having a close relationship with local authorities. Similarly, nearly all the survey respondents agreed that it was important to have an understanding of pupils' backgrounds for effective leadership. Yet the interviewees reported that they did not have adequate awareness of the students' and teachers' backgrounds. Alotaibi's (2016) study might explain why the headteachers did not have access to some information about their students. He found that parents are very uncooperative when it comes to talking about their children's problems due to cultural issues (for example, close ties, familial bonds, and tribal traditions), which make the confidentiality of students' problems significant. This seems to be a problem because it is important to have background knowledge about a community's culture for several reasons. First, it can help the headteacher reduce conflict by creating a better understanding and relationships between the headteacher and teachers. In addition, understanding students' background is important for managing their discipline issues as well as interest in and attitude towards learning. Khalsa (2007) argued that knowing students' background and interests is an important strategy for lessons and effective classroom management. Therefore, it is essential for headteachers to develop positive working relationships with parents, students, and teachers to improve the quality of education in their schools.

6.6   Summary

This chapter has critically discussed the findings of the study discussed in Chapter V in relation to the relevant theoretical ideas and literature set out in Chapter III. The key points of this chapter are summarised as follows:

(i)   The headteachers achieved their position due to a belief that they can lead a school and their confidence in their knowledge and skills to manage a school

effectively, a desire to seek new challenges, and the external pressure on some headteachers to accept the role of headship. The headteachers gained support from three sources: family, former headteachers, and colleagues.

(ii)   The headteachers developed their leadership knowledge and skills either before or after taking up the role of headship through formal and informal activities such as attending the TQCNH, coaching, modelling, and learning from experiences.

(iii)   Working alongside a headteacher helped construct their professional identity and enabled them to transition effectively from their previous role to the current one as a headteacher. Furthermore, they learned through various processes, such as situated learning, observational learning, and lived experiences.

(iv)   Despite their formal training and workplace learning, the headteachers faced many challenges on the job, including resistance to change, budgetary constraints, limited basic authority, a lack of discipline, and an inadequate understanding of school culture. Overcoming these challenges could enhance their effectiveness as school leaders.

Therefore, the effectiveness of newly appointed headteachers' preparation and their continuous professional development may depend on various factors as suggested in the following chapter. Chapter VII will then summarise the key findings, provide answers to the main research question, and consider the original contribution to the knowledge, implications for practice, and limitations of the study. Finally, it will suggest some recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER VII – CONCLUSION

7.1   Introduction

This chapter provides concluding remarks on the whole thesis. It begins with a summary of the findings and offers answers to the main research question (Section 7.2) as well as each research sub-question (sub-Sections 7.2.1 through 7.2.4). The originality of this research will then be discussed (Section 7.3) before the limitations of the study are considered (Section 7.4). Implications of the findings for the future practice of leadership development are discussed (Section 7.5). Lastly, several recommendations are offered for future research related to this topic (Section 7.6).

7.2   Summary of Findings

This section provides answers to the main research question: "To what extent is the leadership development of female headteachers effective for those working in state secondary schools (for female students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia?"

Leadership development involves facilitating individuals' in-depth awareness of how they can lead in an organisation and understanding of what it takes to be a leader (Sessa, 2017). According to Bolam (2003), it is a continuous process of learning through such activities as education, training, and ongoing learning at the workplace, from structured education programmes, and through informal interaction with colleagues. In this context, teacher and deputy headteacher learning opportunities are considered effective for headteacher development.

The study found that the majority of the headteachers had a strong desire to engage in professional development; more than half learned leadership skills from previous work

as a deputy headteacher and also benefited from work-based learning from their former headteachers. As they had worked in schools, all these headteachers could develop their leadership skills through work-based learning. In fact, two headteachers made explicit reference to how they had learned from working with previous headteachers. Yet this does not mean that the others in the sample did not learn anything; maybe they learned what they could avoid doing if they were headteachers in the future because they had observed poor role models in the past. This suggests that learning is a social process as advocated by Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. The interactions between the headteachers and teachers in schools provide opportunities for potential leaders to form their social identities through group affiliations (Ibarra, 1999).

In addition to work-based learning, headteachers are supposed to complete the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers (TQCNH), but not all participants had done so at the time of this study. According to the survey findings, these courses supported headteachers in applying regulatory and procedural guidelines as well as ICT in school organisations. Information gleaned from the courses included how to improve the quality of school leadership, strengthen school administration, deal with family problems that may impact students' academic outcomes and behaviour, conduct strategic planning for school development, build good relationships and cooperate with staff, and carry out internal audits and school discipline. However, the majority of headteachers felt that the TQCNH failed to offer them opportunities to share experiences with more experienced headteachers. This type of formal learning not only empowers headteachers in terms of allocating resources, evaluating school performance, and managing curriculum (Manaseh, 2016), but also enables them to develop themselves as knowledgeable and effective school leaders (Kennedy, 2007). The training offered through the TQCNH can be situated within social constructivism. For example,

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Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development suggested that novices can learn from interacting with a more experienced person, and the TQCNH provided information regarding experienced supervisors' efforts to manage and lead schools; these supervisors were working in the Educational Leadership Department of education offices, helping newly appointed headteachers develop themselves and form their identity. As new headteachers attending the TQCNH have had different experiences, those from classroom teaching background could benefit from those experienced as deputy headteachers.

Although three-quarters of the headteachers had received leadership development opportunities through coaching, the majority of the them did not have any mentoring practice in their schools. Professional development through these learning methods can be theorised by a social constructivist approach to learning (Kalainoff & Clark, 2017) because both help headteachers construct learning themselves. Although applying coaching and mentoring in Saudi Arabia might face certain limitations (see Section 6.3.1.1), the MoE needs to focus more attention on these strategies as they are effective learning methods. Furthermore, as part of leadership development, headteachers reported reading books, such as books about the Prophet Mohammed's leadership behaviours, to improve their knowledge on leadership in an Islamic context. Richards and Farrell (2005) argued that teachers need to be constantly engaged in reading for new knowledge in their specialised area. Furthermore, Sessa (2017) stated that leadership involves having an in-depth understanding of knowing how to lead and putting this knowledge into practice. However, Pollard (2008) argued that headteachers can also use other informal learning methods to boost their professional development, such as reflective practice. Thus, reading often generates a superficial awareness of the issues, but it is not sufficient for all of headteachers' needs; they also need direct experience that gives them a clear understanding of what being a headteacher might entail.

Based on the analysis thus far, although female headteachers in Saudi Arabia have access to many leadership development activities, including work-based learning activities, formal structured programmes, and informal learning, such leadership development for those working in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia is effective only to a certain extent. For example, respondents suggested several improvements to the TQCNH (see Section 5.4.2), and most agreed that the level of leadership preparation is not adequate as they stressed the importance of gradation on the career ladder (see Section 6.4.2). Therefore, the following sections provide answers to the research sub-questions, beginning with the findings related to the first research sub-question about the motivational aspects of leadership development.

7.2.1 Motivational aspects of leadership development

As mentioned in the chapter on motivational aspects (Chapter VI), this study explored research participants' motivation to become the head of a school and the support they received as a headteacher. This section answers the first research sub-question: *RSQ1. What encouraged secondary school headteachers to apply for headship?*

Figure 7.1 illustrates the two main aspects this study identified: motivation and support. Although motivational factors encouraged some teachers to become headteachers, others accepted the headship based on the level of support they received during the leadership application process.
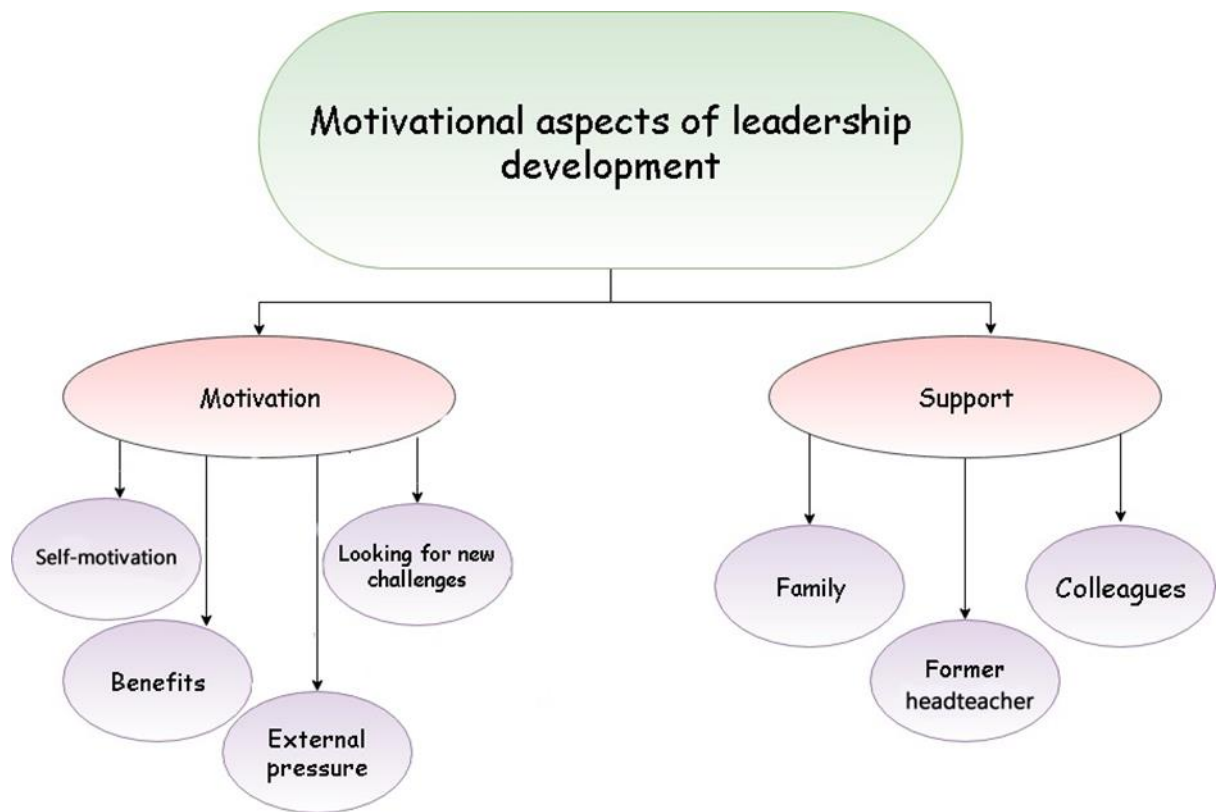
Figure 7.1   Motivational Aspects that Encouraged Headteachers to Accept Headship

Some headteachers were self-motivated to become headteachers. Self- motivation can be explained using achievement goal theory (Kaplan & Patrick, 2016), which postulates that individuals' beliefs about their ability and purpose play an essential role in making a strategic decision, such as becoming a headteacher. The survey results suggested that most of the headteachers believed in their abilities to lead schools successfully and that their contribution to the education sector while in this position would be valuable. In other words, female secondary school headteachers' self-efficacy greatly influenced their decision to accept a school leadership position. Self-efficacy is important for positive psychology (Bandura, 1977). In his social learning theory, Bandura (1977) argued that a positive self-belief of one's capability enhances the chances of success. The majority of the survey respondents also agreed or strongly agreed that the school's vision can be an

important factor when deciding to take up the school headship position. In this sense, Leithwood and Riehl (2005) pointed out the importance of vision in leading an organisation effectively.

Looking for new challenges was another motivational factor for some of the headteachers, which is linked to intrinsic motivation, or individuals' inclination to take new challenges (Whitaker et al., 2009). Challenging work is a motivator because it encourages individuals to act on their inherent interest through which they can develop their knowledge and skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Such a situation indicates that the main reasons for doing the job are to enjoy working, seek more opportunities for learning, further develop their skills, and actualise their potential (Gkorezis & Kastritsi, 2017), instead of seeking to achieve any external rewards. Some headteachers further clarified that boredom with classroom teaching drove them to take up a new challenge by applying for the headship position. In this sense, Gkorezis and Kastritsi (2017) found that work-related boredom and unmet needs cause people to look for more challenging work.

The perceived benefits that the headteachers might gain were considerable motivational factors for their decision to accept headship roles. Almost all headteachers thought they would get non-monetary benefits (e.g., the ability to implement their vision for the school, status, and recognition). Thomas (2010) linked the perceived benefits to the willingness to take up new roles with more responsibilities. However, non-monetary rewards and benefits such as having the authority to make decisions (within the limited authority enshrined within their headship role) seemed to be greater motivators for the research participants, which was consistent with Friedman et al.'s (2008) work. As mentioned in Section 6.2.1.2, headteachers in this study did not associate their new role with monetary benefits because headteachers in Saudi Arabia receive no additional pay incentive, although they enjoy non-financial benefits, such as taking up new challenges in

education. This view is consistent with the identity construction and development of headteachers. Crow and Moller (2017) suggested that most novice headteachers' identities are "located in time, space and place, and emotions reflect complex leadership identities situated within social hierarchies which are part of wider structures and social relations of power and control" (p. 265). Hence, non-monetary rewards can be an influential force for aspiring headteachers to take up the role of headship.

Surprisingly, it seemed that some headteachers accepted school headship because of some external pressure. One participant stated that a gradated career ladder would be best, but she was offered to take up the headship directly and felt forced her to accept it because she did not want to be seen as applying for a deputy headteacher to get rid of the burden of teaching even though she did not have the capabilities and leadership skills to lead a secondary school. Some headteachers in Saudi Arabia also felt forced to accept the headship role because of the pledge they took when becoming deputy headteachers. Some authors have recognised that external pressure may sometimes be a significant reason to accept new challenges (Ankli & Palliam, 2012). However, one can argue that deputy headteachers should not be pressured or pledge to accept the headship position; instead, it might be better applying succession planning in schools (see Section 6.2.1.4).

In addition to motivational factors, support from family, former headteachers, and colleagues played an important role in taking the decision to accept the headship role. Thomas et al. (2003) argued that family support is vital for headteachers' job satisfaction and success. Although most headteachers were not encouraged by their previous headteachers and their colleagues to accept the role of headship, they recognised family support as the most valuable support they received when applying for headship. This result may reflect the nature of the culture of Saudi society and the importance of the role of the family (see Section 6.2.2.1). However, not all headteachers were supported by their

families; some faced cultural expectations about taking care of their children and husbands, for example, as a constraint in terms of being able to devote themselves to leadership preparation and developing their own expertise in post. Such constraints led to increased pressure to manage their time effectively between their work at school and their home lives. Jones (2016) claimed that such discouragement from family may affect female headteachers' performance.

Regarding previous headteachers' and colleagues' support, this study found that two-thirds of the survey respondents and about half of the interviewees agreed that their predecessors helped them become headteachers. Learning from role models helps individuals construct their professional identity (Kempster, 2006). According to observational learning theory (Bandura, 1986), people's behaviour is influenced by their role models. In addition, although half of the survey respondents received support from their peers during their headship application process, the majority did not receive colleagues' encouragement to become a headteacher. Day (2005) claimed that work colleagues' support is vital for a headteacher to be successful. However, newly appointed headteachers need to be aware of the limitations of professional friends' support when new changes are introduced (see Section 6.2.2.3).

Based on the results and analysis, self-motivation, the desire for new challenges, the perceived benefits, and external pressure as well as support from family, former headteachers, and colleagues can encourage secondary school headteachers to apply for headship. The next section provides the findings related to the second research sub-question in terms of the leadership development opportunities that secondary school headteachers gained both before taking up the role of headship and while they were in post.

7.2.2   Leadership development

This section provides answers to the second research sub-question: *RSQ2. What leadership development opportunities did headteachers take advantage of (i) before taking up the role of headship and (ii) while they were in post?*

(i)Before taking up the role of headship

Manaseh (2016) argued that professional development activities are a vehicle for encouraging career promotion as more skills can be gained through both formal and informal training. However, the majority of the interviewed headteachers and more than one-third of the survey respondents had never worked as a deputy headteacher, meaning they missed the opportunity to benefit from this role and, therefore, were unable to attend the TQCNH courses before taking up the role. Therefore, participants who worked directly as a headteacher did not gain real opportunities to develop their leadership knowledge and skills. Still, teachers can take advantage of the experience gleaned from teaching before taking up a leadership position. For example, one headteacher taught English for 25 years before becoming a headteacher; another taught physics for 17 years. Their knowledge of teaching played a significant role in their ability to lead the school because delivering the curriculum and improving students' academic outcomes are two of the most important functions of schools. In addition, the majority of headteachers enhanced their professional skills through reading, and a few of them gained benefitted from job shadowing and coaching approaches. Kempster (2006) argued that the experience of observing a headteacher at work can be very helpful in terms of learning about being a headteacher as well as developing identity. Yet the findings from this research indicated that previous work as a deputy headteacher remained the most valuable

and useful practise while also giving headteachers the confidence to take up a headship role.

(ii) While headteachers were in post

It is important that headteachers have opportunities for continuous professional development. They can achieve such development in two ways: informal learning and formal training. In terms of formal learning, the majority of the headteachers took advantage of the TQCNH courses. The respondents reported that they also received the necessary information, interacted with other new headteachers, and exchanged views through this TQCNH programme. For example, applying regulatory and procedural guidelines was highly valuable for the interviewees in this study. However, the TQCNH was an exercise of transmitting information to newly appointed headteachers rather than providing an engaged learning experience. Kempster (2006) argued that many formal education programmes do not offer such opportunities to gain practical experience. The delivery of the sessions was instructor-centred, whereas constructivists advocate for a more learner-centred approach (Harasim, 2017).

In addition to benefiting from formal learning such as TQCNH courses, networking was perceived to be one of the most useful approaches in developing the headteachers' leadership knowledge and understanding. Almost all headteachers exchanged experiences and knowledge with other newly appointed headteachers through networking. Networking is particularly useful for headteachers because it enables them to interact with other headteachers and gain professional assistance in resolving school-related issues (Coetzee, 2009). However, headteachers believed that involving experienced headteachers in the TQCNH would further contribute to their educational leadership knowledge. In this sense, Coetzee (2009) argued that networking is a very

valuable strategy for headteachers' ongoing professional development because it allows for face-to-face discussion.

Figure 7.2 offers a diagrammatic representation of what has emerged from the findings in terms of answering the second research sub-question.

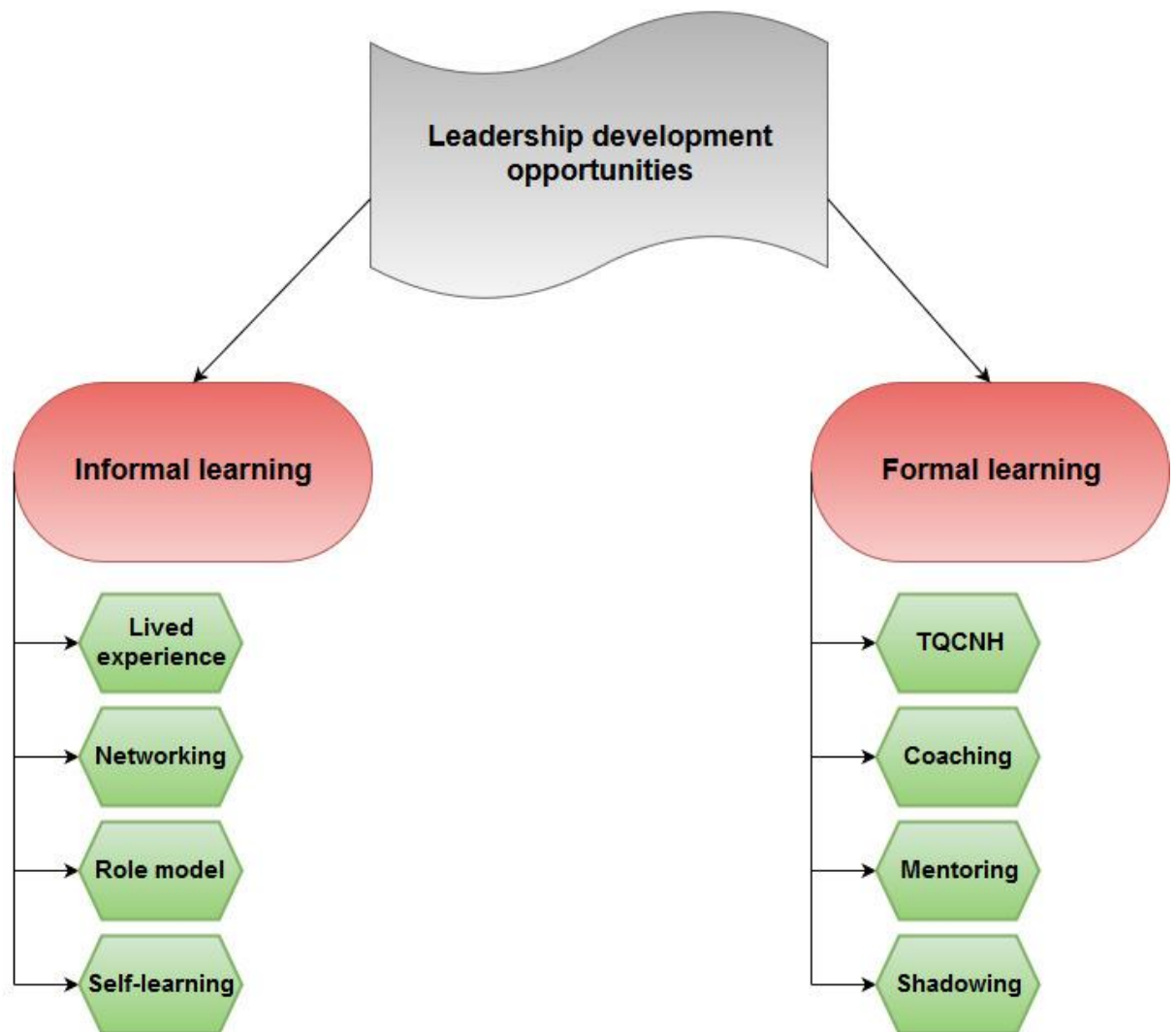*Figure 7.2*   Leadership Development Strategies for Headteachers

Figure 7.2 shows a range of leadership development strategies for headteachers. Learning from both prior professional experiences and professional experiences while in post was derived from multiple sources, both formal and informal. As Figure 7.2 indicates, self-learning (e.g., reading), networking, and learning from experiences (e.g., being a

classroom teacher/deputy headteacher) are examples for the informal learning methods whereas formal professional experiences were gained by attending the TQCNH, job shadowing, coaching, and mentoring. Some leadership development strategies (e.g., reading and learning from experiences) do not stop once a headteacher is appointed. Thus, this model suggests that headteacher development is not a one-off activity, but rather a continuous process beginning with becoming a teacher and continuing even after being appointed as a headteacher. This implies that headteachers are potential lifelong learners, seeking knowledge and leadership skills to improve the quality of education in their schools. Furthermore, the model indicates that the headteacher herself needs to play an active role in constructing learning, perhaps through networking and shared learning and continuous reading about the latest research on school management as well as personal development. However, this model does not include all the methods that headteachers can use to enhance their understanding of leadership knowledge and skills; rather, it highlights some of the important techniques and tools they can employ when approaching leadership responsibilities.

The next section discusses the findings related to the third research sub-question regarding headteachers' transition to the headship position.

7.2.3 Transition to headship

This section is focussed on what has been discovered in relation to the third research sub-question: *RSQ3. How effective was the headteachers' transition when they moved from (i) deputy headteacher to headteacher or (ii) classroom teacher to headteacher?*

From a Western perspective (e.g., England), teachers must cross several rungs to reach the headship position, which include earning a qualified teacher status, having to lead a group of teachers, becoming a supervisor and then an assistant/deputy headteacher before

leading the school. However, based on the results of this study, Saudi Arabia offers two routes for teachers to become a headteacher: straight from teaching to leading a school or working as a deputy headteacher before being promoted.

Within these two systems of transition, the latter seems to be more likely to produce successful headteachers because deputy headteachers would be working with the headteachers and involved in decision-making in schools rather than spending most of the time in the classroom teaching. In fact, some respondents reported that they learned from their former headteachers, acquiring the skills and knowledge necessary to lead their schools. Others also developed their aspirations to become a headteacher from their role as deputy headteacher. Such experience might enhance headteachers' identity formation (Moorosi, 2014) because it enables them to develop a more realistic view of leadership. As previously mentioned, based on Bandura's (1986) theory of observational learning, a role model influences the behaviour of people in a society. Therefore, headteachers might construct their new social and role identity with more knowledge and experience gained from role models (Ibarra, 1999).

On the other hand, headteachers who were promoted to lead directly from classroom teaching seemed to be an ineffective system. The primary reason for this argument is that a gradient approach to career progression can help teachers gain adequate experience and learn sufficient skills to run a school. The transition from teaching to leading a school is very challenging because classroom teachers are only concerned with their own teaching and learning whereas headteachers are responsible for the whole school and all its stakeholders as well as developing good working relationships with all staff, parents, and local employers. In fact, two headteachers explicitly admitted that they did not have any ideas about school leadership or administration prior to their appointment. Those headteachers who moved from teaching to headship agreed that their preparation for

leadership was self-taught. They were still learning from their actions and mistakes, which they believed would continue to redefine their identities as headteachers because developing new knowledge and skills through social interaction can create a new professional identity for headteachers.

However, whether following the first route or the second, the general conclusion from the data analysis is that headteachers found their transition process to be difficult and challenging because they depended on self-directed learning, colleagues' support, and lived experiences to progress with their new responsibilities. For Kempster (2006), these headteachers are leadership apprenticeships, and he argued that situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) plays an important role in making them effective. Therefore, both transition paths are challenging for female secondary school headteachers mainly due to the lack of training provided to them prior to being appointed. Indeed, the MoE's 'fast-track' appointment of headteachers contributed to add more unqualified headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

The following section discusses the findings related to the fourth research sub-question in terms of the challenges that headteachers faced during their early years of headship.

7.2.4   Challenges during early headship

This section discusses what has emerged from the data relevant to the fourth research sub-question: *RSQ4. What were the main challenges that secondary headteachers faced during early headship?*

Figure 7.3 illustrates the key challenges faced by newly appointed headteachers. One of the most significant challenges was resistance to change. All headteachers in this study agreed that effective school leadership is possible with coordination and cooperation

between staff members. However, headteachers should not expect 100% cooperation from staff because schools are complex systems with people of different personalities and backgrounds. Theories of organisational change, such as resistance to change, have suggested that new policies and methods of working create resistance, making it harder for headteachers to implement new ideas (Gulati et al., 2016). Some teachers may resist because they think that the new initiatives are unnecessary (Zimmerman, 2006). Therefore, if teachers and other stakeholders, including students and parents, are uncooperative, then managing a school may become a difficult job, partly because of the complex relationships among these stakeholders (Morrison, 2008).
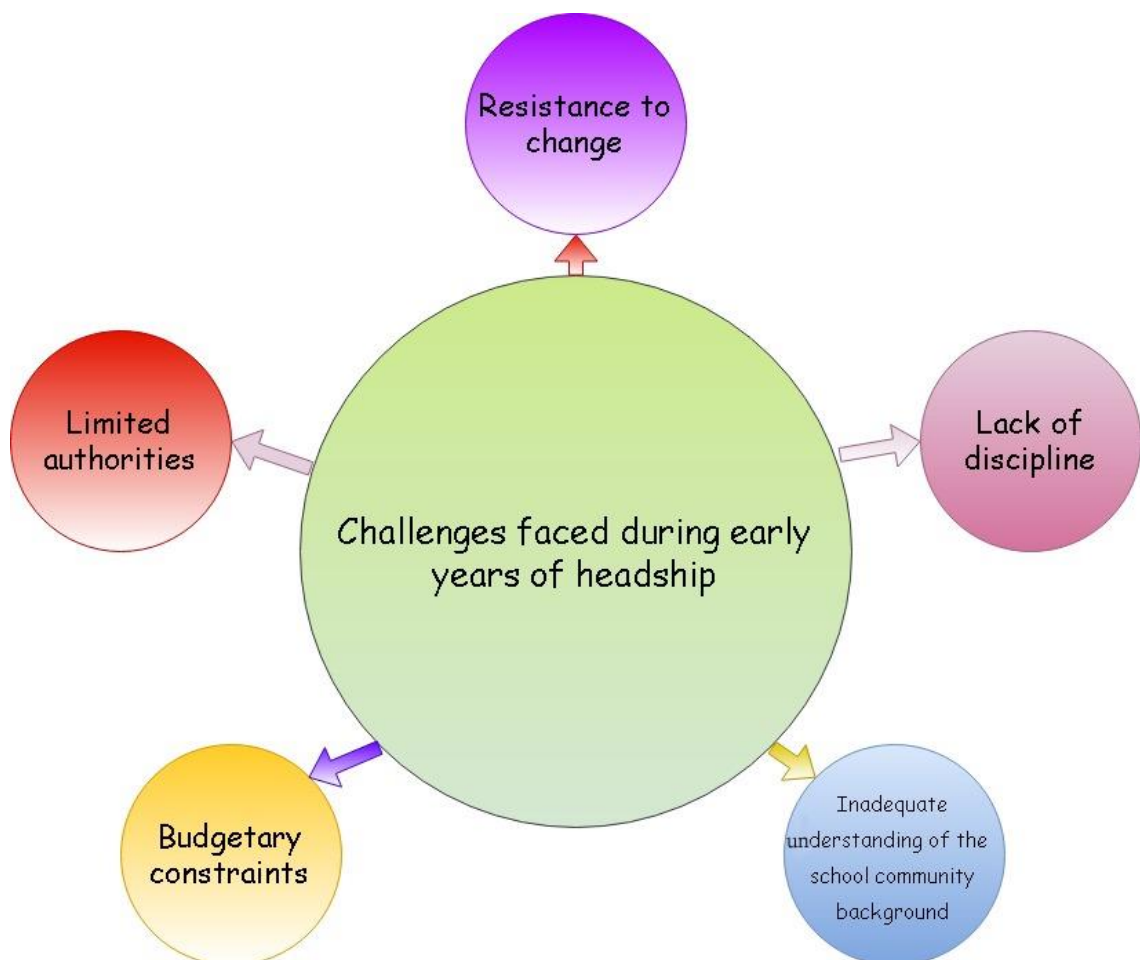
Figure 7.3   Challenges that Headteachers Faced During Early Years of Headship

Another significant challenge for headteachers is the lack of discipline among students and teachers. Three out of seven interviewees agreed that school discipline among students and teachers is one issue that creates stress for headteachers. Absenteeism (both students and teachers being absent) is one of the major disciplinary problems interviewees identified (see Section 6.5.4). The effectiveness of school discipline relies on many factors, such as the creation of clear policies governing behaviour in school, students, and a compliance procedure for staff who understand the consequences of not being in school without authorised reason as well as the implementation of classroom-level behaviour policies which are adhered to by every staff member. In addition, school discipline is related to the effectiveness of the headteacher. Fewer disciplinary issues occur when headteachers develop close relationships with teachers and students (Bennett, 1997) and enhance positive school culture (Miller et al., 2008) when headteachers adopt a significant focus on continuously improving teaching and learning (Leithwood et al., 2008). The lack of perceived discipline within a school can also be related to poor understanding of the school community and background. Therefore, the expressed issues of school discipline can be tied to headteachers' leadership and management knowledge, skills, and experience.

Limited authority was another challenge respondents identified. All interviewees mentioned their unhappiness about the level of authority associated with school headship. Mathis (2010) arrived at the same conclusion in the context of Saudi headteachers. This is related to the theory of autonomy: low-level autonomy leads to dissatisfaction and an unwillingness to take on responsibilities (Alzaidi, 2008b). Headteachers not only depend on their superiors to make decisions, but also face budgetary constraints when running schools. Although giving autonomy is important, so is having adequate resources, including financial support, to run the school effectively. Yet some interviewees reported

that school budgets were delayed for months, making it hard for headteachers to provide teachers with the necessary materials. Therefore, resistance to change, lack of discipline, limited authorities, and budgetary constraints are major challenges facing female secondary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

7.3   Original contributions to knowledge

This research makes five specific contributions to knowledge:

1. The scope and depth of the study make its contribution to knowledge original. It is the first study to investigate the reality of the preparation and leadership development of a specific category of female secondary school headteachers whose service has not exceeded five years. Previous studies within the Saudi context (e.g., Aldarweesh, 2003; Badawood, 2003) examined the leadership models of headteachers and the corresponding teacher perceptions on these leadership models.

2. This study not only confirmed the results of the previous scope-limited studies conducted in the area of leadership in Saudi Arabia (e.g., Mathis, 2010; Alsharari, 2010), but also provided autonomous insights into Saudi headteachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of their leadership development opportunities both before and after the role of headship—something not yet done in the Saudi context. By understanding headteachers' perspectives, the study highlighted strengths and weaknesses not only in selecting them, but also in their professional development both before and after the post.

3. Teachers in Saudi Arabia are sometimes appointed as headteachers, but this research highlighted the need to prepare and develop them before they are put in headship positions. One way in which this study added to the existing body

of research in leadership development among headteachers is that it stressed the need to provide leadership development opportunities for teachers through systematic professional development and school-based learning in order to ensure a smooth transition to headship.

4. With regard to its theoretical contribution, this study adopted the interpretive approach and was located in the theories of learning, especially within constructivism, including situated learning, experiential learning, and observational learning to understand the concepts introduced by these theories and give meaning to the study findings. These valuable theories benefited the study because of its link to learning and development and interactions between school headteachers and other stakeholders. For example, constructivist ideas emphasise putting learners at the centre of the learning process.

7.4 Limitations of the study

This section highlights six limitations of this study.

(i) Scope of the study and sampling

The scope of the study was limited to understanding the views of some practicing female secondary school headteachers, excluding deputy headteachers and teachers in the same school as the headteachers. However, new knowledge was generated through a sample of 42 headteachers who completed the questionnaire as well as seven female headteachers who consented to participate in an interview. The study involved only female secondary schools headteachers in a highly populated area in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, disregarding other cities and rural or suburban schools. Therefore, the views expressed by the participating headteachers may differ from those in more remote schools. In

addition, the researcher avoided involving officials from both the MoE and education offices, because the possible results might be seen as indirect criticism of the MoE's policy, which might have led to the MoE's refusal to allow the study to be conducted.

(ii) Conducting the questionnaire and the interviews in Arabic

This study was conducted in Saudi Arabia, where Arabic is the official language. Therefore, the researcher distributed the questionnaire and conducted the interviews in Arabic to ensure that the headteachers could express themselves better. The researcher then translated the data into English and used an Arabic–English expert to check the translated transcripts. Ways to reduce the risk that might lead to bias from using Arabic in this study were mentioned in Chapter IV (Section 4.6.2).

(iii) Selection of headteachers for interview

The sampling method used was purposive, with the researchers' own judgement of case selection. The selection of headteachers for interview was based on the convenience of their availability. However, the researcher made efforts to include headteachers from a variety of education offices and with a wide range of experience.

(iv) School size

The study did not cover the impact of school size on leadership. The researcher did not ask the participants whether large schools affected headteachers' responsibilities in terms of effective headship. This is a potential area for further analysis as the size of the school obviously increases headteachers' leadership challenges. Indeed, the problems related to large schools may differ from those related to small schools.

(v) Research theories

The theories used to back up the arguments made herein may not be sufficient because other theories could have been applied to explain different concepts used in this research. For example, organisational socialisation theory would have been relevant to the present study because it explains the importance of knowledge, skills, and experience in order to enact the headship role effectively. This theory also emphasises the accumulation of personal experience related to schooling, working with former headteachers, and gaining practical experience in school leadership's management tasks.

(vi) Inability to generalise

A small number of headteachers was involved in this study to gain in-depth insights into the views of female headteachers regarding the effectiveness of their preparation and the leadership development they receive to carry out their role. However, the relatively small sample makes it harder to generalise the findings across the country. This lack of generalisation means the findings can only be relevant to the context in which the study was undertaken. Despite this, the study gives a vivid picture of some common issues, such as the lack of professional development opportunities for headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

7.5   Implications for practice

This section highlights some implications for headteachers and educational planners.

7.5.1   Implications for headteachers

The study results suggest the following five implications for headteachers:

1. It is essential that headteachers seek to develop themselves professionally on an ongoing basis through all means and possibilities available, whether formal or informal. This will help develop headteachers' professional identity along with their leadership.

2. New headteachers need to take advantage of opportunities to interact with more knowledgeable and experienced headteachers to learn from them.

3. It is important that newly appointed headteachers learn how to go about managing change or gain relevant experience by being a deputy headteacher before they introduce and implement new changes in the school.

4. It is essential that headteachers give aspiring teachers an opportunity to take advantage from leadership development approaches, such as job shadowing and observation, and motivate them to improve their knowledge and skills.

5. Headteachers in Saudi Arabia need to be more aware of the importance of using distributed leadership to encourage a culture of collective responsibility in schools.

7.5.2 Implications for educational planners

The headteachers who participated in this study argued that they need more leadership development opportunities focused on the development needs of individual headteachers. Therefore, school-based leadership development strategies such as coaching, mentoring, and job shadowing should be carried out systematically. This can help teachers learn from their headteachers, enabling the government to build a pool of future headteachers.

Evidence from this study also demonstrated that delayed budgets was a serious problem facing headteachers. Therefore, the MoE needs to improve its own efficiency by ensuring that the annual budget is provided to schools prior to the start of the academic year.

Although all the participating headteachers recommended attending the TQCNH, they suggested that trainers in this course be more appropriately qualified. In addition, the TQCNH should involve experienced headteachers.

Although informal learning methods such as reading and postgraduate studies have helped new headteachers acquire knowledge, previous experiences (e.g., as deputy headteachers) played a major role in facilitating the transition to the role of headship. Evidence from this study indicated that headteachers in Saudi Arabia were appointed directly from classroom teaching or even without any experience in the education field. However, the participants stressed the importance of gradation on a career ladder (teacher, deputy headteacher, then headteacher). During these career stages, a headteacher's professional identity is shaped via numerous professional experiences over time, thereby preparing the individual to take up the role.

The level of authority given to headteachers in Saudi schools seems to be insufficient, as responsibilities are imposed through bureaucratic means. The level of autonomy is considerably lower than the roles and responsibilities to be enacted; hence, teachers do not have a strong feeling of being accountable to their superiors. If the education sector in Saudi Arabia were to bring in results-based performance management, the leaders, managers, and employees in this sector would be empowered, and management needs would have a more flexible approach to managing schools. Also, cultural differences should be considered as schools are not a 'one-size-fits-all' facility. Thus, headteachers in Saudi Arabia need to be granted more authority to run their schools effectively.

The evidence also suggested that insufficient preparation and training are provided to those appointed to the leadership position in the secondary school system in Saudi Arabia. Although headteachers continuously learn from their actions and mistakes, courses such as TQCNH are inadequate for preparing them and developing their leadership skills. For this reason and based on the evidence from this study, future practices in leadership development need to be different from the current seemingly ineffective ones. In this context, it may be a good idea for educational policy makers to use Bush's (2018) model for leadership preparation and induction (see Table 3.1, Section 3.7.1).

Bush's model suggested a five-stage process, beginning with succession planning, to identify talents among teachers. Although some limitations in applying succession planning in schools in Saudi Arabia might exist (see Section 6.2.1.4), this stage is practiced to some extent. Some participating teachers had been identified by their headteachers or their school's supervisors as suitable candidates for future leaders, but this occurred only shortly before they were appointed headteacher. The failure to identify talents with sufficient time limits the success in achieving the second stage, which involves developing leadership skills once the talent is identified.

In addition, the recruitment and selection of headteachers should focus on qualified candidates who meet the needs of the school, rather than the educational officials' perceptions of candidates or teachers' aspirations to lead a school without considering leadership knowledge and skills. This is practised in Saudi Arabia, where the process focuses on aspirations, motivation, and support from others. Evidence from this study further indicated the importance of applying succession planning in Saudi Arabia because of the pledge deputy headteachers make. Deputy headteachers should not be forced to accept a headship position because of a pledge made when becoming a deputy.

Bush's model also suggested using induction and providing continuous in-service development, making leadership development a life-long career development activity. This study found that the transition to the headship position was difficult, and there is a need to activate professional development continuously and more effectively. Future practice in leadership development needs to be inspired by the idea of continuous professional learning for teachers. Indeed, addressing the issues related to female headteachers should be a priority for policymakers in Saudi Arabia.

7.6 Recommendations for future research

This study has identified five areas as possible directions for future studies:

1. This research aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development of headteachers both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post in Saudi Arabia. It would be useful to compare the results with those of other rural areas in the kingdom to identify any similarities or differences.

2. This study included only state schools; therefore, it would be useful to compare the findings of these schools with those from private schools in Saudi Arabia to identify any similarities or differences.

3. Another area that might be worthy of research attention is the role of education offices in selecting, preparing, and developing teachers for headship from the perspectives of educational supervisors who work in these offices.

4. A study could be conducted on boys' state secondary schools in a highly populated area in Saudi Arabia to compare the arrangement of leadership development of male headteachers with the findings of this study.

5. Multi-perspective studies could be carried out at primary and intermediate schools around the country and include teachers and deputy headteachers to get their perceptions on leadership development opportunities in Saudi Arabia.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A Permission to Conduct the Study from Reading University

University of Reading

Head of Doctoral Research Office
Mr Jonathan Lloyd, BSc

Graduate School

Old Whiteknights House
Whiteknights, PO Box 217
Reading RG6 6AH

phone +44 (0)118 378 4741/4740
email dro@reading.ac.uk

22 September 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that the following student is registered at this University for the course as stated below:

Name: Wafa Saad ALSHAMRANI

Student Record Number: 21824328

Course: Education PhD

Mode of Attendance: Full-time

Department: Institute Of Education

Registration Date: 22 September 2014

Expected Submission Date: 21 September 2017

Latest Submission Date: 21 September 2018

JACS Code: X300

Degree Awarding Body:
                                               The University of Reading

The University has approved a leave of absence for this student to complete fieldwork as part of her PhD studies in Saudi Arabia from 16 December 2016 to 16 March 2017. The Research Title is: An evaluation of the effectiveness of the preparation and professional development of female head teachers in state girls' schools in the K.S.A.

Jonathan Lloyd
Head of Doctoral Research Office
Graduate School

LIMITLESS **POTENTIAL** | LIMITLESS **AMBITION** | LIMITLESS **IMPACT**

Appendix B Information Sheet and Consent Form

Researcher: Mrs Wafa Alshamrani
w.s.s.alshamrani@pgr.reading.ac.uk
Phone No.********

Supervisors: Dr.Chris Turner,
c.k.turner@reading.ac.uk
Dr. Tony Macfadyen,
t.m.macfadyen@reading.ac.uk

Headteacher Information Sheet

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study examining the leadership development of female headteachers who have been in their posts for five years or less.

What is the study?
The researcher is conducting a study entitled "An investigation into the effectiveness of the leadership development of female headteachers working in girls' state secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia" as a requirement for a doctorate in Educational Leadership and Management from the Institute of Education at University of Reading, United Kingdom. This study aims to gain in-depth insights into the views of female headteachers working in girls' state secondary schools (students 15–18 years old) in Saudi Arabia regarding the effectiveness of the current arrangements for leadership development both before they accept a promotion to headship and while they are in post. By investigating such preparation and leadership development, the researcher will attempt to contribute to the discussion on ways to improve the preparation of aspiring headteachers as well as support them during their early headship. The study will invite all headteachers who have been in their posts for five years or less to complete a questionnaire. Semi-structured interviews will subsequently be conducted with 7 headteachers who give their consent to participate.

Why have I been chosen to take part?
You have been invited to take part in the project because you were identified as a headteacher at a girls' secondary school in **. All headteachers of secondary schools who have been in their posts for five years or less are being invited to take part in order to provide a sample of headteachers across a range of schools.

Do I have to take part?
It is entirely up to you whether you participate or not. You may also withdraw at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher using the details above.

What will happen if I take part?
You will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your preparation before becoming a headteacher and the leadership development opportunities that you receive in the early headship. This should take approximately 20 minutes to complete.
Additionally, and optionally, an interview lasting approximately 40 minutes will be conducted with you at a time convenient to you. During the interview, you will be asked

about further aspects of the professional preparation and in-service training of female headteachers. With your permission and by your choice, this interview will be recorded.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?
The information you provide will remain confidential and will only be seen by the researcher and her supervisors. You will not be identified in the final thesis, although

some of your responses will be used in it in an anonymised form. Taking part will in no way influence your career, and information will not be shared with others outside this research study.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and useful to take part in such studies. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for headteachers in highlighting what preparation and training they need. A copy of the findings of the study will be made available to you if you contact the researcher.

What will happen to the data?
Any data collected will be held in strict confidence, and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. All records associated with this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer; only the student researcher, Mrs Alshamrani, will have access to the records. The researcher's supervisors, Dr. Turner and Dr. Macfadyen, will have access to the transcripts. The data will be destroyed in a secure manner after 5 years. The data will be presented in my thesis and possibly in subsequent academic publications.

We do hope that you will agree to take part in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form. This application has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The university has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time

Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the study.

I understand what the purpose of the study is and what you want me to do. All my questions have been answered. I agree to take part in this study.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this study and that I can withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on me.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the Information Sheet. ☐

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to being interviewed   ☐

I consent the interview to be recorded and transcribed   ☐

Name of Headteacher: _____

Name of Secondary School: _____

Date: _____

Signed: _____

Researcher: Mrs Wafa Alshamrani

Email : w.s.s.alshamrani@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr. Chris Turner

c.k.turner@reading.ac.uk….

Appendix C The Questionnaire

Dear Headteacher

The researcher is conducting a study entitled "An investigation into the effectiveness of the leadership development of female headteachers working in girls' state secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia." as a requirement for a doctorate in Educational Leadership and Management from the Institute of Education at University of Reading, United Kingdom. This study aims to investigate the effectiveness of the current arrangements for the leadership development of female headteachers who have been in their posts for five years or less. By investigating such preparation and training, the researcher will attempt to contribute to the discussion on ways to improve the preparation of aspiring headteachers as well as support them during their early headship.

Your participation in this survey is much appreciated and your responses will be anonymous, strictly confidential and only be used in this research. Thank you in advance for taking the time to answer these questions.

The researcher: Wafa Alshamrani   Email: w.s.s.alshamrani@pgr.reading.ac.uk

 Phone No.**********

Are you a headteacher for a secondary girls' state school? Yes ☐ No☐

Have you been in your post as a headteacher for five years or less? Yes☐ No☐

Part A: General Information

1) Please write down your:

Name (optional): ----------------------

Age (optional): 25-30☐ 31-40☐ 41-45☐ 46-50☐ 51-55 ☐ 56+ ☐

School: ----------

Education Office: A☐ B☐ C☐ D☐ E☐ F☐ G☐ H☐ I☐

2) What is your most advanced qualification? (Please tick all applicable items)

Bachelor ☐ Master ☐ Doctorate ☐ Diploma ☐ Other-----------------------

3) How many years have you worked as a teacher?

----------------------- years.

4) Have you been a deputy headteacher?

Yes ☐   No ☐ If yes, for how long? -----------------------

5) How long have you been a headteacher?

----------------------- years.

6) How many students are in your school? ----------------------- Student.

Part B: Preparation

The following statements indicate decision regarding headship, please indicate to what extent these statements are applicable for you?

i) Decision for taking up headship	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1) My colleagues (e.g., teachers, deputy headteachers) gave me support in accepting the duties of headship.	ⵔ	ⵔ	ⵔ	ⵔ

2) My former headteacher did not encourage me to accept the role of headship.	◉	◉	◉	◉
3) My family supported me when taking up the role of headship.	◉	◉	◉	◉
4) The vision for the school is implemented and practised well when I took up the headship position.	◉	◉	◉	◉
5) I accepted this headship position because I believed that my contribution to the education sector while in this position would be valuable.	◉	◉	◉	◉
6) Benefits in this post encouraged me to take the headship.	◉	◉	◉	◉
7) There is an opportunity for social recognition in this headship position.	◉	◉	◉	◉
8) Other:				

The following statements indicate the readiness for taking up the post, please indicate to what extent these statements are applicable for you?

ii) Readiness for taking up the post	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not Applicable
1) The previous post of deputy headteacher gave me a valuable experience that prepared me for the position of headship.	O	O	O	O	O
2) I was ready to take on any task assigned in this headship post.	O	O	O	O	O
3) My personal desire for professional development (for example, postgraduate studies, seminars, reading) helped me prepare for the headship position.	O	O	O	O	O
4) I believe the knowledge and experience I have are sufficient for me to	O	O	O	O	O

lead the school effectively.					
5) I do not believe that I have the appropriate skills to lead the school effectively.	O	O	O	O	O
6) I need more training to meet the different requirements and needs of the post.	O	O	O	O	O
7) My work experience with the previous headteachers helped me develop my vision for the school.	O	O	O	O	O
8) I do not feel prepared to tackle obstacles that I will face in this post.	O	O	O	O	O

9) To what extent was your transition effective when you moved from deputy headteacher to headteacher or from teacher to headteacher if you had not worked as a deputy headteacher?

Not Effective at All	Slightly Effective	Moderately Effective	Very Effective	Completely Effective
⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙

10) Please explain your answer to the previous question (Number 9) in more detail (i.e. why it was effective or not effective)?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

The following statements indicate the challenges of the different positions of headship, please indicate to what extent these statements are applicable for you?

iii) Challenges faced during early headship	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not Applicable
1) Effective school leadership can be achieved if coordination and cooperation exist between staff members.	O	O	O	O	O
2) I feel insufficiently prepared to overcome the challenges I may encounter during headship.	O	O	O	O	O
3) I had knowledge of the obstacles and challenges I would encounter in the early years of headship.	O	O	O	O	O
4) An understanding of the students' background is important for effective headship.	O	O	O	O	O

| **5)** Interacting and working together with the local authority (e.g., Education Office) are important factors for effective leadership. | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ |

Part C: Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers

Please indicate to what extent the Training and qualifying Courses for New Headteachers helped you to develop your knowledge and skills in the following areas:

i)The courses helped me to develop my knowledge, skills and provided support in:	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1) School management and organisation.	○	○	○	○
2) Applying internal audit and school discipline.	○	○	○	○
3) Strategic planning for school development.	○	○	○	○
4) Applying new Information Communications technologies (ICT) in school organisation.	○	○	○	○

5) Dealing with family problems that may have an impact on students' achievement and their behaviour.	O	O	O	O
6) Improving the quality of school leadership.	O	O	O	O
7) Building a good relationship with staff and cooperating with them.	O	O	O	O
8) Applying regulatory and procedural guidelines.	O	O	O	O
9) I recommend the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers to all newly appointed headteachers.	O	O	O	O

Please indicate to what extent the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers provided you opportunities for the following areas:

ii)The courses provided opportunities for:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1) Exchange experiences and knowledge with novice headteachers.	O	O	O	O
2) Exchange experiences and knowledge with experienced head teachers.	O	O	O	O
3) Stay in contact with other headteachers and create a good relationship with them.	O	O	O	O

iii) In your view, how could the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteachers be improved? (If possible, please list at least two different aspects).

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Part D: Leadership Development Strategies

1) Which of the following leadership development strategies have you participated in?

Strategy	Yes	No	Do not know
Coaching *"When you have been supported by senior professionals to improve your existing skills and develop new ones, e.g. dealing with budgets, managing time effectively and etc."*	⊙	⊙	⊙
Mentoring *"Working with senior professionals who want to help you achieve your leadership objectives"*	⊙	⊙	⊙
Supportive networks *"A group of professional contacts being available to you for practical support"*	⊙	⊙	⊙
Training courses *"The training supplied by official educational bodies to the headteachers"*	⊙	⊙	⊙

2) Please indicate to other aspects of leadership development in which you believe you need further training in order to carry on your duties efficiently. (If possible, please list at least two)

_____

_____

_____

_____

As a follow up to this survey, it is the researcher's intention to carry out personal interviews with a sample of secondary schools' headteachers based on the results of this questionnaire.

If you are willing to take part in this interview, please indicate below:

☐ I am willing to take part in an interview where Mrs. Alshamrani will take notes.

☐ I am willing to take part in an interview which will be recorded.

☐ I am not willing to take part in an interview.

If you are willing to take part, please provide me the following:

Name: _____

Name of Secondary School: _____

Contact details

(Telephone number): _____

(Email): _____

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix D Headteacher Interview Questions

1- How did you make the decision to become a headteacher?

2- What support did you receive in applying for headship?

3- What previous experiences did you have before taking up headship?

4- Could you please explain, in more detail, why you considered your transition effective /not   effective?

5- What was the most significant challenges that you faced during your early headship?

6- How well did the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteacher help you develop your knowledge and skills for headship?

7- How could the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteacher be improved?

8- Which of the following leadership development strategies have you benefited from?

   a- Coaching

   b- Mentoring

   c- Supportive networks

   d- Training courses

   e- Other

9- Which of these strategies proved to be the most useful? Please explain why.

Appendix E A Reviewed Headteachers' Interview Transcript Sample

Headteacher: Reem

School: Orchid school

Researcher: Could you please introduce yourself?

Headteacher: Of course, my name is .... ᶦthe head of…secondary school for one year, I have a bachelor in physics and I worked as a physics teacher for seventeen years.

Researcher: How did you make the decision to become a headteacher?

Headteacher: I enjoyed my work as a physics teacher for 17 years but in my very last years I started to feel bored and I felt that I needed to change my career. I applied to be a deputy and I was accepted, but the possible vacancies were very far from my home. The Education Office offered me a position as a headteacher in a school closer to my home. I preferred to be a headteacher in a school close to my home rather than being a deputy in a distant school. Although it comes with a lot of responsibility, I don't regret my decision...I needed to experience something new with new tasks and responsibilities...teaching became a very boring daily routine for me.

Researcher What previous experiences did you have before taking up headship?

Headteacher: On a personal level I received real support from my family and from a professional level, my former headteacher was very supportive.

Researcher: Can you give more details on the support you've received from your family and the previous headteacher?

Headteacher: For my family, they all supported me, my husband, children, my mum and my sisters. To be honest, the support I had from one of my sisters was a key motivation

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for me to take up the headship role but honestly, I really did not want to be a headteacher I wanted to be a deputy first and claim up the ladder to headship step by step but after I applied, the education office told me that the only vacancy is in a school far away from my home and they gave me the choice between this and a headteacher position in a nearby school and I preferred the latter especially after I contacted my sister who became a headteacher for a secondary school two months before me and she encouraged me to accept the role of headship…She was a living model in front of me. She was in a similar situation as me as she was a teacher and then became a headteacher which encouraged me to accept becoming a headteacher in a nearby school instead of being a deputy in a school faraway... In terms of Mrs… my previous headteacher encouraged me to make my decision...even though she needed me to stay with her in the school because of some administrative work I was doing, but she put my interest over her interests...She was happy when I informed her that I made the decision to take up the headship role, and she did not stand against my decision or try to discourage me. On the contrary, she continued to support me. For example, when I took over the position, I contacted her almost daily, and she was happy to help.

Researcher: What previous experiences did you have before taking up headship?

Headteacher: Of course, my long experience in teaching and I also benefited from my administrative work as a technical deputy of the Evaluation and Achievement Programme for one year which my former headteacher nominated me for because she knew I was thinking of running for leadership, that was two years before I became a headteacher. I worked closely with the deputy headteacher and I benefited frankly from that experience because the work was heavily related to the administration tasks as we sometimes review test questions with teachers and make an analysis on students' results. I honestly benefited from this experience because I was there seeing the deputy running school affairs, and

the deputy herself was generous in giving, explaining to me administrative matters because she knew I wanted to run for leadership.

Researcher: In the questionnaire, the question related to the transition to headship, you considered that your transition from a classroom teacher to a headteacher as "not effective". Is that right?

Headteacher: Yes, I consider it not effective and difficult.

Researcher: Could you please explain, in more detail, why you considered your transition not effective?

Headteacher: Because I became a headteacher with no previous experience. I did not get the chance to work as a deputy headteacher and I believe that such experience is valuable. Despite my work experience as a technical deputy of the Evaluation and Achievement Programme for one year, in my first months as a headteacher I was shocked by the great amount of responsibility…There was no preparation period before taking up the role the decision was issued on Tuesday and I was told by the education office to start immediately the following day which I did…I was hoping to at least have a week to get ready by reading and communicating with experienced headteachers…the preparation I had was after I got the job and was self-learning mostly through reading and communicating with my former headteacher and of course through my daily practice and learning from mistakes I made.

Researcher: This is your first year as a headteacher, what difficulties have you faced so far?

Headteacher: I encountered several difficulties such as the school budget, lack of authority I have over the school and internal problems here at school with teachers and students.

Researcher: Is it possible to explain these problems in detail?

Headteacher: Regarding the budget I mean the delay in obtaining the budget. It is normal that the budget arrives after few months into the academic year, so I have to pay from my account until I get the budget… I know that the budget depends on school size, but we get less than we are supposed to … I know this from comparing our school with others that are smaller. When I ask the education office for the exact amount or the remaining budget, they always tell me to be satisfied with what I get. Because of this, I don't ask anymore.

As for the authority, I don't have enough authority to lead the school the way I see fit without having to break the regulation set by the Ministry of Education.... Regarding internal problems I mean the difficulty of dealing with different personalities I was and still suffer from the rejection of some teachers and students for the things I ask them to do, such as adhering to the school uniform... and the teachers are trying to press to keep things as they were. They compare everything I do or ask them to do with the previous headteacher, and even now, some still resist change.

Researcher: How well did the Training and Qualifying Courses for New Headteacher help you develop your knowledge and skills for headship?

Headteacher: In general, I have greatly benefited from them and I do recommend them to other headteachers.

Researcher: Can you explain how you benefited from these courses?

Headteacher: All the courses I attended took place at the Education Office and all were useful. For example, I benefited from applying internal audit and school discipline course, I think because it was presented to us at the beginning of the school year, and the things that were mentioned during the course I was able to apply and use in real life. Nonetheless there are other courses such as the course on school development plan, I attended this

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course after my plan was submitted to the Education Office…Although the assessment of my plan was excellent, after attending the course, I knew I could have done better. If the course was presented before I had to hand in my plan, we could as headteachers prevent the mistakes before they happen. On the other hand, attending those courses was good for the new headteachers to meet and start communicating through the groups on WhatsApp…some important courses are not always available, for me it was the course on dealing with family and students' problems. Frankly, I was not offered this course, although I see it as very important, but I might be nominated in the future.

Researcher: Do experienced headteachers attend and/ or participate in these courses?

Headteacher: No, all the attendees in the courses were new headteachers I have not met any experienced headteachers in these courses.

Researcher: Why?

Headteacher: Frankly I don't know.

Researcher: From your point of view, how can these courses be improved?

Headteacher: First, the timing of the courses should be suitable as I told you before, sometimes the time of the course is too late. Second, experienced headteachers should be involved so others can benefit from their experience and expertise.

Researcher: I'm going to name some possible ways that might help you to develop your leadership skills and I want to know how you benefit from each one.

First, coaching and what I mean by that is the benefit and support that you may get from a qualified person such as administrative supervisor, for example.

Headteacher: I didn't get any coaching opportunities except from the administrative supervisor for our school, who I didn't benefit from at all. But I benefited from the supervisors who work in the Educational Leadership Department of the Education Office during the time I attend the courses.

Researcher: Why didn't you get the support you need from the administrative supervisor?

Headteacher: I did try but she always has no answers for my queries.

Researcher: What about the guidance you may receive from expert supervisors who would visit the school offering advice and supervising the achievement level of students and their behavior?

Headteacher: At our school we have resident supervisor but frankly, I didn't benefit from her either. She's not qualified enough for guidance, and she spends most of her time in the school doing paper work and seeing the files. She had nothing to do with the behavior of the students and how we could improve their achievement level.

Researcher: What about networking with other headteachers?

Headteacher: Certainly, communication with other headteachers is very useful particularly by using the new social media apps, like WhatsApp. I feel that I benefited from this method the most.

Researcher: Why?

Headteacher: Because it is easy and fast to communicate, on WhatsApp for example, I am in a group with my previous headteacher and many other experienced headteachers and I always get answers to my questions.

Researcher: We have reached the end of the interview, is there anything you would like to add?

Headteacher: No Thanks.

Researcher: Thank you for your time, appreciated and I really enjoyed talking to you.

Appendix F Permission to Conduct the Study from Saudi Arabia

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التربية والتعليم
الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم
إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

وزارة التعليم
إدارة التخطيط والتطوير
الرقم: ٣٨٠٧٩٩٠٨٩
بتاريخ: ١٤٣٨/٠٣/٠١
المرفقات:

" إفادة "

الموضوع: الموافقة على تطبيق أدوات الدراسة في مدارس تابعة لإدارة التعليم بمنطقة

اسم الباحث/ــة	وفاء بنت سعد صالح الشمراني
الكلية / الجامعة	جامعة Reading/ تخصص التربية ـالإدارة التعليمية ـ
الغرض من الدراسة	متطلب بحث علمي للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه
مجال الدراسة والعينة	مدارس المرحلة الثانوية التابعة لإدارة التعليم بمنطقة ‏ ‏ ‏ ‏ ‏ ‏ ‏ — عينة الدراسة قائدات المدارس الثانوية

سعادة الملحق الثقافي السعودي في / بريطانيا 　　　　 حفظه الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته 　　 وبعد،

بناءً على تعميم معالي وزير التعليم رقم 55/610 وتاريخ 1416/9/17هـ بشأن تفويض الإدارات العامة للتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح للباحثين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات ، وبناءً على تفويض مدير عام التعليم إدارة التخطيط والتطوير في الخطاب ذي الرقم 11/33674823 والتاريخ 1433/4/14هـ بشأن تسهيل مهام الباحثين والباحثات ، وحيث تقدم إلينا الباحث/ـة (الموضحة بياناتها أعلاه) بطلب إجراء دراستها بداية من تاريخ 1438/3/1هـ ، عليه نفيدكم أنه لا مانع من تطبيق الدراسة خلال مدة زمنية محددة بـ (90) يوم خلال العام الدراسي على نطاق مدارس منطقة ٠ ٠ ٠، مع ملاحظة أن الباحثة تتحمل كامل المسؤولية المتعلقة بمختلف جوانب البحث ،ولا يعني سماح الإدارة العامة للتعليم موافقتها بالضرورة على مشكلة البحث أو على الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراستها ومعالجتها وبناءً على طلبها تم منحها الإفادة .

شاكرين طيب تعاونكم ،،،،،،

مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

صورة / للملحقية
صورة / قسم الدراسات والبحوث
نسخة / الصالح

صفحة 15 من 18	تاريخ الإصدار : 1436/8/5هـ	الإصدار: 1.0	رمز العملية ت ط.ع

ن9

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وزارة التعليم
ن (بنات)
إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

الرقم : ٣٨٣٧١١٠٦
تاريخ : ١٤٣٨/٠٣/٠١
المرفقات :

" تسهيل مهمة بحث "

اسم الباحث/ـة	وفاء بنت سعد صالح الشمراني
الكلية / الجامعة	جامعة Rcading في بريطانيا – الإدارة التعليمية
الغرض من الدراسة	متطلب بحث علمي للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه
عنوان الدراسة	تقييم فعالية الإعداد والتطوير المهني لقائدات المدارس الثانوية للبنات في مدينة
نوع التسهيل	تسهيل مهمة الباحثة في تطبيق أداة البحث (الاستبانة ـمقابلة) على عينة البحث قائدات المرحلة الثانوية في مدينة

المكرمـة/ مديرة المرحلة الثانوية   حفظها الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته   وبعد،

بناءً على تعميم معالي وزير التعليم رقم 55/610 وتاريخ 1416/9/17هـ بشأن تفويض الإدارات العامة للتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح للباحثين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات ، وبناءً على تفويض مدير عام التعليم إدارة التخطيط والتطوير في الخطاب ذي الرقم 11/33674823 والتاريخ 1433/4/14هـ بشأن تسهيل مهام الباحثين والباحثات ، وحيث تقدم إلين الباحث/ـة (الموضحة بياناتها أعلاه) بطلب إجراء الدراسة ، نأمل تسهيل مهمته/ـا وتزويده بالإحصائيات المطلوبة ، مع ملاحظة أن الباحث/ـة يتحمل كامل المسؤولية المتعلقة بمختلف جوانب البحث ، ولا يعني سماح الإدارة العامة للتعليم موافقتها بالضرورة على مشكلة البحث أو على الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراستها ومعالجتها.

شاكرين طيب تعاونكم ،،،،،،،

مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

ص / قسم الدراسات والبحوث
ن / الصالح

Appendix G Information Sheet and Consent Form (Arabic Version)

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معلومات حول الدراسة مقدمة لقائدات المدارس الحكومية الثانوية / بنات

أرغب أنا الباحثة وفاء الشمراني بدعوتك للمشاركة في دراسة متعلقة بالإعداد والتطوير المهني لقائدات المدارس الثانوية للبنات في مدينة *** وتحديداً اللاتي يشغلن منصب القيادة منذ مدة لم تتجاوز الخمس سنوات.

ماهية هذه الدراسة؟

تجري الباحثة دراسة بعنوان " التحقيق في فعالية التطوير القيادي لقائدات المدارس الثانوية الحكومية للبنات في المملكة العربية السعودية" وذلك كمتطلب للحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في القيادة والإدارة التعليمية من كلية التربية بجامعة ريدنق في المملكة المتحدة. تهدف هذه الدراسة لتقييم فعالية الإعداد والتطوير المهني لقائدات المدارس الحكومية في الرياض واللاتي يشغلن منصب القيادة منذ مدة لم تتجاوز الخمس سنوات. من خلال تقييم فعالية الإعداد والتطوير المهني، فإن الباحثة تحاول المساهمة في البحث حول سبل تحسين إعداد القيادات التعليمية الطامحة فضلا عن تقديم الدعم لهن أثناء فترة قيادتهن المبكرة. هذه الدراسة تدعو جميع قائدات المدارس الثانوية في *** واللاتي يشغلن منصب القيادة منذ خمس سنوات أو أقل لتعبئة استبانه ومن ثم لاحقاً يتم اجراء سبعة مقابلات مع القائدات اللاتي يرغبن بالمشاركة.

لماذا تم اختياري للمشاركة؟

لقد وجهت لك الدعوة للمشاركة في هذه الدراسة لكونك قائدة مدرسة ثانوية للبنات في ***. حيث أنه تم دعوة جميع القائدات في المدارس الثانوية واللاتي يشغلن منصب القيادة منذ خمس سنوات أو أقل للمشاركة من أجل توفير عينة من القائدات الجدد في أكبر عدد ممكن من المدارس الثانوية للبنات.

<u>هل مشاركتي إلزامية؟</u>

المشاركة في هذه الدراسة أمر اختياري. كما أنك تستطيعين التوقف عن المشاركة في أي وقت أثناء تعبئة الاستبانه وأثناء إجراء المقابلة.

<u>ماذا سيحدث في حال موافقتي على المشاركة؟</u>

سوف يطلب منك ملء استبانه حول الإعداد الخاص بك قبل ن تصبحي قائدة مدرسة وأيضاً حول دورات التطوير المهني الذي حصلتي عليها في المرحلة المبكرة للقيادة. تعبئة الاستبانه سوف تستغرق تقريبا حوالي 20 دقيقة.

إضافة إلى ذلك، وفقط في حال ابديتي الموافقة، سيتم إجراء مقابلة مباشرة معكي قد تستغرق قرابة 40 دقيقة وستتم في الوقت المناسب لك وسيكون لك الخيار في تسجيل المقابلة بشكل صوتي أو كتابة آرائك من قبل الباحثة خلال المقابلة. سوف يطلب منك الإدلاء برأيك حول جوانب أخرى من الإعداد والتطوير المهني لقائدات المدارس الثانوية للبنات.

<u>ما هي فوائد ومخاطر المشاركة في هذه الدراسة؟</u>

المعلومات التي ستقدمينها ستظل سرية وسوف ينظر إليها فقط من قبل الباحثة والمشرفين عليها. وعلى الرغم من أن بعض آرائك سوف تستخدم في البحث لإثراءه إلا أنه سيراعى السرية التامة فيما يتعلق بهويتك ولن يتم الإشارة إليها اطلاقا في الأطروحة. مشاركتك لن تؤثر على حياتك المهنية، ولن يتم مشاركة المعلومات التي ستقدمينها مع آخرين خارج نطاق هذه الدراسة البحثية.

من المعلوم أن المشاركة في مثل هذه الدراسة والدراسات المماثلة له فوائد جمة. ذو فائدة وفيما يتعلق بالفوائد المرجوة من هذه الدراسة فإنه من المتوقع والمأمول أن تكون نتائج هذه الدراسة مفيدة لقائدات المدارس من أجل تسليط الضوء بشكل أكبر على الإعداد والتطوير المهني الذي يحتاجون إليه. نسخة من نتائج هذه الدراسة ستكون متوفرة ويمكنك الحصول عليها عن طريق التواصل مع الباحثة.

<u>ماذا سيحدث للبيانات المحصلة؟</u>

جميع البيانات المحصلة سوف يتم الحفاظ عليها بسرية تامة ولن تستخدم الأسماء الحقيقية للمشاركات في هذه الدراسة أو أي منشورات لاحقة. أيضا سيتم تخزين السجلات المكتوبة والملفات الصوتية بشكل آمن في ملفات محمية بكلمة مرور في جهاز

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كمبيوتر محمي أيضا بكلمة مرور ووحدها الباحثة تستطيع الوصول إليها. المشرفين على هذا البحث الدكتور ترنر والدكتور ماكديفين سيمكنون فقط من الإطلاع على نصوص البيانات المفرغة.أيضا سيتم تقديم البيانات في أطروحتي وربما في المنشورات الأكاديمية اللاحقة في حين أن النصوص المفرغة للبيانات سيتم التخلص منها بطريقة آمنة وذلك بعد الإنتهاء من البحث.

تأمل الباحثة من قائدات المدارس الثانوية المشاركة في هذه الدراسة. في حال الموافقة بالمشاركة، يرجى ملء استمارة الموافقة المرفقة.

شكرا لك على وقتك

استماة الموافقة على المشاركة فى إجراء المقابلة

لقد قرأت استمارة المعلومات وتمت الإجابة على جميع استفساراتي حول هذه الدراسة وتحديد

الغرض منها والدور الذي تريد مني الباحثة القيام به وبناء عليه فأنا أوافق على المشاركة في هذه

الدراسة. أعلم أن مشاركتي أمراختياري وأني أمتلك الحق في الإنسحاب منها في أي وقت دون

إبداء أسباب، ولن يكون لذلك أي تأثيرعلي.

حصلت على نسخة من استمارة معلومات الدراسة واستمارة الموافقة على

المشاركة في إجراء المقابلة. ☐

يرجى وضع علامة (√) بجانب الخيار المناسب لك:

أوافق على إجراء المقابلة واسمح بتسجيلها صوتيا من قبل الباحثة. ☐

أوافق على إجراء المقابلة واسمح بتدوين إجاباتي كتابيا باستخدام الورقة والقلم من قبل الباحثة. ☐

اسم قائـــدة المدرسة:...

التــــاريـــــخ:...

التـــوقيــــع:...

الـختـــم

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شاكرة لك مقـــــدمـــــأ

Appendix H The Questionnaire (Arabic Version)

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استبانه مقدمه لقائدات المدارس الثانوية الحكومية / بنات

قائــدة المدرسة الموقرة،

أقدم لك هذا الاستبيان كمتطلب للحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في القيادة والإدارة التعليمية من كلية التربية بجامعة ريدنق في المملكة المتحدة والمعنونة بـ" التحقيق في فعالية التطوير المهني لقائدات المدارس الثانوية الحكومية للبنات ". تهدف هذه الدراسة لتقييم فعالية الإعداد والتطوير المهني لقائدات المدارس الحكومية واللاتي يشغلن منصب القيادة منذ مدة لم تتجاوز الخمس سنوات. من خلال تقييم فعالية الإعداد والتطوير المهني، فإن الباحثة تحاول المساهمة في البحث حول سبل تحسين إعداد القيادات التعليمية الطامحة فضلا عن تقديم الدعم لهن أثناء فترة قيادتهن المبكرة.

مشاركتكم القيمة في هذه الدراسة محل تقديروشكر كبيرين، جميع البيانات سوف يتم الحفاظ عليها بسرية تامة وستستخدم فقط في نطاق البحث كما أنه لن تستخدم الأسماء الحقيقية للمشاركات في هذه الدراسة. شاكرة ومقدرة جميل تعاونكم. الباحثة: وفاء الشمراني.

أنا قائـده لإحدى ثانويات البنات الحكومية بمدينة ** نعم ☐ لا ☐

صدر قرار تكليفي من مدير عام التعليم منذ خمس سنوات أو أقل نعم ☐ لا ☐

الجزء الأول: معلومات عامة

1) الاسم (اخياري)-------------------

العمر(اختياري) 30-25 ☐ 40-31 ☐ 45-41 ☐ 50-46 ☐ 55-51 ☐ 56+ ☐
المدرسة: --------------------- تابعة لمكتب تعليم: ---------------------------

2) المؤهل العلمي :يرجى وضع علامة (√) على جميع المؤهلات العلمية الحاصلة عليها:

دبلوم ☐ بكالوريس ☐ ماجستير ☐ دكتوراه ☐ أخرى-----------

3) كم سنة عملتي كمعلمة؟
------------------------ سنوات.

4) هل عملتي كوكيله لقائدة مدرسة؟

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نعم ☐   لا ☐   إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم، كم عدد السنوات التي عملتي فيها كوكيله؟ -------

5) كم عدد سنوات خبرتك كقائدة ؟   ----------------------- سنوات.

6) كم عدد الطالبات في مدرستك؟

----------------------- طالبة.

الجـــــزء الثــــاني: الإعـــداد

العبارات التالية تشير إلى قرار قبولك بالقياده ،إلى أي مدى تتفقين مع هذه العبارات ؟

لا أوافق بشدة	لاأوافق	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	**(أ) قرار قبولي للقيادة يرجع إلى:**
◎	◎	◎	◎	**1)** حصلت على تشجيع من قبل زميلاتي (على سبيل المثال :المعلمات، الوكيلة) لقبول القيادة المدرسية.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**2)** مديرتي السابقة لم تشجعني على قبول القيادة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**3)** تلقيت الدعم من عائلتي للقبول بمنصب قيادة المدرسة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**4)** القبول بتولي القيادة يُمكن القائدات من تنفيذ رؤيتهم للمدرسة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**5)** قبلت هذا المنصب القيادي لأنني أؤمن أن مساهمتي في قطاع التعليم من خلال شغل هذا المنصب سيكون فاعلا.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**6)** المزايا المالية لهذا المنصب شجعتني على القبول بمنصب القيادة.

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لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	
O	O	O	O	**7)** المكانة الاجتماعية المترتبة على شغل هذا المنصب شجعتني على اتخاذ القرار والقبول بأن أكون قائدة للمدرسة.
				8: أسباب أخرى

تشير العبارات التالية إلى مدى جاهزيتك لتولي قيادة المدرسة، إلى أي مدى تتفقين مع هذه العبارات؟

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	**(ب) الجاهزية عند تولي منصب قيادة المدرسة:**
O	O	O	O	**1)** عملي السابق كوكيلة يُعد تجربة وخبرة قيمة هيئتني للعمل كقائدة.
O	O	O	O	**2)** كنت مستعده للقيام بأي مهمة تسند إلي.
O	O	O	O	**3)** الرغبة الشخصية في التطوير المهني (على سبيل المثال من خلال: الدراسات العليا،حضور الندوات، والمؤتمرات، والقراءة) كان لها دور إيجابي في جاهزيتي.

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				4) أعتقد أن **المعرفة** والخبرة التى أملكها كافية بالنسبة لي لقيادة المدرسة بشكل فعال.
◎	◎	◎	◎	
◎	◎	◎	◎	5) لا أعتقد أن لدي **المهارات** المناسبة لقيادة المدرسة بشكل فعال.
◎	◎	◎	◎	6) كنت أحتاج إلى مزيد من التدريب لتلبية بعض المتطلبات والاحتياجات المتعلقة بالقيادة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	7) عملي مع قائدتي السابقة ساعدني للتطوير رؤيتي بالنسبة لقيادة المدرسة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	8) لم أشعر بالجاهزية والإستعداد لمواجهة العقبات والصعوبات التي ستواجهني عند تولي القيادة.

9) كيف تقيمين فعالية انتقالك من العمل كوكيله إلى قائدة مدرسه / من معلمه إلى قائده في حال لم يسبق لك العمل كوكيله؟

فاعلة بشكل كبيرجدا	عالية الفعالية	معتدلة الفعالية	فاعلة نوعا ما	ليست فاعلة على الإطلاق
⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙

10)

يرجى توضيح إجابتك على السؤال السابق (رقم 9) بمزيد من التفصيل (أي لماذا تعتبرين إعدادك فعال أو غير فعال)؟

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9) كيف تقيمين فعالية انتقالك من العمل كوكيله إلى قائدة مدرسه / من معلمه إلى قائده في حال لم يسبق لك العمل كوكيله؟

العبارات التالية تشير إلى التحديات المختلفة التي قد تواجهها القائده، إلى أي مدى تتفقين مع هذه العبارات؟

لاتنطبق	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	(ج)التحديات التي واجهتها في بداية القيادة
◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	1) القيادة المدرسية الفعالة يمكن أن تتحقق إذا كان هناك تنسيق وتعاون بين الموظفات.
◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	2) أشعر أني لم أكن مستعدة بشكل كاف للتغلب على الصعوبات والتحديات التي قد تواجهني.
◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	3) كانت لدي معرفة كاملة بالعقبات والتحديات التي قد أواجهها في السنوات الأولى من القيادة.

					4) فهم الخلفية الإجتماعية والثقافية للطالبة يعتبر أمر مهم للقيادة الفعالة.
⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	5) العمل والتفاعل مع الجهات الحكومية المحلية ذات العلاقة (مثل:مكتب التعليم) يعتبر عامل مهم للقيادة الفعالة.

الجزء الثالث: دورات "تدريب وتأهيل القـائـدات المستجدات"

(أ) العبارات التالية تتعلق بدورات "إعداد وتأهيل القائدات المستجدات" ، ارجو الإشارة إلى أي مدى ساعدتك هذه الدورات في تطوير معرفتك ومهاراتك القياديه؟

لا أوافق بشدة	لاأوافق	أوافق بشـدة	أوافق	دورات "تدريب وتأهيل القائدات المستجدات" ساعدني في تطوير معرفتي ومهاراتي القياديه وقدم لي الدعم في:
◎	◎	◎	◎	**1)**إدارة المدرسه وتنظيمها.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**2)** تطبيق التدقيق الداخلي والانضباط المدرسي.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**3)** التخطيط الاستراتيجي لتحسين المدارس.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**4)** تطبيق التكنولوجيات الجديدة للمعلومات

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				في تدريس المواد، وإدارة المدرسة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**5)** معالجة المشاكل الأسرية التي قد تؤثر على أداء الطالبة، وشخصيتها وسلوكها.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**6)** تحسين قيادة المدرسة.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**7)** بناء علاقات جيدة مع الموظفات والتعاون معهن .
◎	◎	◎	◎	**8)** تطبيق التعاميم واللوائح والأدله.
◎	◎	◎	◎	**9)** أوصي جميع القائدات المستجدات بحضور دورات "تدريب وتأهيل القائدات المستجدات".

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(ب) يرجى الإشارة إلى أي مدى أتاحت لك دورات "تدريب وتأهيل القائدات الجدد" الفرصة لتحقيق العبارات التالية؟

برنامج "إعداد وتأهيل القائدات الجدد" أتاح لي الفرصة لـ :	أوافق	أوافق بشـدة	لاأوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
1) تبادل الخبرات والمعارف بين القائدات المستجدات.	◎	◎	◎	◎
2) تبادل الخبرات والمعرفة مع القائدات ذوات الخبرة.	◎	◎	◎	◎
3) التواصل مع قائدات أخريات وتكوين علاقات جيدة معهم.	◎	◎	◎	◎

(ج) من وجهة نظرك، كيف يمكن تحسين دورات "تدريب وتأهيل القائدات المستجدات" ؟ (إذا كان ذلك ممكنا، يرجى كتابة اقتراحين مختلفين على الأقل).

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الجـــزء الثـالث: تطويـر القيـــادة

1) أي من استراتيجيات التنمية القيـادية الآتية حصلتـي عليـها:

لا أعلم	لا	نعــــم	الإستراتيجية
			التدريب "تلقي الدعم من قبل اصحاب الخبرة من المختصين لتحسين مهاراتك الحالية وتطوير مهارات جديدة، على سبيل المثال: التعامل مع الميزانيات التشغيلية والصندوق المدرسي، إدارة الوقت بفعالية ..إلخ"
			التـوجـية "العمل مع اصحاب الخبرة المهنية الطويلة الذين يرغبون في مساعدتك على تحقيق أهداف القيادة الخاصة بك"
			الشبكـات الـداعـمة "مجموعة من الاتصالات المهنية تكون متاحة لك للحصول على الدعم العملي، على سبيل المثال: قائدات مدارس أخرى"
			الدورات التدريبية " دورات تدريبية مقدمة من الهيئات التعليمية الرسمية لقائدات المدارس"

2) ارجو الإشارة إلى جانبين أخرى (على الأقل) من جوانب تطوير المهارات القيادية والتي تعتقدين أنك بحاجة إلى مزيد من التدريب عليها من أجل الاستمرار في آداء مهامك بكفاءة.

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عزيزتي قائدة المدرسة/ استنادا إلى نتائج هذا الاستبيان وكمتابعة لهذه الدراسة تنوي الباحثة إجراء مقابلات شخصية مع عينة من قائدات مدارس المرحلة الثانوية للبنات ب**.

إذا كنت ترغبين بالمشاركة في هذه المقابلة يرجى الإشارة أدناه:

أرغب بالمشاركة في المقابلة مع تسجيل البحثة لإجاباتي باستخدام الورقة والقلم. ☐

أرغب بالمشاركة في المقابلة مع السماح للباحثة باستخدام التسجيل الصوتي. ☐

لا أرغب في المشاركة في المقابلة. ☐

إذا كنتي ترغبين في المشاركة في المقابلة الرجاء تزويدي بالمعلومات أدناه:

الإســـــم : _____

اســم المدرســة : _____

من أجل التواصل لتنسيق الوقت المناسب لإجـــراء المقـــابلـــة،،،

رقــم الهـاتف : _____

الإيـــميــل : _____

شكرا على وقتك وتعاونك.

Appendix I Interview Questions (Arabic version)

<div dir="rtl">

<u>أسـئلة مقـابلة قـائـدات المـدارس الثـانـويـة الحكومية / بنات</u>

1-ماالدافع خلف قرارك بالترشح للقياده؟

2- مــاهو الدعــم الـذي تلقيـتيه عند الترشح للقياده؟

3- ماهي تجاربك المهنية السابقة قبل تولي قيادة المدرسة؟

4- هل من الممكن أن تشرحي لي لماذا اعتبرتي انتقالك للقياده فعال/غير فعال؟

5-ماهي أبرز التحديات /الصعوبات التي واجهتك خلال الأعوام الأولى من القياده؟

6- كيف ساعدتك دورات تدريب وتأهيل القائدات المستجدات في تطوير المعارف والمهارات القيادية؟

7- من وجهة نظرك ، كيف يمكن تحسين هذه الدورات؟

8- أي مـن استراتيجيات تنمية المهـارات والمعارف القيـاديـة التاتلية استفدتي منها:

* التــدريـب

* الإرشــاد

* الشـبكات الـداعمة

* الـدورات التدريـبية

9-من وجهـة نظـرك أي من هـذه الإسـتراجيـات أثبـتت أنـها الأكثر فائـدة؟ لمـاذا؟

</div>

Appendix J A Reviewed Headteachers' Interview Transcript Sample (Arabic Version)

<u>محتوى المقابله مع إحدى القائدات</u>

القائـــــده: ريــم

المدرســـه: Orchid school

الباحثة: ممكن تعرفين بنفسك؟

القائدة: طبعًا. اسمي .... قائدة الثانوية .... منذ عام واحد حاصله على بكالوريس فيزياء عملت كمعلمة فيزياء لمدة سبعة عشر عام.

الباحثة: ماالدافع خلف قرارك بالترشح للقيادة؟

القائدة: استمتعت بعملي كمعلمة فيزياء لمدة 17 عام ولكن في الأعوام الأخيرة بدأت أشعر بالملل وشعوري بالحاجة بالتغيير الوظيفي.... قدمت لأكون وكيلة وتم قبولي لكن الشواغر المتاحة كانت بعيدة جدا عن منزلي...مكتب التعليم عرضوا علي العمل كقائدة في مدرسة قريبة من منزلي ففضلت أن أكون قائدة في مدرسة قريبة بدلًا من أن أكون وكيلة في مدرسة بعيدة... بالرغم من أن المسؤولية الكبيرة إلا أنني لست نادمه على قراري..كنت بحاجة للدخول في تجربة جديدة بمهامها ومسؤولياتها التدريس أصبح بالنسبة لي ممل جدًا وروتين يتكرر يوميًا.

الباحثة: مانوع الدعم الذي تلقيته عند التقديم على القياده؟

القائده: على المستوى الشخصي تلقيت دعم من عائلتي حقيقة وعلى المستوى المهني دعمتني جدًا مديرتي السابقة.

الباحثة: هل من الممكن توضيح اعطاء تفاصيل أكثر حول دعم عائلتك والقائدة السابقة لك ؟

القائده: بالنسبة لعائلتي جميعهم دعموني زوجي وأولادي ووالدتي وأخواتي ....وبصراحه كان تشجيع أحد أخواتي دافع قوي لي للترشح لكن حقيقةً لم تكن رغبتي الترشح كقائده كنت أرغب العمل أولًا كوكيلة وصعود السلم درجة درجة لكن ماحصل هو توفر شاغر للعمل كوكيلة في مدرسة بعيدة جدًا

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عن منزلي أو العمل كقائده في مدرسة قريبة من منزلي وهي هذه المدرسة.. اتصلت بأختي التي

عينت كقائده لمدرسة ثانوية هنا في .... قبلي بشهرين وشجعتني على القبول بالقياده، كانت نموذجًا

حيًا أمامي..كانت معلمة هي أيضًا ثم قائدة وشجعتني بصراحه على الخيار الثاني توكلت على الله

وقبلت بالقياده...أما بالنسبة لأستاذه ..وهي مديرتي السابقة شجعتني على الترشح وكذلك شجعتني

على القبول بعرض القياده على الرغم من احتياجها لبقائي معها في المدرسة بسبب بعض الأعمال

الإدارية التي كنت أقوم بها، لكنها قدمت مصلحتي على مصلحتها...كانت سعيدة عندما أبلغتها

بموافقتي ، لم تقف ضد قراري أو حاولت تثبيطي بل على العكس استمرت في دعمي. مثلا عندما

توليت القيادة كنت ومازلت صراحة اتواصل معها تقريبا بشكل يومي وكانت سعيدة بمساعدتي.

الباحثة: ماهي تجاربك المهنية السابقة قبل تولي القيادة؟

القائده: طبعًا خبرتي الطويلة في التدريس وأيضا استفدت من عملي الإداري كوكيلة فنية للقياس

والتقويم لمدة عام حيث رشحتني مديرتي السابقة أستاذه...لهذا العمل قبل أن أصبح قائده بعامين لأنها

كانت تعلم برغبتي بالترشح للقياده فكنت أبقى في غرفة الوكيلة لأن هذا العمل مرتبط بالإدراة بشكل

كبير...أعمل مع الوكيلات على تحليل كلًّا من أسئلة الإختبارات ونتائج الطالبات.استفدت بصراحة

من هذه التجربة لأني كنت أرى هناك الوكيلة وهي تدير شؤون المعلمات، وكانت الوكيلة نفسها

كريمة في العطاء وشرح الأمور الإدارية ، لأنها كانت تعلم أنني أرغب في الترشح للقياده. كانت هذه

فقط التجربة الوحيده التي أتيحت لي قبل تولي قيادة المدرسة.

الباحثة:كانت اجابتك في الإستبيان على السؤال المتعلق بفعالية انتقالك من العمل كمعلمة إلى قائدة

أجبتي غير فعال ، صحيح؟

القائده: نعم اعتبره غير فعال وكان صعب.

الباحثة :هل من الممكن أن تشرحين لي لماذا اعتبرتي انتقالك للقياده صعب ؟

القائده: لأني لاأمتلك خبره حقيقيه في القياده .... فأنا لم يسبق لي العمل كوكيلة وأعلم أن تجربة العمل

كوكيله تجربة ثرية ومفيده جدا وبالرغم من عملي لمدة عام كوكيله فنيه لكن في الأشهر الأولى

انصدمت من حجم المسؤولية...لم يكن هناك فترة إعداد تسبق تولي القياده.. صدر قرار التوجيه

وطلبوا مني التوجه فوراً للمدرسة ياليت أعطيت فرصة لو أسبوع أقرء واطلع وأسأل الثلاثاء صدر

القرار الأربعاء داومت في مدرستي....كنت اتمنى على الأقل اسبوع واحد استعد فيه بالقراءه

والتواصل مع قائدات ذوات خبره ..الإعداد كان بعد استلام العمل وكان ذاتي من خلال القراءه

والتواصل مع قائدتي السابقة وطبعا من خلال الممارسة أتعلم من أخطائي.

الباحثه: هذا العام الأول لك كقائده، ماهي الصعوبات التي واجهتك الى الان؟

القائده: واجهتني عدة صعوبات مثل ميزانية المدرسة وعدم وجود صلاحيات للقائدات وأيضا مشاكل

داخليه هنا في المدرسه مع المعلمات والطالبات.

الباحثه: هل من الممكن شرح هذه المشاكل بالتفصيل؟

القائـده: الميزانية أقصد تأخر الحصول على الميزانية حيث يبدء العام الدراسي ويمضي منه أشهر دون

وصولها فاضطر للدفع من حسابي لحين استلامها على دفعات طبعًا... أعلم أن ميزانية المدرسة تكون على

حسب حجمها ولكن مايصلني أقل من المفترض...عرفت ذلك بمقارنة مايصلني مع مدارس أخرى ..لكن لا

يحق لي السؤال عن الباقي لأن مكتب التعليم يرفض دائما الإجابة ويقولون ارضي بما قسم لك .. فما

صرنا نسأل أصلا.

أما الصلاحيه فأقصد أني لأمتلك صلاحيات كافيه لقيادة المدرسة بالطريقه التي أراها مناسبه بل لابد

من اتباع جميع الأنظمه الصادره من الوزاره وعدم تجاوزها....بخصوص المشاكل الداخليه أقصد

صعوبة التعامل مع شخصيات مختلفة فكنت ومازلت أعاني من رفض بعض المعلمات والطالبات

للأمور التي أطلب منهم القيام بها مثل الالتزام بالزي المدرسي للطالبات ...والمعلمات يحاولون

يضغطون بحيث لايتم تغيير مااعتادوا عليه من مديرتهم السابقه... يقارنون كل شئ أعمله أو أطلبهم

القيام به بقائدتهم السابقة ، وحتى الآن ، لا يزال البعض يقاوم التغيير.

الباحثة: كيف ساعدت دورات تدريب وتأهيل القائدات المستجدات في تنمية المعرفة وأيضا المهارات

القيادية؟ إلى أي مـدى ساهـمت دورات " تدريب وتأهيل القـائـدات المستجدات" في تطويرك مهنيا

من حيث المعرفة والمهارات القيادية؟

بشكل عام استفدت منها كثيرًا وأوصي بها.

الباحثة: هل من الممكن تشرحين الأمور التي استفدتيها من هذه الدورات؟

طبعا الدورات حضرتها في مكتب تعليم...واستفدت منها جميعا فيه دورة التدقيق الداخلي والانضباط

المدرسي استفدت منها لأنها قدمت لنا في بداية العام الدراسي فالأمور التي تم ذكرها خلال الدوره

طبقتها على أرض الواقع .. لكن فيه دورات أخرى مثل التخصيط الاستراتيجي ووضع الخطه

التشغيليه للمدرسة أخذتها بعد إجراء خطتي للمدرسة وتقديمها للمكتب والتقييم كان ممتاز لكن بعد

حضور الدورة عرفت الخلل..فلو أن الدوره قُدمت قبل موعد تسليم الخطه كان نستطيع كقائدات

مستجدات نتلافى الأخطاء قبل وقوعها...تعرفت في الدورات على القائدات المستجدات في المدارس

التابعه للمكتب وأصبحنا نتواصل باستمرار عن طريق قروب الواتس أب مفيد بصراحه خاصه أن

من ضمن عضوات القروب كم قائده قديمه نستفيد منهم بشكل كبير...هناك دورات أخرى مهمه مثل

التعامل مع المشاكل الأسرية وتأثيرها عالطالبات...بصراحه لم تقدم لي هذه الدوره الى الان بالرغم

أني أرى انها مهمه جدًا.

الباحثه: لماذا لم تقدم لك؟

القائده: لا أعلم ، ربما سيتم ترشيحي لها مستقبلًا.

الباحثه: هل القائدات ذوات الخبره كانوا من ضمن الحضور أو المشاركين في الدورات؟

القائده: لا هم موجودات بقروب الواتس اب عن طريق معرفتهم السابقه بإحدى القائدات

المستجدات..جميع الحاضرات في الدورات هم مستجدات لم أقابل في أي قائده ذات خبره في هذه

الدورات.

الباحثه: لماذا؟

القائده: بصراحه لا أعلم .

الباحثة: من وجهة نظرك، كيف يمكن تحسين هذه الدورات؟

القائده: أولًا لابد من مراعاة التوقيت كما ذكرت لك سابقًا الدورات مفيده لكن بعض الأحيان يكون

وقت الدوره متأخر بعد مرور أكثر من نصف العام.

ثانيًا لابد من إشراك القائدات ذوات الخبره لنستفيد من تجاربهم وخبرتهم.

الباحثه: سأطرح عليك بعض الطرق الممكنه للتطوير المهني وأرغب بمعرفة مدى استفادتك منها:

أولا:التدريب وأقصد به الاستفاده والدعم الذي قد تحصلين عليه من شخص مؤهل كالمشرفة الإداريه

على سبيل المثال.

القائده :احتكاكنا الوحيد بالمشرفات والمشرفة الإدارايه لمدرستنا لم استفد منها اطلاقًا..أما مشرفات

القياده في المكتب اللاتي قمن بتقديم الدورات استفدت منهم.

الباحثه : لماذا لم تستفيدي من المشرفة الإداريه؟

القائـــده: لم تقدم لي الدعم المطلوب من حيث الإجابه على استفساراتي.

الباحثه: ننتقل إلى التوجيه الذي قد تحصلين عليه من خلال تواجد مشرفه مقيمه معك هنا في المدرسه تقدم النصح وتشرف على المستوى التحصيلي للطالبات وسلوكهن .

القائده : نعم لدينا بالمدرسه مشرفه مقيمه لكن بصراحه لم استفد منها أيضا هي غير مؤهله بشكل كافي للنصح والتوجيه وأغلب وقتها تقضيه على الاطلاع على الملفات لاتركز على سلوك الطالبات وكيف ممكن نرفع من مستواهم التحصيلي.

الباحثه: ماذا عن شبكات التواصل مع قائدات أخريات؟

القائده: بالتأكيد أن التواصل مع القائدات خصوصا عن طريق قروبات الواتس أب مفيده جدًا ودائمًا ماأتواصل مع القائده السابقه بصراحه أعتبر هذا الطريقه أكثر شيئ استفدت منه.

الباحثه: لماذا؟

القائده: لسهولة التواصل عبر قروبات الواتس اب أنا موجوده في قروب به القائده السابقه ولديها خبره فاحصل دائمًا على اجابة لتساؤلاتي.

الباحثه: وصلنا إلى نهاية المقابلة، هل هناك أي اضافه ترغبين بذكرها؟

القائـــده:لا شكرًا.

الباحثه: شكرًا لإتاحة الفرصه لإجراء هذه المقابله استمتعت بالحديث معك.