



**Benchmarking best practice -
preparing primary school principals for
staff management: female
headteachers in Saudi Arabian girls’
schools**

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Abstract

According to Adamson et al. (1998), a career involves different stages and changes through time. Professional development is essential for any employee in any working environment, as it helps to improve the work of professionals and their achievements in their particular fields. School headteachers face different challenges in schools which vary over time, so they need continuous development in their profession to adapt to these challenges. Headteachers' professional development has gained international attention, involving the design of different development programmes for headteachers in developed countries, such as the USA and the UK. However, there is an absence of such professional development programmes for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. In the Saudi context, there has been a lack of research into female headteachers' professional development, research only having been conducted into the professional development needs of male headteachers.

This study is aimed at establishing a benchmark for a professional development programme for Saudi female headteachers that is designed based on their professional needs and the special cultural aspects of the country. The study explores the current status of female headteachers, in order to provide a clear understanding of the degree of professional development they believe they require. It also identifies female headteachers' needs, based on their professional experience. Moreover, the study aims to illustrate the perceptions of female headteachers of the benefits that a professional development programme would help them achieve. The study also demonstrates the possible challenges that may affect the implementation of a development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. A literature review is conducted to demonstrate different examples of international experiences of professional development for headteachers, in addition to providing examples from Gulf countries that share similarities with Saudi Arabia with regard to culture and religion. However, there is very little literature, in either English or Arabic, on Saudi female headteachers' professional development.

The study involved 111 female headteachers who worked in primary schools in Riyadh in Saudi Arabia. A mixed methods approach was adopted, which used a questionnaire and interviews. Questionnaires (with open and closed questions) were distributed to 150 female primary school headteachers, 101 completed questionnaire forms being

obtained. The researcher also conducted semi-structured interviews with 10 female headteachers. The data collected was analysed, using SPSS for the questionnaires and NVivo software for the interviews.

The results demonstrate an absence of a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, and that they were not satisfied with their current situation. The female headteachers also agreed that there was a need to establish a professional development programme that considered their professional needs and the Saudi cultural background. The results show that there is a lack of attention from the Saudi government, represented by the Ministry of Education, with regards to female headteachers' professional development. The findings illustrate the barriers that may affect the professional development of female headteachers, such as school policies, conditions and culture. The study shows that culture, in particular, is considered to be a major obstacle that restricts the improvement of female headteachers' professional and leadership skills. The research gives an insight into the current status of headteachers, in addition to providing international examples of professional development programmes and the implications of adopting these in the Saudi context. Therefore, this study can be considered as a basis for establishing a programme aimed at improving female headteachers' skills, in order to achieve positive school outcomes in Saudi Arabia.

Statement of Authenticity

I, the undersigned, certify that this thesis is my original work, and that the data was gathered specifically to fulfil the purposes and objectives of the study. It is clearly acknowledged wherever material adapted from other sources is utilised.

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During the second year of my PhD, I was diagnosed with a type of tumour which had a major effect on my life and family. However, my husband and daughter filled my heart with joy and optimism in the times when I was depressed. My parents, grandmother, brothers, my sister, aunties, uncles and all of my family encouraged me and gave me hope through this difficult phase of my life.

Words cannot express my gratitude to everyone who helped to make this journey a great life experience. To every person who added a precious memory to my life, I would like to say thank you.

Dedication

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Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Statement of Authenticity	iv
Acknowledgements	iv
Dedication	v
List of Tables.....	ix
List of Figures.....	xi
List of Abbreviations	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	2
1.1 Introduction	2
1.2 Saudi Arabia	2
1.3 Education in Saudi Arabia	7
1.3.1 School levels in Saudi Arabia.....	8
1.3.2 Higher education	14
1.3.3 The Ministry of Education	15
1.3.4 The Ministry of Higher Education.....	15
1.3.5 Female school principals in Saudi Arabia	16
1.4 Statement of the problem	18
1.5 Aim of the research.....	19
1.6 Research objectives.....	19
1.7 Research questions.....	20
1.8 Methodological framework.....	20
1.9 Study structure	21
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	23
2.1 Introduction	23
2.2 Management in an educational context	24
2.3 School administration	25
2.4 Headteachers' roles and responsibilities	26
2.5 The concept of professional development.....	29
2.6 Models of headteacher professional development and their objectives	32
2.6.1 International experiences of headteachers' professional development.....	33
2.6.1.1 United States of America and Canada	33
2.6.1.2 Europe.....	36
2.6.1.3 Asia.....	40
2.6.1.4 Africa	41
2.6.2 Headteachers' professional development in Arabic and Islamic countries ..	43
2.7 Strategies deployed for headteacher professional development	48
2.7.1 Mentoring.....	49
2.7.2 Coaching	51

2.7.3 Facilitation	51
2.7.4 Group learning	52
2.7.5 Action learning.....	52
2.7.6 Networking	53
2.8 Cultural influence	54
2.8.1 In general	54
2.8.2 Saudi Arabia.....	57
2.9 Challenges and difficulties.....	68
2.10 Challenges and difficulties facing female headteachers in Saudi Arabia.....	75
2.11 Summary.....	86
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	90
3.1 Introduction	90
3.2 Research questions.....	90
3.3 Research design	91
3.3.1 Qualitative methodology	93
3.3.2 Quantitative methodology	96
3.3.3 Mixed methods.....	102
3.3.4 Triangulation.....	106
3.3.5 Research strategy	107
3.4 Pilot study	108
3.5 Translation.....	108
3.6 Reliability and validity of the research.....	109
3.6.1 Reliability.....	109
3.6.2 Validity	110
3.7 Sample	112
3.8 Data collection.....	113
3.9 The process of data analysis.....	115
3.10 Ethical issues	118
3.11 Summary.....	121
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS	123
4.1 Introduction	123
4.2 Questionnaire.....	123
4.3 Interviews	160
4.4 Summary	182
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	185
5.1 Introduction	185
5.2 First: Female headteachers' background and experience	185
5.3 Second: The professional needs of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia.....	188
5.4 Third: Facilitation of a professional development programme for female headteachers	196

5.5 Fourth: Barriers affecting a professional development programme.....	204
5.5.1 Culture	204
5.5.2 Saudi Arabia’s education system.....	206
5.5.3 School climate.....	207
5.6 Summary	209
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION.....	213
6.1 Introduction	213
6.2 Research overview.....	213
6.3 Collection and analysis of the data.....	216
6.4 Research findings.....	216
6.5 Research contribution	218
6.6 Study limitations	219
6.7 Recommendations.....	219
6.8 Suggestions for further study	220
6.9 Conclusion.....	221
References	224
Appendices	255
Appendix 1: Research consent in English	255
Appendix 2: Research consent in Arabic.....	257
Appendix 3: Research questionnaire in English	258
Appendix 4: Research questionnaire in Arabic	263
Appendix 5: Interview questions in English.....	268
Appendix 6: Interview questions in Arabic	269
Appendix 7: Permission from the Saudi Ministry of Education	270

List of Tables

Table 1: Content of leadership development programmes in various countries	42
Table 2: Educational attainment and gender segregation in Saudi Arabia rank from 1 to 144	64
Table 3: Economic participation and opportunity in Saudi Arabia rank from 1 to 144	65
Table 4: Political empowerment in Saudi Arabia rank from 1 to 144	66
Table 5: Gender gap rank in Gulf countries from 1 to 144	67
Table 6: Gulf countries' ranking in relation to education, the economy and politics from 1 to 144	67
Table 7: Female and male headteachers' responses to the importance of the contents of training courses based on their training needs	82
Table 8: Strengths and weaknesses of qualitative research	94
Table 9: Strengths and weaknesses of quantitative research	97
Table 10: Differences between quantitative research and qualitative research	101
Table 11: Strengths and weaknesses of mixed research	103
Table 12: Design of mixed methods research	105
Table 13: Number of professional development programmes taken by the female headteachers	125
Table 14: Time spent by participants on professional development programmes ..	125
Table 15: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the impacts of a professional development programme	127
Table 16: Pearson's correlation coefficient for the impacts of a professional development programme	129
Table 17: Participants' responses to Section 2 of the questionnaire	130
Table 18: Chi-squared test of headteachers' qualifications and the impact of a professional development programme	136
Table 19: Cramer's V statistics for Chi-squared statistics looking at the differences between headteachers' qualifications and their responses to the questionnaire statements	137
Table 20: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the elements of a professional development programme	139
Table 21: Pearson's correlation coefficient for the elements of a professional development programme	140
Table 22: Participants' responses to Section 3 of the questionnaire	142

Table 23: Chi-squared findings of headteachers' qualifications and the elements of a professional development programme	146
Table 24: Cramér's V results with regard to headteachers' qualifications and the importance of the elements of a professional development programme.....	148
Table 25: Total responses and percentage for the location of a professional development programme	151
Table 26: Total responses and percentage for the time length of a professional development programme	154
Table 27: Total responses and percentage towards the timing of a professional development programme	158
Table 28: Headteachers' frequency for the sub-themes of the positive effects of a professional development programme	165
Table 29: Headteachers' responses to the impact of PDP on their performance.....	167
Table 30: Headteachers' responses to professional development elements	170
Table 31: Headteachers' responses to the location of a professional development programme	172
Table 32: Professional development programme lengths	173
Table 33: Timing of a professional development programme	176
Table 34: Barriers to a professional development programme	180
Table 35: A model for leadership preparation and induction	203
Table 36: Gulf countries' ranking for educational attainment	215

List of Figures

Figure 1: Map showing Saudi Arabia	3
Figure 2: Population of Saudi Arabia.....	4
Figure 3: Roles of headteachers	27
Figure 4: Summary of headteachers' role and responsibilities	29
Figure 5: Common factors in professional development programmes in Western countries and in Arabic and Islamic countries	47
Figure 6: Strategies applied for headteachers' professional development	48
Figure 7: Development of organizational culture	56
Figure 8: The four elements of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions.....	60
Figure 9: Challenges facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia 1988-1989	78
Figure 10: Challenges facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia 1990-1997	79
Figure 11: Difficulties facing Saudi headteachers 2001-2015.....	84
Figure 12: Problems facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia that are similar when compared with other countries	86
Figure 13: Research continuum	104
Figure 14: Qualifications of the female headteachers who took part in the study...	124
Figure 15: Main preferences for the location of a professional development programme	150
Figure 16: Main preferences for the length of a professional development programme	152
Figure 17: Main preferences for the time of a professional development programme	156
Figure 18: Interview themes	162
Figure 19: The five sub-themes on the positive effects of a professional development programme	163
Figure 20: Themes identified regarding how a professional development programme can improve headteachers' performance.....	166
Figure 21: Sub-themes of elements of a professional development programme.....	168
Figure 22: Sub-themes for professional development programme time	174
Figure 23: Sub-themes of professional development programme barriers	177
Figure 24: Proposed professional development programme for female headteachers in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia	201

List of Abbreviations

ADU	Abu Dhabi University
CPD	Continuing professional development
CMA	Saudi Arabian Capital Markets Authority
DEF	District Effectiveness Framework
DSU	Delta State University
EHP	Early Headship Provision
GDP	Gross domestic product
GPGE	General Presidency for Girls' Education
IAD	Institut Aminuddin Baki (National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership in Malaysia)
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISLLC	Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium
KASP	King Abdulla Scholarship Programme
LftM	Leading from the Middle
LP	Leadership Pathway
LPSH	Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers
NCSL	National College for School Leadership
NPQEL	National Professional Qualification for Educational Leaders
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
NPQML	National Professional Qualification for Middle Leadership
NPQSL	National Professional Qualification for Senior Leadership
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OLF	Ontario Institute for Education Leadership
OPEC	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries
PNQ	Papua New Guinea
PQP	Principals' Qualification Programme
PRISM	Primary School Management
SEF	School Effectiveness Framework
SFH	Standard for Headship
SQH	Scottish Qualification for Headship
SWC	Sharjah Women's College
UAE	United Arab Emirates
USA	United States of America
WTO	World Trade Organization

Chapter 1: Introduction

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an insight into Saudi Arabia, in order for the reader to obtain an understanding of the context of this research. Information about the education system in the Kingdom is also discussed, including the education of females. The main body that controls education in Saudi Arabia is the Ministry of Education, as this chapter illustrates. Furthermore, female headteachers' administrative work is discussed, as this aspect is focused on during the study. The introductory chapter also presents the aim and objectives of this study and outlines the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Saudi Arabia

Muhammad Bin Saud established the Saudi state around the year 1750 CE. Muhammad Bin Saud collaborated with Muhammad Abd Al-Wahhab, considered to be an Islamic reformer, to establish a new political view for the Kingdom (Country Watch Review, 2016). Since then, the Saudi royal family has had a difficult time controlling the peninsula, facing problems with Egypt, the Ottoman Turks and other Arab tribes living in the peninsula. In 1902, King Abd Al-Aziz retook Riyadh, which was the capital of the Saud family's kingdom and had been taken over by his enemy, the Al-Rashid family. From 1913 to 1926, King Abd Al-Aziz continued to expand his rule by capturing the city of Al-Hasa in the eastern region of the peninsula, Najd, which is located in the centre of the peninsula and Hijaz, which is west of the peninsula. King Abd Al-Aziz established the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932 by uniting all the regions in the peninsula (Country Watch Review, 2016). The northern borders of the Kingdom with Iraq, Kuwait and Jordan were embedded in the 1920s. Saudi Arabia has, with Kuwait and Iraq, established two 'neutral zones', one with each of the countries (Country Watch Review, 2016, 8). However, in 1970, the neutral zone with Kuwait was sectioned, whereby each country could equally use the oil resources in the zone. The sectioning of the Saudi zone with Iraq started in 1981, the two countries reaching a final agreement to section the zone in 1983. With regard to the southern border of Saudi Arabia, there was a war with Yemen in the southern region of the Kingdom, although the king reached an agreement with Yemen to section the border between the two countries in 1934. The final agreement over the Saudi border between Kuwait and Yemen was defined in 2000. The eastern region of Saudi Arabia borders

the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Qatar. The Emirates agreed to establish a border with Saudi Arabia in 1974, whereas there was an ongoing disagreement with Qatar over its border with Saudi Arabia which was not agreed until June 1999 (Country Watch Review, 2016). Today, Saudi Arabia occupies a large area of the Arabian Peninsula, about four-fifths, covering 868,730 square miles. It is located between Asia, Africa and Europe, which provides it with an important link between them. Surrounding Saudi Arabia are Iraq, Kuwait and Jordan to the north; in the south are Oman and Yemen; and to the east are the UAE, Qatar, Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf, as shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1: Map showing Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is divided into 13 provinces: Al Baha, Al Hudud Ash Shamaliya (Northern Border), Al Jawf, Medina, Al Qasim, Riyadh, Ash Sharqiyah (Eastern), Asir, Ha'il, Jazan, Makkah, Najran and Tabuk. A member of the Saudi royal family is appointed to lead each province (CIA, 2016). Riyadh is the capital city of Saudi Arabia and is situated in the centre of the Kingdom. Dammam and Jeddah are the main cities for exporting oil in Saudi Arabia. Makkah and Madinah are known as the holy cities and play host to Muslims each year for hajj (pilgrimage) (Al-Zarah, 2008). In 2016, Saudi Arabia had a population of 28,160,273, 30% of whom were immigrants (CIA, 2016). The majority of the Saudi population is of a young age: 26.56% are 0-14 years

old, 18.85% are aged 15-24, 46.4% are in the 25-54 age group, 4.86% are aged 55-64, and 3.34% are 65 years and over (CIA, 2016). Those aged 0-14 years old are divided between 3,835,472 males and 3,644,041 females; the age group of those 15-24 years old includes 2,843,422 males and 2,465,027 females; those aged 25-54 are divided between 7,401,654 males and 5,663,769 females; with regards to the group of 55-64 year olds, the number of males is 747,307 and 620,100 are female; and those aged 65 years and over include 478,244 males and 461,237 females (CIA, 2016). In conclusion, it is indicated that the majority of the Saudi Arabia population falls within the younger age groups. Figure 2 summarizes the population of Saudi Arabia with regards to sex and age.

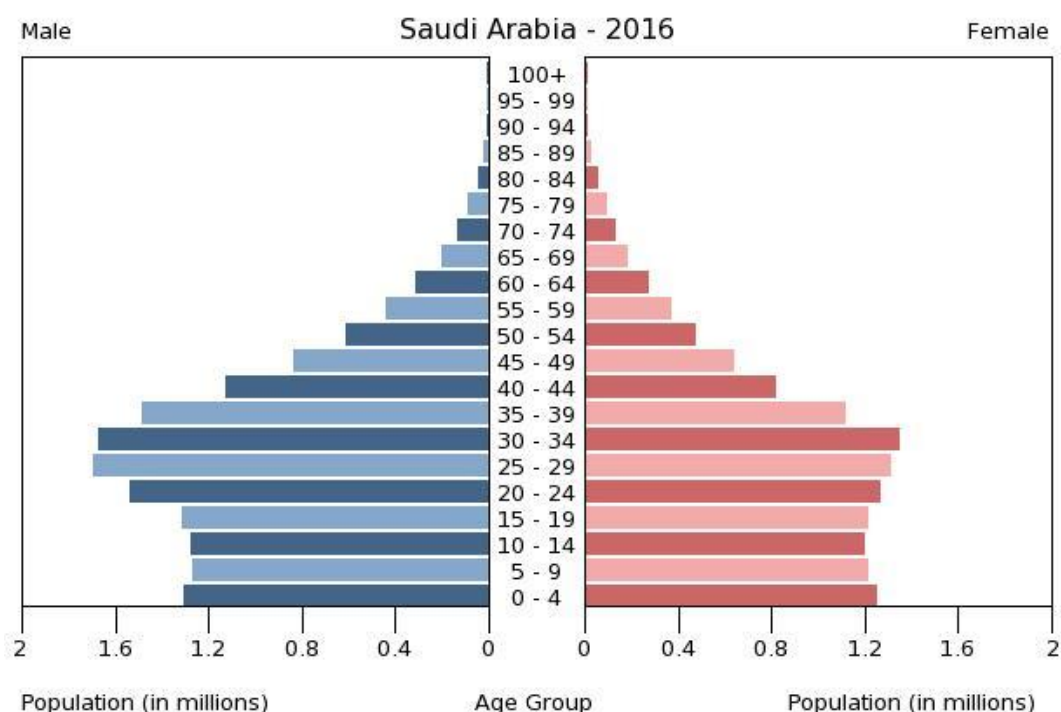


Figure 2: Population of Saudi Arabia (<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/sa.html>)

The government in Saudi Arabia functions as an absolute monarchy and the country does not have a formal constitution. Saudi Arabia is ruled by a king, who is a member of the royal family and acts as the head of the Saudi government. The king is chosen exclusively by the members of the royal family and is then approved by the *Ulama* (religious authorities). “National elections” and “political parties” are prevented by the king (Country Watch Review, 2016, 92), and “the authority of the monarchy is based on ‘Shari’ah’ (sacred Islamic law)” (Country Watch Review, 2016, 92). The

king does, however, need the approval of members of the royal family, and is obliged to consult the *Ulama* when implementing his powers. Since the establishment of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932, all the Saudi kings have slowly established a central government. The Council of Ministers was established in 1953, with the executive power to establish and advise on general policies, and has played a role in the rise of bureaucracy (Country Watch Review, 2016). Members of the Council of Ministers can only be appointed by the king and are not elected by the public. Furthermore, the Council of Ministers consists of a “Prime Minister, the first and second Deputy Prime Ministers, 20 ministers (of whom the Minister of Defence is also the second Deputy Prime Minister), two ministers of state, and a small number of advisers and heads of major autonomous organizations” (Country Watch Review, 2016, 92). The Council of Ministers has the role of passing legislation that comes from the king, although the legislation needs to be compatible with Shari’ah law. The Consultative Council (*Majlis ash-Shoura*) is responsible for the role of legislating in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Country Watch Review, 2016). The Consultative Council was established in 1993 and, similar to the Council of Ministers, its members are also appointed exclusively by the king.

The economy of Saudi Arabia is heavily dependent on oil and the Kingdom holds 25% of the world's petroleum industry. Saudi Arabia is also considered the largest exporter of petroleum, and has, therefore, an important function within the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). The Saudi government revenue is 80% from the petroleum sector, in addition to 90% of export incomes and 45% of gross domestic product (GDP) (Country Watch Review, 2016). Moreover, the production of Saudi Arabian oil is estimated at 10.5 to 11 million barrels of oil on a daily basis. However, in recent years, the Saudi government has decided to decrease its reliance on petrol by developing structural improvements and encouraging the growth of the private sector (Country Watch Review, 2016). Furthermore, the Saudi government has improved the investment climate, encouraging foreign investment in the country, and brought about accession to the World Trade Organization (WTO) in December 2005. Since then, there has been an immediate decrease in public debt and a considerable increase in the status of external assets, caused by current account surpluses and the high financial status of the government, minimizing Saudi Arabia’s vulnerability to fluctuations in oil prices. Saudi Arabia was strong during the global economic crisis

of 2008, because of the country's rational macroeconomic policies and structural changes that supported the economy. In 2009, Saudi Arabia's increased gross domestic product (GDP) remained positive because of the Saudi government's support for the activity of its non-oil economy, whereas oil production was affected by a drop in world oil prices and demand. In 2010, the economic growth of Saudi Arabia recovered strongly, along with global economic progress. The fast growth in the Saudi economy was caused by both the non-oil and oil sectors, which were able to develop through increases in public spending and global demand (Country Watch Review, 2016).

The Saudi government decided to develop six economic cities, at a cost to the country of around \$373 billion, dedicated to rebuilding the country and improving the social environment over the period from 2010 until 2014. In 2011, growth in GDP was 7.1%, which included an increase in the non-oil sector of 8%, being the highest since 1981, and an 8.5% increase in the private sector. The economic performance of Saudi Arabia was considered strong, as mentioned by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 2012. Moreover, during the economic crisis, Saudi Arabia "provided crucial support to the global economy during a period of uncertainty, including through its actions in stabilizing the global oil market" (Country Watch Review, 2016, 143). By the middle of 2012, the Saudi Arabian market was considered the strongest in the Gulf area in the Middle East. During 2012, the economy of Saudi Arabia continued to show improvement, due to high oil prices, increases in the growth of the private sector and government spending. However, in 2013 there was a slower increase in economic growth because of a decline in oil production, whereas the private sector maintained good growth.

Saudi Arabia had taken advantage of the rising price of oil over the years but, between 2014 and September 2015, the price of oil fell from \$107 to less than \$50 per barrel (Al-Torkistani et al., 2016). In addition, the low price of oil affected the Saudi Arabian economy, which led to a decrease in revenue that caused major impacts on the fiscal policy in the country. Therefore, the Saudi government decided to lower its foreign reserves, reduce spending on unnecessary projects and establish local currency bonds. Saudi revenues were predicted to decrease by \$80 billion in 2015, which caused a shortfall in the government's public spending budget of 20% of GDP (IMF, 2015a). By contrast, the Saudi Arabian fiscal surplus increased to 32% of GDP, which is considered a high rise over 15 years (Al-Torkistani et al., 2016). The Saudi economy

has been unstable because of the country's dependence on oil, in addition to which there have been the change in global oil use to renewable energy, the continuous updates to technology and the use of energy that is environmentally friendly.

Saudi Arabia's official religion is Islam, and Arabic is the spoken language. Religion is an essential factor in the Kingdom affecting the whole of Saudi culture and society (Al-Saggaf, 2004). There is a mix of ethnic populations living in Saudi Arabia: "1.6 million Indians, 1.5 million Bangladeshis, 1.2 million Filipinos, 1 million Pakistanis, 1 million Egyptians, 600,000 Indonesians, 400,000 Sri Lankans, 350,000 Nepalese, 250,000 Palestinians, 150,000 Lebanese, 100,000 Eritreans, and 30,000 Americans" (US Department of State, 2008). It is, however, difficult to determine the number of people in the population who are not followers of Islam (US Department of State, 2008). Moreover, Saudi Arabia is considered globally to be the most conservative Islamic country, because the Saudi government follows Wahabism (Country Watch Review, 2016). Wahabism is a Sunni path that is part of the religion of Islam based on the writings of Ibn Abd Alwahab, who was affected by Ibn Taymiah's Hanbaly scholar during the 14th century (Country Watch Review, 2016). By contrast, the religion of Islam considers that females have a right equal to that of men to learn, and should have the freedom to work in any job they desire (Alsuwaida, 2016). There are many examples of women's right to work in Islamic history. For example, Kadijah, who was one of the Prophet Mohammed's wives, was considered a businesswoman, and had a business which she managed herself. Aisha, another of the Prophet's wives, worked as a teacher who taught women about history and religion (Ahmed, 1992). As Islam supports female learning, the Saudi government has been interested in building an educated community which includes girls. The following section will outline female education in Saudi Arabia, to give an understanding of how and when it was established and developed through time.

1.3 Education in Saudi Arabia

This section describes the establishment of formal education in Saudi Arabia for both girls and boys, and includes the four levels of school in the country: kindergarten, primary, intermediate and secondary. Higher education for females in Saudi Arabia is also discussed. The Saudi government established the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education to manage education in the country, and the work of

these ministries is introduced in this section. This is followed by a section on the role of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

1.3.1 School levels in Saudi Arabia

The Directorate of Education was established by King Abdul-Aziz in Makkah in 1924 and was considered the foundation of the modern system of education in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Education, 1978). In order to expand education, King Abdul-Aziz established schools and libraries and made primary education free and compulsory for all in 1928. Education was divided by King Abdul-Aziz into four levels: kindergarten, which includes children under six years old; primary, which lasts from the age of six to 12 years old; intermediate, which goes from the age of 12 to 15; and secondary, which applies to those aged 15 to 18 (Al-Huqail, 1998). There were no qualified teachers in Saudi Arabia at the time, so qualified personnel were brought in from other Arab countries, particularly Egypt, to deliver education in Saudi schools (Al-Zarah, 2008). The regulation and registration of private schools was also undertaken by the Directorate of Education, although there were very few of these schools in Saudi Arabia at the time. Only 65 state schools were established in 1947, with an attendance of only 10,000 male students. In 2002, the government of Saudi Arabia decided to improve the education system by developing a new policy. This new policy included changing the Directorate of Education to the Ministry of Education and combining girls' and boys' education under one formal management, as, in the past, girls' education was solely operated by the Directorate of Education. This also led to the development of more schools, which helped to spread education in Saudi Arabia (Al-Zarah, 2008).

Before 1960, there were not many schools for females in Saudi Arabia, few girls having the opportunity to receive a formal education, such as in a primary school. Indeed, there is no record of such schools at that time (Al-Zarah, 2008). Furthermore, parents who wanted to educate their daughters had to pay for private schools to teach them at home, if they could afford it. Females and males were taught the Quran, Arabic and the basics of mathematics (Al-Zarah, 2008). In 1928, the first female schools were established in Madina, leading to an increase in the number of schools to six in 1930, as well as in Hijaz, although female education was not yet the rule (Hafiz, 1982). The wife of Prince Faisal, Iffat Al-Thuniyyan, whose husband later became

king, established the first modern girls' primary school in 1956, located in Jeddah (Al-Zarah, 2008). Many Saudi people welcomed this step, but a few rejected it, along with the *Ulama*, which is the religious authority in Saudi Arabia (Al-Zarah, 2008). Despite this, Prince Faisal declared that:

The state is opening this school in fulfillment of its duty to the community, but it cannot force you to send your daughters to it. As long as there is the possibility of even one girl coming at any time to the school to learn, the school must remain available and equipped with teachers in advance and the state must protect its existence with all the power it possesses (Assah, 1969, 19).

King Saud Ibn Abdul-Aziz was also interested in the importance of Saudi female education and established the General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE) in 1960. The GPGE developed a separate education system for female schools that involves kindergarten, primary, intermediate and secondary education levels, although it is similar to that of male schools (Al-Otaiby, 1987). In 1978, the policy of Saudi education was to develop the objectives of the female education system, including the intention "to bring girls into an Islamic environment in which they can fulfill their duties in life as successful housekeepers, ideal wives and suitable mothers and to prepare them for tasks suited to their disposition, such as teaching, nursing and medicine" (Ministry of Education, 1978, 28). King Saud Ibn Abdul-Aziz developed girls-only state schools, including primary, intermediate and secondary educational levels. Due to the culture of the country, females had to be strictly segregated from males. The GPGE developed a curriculum associated with the religion of Islam and the Saudi culture, establishing 15 primary schools in 1961, as well as four intermediate schools in 1964 which subsequently increased to seven (Al-Huqail, 1998). Riyadh was the first city in the Kingdom to build a secondary school for girls only, with 21 pupils (Al-Gamidi, 2005). The number of girls' schools rose to 13,893 in 2000, including primary, intermediate and secondary schools, and the GPGE has opened 28 offices around the regions of Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education combined with the GPGE on 24 March 2002 (Al-Gamidi, 2005).

Education in Saudi Arabia is influenced by two factors: the country's religion, which is Islam, and the country's centralized political and administrative system (Motoally, 2004). In addition, the design of the curriculum is affected by the government's interpretation of Islam that females are not equal to males, which limits their choices

in education in areas such as engineering and law, whereas males have more choices, which enables them to study any subject they like except cooking, because this is not provided by the government for cultural reasons. Saudi government policy, and all aspects of the country are based on Islam, including education (Alyami, 2014). In addition, the school curriculum, which is controlled by the government, “has proved that developing curricula before entering the classroom does not mean pedagogy is complete” (Alsuwaida, 2016: 112). Alsuwaida (2016, 112) continued by asserting that “Pedagogy should be adjusted as individual learning styles are discovered”. Cameron and Cowan (1983, 755) pointed out the influence of Islam in all aspects of life in Saudi Arabia, as follows:

Saudi Arabia is the heartland of Islam, the guardian of the holy places; and nowhere is the influence of religion felt more directly or explicitly. Theoretically, religion and the state are one, and the Saudi constitution is the Quran.

The educational system in Saudi Arabia lasts from year one until the third level of secondary school, from the age of six until pupils are 18 years old. Children in Saudi Arabia, both male and female, attend school five days a week, from Sunday to Thursday, the weekend taking place on Friday and Saturday. In the past, children used to attend school from Saturday to Wednesday, with the weekend on Thursday and Friday. Kindergarten, primary, intermediate and secondary schools have a similar academic year, which is followed in all parts of the country. The school year starts in September, ends in July and is separated into two terms, each lasting about 18 weeks. The rest of the year has 16 weeks of holiday periods. Before their children attend school, parents have the option to enrol them at the pre-school level, which includes kindergarten and nursery.

Kindergarten schools are divided into two types: private kindergartens, which are both international and local, and public kindergartens. Both private and local kindergartens include three stages, KG1, KG2 and KG3, and are controlled by the Ministry of Education (Alsunbul et al., 2008). Children can attend kindergarten from the age of three to six years old, although it is not compulsory to attend the kindergarten stage in Saudi Arabia (Al-Jadidi, 2012). Male and female students are not segregated in kindergarten schools, but this is the only school level that allows mixed-gender education in Saudi Arabia.

With regard to primary schools, all children enter at the age of seven, and from Years 1 to 6 take six lessons a day, each lesson lasting 45 minutes. Students from Years 1 to 3 study different subjects, including Islamic studies, Arabic, mathematics, art and science. However, boys and girls are separated in primary school and the curricula are slightly different, as boys study physical education. Students from Years 4 to 6 learn new subjects, such as English, computing and social studies. Students in primary schools undergo continuous assessment in order to measure their achievement during the school year, but they do not have examinations (Alafaleq and Fan, 2014). At the end of each term, the teachers present the students' final evaluation based on continuous assessment to both the Ministry of Education and the children's parents. The Ministry of Education has set guidelines on students' continuous assessment for primary schools, which include the following: a score of 1 indicates that the student has successfully mastered all the required skills; 2 indicates that the student has mastered 66% of the required skills; 3 demonstrates that the student has mastered 33% of the required skills and is considered to have passed; and 4 means that the student has not mastered the required skills and this is considered a fail (Alafaleq and Fan, 2014).

In relation to intermediate and secondary schools, students take seven classes every day. The school day starts at 7 am and ends at 2 in the afternoon. Similar to the primary level, girls and boys are not taught together and have separate schools. Intermediate school lasts from Years 7 to 9, and includes advanced subjects that are different from those offered in elementary school. However, boys are offered more subjects than girls, such as computing and physical activities. Intermediate schools are different from primary schools, in that the students take part in final exams. The exams are based around information that has been taught in the classroom and has been included in the school textbooks. Moreover, every subject is divided into two assessment patterns: assessment during term time, which includes class participation, homework and quizzes, and the final examination. During term time, assessment is considered to be 40% of the overall evaluation, and the final examination is considered to be 60% of the overall evaluation of the students. In order for a student to pass intermediate school, he or she should achieve 50% of the overall evaluation in every one of the three years spent in intermediate school.

With regard to secondary schools, secondary education begins from Year 10 and lasts until Year 12, involving a total of three years. Boys and girls start secondary education from the age of 15 and are taught in separate schools. Secondary school is considered the final school stage before both male and female students go to university. When a student completes Year 10, which is the first year of secondary school, he or she has a choice of two paths, whether literature or science subjects, to complete his or her studies during the final two years in secondary school (Years 11 and 12). Literature subjects include English, Islamic studies, Social studies and Arabic studies. Scientific subjects include science, chemistry, mathematics, physics and subjects not related to science, such as Islamic studies and Arabic. Similar to intermediate school, students in secondary school participate in examinations. Students in secondary school are assessed during term time, which involves doing school projects, homework, quizzes, and their attendance, which covers 50% of the overall grades. The final examinations represent 50% of the overall grades. Students pass the secondary school stage if they can achieve at least 50% of the overall grade.

Elementary school is divided into six years, starting from Year one and finishing in Year six. After that, pupils go to intermediate school, which combines three levels, each taking one school year. After intermediate school comes secondary school, which also includes three levels over three years. However, at the second level of secondary school, pupils have the choice between taking literary or scientific subjects (Al-Gamidi, 2005). In Saudi Arabia, boys and girls have separate schools and the school curriculum for boys has extra subjects, such as computer and physical education, the girls' curriculum being less extensive (Alsuwaida, 2016). Girls' education in Saudi Arabia has the following general aims:

- Girls should be educated in accordance with Saudi Arabia's interpretation of Islamic law, which is considered essential in family life, and they receive an education that can help prepare them for careers, for instance in the medical or teaching fields.
- It is important to identify the needs of the increasing numbers of females in schools, providing them with knowledge that could meet the country's needs (Al-Huqail, 1999).

However, the Saudi education system has been criticized by academics at government level in recent years. Academics have criticized the standard of accomplishment in education, and urged changes in teachers' preparation, teaching procedures and the school curriculum (Albahiri, 2010). Furthermore, a book issued by Alaisa (2009), called *Reforming Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia* presented a criticism of the Saudi education system, arguing that the procedures used were insufficient and did not comply with developed global education. Alaisa (2009) mentions that the system operating in Saudi education contains a number of faults and was only appropriate for making clerks, not future thinkers. He also criticizes the curriculum for being overloaded with information that focuses on the memory of the students, their success in school being based on their ability to memorize. There is a need for the Saudi government to make changes and develop the education system in order to adapt to developed global education.

The Saudi government sets a yearly budget, which is increased annually, for developing education in the country. A 2015 Fiscal Budget Report on Saudi Arabia issued by Jadwa Investment on 28th December 2014 indicated that the Saudi government had set aside a budget of 217 billion Saudi Riyal (around 57 billion US dollars) to spend on education in 2015 (for the period between 31st December 2014 and 30th December 2015). Jadwa Investment (2015) stated in their report:

Education and training was allocated SR217 billion, a moderate 3 percent increase on 2014's allocation. Around SR14 billion will be used to finance 164 new projects, including 'new' additions to existing projects whilst SR12 billion will be allocated to the refurbishment of several universities plus the construction of three new universities. Another SR400 million will be used for the refurbishment of general schools and sport centres. SR22 billion has been allocated for the over 207,000 Saudi students studying abroad and their families. The allocation also takes into account the government continued commitment on building and operating several technical and vocational colleges and institutions (Jadwa Investment, 2015).

Jadwa Investment is a private Saudi company based in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia that is authorized by the Saudi Arabian Capital Markets Authority (CMA) to operate as an investment bank which complies with Islamic laws.

1.3.2 Higher education

Regarding higher education, before the GPGE was founded, females in Saudi Arabia did not have any formal higher education in the country, although there were some universities abroad for any female who wanted to continue her education, particularly in Lebanon and Egypt (Al-Hefdhhy, 1994). At the Institute of Higher Education in 1961-1962, females in Saudi Arabia had the opportunity to enrol at the College of Administrative Science and the College of Art. The Institute of Higher Education was established in Riyadh in 1957-1958 and became the King Saud University in 1975. Since then, females in Saudi Arabia began to enrol at King Saud University, at the newly developed Administrative Science College in 1978 and the Art College in 1976 (Al-Hazzaa, 1993). In Jeddah, in 1967-1968, the King Abdul-Aziz University began to accept female students as regular pupils in the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, but only at evening classes (Khayat, 2006). The third university to start accepting female students in some departments as external students from 1967 was the University of Umm Al-Qura, which was located in Makkah, and, from 1971, female students were enrolled full time (Khayat, 2006). After that, other universities in the Kingdom started to accept female students in several of their departments. After Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz became king in 2005, the number of universities and colleges increased from eight to a total of 52 across the Kingdom (Ministry of Education, 2013).

Education for Saudi females improved in 2009 when Norah Al Faiz was assigned by King Abdullah as Deputy Minister for Education (*Economist*, 2014). Norah Al Faiz worked as an academic supervisor at the Saudi Cultural Bureau in the United States of America and was then appointed general director of the female department at the Institute of Public Administration in Riyadh. King Abdullah made a major contribution to female education after being appointed King of Saudi Arabia in 2005, establishing various educational programmes to address flaws in education. The following are examples of King Abdullah's endeavours: the King Abdullah Scholarship Programme (KASP), which started in 2005 (*Arab News*, 2012), for which he allocated a high budget for general education development (Ministry of Education, 2013), and the Tatweer Programme, which focuses on developing new teaching techniques. In addition, King Abdullah's contribution to education changed the old policies of government which prevented women from participating in major positions, issuing new policies to give women in Saudi Arabia the chance to be appointed to

major positions which could influence policy decisions. The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education are responsible for the control of the education system in Saudi Arabia and will be discussed next.

1.3.3 The Ministry of Education

In Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education is the main governing body for education, and the only one with responsibility for education and schools. The Ministry of Education is responsible for designing the national curriculum, making policies and evaluating schools. The education system in Saudi Arabia is centralized, and the goal of the Ministry of Education is to deliver and improve education throughout the country. The Ministry has the following functions, to:

- Implement policies in schools;
- Develop, plan and apply educational programmes;
- Ensure teacher training and professional development through courses;
- Develop rules and regulations concerning the education system for both school staff and pupils;
- Ensure private schools maintain the high standards of the Ministry's curricula and programmes;
- Cooperate with other government departments in order to improve education;
- Ensure that educational aims are fulfilled;
- Lower rates of illiteracy by developing special programmes;
- Continue to conduct research in order to develop the educational process;
- Issue policies for headteachers to implement in their schools.

1.3.4 The Ministry of Higher Education

In 1975, the Ministry of Higher Education was founded to apply a policy of higher education in Saudi Arabia. Saudi education offices abroad, scholarships and international academic affairs are also the responsibility of the Ministry of Higher Education (Al-Sunbul, 1998). The number of students attending universities consists of 165,225 females and 149,304 males (Ministry of Education, 2015). Saudi Arabia has 24 public universities, eight private universities, and 21 private colleges (Ministry of Education, 2013). These universities provide different subjects, such as medicine, science, law and social studies. However, not all subjects are available for female

students, such as engineering and law, because of restrictions by the Saudi government. Universities only provide females with teaching in the following subjects: education, medicine, science, languages and the arts. The Ministry of Higher Education has the responsibility of managing and supervising these institutions, as well as monitoring the programmes of higher education, and is in charge of overseas scholarships for Saudi students (Al-Huqail, 1998).

King Abdullah combined the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education in 2015 to improve the education system and educational outcomes and to benefit students in Saudi Arabia (*Alriyadh Journal*, 2015). The Ministry of Education is the main body that controls schools in Saudi Arabia. School policies are also governed by the Ministry and have to be enforced by school headteachers. The next section explains the duties of female headteachers and the way they function in schools.

1.3.5 Female school principals in Saudi Arabia

Headteachers in Saudi Arabia begin their work as teachers for a minimum of four years. To become a teacher, they have to study for four years to obtain a bachelor's degree from a College of Education, which are available in every Saudi university. After this they can be assigned by the Ministry of Education to become deputy headteachers. Headteachers can be nominated by the Ministry of Education to fulfil the role of headteacher after they have worked for four years as a deputy headteacher. However, any teacher can work as a headteacher after eight years' experience, without the need for any management preparation programme for the post (Alzaidi, 2008). In addition, there is no guarantee of the appropriateness of their knowledge or experience, whether creative or progressive, and there is a possibility of homogenized staff management, causing all principals to gain similar values and knowledge without recognizing their pupils' or teachers' needs. According to Schrum and Levin (2013), lack of knowledge and experience leads to the demonstration of poor creative leadership, which is an issue in itself, because educational leadership should aim to raise the learning of pupils and cultivate positive educational results.

There is one headteacher and two or three deputy headteachers in each school in Saudi Arabia. Al-Amirah (2002) stipulated that, on the basis of a Ministry of Education's

circular (policy number 24/5/10301), all female headteachers have to fulfil their job as follows:

- Headteachers are required to identify technical and administrative needs related to current work, in order to coordinate with the relative authority that might satisfy those needs.
- Headteachers are responsible for accepting new students and registering them. Also, school headteachers need to arrange files and archives, in addition to organizing staff files and archives and preparing reports about them.
- They are required to observe students' behaviour and maintain student discipline in their school.
- Headteachers are responsible for directing and arranging student activities inside and outside their school.
- The headteacher needs to observe the health, education and social life of her students.
- Headteachers are required to arrange and deliver general school examinations and documents to their students, also organizing teachers' work and arranging the school schedule.
- Headteachers have the responsibility to monitor the absences of teachers and students.
- Headteachers need to maintain and improve the relationship between the school and the community, also maintaining the good condition of school buildings, including school amenities such as the garden, classrooms, laboratory and food and drink.
- Headteachers play an important role in motivating staff and students' participation in activities to meet educational aims and objectives.
- They are responsible for making sure that the Arabic language is correctly written in reports, notes, speeches and examination forms.

Headteachers must also prepare their deputies to take on their position when the headteacher is absent (Al-Amirah, 2002). Al-Huqail (1998) mentioned that a deputy headteacher is responsible for supporting the headteacher by helping them to maintain school work. Moreover, deputy headteachers are responsible for organizing prayer times for both students and teachers. Furthermore, a deputy headteacher is required to

achieve tasks allotted to her by the headteacher, such as organizing school files. The deputy headteacher needs to liaise with social supervisors, academic staff and students, and to monitor and evaluate both students and school staff in conjunction with the headteacher. A deputy head plays an important role in the educational process. She often performs the role of headteacher and is capable of becoming one in both her own and other schools (Al-Huqail, 1998).

1.4 Statement of the problem

Headteachers' roles in school have undergone continuous and global changes over the years, and headteachers need to be prepared to adapt to these (Goodwin et al., 2003). It is important to prepare headteachers to lead schools and develop their skills in the workplace, as they are considered the apex of the pyramid in every school. Professional development is important for the success of organizations (O'Sullivan, 2004). In Saudi Arabia, female teachers are appointed directly to headteachers' positions without any preparation for this position. The Ministry of Education has focused only on the professional development of female schoolteachers, thereby failing to realise that female headteachers have an important role in their school. This lack of professional preparation for female headteachers will increase the difficulties they face when managing school, staff, pupils and the school community. Dimmock (1996, 32) states that:

School leaders experience difficulty in deciding the balance between higher order tasks designed to improve staff, student and school performance (leadership), routine maintenance of present operations (management) and lower order duties (administration). Restructuring generates increased expectations for school leadership, while at the same time demanding more work of a maintenance and lower order nature.

However, headteachers in Saudi Arabia have a low level of authority, due to the amount of bureaucracy in their relations with the Ministry of Education (Alzaidi, 2008). In a centralized education system such as that of Saudi Arabia, headteachers cannot introduce their own beliefs and personality into their schools (Fenech, 1994). According to Fenech (1994, 131), being able to make decisions relies on a high level of autonomy, whereas "centralised educational systems constrain local autonomy". Autonomy is the degree of authority which a school principal has. Saudi headteachers are not permitted to make any adjustment to their school premises (Al-Buraidi, 2006).

One of the issues affecting society in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is gender segregation and inequality, which is linked to the society, economy and culture. In spite of the changes in Saudi education in recent years, there has been no dramatic change in teaching practices for females in Saudi Arabia. Women in Saudi Arabia still face segregation and limitations, even if they have the opportunity to access higher education (Alfahadi, 2012). Women's education in Saudi Arabia is affected by religious regulators, who control the curriculum of women's education, leading to limitations in their instruction. From my experience as a school teacher, there may be a lack of professionalism on the headteacher's part in managing a school. Female headteachers experience insufficient training, which can affect their ability to manage their school (Brinia, 2011). To give clear image of the way female headteachers perform in their schools in Saudi Arabia, there is a need to understand what professional development is, and how it can benefit headteachers in their school work. This research focuses on the professional development of female primary school headteachers in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The research will examine professional development programmes for head-teachers in other nations, in order to develop a model of best practice. It will then focus on the practical implications of introducing such a model in the Saudi Arabian context. Any professional development programme for female headteachers in primary schools should be suited to the cultural nature of Saudi Arabia. Moreover, not only culture should be considered, but also the circumstances of females, which are different from those of males in Saudi Arabia.

1.5 Aim of the research

The aim of this research is to test whether a professional development best practice model can be used to create and implement a culturally appropriate programme of professional development for Saudi female primary school headteachers.

1.6 Research objectives

The research objectives of the study are as follows:

- To identify and gather information on current professional development programmes for primary school headteachers in other nations (UK, Australia, Singapore, etc.).
- To use this data to map common elements within these programmes, and to develop a professional development model.

- To consider models of headteacher professional development and their cultural appropriateness.
- To identify current experiences of professional development for female headteachers in primary schools in Saudi Arabia.
- To ascertain headteachers' professional development needs.
- To identify professional development strategies for Saudi female headteachers.

1.7 Research questions

The research will aim to answer the questions by using two methods, which are surveys and interviews. The research questions are as follows:

1. What professional development had the principals received
 - i) before their appointment as principal;
 - ii) immediately after appointment;
 - iii) since their first year in the post?
2. What professional development did they want
 - i) before their appointments as principal;
 - ii) immediately after appointment;
 - iii) since their first year in the post?
3. What is the headteachers' opinion of appropriate content for a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
4. How can professional development for school principals be facilitated?
5. What barriers may exist to this facilitation?

1.8 Methodological framework

A mixed method approach has been chosen for this research in order to collect in-depth data regarding which professional development programme would be appropriate for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The researcher collected data by using a survey for a sample of 101 female headteachers in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The researcher completed the data collection by interviewing 10 female headteachers. Semi-structured interview questions were designed for interviewing each of the 10 female headteachers individually. The data collected from the survey has been

analysed using the SPSS software programme. Data from the interviews were analysed using the NVivo program.

1.9 Study structure

The study is divided into six chapters. First, Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the research, including an outline of the study and its purpose. Secondly, Chapter 2 explains the literature review of the study, including theories of leadership, importance of professional development programmes, various international experiences of headteacher professional development programmes, and difficulties that may affect the application of a professional development programme for female headteachers in general, and in Saudi Arabia specifically. Chapter 3 then presents the methodological framework of the study, the methods used to collect data for the research, and what techniques were used to analyse the collected data. Chapter 4 demonstrates the findings presented from the analysis of the collected data. Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the research in relation to the literature reviewed in the study. Chapter 6 presents the conclusions of the study and offers recommendations for further research. References and appendices are included at the end.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Professional development is essential for any employee in any working environment, such as a school, a bank or a hospital. Such development helps to improve the work of professionals and enhances their achievements in their particular fields. In addition, school headteachers would benefit from participating in a professional development course on improving their leadership skills. As stated by Beare et al. (1989, 99), “outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools. There can no longer be doubt that those seeking quality in education must ensure its presence and that the development of potential leaders must be given high priority”. The aim of this literature review is to present previous research related to headteachers’ professional development. Substantial themes that are directed towards achieving the main goal of this research are also demonstrated in this chapter. The main goal of this research is to examine which professional development programme would be considered appropriate for Saudi female headteachers, according to the female headteachers who participated, given the current cultural and religious mores operating in Saudi Arabia. This chapter provides information about management in the educational field and an overview of the concept of school administration. Moreover, the headteacher’s role in schools and its transformation over time will be discussed in this chapter. It also provides an understanding of the concept of professional development. Models of professional development and their objectives are explored and categorized into two parts: international experience of professional development programmes, and Arabic and Islamic countries which have implemented a professional development programme for headteachers. Following an overview of different countries’ experiences of professional development, the chapter demonstrates strategies deployed for headteachers’ professional development that may support the implementation of such a programme. Moreover, this chapter illustrates cultural aspects and their influence on adopting a professional development programme in general, and in Saudi Arabia in particular. It is important to consider that there may be difficulties which could prevent the application of a professional development programmes for female headteachers. This chapter explores these challenges and provides some examples with regard to the matter. The chapter ends

with a summary of the above. The literature review chapter starts with an overview of management in the educational field.

2.2 Management in an educational context

Management in the educational field includes various aspects and skills that involve staff, pupils and parents. Headteachers have a responsibility, as managers, to lead their school to achieve a positive outcome. Educational management can also be considered as “The acts by which the manager can control, motivate, and guide her/his institution’s personnel, to achieve the institution and staff objectives” (Al-Jabr and Al-Mehelby, 1999: 20). Moreover, headteachers need to apply different skills to manage their schools, because it is insufficient to lead a school in only one specific way. The different circumstances facing individual headteachers require them to manage their respective schools differently. Therefore, Khawaja (2004) recommends that headteachers use different methods for school management to achieve the various school objectives. Moreover, headteachers utilise educational management, acting as leaders to ensure the execution of school policy, as Bolam (1999, 194) explains: “educational management refers to an executive function for carrying out agreed policy”. Nevertheless, management in education can be considered as a set of combined actions undertaken by a group of people who work together to implement the objectives of the education policy and, thereby, achieve its aims. Roomi (2000) also considers that educational management is the combined work of different people to achieve the objectives of education policy. The headteacher’s knowledge of management skills is considered essential in order to lead a school effectively. However, there is a difference between educational management and leadership that can be demonstrated by Bush (2008), in which management is associated with policy execution and leadership with values and implementing change. In addition, school leadership is defined by Bush and Glover (2003: 5) as follows:

Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.

Moreover, Burke (2008: 192-193) distinguished between leadership and management by defining leadership as “about vision; change; using one’s intuition, influence, persuasive and presentation skills; and rewarding people with personal praise and providing opportunities to learn new skills”. Burke (2008: 192-193) set management apart as “role, task accomplishments, setting objectives, and using the organisation’s resources (for example, budget or information systems) efficiently and effectively, and rewarding people with extrinsic factors such as money, titles, and promotions”. Leadership is a way of involving and influencing people that leads to an effective change in culture, whereas management aims to apply policies and, therefore, maintain a culture based on routines affected by the policy maker (Algarni and Male, 2014).

After presenting aspects that are involved in management in the educational context and the difference between leadership and management, the next section considers school administration.

2.3 School administration

Several definitions of school administration were found in the literature review. The following definitions provide more understanding of school administration and its relation to this study. Al-Huqail (1998) considered that school administration consists of the headteacher working with the support of school staff to achieve successful school outcomes. It involves the cooperation of a group of people which leads to a positive outcome (Al-Mutairi, 2005). In addition, Khawaja (2004, 9) indicated that school management is “The set of organized efforts made by school personnel in order to achieve the education objects at the school level”.

However, a headteacher’s function is not only to focus inside his or her school, as there are also circumstances outside a school that can influence its management. As Sulayman (1978) explains, there are internal and external elements that can affect responsibilities in schools, and the aim of school administration is to achieve the overall aim of the organization. The function of school administration is also based on school policy and headteachers should manage their schools according to that school policy (Murphy and Hallinger, 1992).

Furthermore, school administration can help guide headteachers in managing their schools by giving support to their staff so that they can improve their performance and

achieve the aim of the school policy. Ahmed (1997, 225) states that “school administration should be aimed at improving the educational process and increasing the level of educational performance by raising the awareness of the personnel of their responsibilities in the school, and offering them the proper educational guidance”. School administration responsibilities have four dimensions: “leadership, decision making, social process and solving problems” (Walker, 1965, 26).

In conclusion, based on the above illustrations of educational management and school administration, there is no difference between them, as explained above. Both educational management and school administration focus on how leaders manage their institutions effectively. School management is considered to be collaborative work between headteachers and their staff to ensure the success of school policy. Moreover, headteachers should apply different skills in their schools to achieve positive school outcomes. However, as mentioned before there is a difference between leadership, and school management.

Headteachers have several roles, each of which relates to different aspects of their job, in respect to staff, students and the organization. Those roles are explained in detail in the next section.

2.4 Headteachers’ roles and responsibilities

This section explores the responsibilities of headteachers and their duties towards their schools. There has been a significant change in the function of headteachers in achieving school outcomes (Catano and Stronge, 2006). Headteachers’ roles are becoming more complicated due to the frequent changes in school policies, the curriculum, and updates in technology, and therefore the work of headteachers has increased significantly (Trail, 2000, 2-4) (see Figure 3).

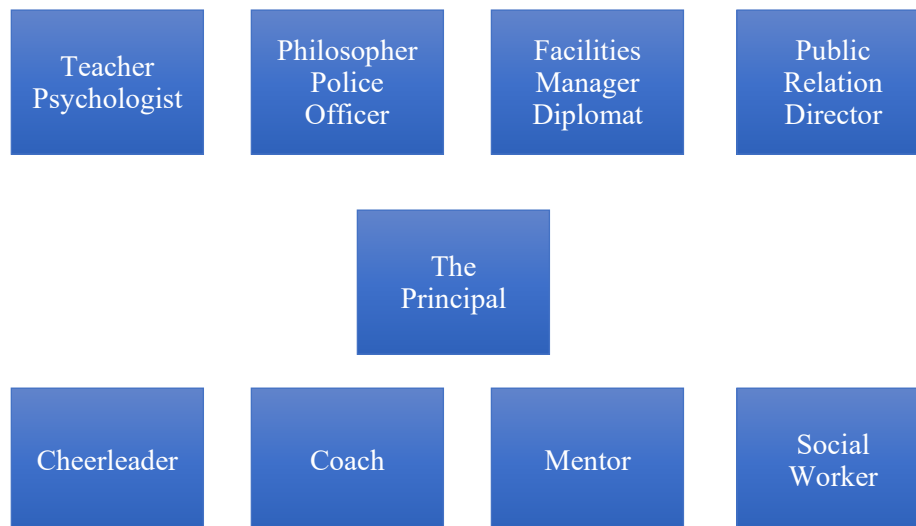


Figure 3: Roles of headteachers (Trail, 2000, 2-4)

However, headteachers may face difficulties when implementing their roles and fulfilling their responsibilities in school, which can affect their performance (Fink, 2010). Furthermore, they are experiencing more and more pressure to ensure the success of their school (Clark et al., 2009). They may be under pressure from the Ministry of Education to enforce their policies, in addition to the pressures of dealing with staff, students and parents, which increases their responsibilities and levels of stress. There is a need for headteachers to be up to date with technology, in order for them to maintain school successes (Schiller, 2003). Not only are headteachers responsible for school success, but they also have a duty to improve their school's performance. This requires more resources and a clear policy that will help promote the development of their school outcomes (Liusvaara, 2008). The difficulties facing headteachers may vary globally according to the stage of development of the country's education system. In the case of Saudi Arabia, the education system is in the early stage of development (Anderson, 2011; Whitaker, 2003), while in developed countries' educational systems, there have been major changes in the role of headteachers, whomay now be responsible for managing their schools and controlling the school budget (Hopkins, 2003). For example, the role of headteachers in England was explained by Male (2006, ix) as follows:

The role of head teacher has evolved since the inception of a compulsory education system for the nation's children in the latter stages of the nineteenth century and is posited on the notion that not only should there be a formal head of the school but also that that person should be both

responsible for and directly involved in teaching and student learning taking place within.

When headteachers perform their various roles effectively, this can lead to a successful school outcome. Not only do headteachers have responsibilities towards their staff, but maintaining good relations between headteachers and pupils can result in an increase in educational effectiveness (Al-Kahbeeyah, 2008). Headteachers have a duty to communicate with their students effectively, which is an important part of their role (Samdal et al., 1998). Communication skills are considered an important element that may help headteachers to manage their roles in school. They should be able to communicate properly with their staff as leaders who can offer guidance. If headteachers have good communication with their staff, they will provide a good working environment and, therefore, improve the work efforts of school personnel (Al-Kahbeeyah, 2008). Headteachers also have a responsibility to communicate with parents and governing bodies outside the school. Parents can have an important effect on a school and therefore involving them in their children's education and giving them advice and feedback about their children can help improve school outcomes (Hess and Kelly, 2007). In addition, headteachers need to understand and adapt their school culture so that they can achieve a good working environment in which individuals can communicate with each other effectively. It is important for leaders to develop a culture that "optimises effective collaboration and enhances interpersonal relationships" West-Burnham (2002, 2). Headteachers should give clear instructions and share beliefs and values in order to work together effectively with their staff (Fullan, 1992).

In conclusion, headteachers' roles and responsibilities in their schools vary from one country to another. However, this section demonstrates some common headteacher roles and summarizes them in Figure 4.

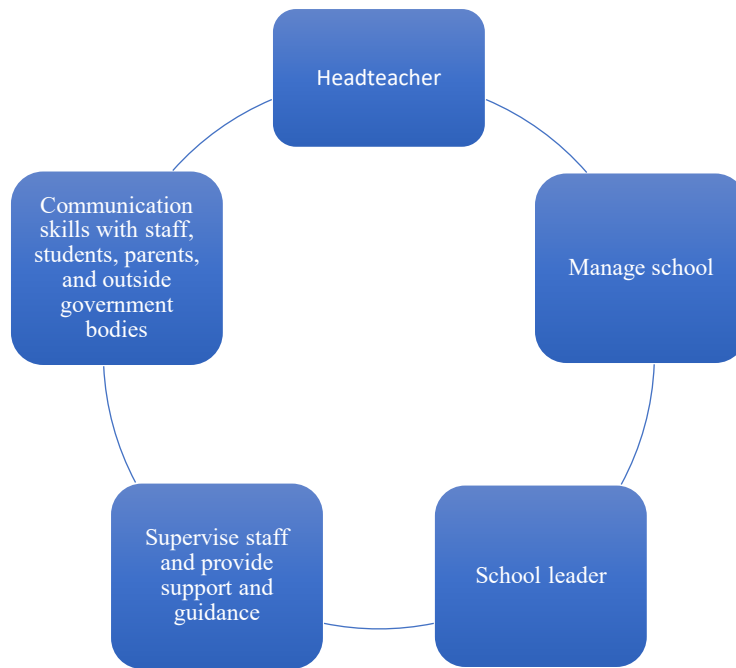


Figure 4: Summary of headteachers' role and responsibilities (source: the author)

Having demonstrated the role of headteachers and how they can apply them in school, an exploration of professional development programmes and their importance is presented next.

2.5 The concept of professional development

Improving the performance of staff was considered a problem for many countries in the 1980s. Since then, different countries have adopted the approach of staff development in order to improve their performance, such as in UK secondary schools (Dean, 1991) and also in the USA and Australia (Lee, 1993). Moreover, improving the performance of school staff is considered essential globally, because it is recognized that developing staff performance can benefit the outcome of education and achieve a higher level of quality. Professional development can be defined as follows: “the general enhancement and growth of an individual’s skills and abilities through conscious and unconscious learning” (Buckley and Caple, 2000, 1).

The aim of professional development is to improve the participants’ skills, hence enabling them to become more effective individuals in their organizations. Williams (1982, 16) considers the development of staff as “the process by which individuals, groups and organizations learn to be more effective and efficient”. In the education

field, professional development can support school staff in performing their duties effectively and, therefore, improve school outcomes.

A further aim of professional development is to include every element that may improve the function of staff that can lead to achieving the desired quality of education. Professional development can be related directly or indirectly to an individual's or organization's success. Day (1999, 4) offers a definition of professional development:

Professional development 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 and which contribute to the quality of education in the classroom.

Professional development does not focus solely on individuals but considers all the individuals as a group so that they cooperate with each other effectively. It involves "expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes" (Day, 2001, 582).

However, the aim of professional development is not only to develop new skills, but also to consider that accountability is an important element in the success of professional development. Taking into account the importance of accountability in professional development will lead to more effective achievement in an organization (O'Sullivan, 2004).

Moreover, professional development is intended to motivate participants to expand their knowledge and skills, which includes giving support and advice regarding their development. Pang and Tam (1986, 57) state that professional development can be viewed as "ways to increase teachers' devotion, interest, enthusiasm, and commitment for the improvement of practice".

Headteachers undergoing professional development learn to work together as a team with their staff in order to apply what they have learnt in their schools. As Bolam (2000, 272) states:

[P]rofessional development is the process by which teachers and headteachers learn, enhance and use appropriate knowledge, skills and values. The notion of appropriateness must itself be based on shared and public value judgments about the needs and best interests of their clients. Thus, although this perspective certainly includes staff, management and human resource development directed at raising standards and the improvement of teaching and learning, it recognizes that, because these

are essentially employer- and organization-oriented concepts, they should be seen as only a part of professional development, albeit a fundamentally important part. The essence of professional development for educators must surely involve the learning of an independent, evidence-informed and constructively critical approach to practice within a public framework of professional values and accountability, which are also open to critical scrutiny.

Furthermore, the aim of professional development can be considered as the expansion of participants' knowledge, skills development, the identification of values and the achievement of effective school learning (Bolam, 1982).

Professional development should be a continuous process and, therefore, headteachers should be involved in this type of ongoing improvement (Cawood and Gibbon, 1981). The term 'continuing' also reflects the ongoing nature of professional development, and, therefore, reflects the constant change in the profession (Curtis and Cheng, 2001). As a result, headteachers can benefit from continuing professional development (CPD) in their school management, which can lead to improvement in their organizations (Bush et al., 2010). CPD can support headteachers in preparing them with new skills to improve their performance and to deal with circumstances more efficiently. Heystek (2007, 500) mentions that the aim of CPD is to prepare headteachers "with tools and techniques to manage a certain situation better in order to achieve the aims determined by policy more efficiently, within the financial constraints determined by national budgets". CPD provides an ongoing training course that aims to expand knowledge and improve existing skills to help keep participants up to date with the changing environment (Earley and Bubb, 2004). CPD is also a process of learning from daily experiences that may occur in the participant's profession (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). Moreover, the professional needs of headteachers change with time, and therefore they need to keep up to date with the changing circumstances in their career. Earley and Weindling (2007) mention that CPD could help headteachers in developing their skills and knowledge based on changes that occur in their profession.

In conclusion, professional development supports headteachers in performing their leadership roles effectively, so it is important to participate in such programmes. Professional development can improve the performance of female headteachers and lead to effective results. Kawana (2004, 70) pointed to the benefit of attending a professional development programme as follows:

To learn to be effective head teachers, women also need access to training and education programmes. My participants emphasized that new head teachers – including female head teachers – were involved in a continuous professional development programme, which was aimed at equipping new head teachers with knowledge and skills in school administration and management. They believe that this helped new head teachers in leading their schools successfully.

Headteachers' effectiveness has been defined as "the combination of leadership, managerial and administrative behaviours and actions that are appropriate to the given circumstance" (Male, 2006:4). The effectiveness of a leader is also defined by Oyer (2015: 686) as "the extent to which the leader influences others to engage in activities that result in the achievement of mutual goals". Headteachers' effectiveness can be measured by several actions, which can be demonstrated as follows: effective school headteachers are considered to have good knowledge of how to manage their school, what is leadership, and to understand the circumstances of their school (Harris et al., 2003). In addition, it is important to develop critical thinking among headteachers, so that they are able to reflect on their work in order to become more effective (Harris et al., 2003). It is important for school headteachers to earn the trust of their staff; if they can achieve that, it will be easier for them to manage their staff and thus work more effectively (Tschannen-Moran and Gareis, 2015). In addition to trust, headteachers should have adequate knowledge of the school curriculum in order to advise teachers when needed and have a positive effect on students' learning outcomes (Tschannen-Moran and Gareis, 2015). Furthermore, having a clear vision and the ability to share it among school staff is considered essential for school headteachers to be effective (Kantabutra, 2010). As a result of sharing a vision among school staff, the performance of the school's teachers can then have a positive effect on the vision, which should lead to improvement (Chegini, 2010). Successful school leaders are said to encourage school staff to use initiative and thus promote positive change (Finnigan, 2010).

The next section demonstrates the experience of different countries in applying professional development for headteachers.

2.6 Models of headteacher professional development and their objectives

It is important to prepare headteachers for their job and to develop their skills. In addition, headteachers gain an acceptable degree of knowledge about their school

environment and proper skills that support them in managing their school (Bush, 1998, 1999). In order for headteachers to benefit from a preparation programme, such training should include different subjects that involve various procedures for learning. Chin (2003, 60) recommends that headteachers should be involved in “diversity in the contents and methods of preparation programs”. A diverse programme includes elements such as communication skills with staff, students and parents, school management, decision-making, leadership, planning, conflict management and evaluation. In addition, a headteachers’ preparation programme should consider the circumstances in which the headteacher will be working, including the level and size of the school (Male, 2006).

This section explores the global experiences of headteachers’ professional development and examines them, based on region. The study demonstrates models of successful headteacher professional development used in advanced countries such as the USA and the UK, in addition to examples from Arabic and Islamic countries, such as Malaysia and the UAE, which share a similar religion and culture to Saudi Arabia.

2.6.1 International experiences of headteachers’ professional development

2.6.1.1 United States of America and Canada

There are various universities that offer development courses for headteachers and share similar elements in their courses, as Bjork and Murphy (2005, 14) explain:

Most preparation programs have a similar program of studies that includes the following courses: curriculum, school law, finance, introduction to the principalship or superintendency, personnel management, managing buildings and facilities, research methods, human behaviour, school-community relationships (politics), educational governance and administration, educational psychology.

For example, the Delta State University (DSU) which is located at Cleveland, Mississippi offers a programme for headteachers that aims to prepare them for their leadership roles and improve their skills in school management. The programme is considered to have in-depth knowledge of headteachers’ preparation from which they can benefit (Varner, 2007). The programme also benefits from:

The implementation of a rigorous and highly selective admissions process. The development of core values and skills framed around leadership for powerful teaching and learning. The cultivation of self-reflection and ethical behaviors. The application of problem-based and

authentic learning experiences aligned with relevant theoretical foundations. The development of leaders oriented toward organizational change and renewal. The cultivation of strong partnerships with regional school districts (LaPointe et al., 2007, 25).

The Delta State University established the programme in 1998-1999, and since then it has undergone constant development. The participants involved in the programme are students who are chosen by the school districts in which they teach (Varner, 2007). School districts can also provide a scholarship for their students through the Mississippi Administrator Sabbatical Programme, which is responsible for issuing a salary for participating students (Varner, 2007). After the students graduate from the programme, they are required to repay the cost of the course by working in schools for a minimum of five years (Varner, 2007). Moreover, the candidates are required to take an examination, provided by the Graduate Record Examination. They are also required to submit a piece of written work. Furthermore, candidates have to provide a curriculum vitae (CV) accompanied by three recommendation letters and an academic transcript and need to have at least three years' teaching experience. After that, the participants undergo an interview with specifically selected interviewers (Varner, 2007). The programme can only allow 20 participants to enrol in order to ensure that each individual has a proper internship and feedback. The programme lasts for 14 months, involves 48 hours' credit and takes place annually from June until July the following year.

As part of the programme, students are involved in internships that include several tasks at different educational levels. The internship takes place at a district office for a period of one to two weeks. According to Varner (2007, 33), "During internships, students go back to campus every week for Wednesday seminars, which focus on problem-solving and presentation of specific content. Between internships, students attend a two-week session on campus for intense instructional seminars". Moreover, when completing the internship, the students undergo "final on-campus study" during the summer (Varner, 2007, 33). The internship experience includes an intensive full-time programme which involves leadership in the educational field. Every student also has an experienced school principal as a mentor, who guides them in functioning as an assistant to the principal. This type of mentoring provides students with the chance to practise what they have learned in the actual field under the supervision of experienced headteachers. The "mentoring, faculty and peer feedback, and self-

reflection” provided by the internship supports students by giving them guidance about essential elements of school leadership and helps them develop these skills in order to become effective school headteachers (Varner, 2007, 33).

In Canada, headteachers are required to enrol on the Principals’ Qualification Programme (PQP). This consists of eight modules that present the contents of the PQP programme, which are: “Social context, staff development and teacher supervision, management, leadership, the school and its community, initiation of change and institutionalisation of change” (Huber and Leithwood, 2004, 261).

Furthermore, the Ontario College of Teachers in Canada provides school headteachers with various development programmes in order to improve their knowledge and skills, such as the Principal’s Development Course. The course employs a critical, pedagogical lens to explore in a holistic and integrated manner theoretical foundations, learning theory, programme planning, development and implementation, instructional design and practices, assessment and evaluation, the learning environment, research and ethical considerations related to teaching and learning across the divisions. Through these explorations, candidates strengthen their professional efficacy by gaining in-depth knowledge, refining professional judgement and generating new knowledge for practice Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) (Ontario College of Teachers, 2016).

Similar to the Ontario College of Teachers, the Ontario Institute for Education Leadership supports school leaders in improving school achievement by providing the Ontario Leadership Framework (OLF). The aims of the OLF can be summarized as follows:

- To facilitate a shared vision of leadership in schools and districts.
- To promote a common language that fosters an understanding of leadership and what it means to be a school or system leader.
- To identify the practices, actions and traits or personal characteristics that describe effective leadership.
- To guide the design and implementation of professional learning and development for school and system leaders.

- To identify the characteristics of high performing schools and systems: via the K-12 School Effectiveness Framework (SEF) and the District Effectiveness Framework (DEF).
- To aid in the recruitment, development, selection and retention of school and system leaders
(Ontario Institute for Education Leadership, 2016).

2.6.1.2 Europe

In England, a range of professional development programmes is available for school headteachers, provided by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL). These programmes are aimed at supporting headteachers and improving their skills and knowledge. The variety of the programmes is also considered a support for headteachers at different professional levels. The programmes provided by the NCSL are as follows: Leading from the Middle (LftM), Leadership Pathway (LP), the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), and the Leadership Programme for Serving Headteachers (LPSH), which has been changed to Head for the Future (Simkins, 2009, 391). All these programmes offer various methods, such as “face-to-face” learning and practical activities (Simkins, 2009, 391). Simkins (2009, 391) mentions that these programmes have different aspects which involve “the specific ways in which the blend and its components are designed for each programme and the concepts of leadership and leadership learning that they embody”.

In 2014, the National College for Teaching and Leadership developed various professional development programmes for school headteachers, including the National Professional Qualification for Middle Leadership (NPQML), the National Professional Qualification for Senior Leadership (NPQSL) and the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) (UK Government GOV, 2014a).

The NPQML programme is aimed at improving the knowledge, skills and confidence of school leaders, in order for them to perform well in the areas of leading and achieving school outcomes. The NPQML programme is also designed for school middle leaders and lasts for a period of 12 months. The programme involves three modules: two core modules and one optional module. The participants are required to complete 50 hours on each module, which involves 20 hours of practical learning located in the participant’s own school, “face-to-face peer and facilitated learning”,

“leading and reflection”, and “online learning” (UK Government GOV, 2014b). The two fundamental modules are Leading Teaching and Managing Systems and Processes National Professional Qualification for Middle Leadership (NPQML) (UK Government GOV, 2014b). Participants in the Leading Teaching module acquire the ability to develop their teaching skills in a collaborative way. The Managing Systems and Processes module involves learning how to apply school policies in a collaborative and proportionate way. At the end of the programme, the participants are required to undertake a final assessment which involves applying what they have learned to achieve improvement in their school.

The aim of the NPQSL is to develop the knowledge and skills of senior leaders so that they can achieve effective leadership. The programme is designed to cover a period of 12 months, offering two fundamental modules and two optional modules. Similar to the NPQML, this programme involves 50 hours for each module. The two fundamental modules are Closing the Gap and Succeeding in Senior Leadership (UK Government GOV, 2014c). At the end of the programme, participants undertake a final assessment which is based on competency and, therefore, examines the efficiency of the senior leaders (UK Government GOV, 2014c).

The NPQH programme is designed for participants who have applied to be headteachers, the aim being to give support and encouragement to prospective headteachers by developing their knowledge and skills. The NPQH programme is designed for a period of 6 to 18 months and participants are required to take three fundamental modules and two optional modules. The three fundamental modules are Leading and Improving Teaching, which includes learning to develop and sustain quality in school teaching; Leading an Effective School, which involves learning management skills that lead to effective schools; and Succeeding in Headship, which includes learning about the aspects of leadership and accountability that support school effectiveness (UK Government GOV, 2014a). At the end of the programme, the participants are involved in a final assessment, which includes a management assignment, a leadership assignment and a presentation. The participants are also interviewed at the end of the programme.

Scotland has a similar approach to England with regard to headteachers’ professional development. Headteachers here are provided with a programme known as the

Scottish Qualification for Headship (SQH). The aim of the SQH programme is to provide support for headteachers which enables them to lead their schools effectively. It has similar strategies to the NPQH programme in England, in promoting the improvement of headteachers by providing “self-study”, “face-to-face events” and “online sessions” (Cowie and Crawford, 2009, 6). Participants spend a period of more than two years on the SQH programme in Scotland. On completion of the SQH programme, they will have achieved two awards: a professional award and a postgraduate diploma. In 2005, a change occurred in the participation of the SQH programme, which made it compulsory for headteachers to obtain a Standard for Headship (SFH) to complete the SQH programme and become headteachers (SEED, 2006).

In England in 2006, the NCSL supported new headteachers by establishing the Early Headship Provision (EHP), which provides them with the knowledge and skills to be more effective. The EHP was established with the help of education stakeholders because the early stages of headship were recognized as important (Kusi, 2008). The programme focuses on providing support for new headteachers and coaching them collaboratively and individually. The EHP programme takes about six days and gives participants the chance to practise what they have learned in the work field and exchange knowledge with other headteachers (Kusi, 2008).

In England, Harris and Townsend (2007, 174) presented a reflection of the Developing Leaders Programme and its effect on the development of both school and students as follows: “this programme has provided the skills, knowledge and understanding for developing leaders to initiate important development work and this has made a positive difference to the quality of teaching and learning”.

In France, prospective headteachers participate in a national course and then undergo different procedures in order to be appointed as a deputy principal. Deputy principals are introduced to formal courses known as ‘on-the-job’ learning. Fouquet (2006, 13) noted that being a deputy principal is an important stage, because “Most trainees reckon that, while training sessions are important, their new experience as deputy heads teaches them essential aspects of their profession”. In addition, the process of training to become a headteacher in France is considered “very decentralized” (Varri and Alava, 2005, 8). University-based programmes for preparing headteachers involve

leadership, policy, evaluation, decision-making, finance, school administration, and communication skills.

In Norway, headteachers participate in a university-based programme for their professional development, the modules focusing on “Organisation and leadership”, “Personnel leadership and budget administration”, “Pedagogical leadership”, “Law and public administration”, “School development”, “Quality and evaluation”, “ICT and learning” (Wales and Welle-Strand, 2005, 30-1). Moreover, training institutions are given the opportunity to participate in designing courses for headteacher training (Wenchang and Daming, 2001). Universities are also encouraged to take part in headteacher training programmes in order to maintain the quality of such training programmes. They participate by designing, organizing and evaluating headteacher training programmes. Universities also took part in research on advanced training programmes, which led to the establishment of an Educational Administration Master’s degree (Wenchang and Daming, 2001).

However, some programmes focus on the learning process itself, and lack important vocational skills needed in the workplace. According to Daming (2003, 211), “most professional training programs continue to emphasize knowledge, and neglect administrative skills and leadership competencies”.

In Cyprus, teachers are qualified to become a headteacher if they have acquired long professional experience in teaching. Teachers also have to achieve a bachelor’s degree and have a minimum of 15 years’ experience in teaching. Moreover, their experience should include an additional three years as a deputy headteacher. Candidates should also have gained a high level from an inspector in their past three evaluations, and they need to pass interviews with the Education Service Commission (Angelidou, 2010).

In the early years of becoming a headteacher, usually in the first and second years, the system only contributes to ‘initial’ headteacher education. Headteachers are obliged to participate in a training course that lasts about 15 days, once a week, and focuses on the following subjects: leadership, evaluation, school management, schools educational research, communication skills, environmental studies, health education,

multicultural education and the European dimensions of education (MOEC and Pedagogical Institute of Cyprus, 2006).

The content of headteachers' preparation programmes in various countries is influenced by decentralization, accountability, and demographic change (Ylimaki and Jacobsen, 2013). For example, the US education system is decentralized in many states and gives authority to local school headteachers. On the other hand, Cyprus has a centralized education system in which the Ministry of Education governs school policy and, therefore, limits headteachers' authority in schools (Ylimaki and Jacobsen, 2013). Many countries have also experienced demographic change due to immigration, such as the USA, Norway, and Cyprus. Demographic change influences the content of a headteacher preparation programme and implements changes in culture, language, and race (Ylimaki and Jacobsen, 2013).

2.6.1.3 Asia

In Asia, Singapore is considered to be the leading country for headteachers' professional development. In addition, in 1984, the Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education developed a full-time programme that lasted one year (Bush and Chew, 1999). In 2001, a significant change occurred in the programme, which developed into a course known as Leaders in Education. The Leaders in Education programme includes the following content:

Managing competitive learning school organisations, Marketing and strategic choice, Applying new technology in managing learning, Achieving excellence in teaching and learning, Building human and intellectual capital, Leadership for the new millennium, Personal mastery and development for principals (Chong et al., 2003, 170).

In China, the government has been interested in preparing headteachers and supporting training programmes for 50 years, which resulted in more than one million qualified headteachers in 1997. There are three types of headteacher training programmes: induction training - headteachers are introduced to essential knowledge and skills; continuing training - aimed at headteachers with experience in the profession, including a comprehensive curriculum in educational philosophy; and research training - aimed at experienced headteachers who demonstrate good performance, and involving in-depth discussion on specific topics related to their profession (Wenchang and Daming, 2001).

In Taiwan, there had been no previous consideration of the importance of preparing headteachers. However, since 2001, the country has developed two centres that provide two types of course: “fundamental” and “professional” courses (Lin, 2003, 196). These courses involve different elements, which include “Instructional leadership, Management and administration, Politics and policy” (Lin, 2003, 196).

2.6.1.4 Africa

Between 1996 and 2000, Kenya established a programme aimed at primary school headteachers, known as Primary School Management (PRISM), which adopted a cascade method to deliver training. About 16,700 primary headteachers enrolled on the programme, in addition to different stakeholders, such as inspectors and other school headteachers (Crossley et al., 2005). Moreover, PRISM encouraged certain elements, for example establishing a support group for headteachers to help them to come together and exchange experiences (Waudou et al., 2002).

Kenya supports new headteachers by providing them with an induction programme which includes the following: new headteachers are mentored by experienced headteachers, an in-service preparation programme that involves different activities, establishing support groups for new headteachers, deputy headteachers are trained by experienced headteachers to prepare them for their headship, and visits are made to other schools to benefit from their experiences (Kitavi and Westhuizen, 1997). Induction is considered a vital stage in the process of leadership development for new headteachers, which leads to effective headships (Coleman, 1997). Induction can be defined as:

A well-structured comprehensive professional development programme with concisely articulated goals designed for the purpose of helping beginning principals to develop among other things: knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to carry their roles effectively (Kitavi and Westhuizen, 1997, 13)

In conclusion, after demonstrating various professional development programmes in different countries, Table 1 summarizes the programme content which is common to them all (Bush, 2008, 40).

Table 1: Content of leadership development programmes in various countries (Bush, 2008, 40)

Programme Content	Country
Instructional Leadership	Taiwan-Singapore-South Africa-Austria-Norway
Management	France-Taiwan-South Africa-Canada (Ontario)
Policy	South Africa-Taiwan-Finland
Law	Finland-Austria-Norway-USA-France
Finance	Finland-Austria-USA-France-South Africa
Managing People	Norway-Canada (Ontario)-France-Singapore-South Africa-USA
Leadership	Austria-Norway-South Africa-Canada (Ontario)
Communication Skills	Finland-France-Austria
Administration	Norway-Taiwan-South Africa-France-Finland
School Development	Austria-Norway-South Africa
ICT and Learning	Singapore-Norway-South Africa
Language Skills-Planning-Mentoring	South Africa
Leadership Development-Strategic Choice-Marketing	Singapore
Research Methods-Curriculum	USA
Facilities Management-Governance	USA-South Africa
Community Links	USA-Canada (Ontario)
Psychology	USA-France
Social Context-Managing Links	Canada (Ontario)
Assessment	France-South Africa
Evaluation	Finland-Norway
Conflict Management	Austria

The above table shows that some countries share the same programme content. For example, in the case of management, France, Taiwan, South Africa and Canada (Ontario) share this similarity in designing their leadership development programmes. It is demonstrated in the table that these elements are essential in developing headteachers' leadership skills. The importance of these elements may vary from one country to another; however, it could help the start of such a programme in Saudi Arabia. Exploring other nations' examples may give a clear idea of how to plan and design a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

In presenting international experiences regarding professional development programmes for headteachers, it is important to explore Arabic and Islamic countries in relation to this type of development.

2.6.2 Headteachers' professional development in Arabic and Islamic countries

This section demonstrates the experiences of Arabic and Islamic countries in implementing a professional development programme for school headteachers. Saudi Arabia does not provide female headteachers with a professional development programme in order to support them in their field of work. Male headteachers in Saudi Arabia, on the other hand, are provided with a professional training programme, but it is only designed for them, such as the headteachers' preparation programme at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, which has the following objectives: to present general management and school management, to demonstrate how to organize school work, to convey skills for communicating with staff, students, parents and local authorities, to explain how to conduct evaluations, to teach the use of new technology, to support headteachers and to teach skills that will support headteachers to function in their schools (King Abdulaziz University, 2015). However, the professional development programme provided for Saudi male headteachers "does not fulfill the heads' professional learning, development and support needs entirely" (Alkarni, 2015, 197).

In the Emirates, there is a programme, established by the Higher Colleges of Technology, which lasts for a period of one year, is designed for Academic Institutional Leaders and is held at the Sharjah Women's College (SWC). This programme is intensive and aims to develop the participants' leadership skills. The

programme offers an initial session for a period of one week, which represents an introduction to leadership development. After completing the introductory element, participants begin the one-year programme. Participants who complete the programme are awarded a professional leadership certificate (Gulf News, 2003).

In addition, in the United Arab of Emirates at the city of Abu Dhabi, there is a programme for both male and female headteachers, established by Abu Dhabi University (ADU), which is aimed at leadership development and is designed as a standards-based course over a period of 12 semesters (Macpherson et al., 2007). The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards are as follows:

- Standard 1: a school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.
- Standard 2: advocating, nurturing and sustaining a culture and instructional programme conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
- Standard 3: ensuring management of the organization, operations and resources for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment.
- Standard 4: collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs and mobilizing community resources.
- Standard 5: acting with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner.
- Standard 6: understanding, responding to and influencing the wider political, social, economic, legal and cultural context (Macpherson et al., 2007, 66).

However, modifications have been made to the standards of the ISLLC which could help demonstrate the evaluation of student learning (Macpherson et al., 2007). The evaluation of student learning involves learning outcomes as follows:

- Standard 1 (Strategic Leadership): candidates who complete the programme are educational leaders who have the knowledge and the ability to promote the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

- Standard 2 (Instructional Leadership): advocating, nurturing and sustaining a school culture and instructional programme conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
- Standard 3 (Organizational Leadership): ensuring management of the organization, operations and resources for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment.
- Standard 4 (Community Leadership): collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs and mobilizing community resources.
- Standard 5 (Ethical Leadership): acting with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner.
- Standard 6 (Cultural Leadership): understanding, responding to and influencing the wider political, social, economic, legal and cultural context. (Macpherson et al., 2007, 66).

In Oman, a university-based programme has been designed for male and female headteachers which aims to prepare them to qualify and be appointed as headteachers. The programme takes one year and, when completed, participants achieve a Higher Diploma. The contents of the programme cover theoretical and practical issues related to learning and teaching, including management aspects such as decision-making and communication skills, which can benefit headteachers by having a good relationship with staff and students. Furthermore, the programme includes courses in community awareness, leadership skills, psychology and developing headteachers' skills in using computers (Al-Farsi, 2007).

In Malaysia, the Institut Aminuddin Baki (IAB, or the National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership) has been responsible for delivering a training programme for headship since it was established in 1979. The IAB provides various training courses for male and female headteachers in Malaysia. In addition, the IAB offers a basic in-service course for a period of one month, known as School Management and Leadership, which aims to identify the roles of headship (Singh, 2009). The IAB also provides a longer programme for training headteachers in Malaysia, called the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH), in which headteachers participate full-time for a period of one year (Singh, 2009). There

are five objectives involved in the NPQH programme (IAB, 2004) which participants aim to achieve, as follows:

- To understand their own strengths and areas of improvement with regard to school management and leadership for optimum utilization in their own schools.
- To demonstrate effective management and leadership in schools from the experience gained.
- To undertake given projects through specific programmes based on their experiences.
- To practice concepts, effective school characteristics and best practices in leadership based on seven core areas - vision building, effective organizational management, intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies, curriculum and curriculum leadership and self enhancement, attaining practical experience in identifying (through observation) aspects of management to be improved, planning innovative strategies and applying those strategies, followed by evaluation of the implemented strategies (Singh, 2009, 26).

The first part of the NPQH programme includes a Diploma in School Management and Leadership. Participants in the first part take a full-time six-month course, which is located on the main IAB campus in the Genting Highlands or takes place in a campus branch located in the northern state of Kedah. The first part also offers three weeks of practical experience, during which participants have the opportunity to choose a school. When the participants have completed these three weeks, they proceed to a basic six-week phase. In addition, Singh (2009, 27) stated that “upon returning to IAB, they reconvene their training with the Intermediate phase for 4 weeks and proceed to the Special phase for another 4 weeks before doing the Continuous phase for 4 weeks as their final phase in the first part of the programme”. The second part of the programme includes a period of six months, considered as an Attachment phase. The Attachment phase demonstrates what the participants have learned and how they can practise it and implement it in their own schools. For a period of six months, the participants need to carry out assignments and then submit them in the form of three portfolios. The participants are provided with a supervisor who is responsible for monitoring their progress at different times. The participants need to perform an analysis of their schools in the form of observations, in order to recognize which

elements need to be improved. The participants then need to plan a strategy in order to achieve these improvements, implementing them through particular programmes. These programmes also need to be examined in order to check that they are appropriate in their aims (Singh, 2009). The name of the NPQH programme has changed to the National Professional Qualification for Educational Leaders (NPQEL) (IAB, 2007).

It is clear that there are common factors in the way headteachers are professionally developed in Western countries and in Arabic and Islamic countries, as demonstrated in Figure 5.

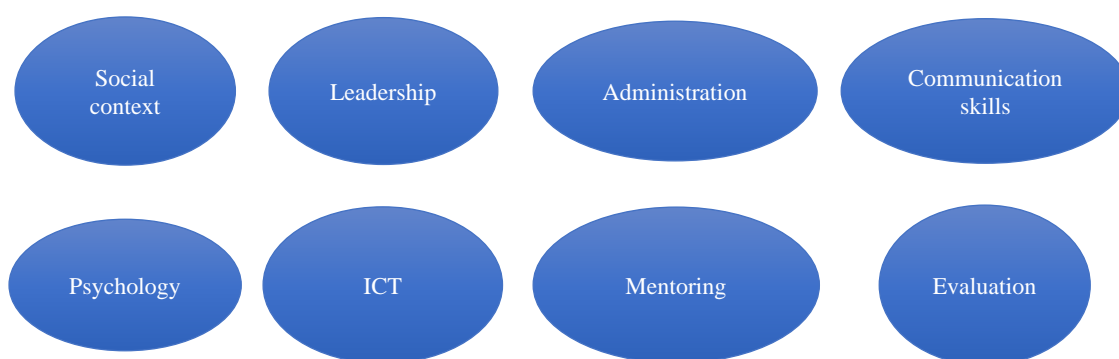


Figure 5: Common factors in professional development programmes in Western countries and in Arabic and Islamic countries (source: the author)

In conclusion, based on the international experiences mentioned above with regard to implementing a professional development programme for headteachers, Western professional development programmes may not be suitable for applying in the Saudi context. Western development programmes do not consider cultural background in their content, whereas a programme followed in Arabic and Islamic countries, such as Oman, could be applied for Saudi female headteachers. There are not only different cultures, but also other factors that need to be considered, such as school status, curriculum and economic aspects. Arabic and Islamic countries share similar cultural values and the religion of Islam, which means it would be possible for the Saudi government to adopt certain elements of a professional development programme for female headteachers which may have been developed in (for example) Oman.

It is important to know what types of strategies are needed for professional development. The next section will show the strategies deployed for headteachers' professional development.

2.7 Strategies deployed for headteacher professional development

This section introduces the strategies that can be applied with school headteachers in order to improve their performance. In order to achieve effective development, there are three essential elements that need to be applied: challenge, support and evaluation (Van Velsor and McCauley, 2004). There are different methods that can help improve the experience of learning and influence the change from employing habitual customs to learning new skills. The process of leadership development is multilevel and, therefore, there is a need for a multilevel perspective which involves the leader, peers, followers, relations, superiors and the culture (Day and Harrison, 2007). For example, in England and Wales, strategies are provided to support new headteachers which include mentoring and school visits and focus on addressing headteachers' lack of knowledge of particular subjects and aspects of documentation (Hobson et al., 2003).

This section discusses the ways headteachers can develop their knowledge and skills by implementing appropriate strategies. The strategies are summarized in Figure 6.

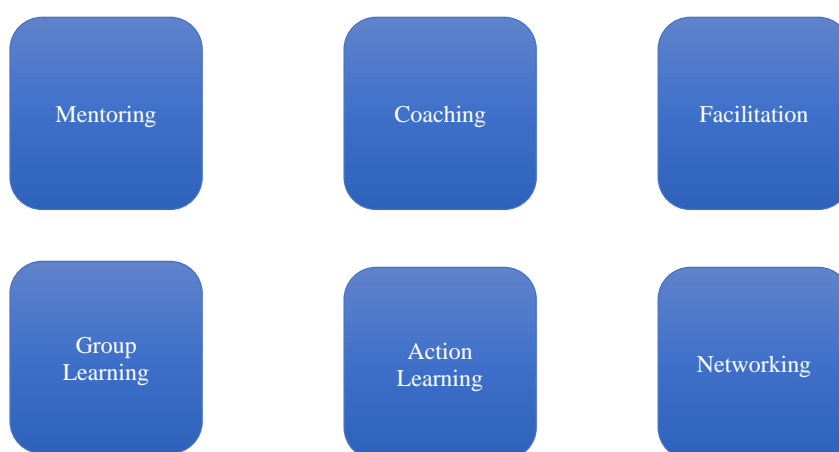


Figure 6: Strategies applied for headteachers' professional development (source: the author)

The strategies for applying professional development will now be considered in more detail.

2.7.1 Mentoring

Mentoring is a key professional development activity. Current practice varies and teachers have found benefits from mentor relationships with other teachers...

We have found that in many cases the relationship offers the mentor as much opportunity to develop as the person being mentored. We should like schools to extend this excellent practice (Department for Education and Employment, UK, 2000, 15).

With regard to education, there are various methods of mentoring. Mentoring can be provided as a form of positive support from an experienced mentor to other participants who would like to learn new skills. This process of mentoring involves the mentor being considered a guide, who can provide a collaborative environment for participants to observe, learn and discuss (Maynard and Furlong, 1995). Another process of mentoring is the competence-based system of pre-service training, in which a mentor performs as a trainer, coach or instructor, providing support for students who want to become teachers, in order for them to gain a combination of pre-defined professional competencies and support. A third way of mentoring acknowledges the inevitable increase in teaching that occurs with experience, whereby a mentor concentrates on learning, rather than teaching, and provides support in teaching reflection. However, a change in the process of mentoring takes place over time, because there will be developments in the participant's needs. Therefore, there is a change in the concept of mentoring, as it becomes a multifaceted process (Bush et al., 1996). Mentoring gives personal support and involves rigorous professional development which helps improve competence. However, simply focusing on the process of mentoring, rather than on mentoring skills, will cause a gap between the actual work of the mentors and the perceptions of mentoring behaviour (Burgess and Butcher, 1999). In addition, there is a need to adopt various skills in order to achieve effective mentoring and, therefore, professional development. According to Moon et al. (2000, 99), "effective mentors create realistic frameworks for support and know how to exploit contextual factors". The process involves "listening and counselling, motivating, support, consultation, drawing out, target setting, renewing and reflecting, sharing, problem solving, and developing a common approach" (Moon et al., 2000, 99). Not only is using different skills in the mentoring process important; it is also vital to match the mentor with the mentee appropriately (Moon et al., 2000). Nevertheless, it is important to appoint mentors who are highly knowledgeable in their

role, are experienced, and can provide support and motivation to new headteachers (Daresh and Playko 1994). Mentors should also be given the opportunity to choose a headteacher to mentor (Daresh and Playko 1994).

In the United Kingdom, experienced principals are appointed as mentors for new headteachers in order to provide the latter with support and feedback (Moon et al., 2000). However, mentoring is not a compulsory training approach offered to all school headteachers, a situation that not only exists in the UK, but also internationally, such as in Saudi Arabia.

Also in the United Kingdom, research has been conducted on the training of male and female headteachers in England and Wales (Coleman, 2002). Coleman (2002) used both interviews and questionnaires to collect data, focusing on female and male headteachers of secondary schools. The data were collected from 1,000 female and male headteachers, using two questionnaires. The research demonstrated that both males and females lacked confidence in their abilities, although female headteachers showed a greater lack of confidence. Therefore, training courses may help headteachers improve their confidence and fulfil their leadership roles more effectively. Coleman (2002) also discovered that a female mentor may have a more positive influence on female headteachers and, therefore, it was important to consider appointing an appropriate mentor. Furthermore, Coleman (2002) indicated some examples of courses aimed at female participants only and located in the United Kingdom, including Women in Management, assertiveness training and women's conferences. Mentoring is absent for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, and the Ministry of Education does not provide it as a way of helping to develop both male and female headteachers in schools. Mentoring can be executed as a form of internship, as seen, for example, in the MSA programme in North Carolina in the USA. The MSA programme includes two years during which a participant attends for one year, followed by a second year of internship with experienced headteachers (Bush and Jackson, 2002). With regard to the context, females are segregated from males in Saudi Arabia and, therefore, assigning a female mentor would be suitable for female headteachers, enabling them to communicate more comfortably than with a male mentor. Mentoring can result in more effective headteachers. For example, in Malaysian schools, headteachers, particularly those who are newly appointed, benefit from mentoring by improving their knowledge, leadership and management skills.

This promotes their confidence in leading their schools and helps them develop psychologically, instilling a high level of integrity and the ability to solve problems (Lokman et al., 2016).

2.7.2 Coaching

Coaching is considered important and has been applied in the private and public sectors with a focus on increasing the skills and performance of members of organizations and, therefore, in achieving the aims of the organizations. With regard to education, the aim of coaching is to provide support for teachers in order to enhance their knowledge and skills and improve student outcomes (Simkins et al., 2006). In the 1980s, a peer-coaching model was introduced, designed by Bruce Joyce and Beverley Showers in the Eugene (Oregon) area, USA (1982). A peer-coaching model involves teacher observation, feedback and participation in the planning of future lessons. Teachers can hence work together in a collaborative environment in which they can communicate effectively (Showers, 1982). Another form of coaching is instructional coaching, which involves transferring knowledge and skills (Knight, 2007). Cognitive coaching is a different method of coaching, and focuses on instructional behaviour as a reflection of beliefs. Participants may need to adjust their beliefs in order to achieve change in their behaviour (Costa and Garmaston, 2002). Coaching is essential for encouraging improvement in performance and increasing knowledge (Downey, 2003). Similar to its position regarding mentoring, the Ministry of Education does not apply coaching to support either male or female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. However, applying coaching for female headteachers in schools could help improve their performance, but, because of male and female segregation, it is essential that women's coaches are female.

2.7.3 Facilitation

There is a need for leader support to become multifaceted, and this can be achieved by a coach, a facilitator and a mentor (Rigg and Richards, 2005). A facilitator can also be a person who has experience and supports participants by acting as a mentor (Rigg and Richards, 2005). In England, the NCSL considers that facilitation is important and, therefore, their programmes provide facilitation for their participants. Furthermore, facilitation can be effective when a facilitator has knowledge and is familiar with the workplace of the participants, such as primary schools (Bush et al.,

2007). In the context of Saudi Arabia, female headteachers who have long experience in their position could act as mentors to disseminate their experience to newly appointed headteachers.

2.7.4 Group learning

Learning as a group involves different activities that take place between members of the group and play an important role in development programmes. There are changes that occur in leadership development globally, from participation in an examination or a lecture to “more sophisticated knowledge about adult learning and recognition that the complex work of school leadership requires not only hands-on practice, but extensive critique of and reflection on that practice” (Rusch, 2008, 225). The groups consist of a mixture of new and experienced headteachers who share the same activities and learning opportunities to help enhance one another’s knowledge (Barnett et al., 2000). In group learning, the participants can share their feelings and opinions regarding their profession and give each other support and guidance. Members of the group can also share creative thinking, mentor each other and adopt ways of solving problems as a team. Group learning is an effective way of enhancing headteachers’ knowledge and developing their skills (Leithwood et al., 1996). In addition, the development of leadership should involve new approaches, which can be demonstrated by networking, portfolios and action learning.

2.7.5 Action learning

Action learning has become an important approach in developing leaders because there is increased understanding that leadership and management are practical activities rather than theories. In addition, there is a need for change in development programmes to become involved in “preparing managers for action” (Hallinger and Bridges, 2007, 2). Action learning is a process which includes reflection by the members of an organization on adopting a cycle of experiential learning so that they can contribute to continuous learning (McGill and Beaty, 1995). Moreover, action learning can assist in the development of management via a process in which a manager can be developed individually and can contribute to the development of the whole organization (McGill and Beaty, 1995). Furthermore, action learning can result in an improvement for both individuals and groups and is hence considered an effective method of development. Bush and Glover (2005, 232) considered action

learning as an important tool in developing leaders, stating that “this approach is perceived to be highly effective”. Some countries have adopted action learning as a method of professional development, such as the Leaders in Education programme in Singapore (Chong et al., 2003). In the UK, action learning has been adopted by the NCSL New Visions programme, which aims to develop new headteachers. With regard to the Saudi context, adopting action learning could be considered as a way to develop headteachers, because this approach could contribute to their professional development.

2.7.6 Networking

Networking is highly recommended and considered an important approach for leadership development (Bush and Glover, 2004). The NCSL recommends the adoption of networking as a useful approach to leadership learning (Bush et al., 2007). The advantages of participating in networking are similar to those of group learning, in which knowledge is shared with different groups. However, to increase the effectiveness of networking, it is important to establish a clear structure and aim. Live learning is a good method of networking that can help to transfer ideas and encourage positive thinking between participants. Furthermore, visits can be considered a form of networking, and can improve leadership learning there is a clear purpose. Visits should share the same context, for instance small primary schools, in order to be more valuable and effective. South Africa provides networking as a form of professional development, as follows:

The new national qualification for principals in South Africa, the Advanced Certificate in Education (School Leadership), includes provision for “cluster learning”, where participants are arranged in geographical groups to facilitate networking and collaborative learning (Bush et al., 2010, 120).

Networking may involve internships as a tool to encourage professional socialization and, therefore, the development of the profession (Crow, 2001). Moreover, a school-based internship takes place in an “authentic workplace” that can encourage “adequate complexity and authenticity leading to the learning processes required” (Huber, 2008, 171). In a school-based internship, shadow leaders are considered as interns who are required to perform partial leadership tasks and conduct projects individually (Huber, 2008). However, there has been a change in the requirements of leadership. As Rusch (2008, 228) explained, “Internships have replaced the traditional requirement for

school leaders to demonstrate mastery of leadership knowledge”. Nevertheless, internships help headteachers in gaining a good understanding of their required roles and responsibilities (Heck, 2003). For example, in Ontario, Canada, the PQP programme uses online mentoring for participating headteachers to communicate with experienced headteachers and attend live courses (Bush and Jackson, 2002).

In conclusion, the strategies mentioned above could improve the performance of school headteachers and may, therefore, influence the performance of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Strategies such as mentoring and coaching may support female headteachers in schools and could be applied individually or as a group. In addition, group learning and networking could help support the development of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia because they can benefit from each other’s experience, which may enhance their learning opportunities. However, professional development can be influenced by the cultural aspects of the different countries concerned. Therefore, culture should also be considered in aspects of professional development. The next section explores cultural appropriateness.

2.8 Cultural influence

This section provides corroboration for the influence of culture on headteachers’ professional development. The section begins by introducing indications of culture and how professional improvement can occur when taking into account the cultural background of individuals. First, the section shows the effect of culture in general, then indicates aspects of Saudi Arabia’s cultural background.

2.8.1 In general

Cultural background varies from one country to another, as each country has its own languages, lifestyle and habits. Therefore, it is difficult to find a common definition of culture because every country has its own values and beliefs (Bush and West-Burnham, 1994). Culture includes three fundamental aspects: attitudes, behaviour and values (Jones, 1996). Every culture has common values and beliefs and therefore the function of cultural organizations is based on these elements (Schein, 1984). Tylor (1871) and Linton (1940) mentioned that culture involves a combination of traditions, beliefs, morals, behaviour and attitudes. Every individual within a culture may share the same values, beliefs and behaviour, creating an effective culture that works together (Nias et al., 1989). Through time, a culture may undergo various changes and

it may be appropriate for the culture to adapt to such changes and move forward. Indeed, cultures which adapt to change may find that it leads them to become more effective. According to Morgan (1993, 41):

Effective change also depends on changes in the images and values that are to guide action. Attitudes and values that provide a recipe for success in one situation can prove a positive hindrance in another. Hence, change programmes must give attention to the kind of corporate ethos required in the new situation and find how this can be developed.

Toffler (1990, 386) describes culture that adapts to change as a “moving mosaic”, which includes “many shifting see-through panels, one behind the other, overlapping, inter-connected, the colours and shapes continually blending, contrasting, changing”.

In order for change to occur in any culture, it is important to maintain this change and introduce an intervention that can influence the change of aspects of, for example, school culture (Fullan, 1999). In addition, it is essential for the members of any organization to work together to implement changes in culture that may benefit every individual in the organization in the future. Morgan (1993, 42) states that “since organisation ultimately resides in the heads of the people involved, effective organisational change implies cultural change”.

Schein (1985, 6) indicates the function of members within a culture as “the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic taken-for-granted fashion an organisation’s view of itself and its environment”. Furthermore, Torrington and Weightman (1993, 18) recommend working together to support change in culture, as follows: “the norms and values that are generally held about how people should treat each other, the nature of the working relationships that should be developed, and attitudes to change”. However, it is not always easy to exercise change in cultures. Some cultures, indeed, may defy change, which becomes an obstacle to adaptation (Reynolds, 1996; Turner, 1990).

In schools, culture is considered to be the different aspects in practice that are a result of combined and changed perspectives (Torrington and Weightman, 1993). However, Zollers et al. (1999) believe that culture includes deeper aspects, which can support individuals’ behaviour and values and lead to an effective organization. Moreover, Dimmock and Walker (2000, 307) indicate that culture contains substantial elements

that are considered to be “core axes around which significant sets of values, beliefs and practices cluster”.

An organization has to adopt different approaches in order to maintain a strong culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). Furthermore, Beare et al. (1989, 176) add that culture demonstrates a combination of “symbols”, “routines” and “physical resources”. With regard to schools, they have their own sets of environments that can influence school culture. Therefore, there is a new aspect of culture, as demonstrated in Bush and West-Burnham’s model (1994, 104-5), which is “environment”.

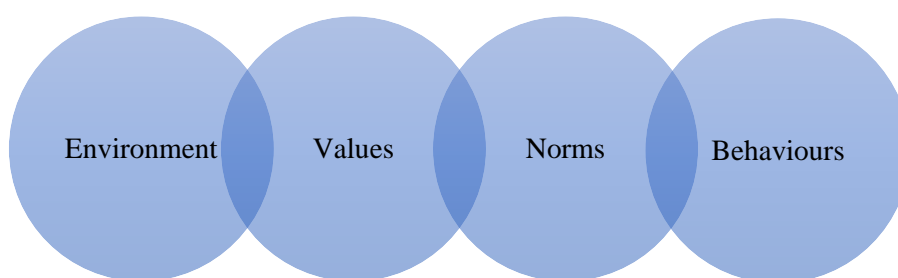


Figure 7: Development of organizational culture (Bush and West-Burnham, 1994, 104-5)

After illustrating the aspects that form culture, it can be classified into types that help define an organization’s function: moving and stuck cultures (Rosenholtz, 1989). A moving culture is a type of culture that applies learning, has members who work collaboratively, involves a leadership that supports individuals and demonstrates effective interaction and a holistic view. By contrast, a stuck culture is one that lacks learning, demonstrates poor collaboration, involves a controlling leadership which limits organizational function, has poor interactivity and is narrow-minded (Rosenholtz, 1989). With regard to the Saudi context, Saudi Arabia can be termed a stuck culture, because the country struggles to accept new ideas and routinely applies limitations to the freedom of the Saudi people. In addition, the centralized system of education in the country suppresses the development of headteachers by ignoring their needs and applying strict controls on schools.

With regard to education, culture can be further categorized into two types: “Motivating” culture and “Declining” culture (Law and Glover, 2000, 122). A motivating culture is one that motivates and encourages effectiveness, is open to

change and promotes collaboration. A declining culture is one which prevents development and hence demonstrates poor effectiveness (Law and Glover, 2000). The Saudi education system fits the category of a declining culture because of its lack of attention to the development needs of female headteachers, and poor communication between the Ministry of Education and headteachers.

Culture is essential in creating a professional development programme for headteachers. It can affect the implementation of professional development for headteachers in that it can prevent or promote it. Globally, culture should be taken into account when implementing change, because it is essential for different countries, such as China (Walker et al., 2008) and Africa (Bush and Oduro, 2006). In the case of the Middle East, culture can have particular impact on headteachers' professional development. As MacPherson and Tofighian (2008, 406) indicate, "The normal patterns of Western knowledge production regarding educational leadership have limited proven technical capacity to accommodate diversity as a norm in pluralistic societies". As mentioned previously, the culture in the education field motivates collaboration, which leads to effective change and promotes the professional development of a population (Law and Glover, 2000). In order to implement effective change, members of the culture need to work together to benefit from it and for professional development to occur. As Day (1999:4) stated, "Professional development 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 and which contribute to the quality of education in the classroom". In recent years, the wider culture in Saudi Arabia has experienced a shift since Prince Salman Bin Abdulaziz became king in 2015. This dramatic change in culture is continuing and it is, therefore, essential for the Saudi population to adapt and introduce new experiences to the country.

However, Saudi Arabia has different cultural aspects from Western countries, which are explained next.

2.8.2 Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia demonstrates cultural aspects that are similar to those in its neighbouring countries in the Middle East. Culture in Saudi Arabia is also influenced by Islam, which is the country's only religion. Islam has a major effect on the way people live

in Saudi Arabia and dominates government decision-making involving education (Idris, 2007). The official language in Saudi Arabia is Arabic, which was generated from what is known to be Islam's main resource: the Holy Quran. However, women in Saudi Arabia are treated differently from those in Western countries, and sometimes from those in the neighbouring Gulf countries, such as the United Arab Emirates and Kuwait. With regard to women's social life in Saudi Arabia, they are not allowed by law to socialize with men who are not related to them. Women's social life is mainly controlled by men, who are considered their guardians (Hamdan, 2005). It is acceptable for Saudi women to socialize with males who are seen as family, such as fathers, grandfathers, brothers and uncles. However, not all male relatives are allowed to socialize with females, such as cousins. Saudi culture considers that it is acceptable for a woman to marry her cousin. If a Saudi woman is found socializing with a man who is not a member of her family, or having relations with a man without the knowledge of her family, she could be imprisoned or even killed by one of her male relatives (Sallam and Hunter, 2013). Moreover, Saudi women cannot seek urgent medical care, such as when giving birth or requiring life-saving surgery, without the permission of a male guardian, which is considered unacceptable by many women in the country. In addition, there is a strict rule from the Saudi government which segregates females from males in public places, such as restaurants and shops. The Saudi government applies segregation for females because of Islamic laws, which are generated from the Quran and state that a woman cannot be with a strange man because of the harm that may be caused to her, such as sexual abuse.

Women are not only separated from men in public places, but also in the field of work. In the workplace, such as in schools and banks, women have their own departments or offices in which to work, and no men are allowed inside. In the past, a Saudi woman could not obtain an identification (ID) card, because her male guardian was her own form of identification in the country. A male guardian has a family ID card that includes all his family members. However, when a male child reaches the legal adult age, which is 18, he will be removed from the family card and will have his own ID, whereas females remain on the family ID card, irrespective as to their age. In 2001, females in Saudi Arabia were permitted by the government to have their own ID cards (Country Watch Review, 2016). However, they still struggle to use their ID cards, because they are required by law to obtain permission from their male guardian to use

their ID in any establishment, such as a bank (Garcia, 2013). Consent from a male can be obtained by completing a permission form through the Ministry of Interior Affairs, which can then be issued through the Ministry's electronic system. If a female would like a paper copy, she can print this from the Ministry website.

Females in Saudi Arabia struggle with transport, and until recently women have not been permitted by Saudi law to drive. It is also difficult for females to use public transport because they are obliged to travel with a relative or a male guardian. Moreover, the transportation system in Saudi Arabia is poor and, therefore, women can only use cars or planes, which are expensive. The Saudi government has recently, starting from 24 June 2018, permitted women to drive. However, there is still a problem with women driving as they need to seek permission from their male guardian to do so. This change of decision is outlined within the Saudi Crown Prince Mohammad bin Salman's 2030 Vision, which indicates changes in the country. Saudi women are involved in the Crown Prince's vision of change, starting with their being given permission to drive (Forbes Middle East, 2016). In addition, cinemas were allowed to open in Saudi Arabia after a 35-year ban. Cinemas had operated in Saudi Arabia in the 1980s but were closed by religious elements in the country, who considered cinema-going a sin (Arabian Business, 2018). With regard to women's education, the Saudi education system is mainly supported by the religion of Islam, which is based on the Quran. Islam influences the design of the curriculum regarding religious subjects, the Arabic language and history (Al-Rawaf and Simmons, 1991). However, other subjects, such as mathematics, geography and science, are not influenced by Islam. Islam encourages female learning, and there has been an increase in women's education and recognition of the importance of girls' education in Saudi Arabia. According to Zurbrigg (1995, 82), "women's education, since it started, has been generally highly valued among a large proportion of Saudi society". However, there are some limitations which affect women's educational choices. Females are restricted by the Saudi government when choosing university majors, which limits them to studying health and education, and is also influenced by Saudi culture. Alamri (2011, 90) outlines the effect of educational limitations practised by the government on women as follows: "Not all degrees are offered in Saudi Arabia for women, which increases the burden on the students who are willing to pursue a higher degree in their field. There are several specialities offered to men only which may interfere with social

justice”. The specialities offered only to men include law and engineering. In addition, it is difficult for females in Saudi Arabia to choose a job that is far from home due to the above-mentioned difficulties in transport and cultural aspects (Shukri, 1999).

In order to understand the differences between cultures, Hofstede (1980) suggested that culture can be categorized into four elements: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism/individualism and femininity/masculinity. Power distance demonstrates how people in a culture view the power relations between themselves and others. Uncertainty avoidance involves people’s fear of the unknown in relation to change. Collectivism/individualism indicates the preference of members of an organization regarding whether to choose the decision of an individual or a group decision. Femininity/masculinity demonstrates the effect of gender influence on an organization’s decision-making (Hofstede, 1980). Figure 8 summarizes the four elements of Hofstede’s (1980) cultural dimensions.

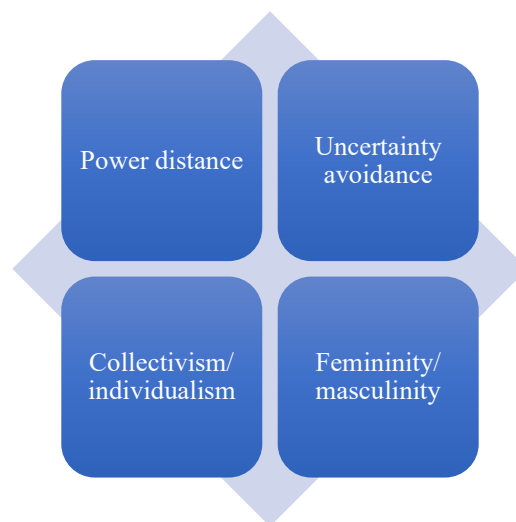


Figure 8: The four elements of Hofstede’s (1980) cultural dimensions

Moreover, Hofstede added a fifth dimension – long-term orientation versus short-term orientation – and a sixth, which involves indulgence in contrast with self-restraint. Long-term orientation is considered to be “the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic future-orientated perspective rather than a conventional historic or short-term point of view” (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010: 90). In contrast, short-term orientation occurs when a society expresses stability, consistence, and a focus on short-term plans rather than the future (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). With regard to Hofstede’s sixth dimension, indulgence reflects people’s happiness and freedom being

considered important, whereas self-restraint is a restriction on people's freedom and what is against the norm (Hofstede, 2011).

Arabic cultures demonstrate a high power distance and reliance on the decisions of their community members as a whole, which is considered as group collectivism in Hofstede's four elements for identifying differences in culture. In the context of Saudi Arabia, the religion of Islam and its traditional background play an important role in defining Saudi culture and, therefore, have a great influence on the country's culture (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Furthermore, community members in Saudi Arabia suffer from inequality in their incomes. For example, 40% are considered poor, and 60% do not own a home because they cannot afford to (Borgen Project, 2017). Therefore, this creates a gulf between communities based on wealth (Al-Gahtani et al., 2007). For example, in Riyadh, people who live in the north of the city have better incomes and live in large, well-designed houses located in nice neighbourhoods, whereas people who live in the south of the city have low incomes, live in poor conditions in old houses and their neighbourhoods are more deprived. With regard to education, people who are appointed to high managerial positions tend to avoid communicating with people who have lower status jobs and low incomes.

Hofstede (1980) mentions that cultures which demonstrate high collectivism may adopt behaviour that shows clear patterns and reject behaviour that does not show clear patterns. In addition, cultures with high collectivism do not accept uncertainty and do not, therefore, accept change. With regard to Saudi Arabia, women's lives are restricted by the government, so they avoid uncertain changes in their freedom and where this may lead. For example, females cannot interact with males in public places, and do not have the right to drive a car and be independent. In addition, women's lives are mainly controlled by men in Saudi Arabia, which places great limitations on their lives. According to Hofstede (1980), Saudi Arabian culture has a strong influence of masculinity, which controls the decisions in the country. Saudi Arabia is compatible with Hofstede's fifth dimension regarding short-term orientation, as Saudi society concentrates on its current situation without planning for the future. Saudi Arabia is also a self-restraint country, in which the government limits female freedom and places restraints on women's daily life for the benefit of the Saudi culture that is the norm in the Kingdom.

However, Hofstede's work has been criticized by Schwartz (1999), who states that the survey instrument used by Hofstede is inappropriate for measuring sensitive cultural values. Hofstede's assumption of treating populations similarly is also criticized, as every individual has his or her own values and characteristics. In addition, every population has a different ethnic background (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997). Hofstede considered national identity as a tool to measure cultural differences, whereas other researchers felt it to be an inaccurate form of measurement when nations are divided and not necessarily bonded (McSweeney, 2002). With the rapid change evident in the world, Hofstede's study needs to be reviewed because it is considered to have dated (Jones, 2007). Furthermore, Hofstede's model needs to include a greater number of dimensions, because they do not provide enough information about cultural diversity (Jones, 2007).

Hofstede criticized Trompenaars, who presented a seven-dimensional model of national culture differences (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). Trompenaars' model divides cultures based on their preferences, as follows: universalism vs particularism, individualism vs communitarianism, specific vs diffuse, neutral vs affective, achievement vs ascription, sequential time vs synchronous time, and internal direction vs external direction. With regard to universalism vs particularism, universalist cultures tend to prioritize rules over relationships, such as the UK and the USA, whereas particularist cultures focus on relationships rather than rules, for example Russia (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). In terms of individualism vs communitarianism, cultures that are based on individualism consist of making decisions solely by individuals without consulting others, such as Canada. In contrast, communitarian cultures are based on working together as a group, such as Japan (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). For specific vs diffuse, members of specific cultures separate their work from their personal life, such as Germany, whereas diffuse cultures connect their work and personal life, as in Spain (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). With neutral vs affective, members of a neutral culture do not share their emotions, such as Germany, whereas members of affective cultures tend to do so, as in Italy (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). When comparing achievement vs ascription, in an achievement-oriented culture, members are awarded their position based on skills and knowledge, as in the UK, but members of an ascription culture are awarded their position based on their social status, such as

in Japan (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). For sequential time vs synchronous time, time is considered as a priority in a sequential time culture, in which members tend to organize their work strictly on time, for example Germany; in contrast, synchronous time cultures tend to be more flexible and time can be modified based on the nature of the members' work, as in Mexico (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012). With internal direction vs external direction, internal direction cultures focus on individuals' aims to gain achievement, such as the UK, whereas external direction cultures focus on the collaboration of members in order to achieve goals, as in China (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars, 2012).

Hofstede argues that Trompenaars' approach to the first five dimensions is similar to Parsons and Shils' work in 1951: *Grand Theory of Action* (Hofstede, 1996). These dimensions were known in Parsons' work as pattern variables (Hofstede, 1996). With regard to individualism vs collectivism, this is known in Parsons' work as self-orientation vs collectivity orientation and is also presented in Hofstede's cultural theory (Hofstede, 1996). Hofstede claims that Trompenaars had copied two values of orientation from the work of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961): the relationship to the environment and the orientation to time (Hofstede, 1996). Furthermore, Hofstede indicated that the research sample in Trompenaars' work is considered small and that the nine countries that are included in his research present an inadequate number from which to draw firm conclusions (Hofstede, 1996).

Before Islam, women's freedom was greatly limited. Arab culture controlled the lives of females whose roles were only as wives, who were required to fulfil the needs of their husbands, do their duties in the home, from cleaning to preparing meals, and, as mothers, to raise and take care of children. (Alajmi, 2001). Since the spread of Islam at the start of the 7th century AD in the Middle East, there has been support for women to learn and to be allowed to attend school and expand their freedom beyond the idea of being a housewife. However, males in Saudi Arabia were not comfortable with the level of freedom which Islam granted to females, and interpreted Islam in a way that enabled them to control women's behaviour, which is against Islam (Effendi, 2003). The freedom of females in Saudi Arabia is governed by members of the government who are appointed by the king and known as the Council of Religious Scholars (*Ulama*). The Council controls and regulates Islam in Saudi Arabia and comprises mainly males, who interpret Islam to maintain cultural and societal conventions

(Sallam and Hunter, 2013). This lack of freedom provides Saudi females with a “country [that] lacks the ideal environment which one can advocate for women’s education” (Alsuwaida, 2016, 111). Females are not allowed by the Saudi royal family to become members of the government, which could make a difference to women’s lives in Saudi Arabia. If women were allowed to participate in the Saudi government, they could influence decisions to the advantage of women with regard to laws and policies.

Despite Islam encouraging equality between men and women, Saudi Arabia still suffers from inequality and a lack of freedom for women. Saudi Arabia has been ranked globally as 141 out of 144 countries for gender segregation (World Economic Forum, 2016). The World Economic Forum bases its gender gap rankings on four aspects: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. With regard to educational attainment, Saudi Arabia has a rank score of 105, reflecting the situation that females do not have the opportunity for education that is equal to that of men (World Economic Forum, 2016). This is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Educational attainment and gender segregation in Saudi Arabia rank from 1 to 144 (source: World Economic Forum, 2016)

	Females	Males	Female to male ratio
Literacy	92%	97%	0.95
Enrolment in primary education	95%	98%	0.97
Enrolment in secondary education	79%	82%	0.96
Enrolment in tertiary education	60%	62%	0.96

The school curriculum for females is different from that of male students, because of Saudi government restrictions on the design of the school curriculum for females, which is influenced by Saudi culture. No restrictions are placed on the education of males, who can study any subject they wish, with the exception of learning to become a chef, which is not available to them. The design of the curriculum for females is not considered to be as comprehensive as that for males, who can, for example,

participate in sports and study computing (Mobaraki and Söderfeldt, 2010). There are significance differences in the school curriculum between girls and boys in areas such as religion, science and social subjects (Alharbi, 2014). In relation to the teaching profession, female teachers lack resources and facilities. Moreover, female teachers are not provided with the same appropriate development courses as male teachers. In higher education, females lack choice in majors at university, as only education and medicine are open to them. This has led to increasing numbers of females graduating from university, which has caused them to be redundant in the workplace and, therefore, greater unemployment numbers among Saudi females. The restriction on female education is caused by the Saudi Wahhabist interpretation of the Quran, which limits educational majors for women in university to those subjects that are deemed appropriate for their nature as females, and to maintain their segregation from men (Sabbagh, 1996).

Women face inequality in their economic participation in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia has been ranked 142 out of 144 countries, which is considered very low (World Economic Forum, 2016). In particular, Saudi females have very little chance of reaching a management position. Table 3 demonstrates the poor chances of females in Saudi Arabia participating in the workplace and the economy.

Table 3: Economic participation and opportunity in Saudi Arabia rank from 1 to 144 (source: World Economic Forum, 2016)

	Females	Males	Female to male ratio
Labour force participation	21%	80%	0.26
Wage equality for similar work (survey)	-	-	0.57
Estimated earned income (in US \$)	18,146	75,000	0.24
Legislators, senior officials, and managers	6%	94%	0.06
Professional and technical workers	23%	77%	0.31

In terms of education, female headteachers are not treated fairly with regard to their career development compared with male headteachers, who are provided with

professional development opportunities by the Ministry of Education. This is similar to the previous problems facing female teachers. It is clear that female headteachers experience more problems than male headteachers in relation to expanding their knowledge of their profession. The difference between female teachers and female headteachers is that teachers are prepared for their work by graduating from teaching colleges, whereas female headteachers do not have any courses or programmes to prepare them for their role, as mentioned previously.

Women did not participate in politics in the past, because the Saudi government did not allow them to. However, only recently, a few women were allowed by the Saudi government to participate in the parliament. Saudi Arabia ranks 121 out of 144 countries with regard to political empowerment (World Economic Forum, 2016). Table 4 summarizes political empowerment in Saudi Arabia.

Table 4: Political empowerment in Saudi Arabia rank from 1 to 144 (source: World Economic Forum, 2016)

	Females	Males	Female to male ratio
Women in parliament	20%	80%	0.25
Women in ministerial positions	0%	100%	0.00
Years of female heads of state (last 50)	0%	50%	0.00

In comparison with other Gulf countries which have a similar culture and religion to Saudi Arabia, it can be demonstrated that Saudi Arabia has the highest level of gender segregation. Table 5 demonstrates the ranking of the Gulf countries in comparison with Saudi Arabia.

Table 5: Gender gap rank in Gulf countries from 1 to 144 (source: World Economic Forum, 2016)

Gulf countries	Gender gap (rank)
Qatar	119
United Arab Emirates	124
Kuwait	128
Bahrain	131
Oman	133
Saudi Arabia	141

However, Gulf countries have differences in relation to education, the economy and politics, as summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Gulf countries' ranking in relation to education, the economy and politics from 1 to 144 (source: World Economic Forum, 2016)

Gulf country	Economy	Education	Politics
Saudi Arabia	142	105	121
Qatar	97	92	144
United Arab Emirates	130	32	83
Oman	126	97	142
Kuwait	125	47	140
Bahrain	127	84	137

The table above shows that Saudi Arabia has the highest gender gap with regard to the economy, where men have more opportunities in the workplace. With regard to educational attainment, Saudi Arabia has the highest score (105), which indicates that there is a high level of inequality between males and females. The participation of Saudi females in politics is considered reasonable, although very few are appointed to the Parliament and women still have difficulties voting for their rights, such as the elimination of male guardianship. However, Qatar demonstrates that females in that country have the lowest participation in politics.

In conclusion, this section has demonstrated how culture can influence the behaviour and values of individuals, and that cultural influence can vary from one country to another. In the Saudi context, culture plays an important role in the way the country functions and, therefore, influences the law and policies of the country. Females in Saudi Arabia are affected by culture in their daily lives, which, in their case means that it limits their freedom. This section has demonstrated some examples of cultural influence on the difficulties females face in Saudi Arabia, such as not being allowed by law to drive, and needing a male guardian in order to travel. Furthermore, this section has demonstrated that Saudi culture should be taken into account in the professional development of female headteachers, as it affects the professional life of women in Saudi Arabia.

Having given an overview of culture in general, and Saudi culture in particular as a potential aspect when applying a professional development programme, it is important to understand the challenges and difficulties that may prevent the application of a professional development programme for headteachers in Saudi Arabia. This will be explained in detail next.

2.9 Challenges and difficulties

This section demonstrates the challenges and difficulties faced by headteachers in general, and then focuses on the challenges facing female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Headteachers in general face daily challenges and difficulties with regard to their responsibilities in schools. Smulyan (2000, 6) described the headteacher's role as "a dynamic process of negotiation that takes into consideration the demands of the moment, the institutional structure, and the historical definition of power and relationships". Globally, headteachers experience various challenges in their work, which can involve administration, problems related to school finances, difficulties with teachers and challenges linked to students (Lahui-Ako, 2001). However, these challenges are constantly changing, along with the needs of headteachers over time.

In 2003, a UK review of the challenges facing new headteachers and how they could be supported was conducted by the National College for School Leadership (Hobson et al., 2003). The review demonstrated that new headteachers were feeling professionally isolated, struggled to perform in a similar way to previous

headteachers who had specific performance styles, complained about the increase in workload and finding the time to do the extra work, found it difficult to adopt new government policies, had problems with school staff and faced challenges in managing school buildings (Hobson et al., 2003).

School leadership represents one type of problem that may have an effect on organizations and, therefore, education institutions have to manage this problem (Grint, 2005). Such problems are classified by Grint (2005) as: “tame”, whereby the problem can be identified and dealt with by setting plans; “critical”, which involves direct action if the problem has a major effect on the organization in the short term, and where members should follow the exact direct action; or “wicked”, which includes complicated problems that have little chance of being solved, and where different stakeholders, with different perceptions are invited to help find a solution (Grint, 2005, 13).

New headteachers can face difficulties with experienced headteachers, involving lack of support and guidance (Daresh, 2001). New headteachers also sometimes find it difficult to ask for support from colleagues, particularly female headteachers. According to Robbins and Alvy (1995, 50), “female principals have found difficulty in this area because they are the minority within the administrative club”.

In addition, new headteachers often find it difficult to socialize with colleagues (Mulford, 2008). Female headteachers in Saudi Arabia are affected by this problem and, therefore, struggle to socialize with their school staff and other headteachers. According to North American research, socialization can be categorized in two stages: professional socialization, whereby headteachers need to learn to manage, teach and become involved in formal courses; and organizational socialization, in which they need to learn values and behaviour, and gain knowledge in order to support their work as headteachers and become effective in their organization (Schein, 1968). There are three further types of socialization skills that new headteachers require: new skills, such as management, which can benefit them in their roles; how to adapt to the working environment; and how to share values and collaborate in their work (Feldman, 1976).

As mentioned earlier, headteachers across the globe experience similar challenges and difficulties in the workplace. Examples from some countries are demonstrated as

follows: In Oman, headteachers may struggle in their relationship with school staff, because they are the only decision-makers in their schools, and their staff do not participate in the decision-making process (Al-Farsi, 2007).

In the United Kingdom, research was conducted by Cooper and Kelly (1993) on the causes of headteachers' stress, including all areas of the UK. The research demonstrated that the reasons why headteachers were stressed was that they struggled with staff relationships, were allocated a huge workload, were required to manage school finances and had to deal with the poor performance of staff. Similarly, in southern Australia, headteachers were finding it difficult to cope with stress. Research into the causes of stress was conducted by Carr (1994) and involved 94 headteachers. The research found that three elements were responsible for stress among headteachers: lack of support from the Education Department, problems in their relationships with staff, and struggling to adapt to the workload.

In Cyprus, headteachers were also struggling with stress. The causes of stress involved headteachers having to manage the absence of teachers, finding it difficult to manage the increase in workload and problems with managing unqualified school teachers (Englezakis, 2002). Case studies show that there is considerable commonality in the reasons for the stress that headteachers experience.

Stress can affect the ability of headteachers to do their work appropriately and can lead to them becoming emotionally exhausted (Brock and Grady, 2002). Furthermore, changes in education have a high impact on the performance of headteachers, in addition to causing disruption to their roles (Brock and Grady, 2002). Different elements can have an impact on headteachers' performance: the structure of the school, and managing school finances; external impacts, such as the inspection of schools; and managing relationships, which includes communicating with staff, students and parents (Chaplain, 2001).

In Kenya, new headteachers found it difficult to manage their schools because the buildings were in poor condition, school materials were inappropriate for use, there was an increasing numbers of students attending school, and students who attended school but could not afford to purchase school books, or even pay school fees due to their poor background (Kitavi and Westhuizan, 1997). New headteachers in Uganda dealt with similar problems as those that new headteachers experienced in Kenya

(Brown and Ralph, 1996). Similarly, female headteachers in Saudi Arabia struggle in their working environment because of the inadequate state of their schools and the lack of school resources. During my career in Saudi Arabian schools, I found that most of the schools suffered from a lack of resources, and the state of the school buildings was unacceptable.

In Papua New Guinea (PNG), headteachers struggled with managing the increased amount of schoolwork, which caused problems in finding the time to perform an instructional leadership role (Lahui-Ako, 2001). Headteachers here spent most of their time undertaking administrative roles, such as:

Planning infrastructure developments; organising necessary human, financial, and physical resources; directing and controlling staff performances through evaluation and providing feedbacks aimed to achieve desired results with the school rather than using their natural and learned ability, skill, and personal characteristics to influence people to take desired action. (Lahui-Ako, 2001: 235)

In England, school headteachers faced an increase in schoolwork and experienced difficulties in how to concentrate upon their administrative roles as well as their instructional leadership roles. According to Dimmock (1996, 32),

School leaders experience difficulty in deciding the balance between higher order tasks designed to improve staff, student and school performance (leadership), routine maintenance of present operations (management) and lower order duties (administration). Restructuring generates increased expectations for school leadership, while at the same time demanding more work of a maintenance and lower order nature.

Headteachers also experienced challenges that involved the “increased financial, personnel, and site responsibilities coupled with pressure to focus on professional matters such as curriculum have left headteachers pulled in different directions” (Whitaker, 2003, 40).

In Ghana, school headteachers had problems in relation to pupils, such as poor school attendance and bad behaviour (Abbey, 1989 cited in Harber and Davies, 2002).

Problems for headteachers in schools in the USA and Europe are considered by Hobson et al. (2003) to be common and can be summarized as follows:

Feelings of professional isolation and loneliness; dealing with the legacy, practice and style of the previous headteacher; managing time and

priorities; managing the school budget; dealing with (for example, supporting, warning) ineffective staff; implementing new government initiatives, notably new curricula or school improvement projects; and problems with school buildings and site management (Hobson et al., 2003, 24).

However, these problems were considered to be different, as Hobson et al. (2003, 25) explained:

Differences in school phase and geographical location; variations in educational systems in the contexts of the studies or cultural differences; variations in how the headteachers relate to the other staff in their school; when data was gathered for each study; and differences in the duration of the research examined.

With regard to the Saudi context, Saudi Arabia has different regions with different geographical aspects. For example, the northern region of Saudi Arabia is much colder than the central region, and the weather can affect the function of headteachers in their schools. The northern region also has small villages with schools, and the weather and landscape can affect headteachers in relation to, for example, transportation. Similarly, the southern region is colder and has small villages and landscapes that include mountains, which make it hard for headteachers to travel to their schools. However, the western, eastern and central regions have a landscape with maintained infrastructure and large urbanized cities. Therefore, these regions have a greater population than the north and south of the country. In non-urbanized areas, such as the city of Tabuk in the Northern Region of Saudi Arabia, the Saudi population tends to be lower. The Saudi population tends to be higher in the Central Region, in Riyadh, in Jeddah in the Western Region, and Dammam in the Eastern Region (Abdul Salam, 2013). The growth in population in the Central, Western, and Eastern Regions will contribute to an increase in the workforce and, therefore, the development of those areas; whereas, the Northern and Southern Regions will have slower development due to the relatively small population (Abdul Salam, 2013).

Primary school headteachers in Cyprus faced difficulties related to communication with staff, students and parents, the increase in schoolwork and responsibilities, and dealing with problems related to school, such as managing school buildings and school finances (Tsiakkiris and Pashiardis, 2002).

Headteachers can be affected by a limited school budget and cuts (Lytton 2012) and may face difficulties in communicating with their school community (He et al., 2011). The rising numbers of students enrolling in school can cause problems for headteachers (Kiefer, 2004). Moreover, headteachers struggle with their accountability, as they have limited control over making decisions in their schools (Carter, 2012). From my experience of working in the education field in Saudi Arabia, female headteachers have to rely on the Ministry of Education when making decisions for their schools, which, therefore, limits their authority. For example, in the case of extreme weather conditions, such as sandstorms or heavy rain, a school headteacher cannot close the school on her own; she has to contact the Ministry of Education to give her permission, although this includes both male and female headteachers. Headteachers' accountability is considered to be the taking of "responsibility for the decisions and capability to explain to others or the public all undertaken activities to carry out what was obliged to do [sic]; to ensure reaching or making progress towards planned objectives or targets" (Wojtczak, 2002, 216). In addition, headteachers have a responsibility to maintain school outcomes and goals, which increases the pressure on them (Hess and Kelly, 2007). Other problems that headteachers experience are linked to communicating with students' parents, increasing levels of school work, and difficulties in balancing time between school and family life (Phillips et al., 2007).

Barrett-Baxendale and Burton (2009) conducted research on the challenges face by headteachers during a 30-year period in Liverpool. The research involved conducting interviews with five headteachers. When the participants reached the final part of the interview, they were asked to remember a challenging moment in their profession as headteachers, and to describe it, with no limitations upon their responses. The headteachers' responses were linked to those times in which they were challenged with internal and external sources that affected their roles in school. The research concluded that there is an "absence of preparatory training for headship, with no clear career path, training or guidance along their journeys" (Barrett-Baxendale and Burton, 2009, 105). The research also identified that there was an "importance attributed to competences over academic qualifications" (Barrett-Baxendale and Burton, 2009, 105). Furthermore, there has been a transformational change in the headteachers' leadership and skills due to the increasing challenges facing them. These challenges can, therefore, be seen to have had an effect on headteachers' roles and responsibilities

in schools worldwide (Pont et al., 2008). Headteachers are facing growing challenges and demands which affect their daily roles in school, particularly in developing countries such as Africa (Bush, 2018). These challenges can be seen in the increasing difficulties facing headteachers in terms of their accountability, in addition to the greater expectations placed on them, and the pressure that is put on them from the government and parents (Bush, 2018).

The role of school headteachers differs between countries, as demonstrated by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (Schleicher, 2012). 61% of school principals feel that they cannot balance their work and life and, therefore, this balance is considered unproductive. According to Schleicher (2012, 18), this result is related “to long working hours or to deficiencies in working practices, such as school headteachers not knowing how to prioritize or delegate their work”. In Saudi Arabia, female headteachers struggled in finding a balance between their professional life and their responsibilities towards their families (Al-Ahamdi, 2011).

A study in England was conducted among 34 headteachers on how they could balance their work and life, address the causes of stress, ensure their personal well-being and increase their job satisfaction (Bristow et al., 2007). The results of the study indicate that headteachers felt pressured by increased workloads, which caused them to become highly stressed. In addition, most of the headteachers’ time was focused on administration work, only 7% being focused on strategic leadership. It was concluded that headteachers faced a great deal of pressure in their work, which made their job stressful.

Moreover, in the UK, Bristow et al. (2007) showed that there were external factors that could affect headteachers’ work and cause stress, such as school inspections, increased responsibilities and the bureaucracy of the educational policy makers. MacBeath et al. (2009) produced a piece entitled “A Life in the Week of a Headteacher” demonstrating the amount of stress and pressure they undergo in their work. A further paper (MacBeath, 2011, 107) illustrated the challenges headteachers experience resulting from external changes in England and Scotland, as follows:

The unremitting nature of change was also a prevailing theme. It was less the imperative of change that sapped energy and enthusiasm but the source of change, driven by external demands, undermining the latitude and discretion of headteachers to exercise the leadership talents for which

they were recruited. Instead many described themselves as in compliant managerial roles, delivering agendas decided elsewhere but for which they were nonetheless held to account.

Research in other nations shows that such pressures are commonplace. For example, female headteachers in Greece experience difficulties in managing their roles in school due to internal and external problems (Brinia, 2011). Internal problems include school work, such as managing staff, communicating with students and their parents, managing school facilities and dealing with local authorities and bureaucracy. External problems include social life outside school and their responsibility towards their families. Moreover, female headteachers in Greece lack training or qualifications, because there are no training opportunities for them (Brinia, 2011). However, according to Macpherson and Tofghian (2008), countries in the Middle East rely on culture and religion in daily life, adopting these as a structure to manage daily living. Female headteachers in the Saudi context are affected by the male interpretation of religion, which is influenced by the male-dominant culture and restricts the professional opportunities of female headteachers.

In conclusion, this section has demonstrated the common problems facing school headteachers in different countries. The next section explores the problems that headteachers undergo in the context of Saudi Arabia and compares these with difficulties facing headteachers internationally.

2.10 Challenges and difficulties facing female headteachers in Saudi Arabia

This section illustrates some of the difficulties facing female headteachers in their schools in Saudi Arabia. In general, the administration issues facing headteachers can involve the following: problems related to the educational process, which include poor levels of staff performance for professional or psychological reasons, different aspects concerning the behaviour of teachers, students who behave inappropriately, the increased need for individual tuition, changes occurring in the school schedule because of the constant turnover of teachers, and lack of financial support and facilities (Al-Gamidi, 2005). Moreover, communication between headteachers and parents can be challenging and lead to poor relations between them, which may result in parents preventing their children from attending school. Headteachers lack the time to concentrate on both administrative work and technical roles due to continual changes in Ministry of Education orders. There are also issues connected to the rising number

of pupils in schools, as reported by the Okaz newspaper (2017), of 6,005,060 boys and girls. In addition, the shortage of schools and poor facilities are also an issue for headteachers. In Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education rents buildings that are inappropriate for teaching and may be unsuitable as learning environments (Al-Ogail, 2005). These rented buildings are old and lack normal school resources, such as laboratories.

In Saudi Arabia, female headteachers may find it difficult to apply what they have learned in training in the workplace because of the working environment, such as the inadequate condition of school buildings and the lack of resources. The working environment in Saudi schools can affect the ability of headteachers to perform their job properly and may, therefore, have an impact on school outcomes. The working environment also affects conditions in schools, including shortages in materials and restrictions on headteachers' decision-making imposed by the Ministry of Education. Such restrictions include headteachers not having the ability to declare a school holiday during certain types of weather conditions, such as the sandstorms that occur regularly in Saudi Arabia. Educational resources that may help headteachers in their work, such as computers, are insufficient and not always available (Al Rabea, 2011).

Some Saudi studies have involved school headteachers and their training, such as the work by Alfozan (1989), and Al-Sahlawi (2001). However, in the education field generally, there is a lack of studies on female headteachers, particularly with regard to their training needs. This section investigates research on headteachers, starting from the 1980s until recent times, to give a clearer indication of the current situation of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The studies mentioned below explored the skills needed by headteachers in order to fulfil their management roles in schools.

Headteacher problems with school administration was the focus of Almanee's (1988) research. The study adopted a questionnaire method to collect information about issues concerning school administration from 80 male headteachers. Almanee's research drew attention to the poor relations between the Ministry of Education and headteachers, resulting in poor cooperation, such as the Ministry ignoring headteachers' requests for the provision of school classrooms with essential resources. Headteachers also faced problems with school staff, which involved poor teacher performance and a rise in the number of teachers who moved from one school to

another. Headteachers faced other problems with students and parents, such as the rising number of student absences and a lack of cooperation from parents. The school curriculum was considered to be insufficient by the headteachers, because it did not address the needs of both teachers and students. The condition of the school buildings was inadequate and unsuitable and, therefore, headteachers suffered from poor facilities and a lack of school resources. Moreover, there was an increase in the number of students attending school, who could not be properly accommodated due to the poor condition of the school buildings.

In 1989, Alfozan conducted research that involved female as well as male headteachers. The aim was to identify and explore the professional needs of both male and female headteachers in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. The research involved 154 headteachers, including both men and women. A questionnaire was used to gather information regarding the professional needs of the headteachers. Alfozan's main research themes were planning, supervision, administration, communication skills, technical and in-service training, evaluation and organization. In its conclusion, the research demonstrated that both sets of participants agreed that all the main themes tackled were important to them and related to professional needs. Existing training courses were considered irrelevant by the participants and not related to their professional needs. In addition, there was lack of instruction in the skills that headteachers required to improve, such as school management and leadership. There was no statistical difference between the men and women in relation to the following aspects: school level, experience and educational preparation, although the evaluation varied between female and male headteachers.

Also in 1989, Alshareef conducted a study on the educational ability of male headteachers that could help them to manage their schools. The sample in the study contained 56 male headteachers and 413 male teachers and involved participants from intermediate and secondary schools located in the western region of Saudi Arabia in the city of Medina. Alshareef's study found that headteachers considered that there were elements that might help improve the way they managed their schools, such as planning, evaluation of staff performance, managing and organizing schoolwork, and establishing good communication skills between staff, students and parents in order to help improve relationships. In addition, the study demonstrated that teachers would like to be given the opportunity to participate in the design of the school curriculum.

The study concluded that male headteacher training was insufficient, and that there was, therefore, a need to reconsider the training course framework and ensure that it was linked to the professional needs of headteachers.

Based on previous studies conducted between 1988 and 1989, the challenges facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia can be summarized as follows in Figure 9.

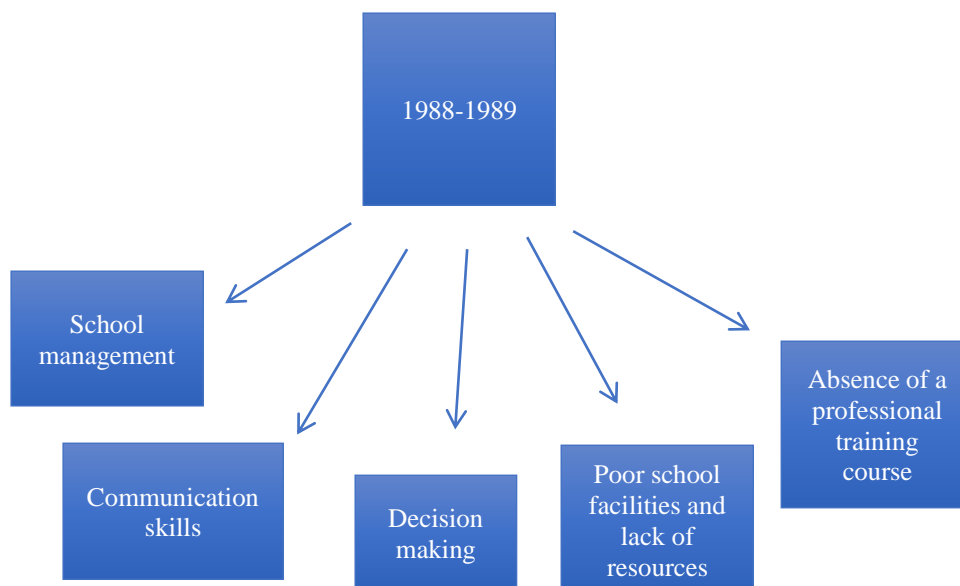


Figure 9: Challenges facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia 1988-1989 (source: the author)

In the period of the 1990s, there was not much research on female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, and only male headteachers' professional development programmes were reviewed. Mosa (1990) mentioned that male headteachers needed to improve skills in school administration. His study used a quantitative approach and a questionnaire and showed that headteachers' communication skills were also important and needed development in order to establish good relationships with staff, students and parents. Moreover, headteachers reported that they would like to express an opinion on the design of the curriculum.

In 1997, Alfozan conducted research aimed at identifying the relationship between the leadership style of headteachers and student achievements. The research was conducted in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia, with a sample of 92 male headteachers from 184 primary schools. Alfozan (1997) used a questionnaire to collect the data. The research found that there was no significant relationship between

the leadership style of headteachers and student achievement, and no significant relationship between the size of a school and student achievements. However, the study found that lack of headteacher training could lead to poor administration, and it was, therefore, important to prepare headteachers for their position by having them participate in a training course. It was also considered that there was a necessity for leadership development.

In conclusion, the challenges facing Saudi headteachers from 1990 to 1997 are summarized in Figure 10.

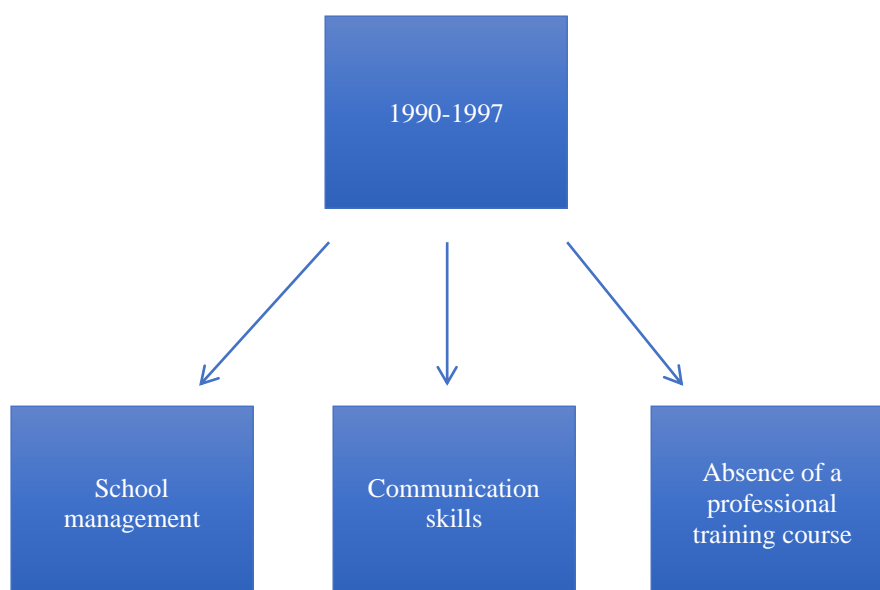


Figure 10: Challenges facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia 1990-1997 (source: the author)

Professional development courses for school headteachers need to consider their professional needs. Headteachers' training needs were the main focus of research conducted by Al-Sahlawi (2001). The sample of the study involved 67 male headteachers from primary schools and took place in the city of Alhasa in the eastern region of Saudi Arabia. The research demonstrated that headteachers lacked decision-making skills and were not familiar with school policy. Headteachers also needed attention to be paid to developing their communication skills with staff, students and parents. Moreover, the research discovered that headteachers had no knowledge of how to use new technologies. The headteachers struggled with conflict management, particularly when dealing with students' problems, and needed to develop their

evaluation skills. The research concluded that it was important to establish the professional needs of headteachers and apply them when designing any training course, so that they could benefit fully from the training experience.

In 2001, training needs were also the focus of Alajaj's research. Alajaj's (2001) research sample involved 71 male headteachers from different school levels and took place in the city of Alqurayat in the northern region of Saudi Arabia. The research adopted a questionnaire as a tool to collect data, and included questions regarding the headteachers' qualifications, experience and school level. The research found that headteachers with a bachelor's degree considered that all the training needs included in the questionnaire were important. The study also demonstrated that headteachers' experience did not have any statistically significant differences with regard to their work experience, and that the school level at which they worked did not show any significant variations. There was no difference in the problems experienced and training needs between headteachers working in primary, intermediate or secondary schools, and no differences between headteachers with for example, two or five years' experience. Furthermore, the research showed that headteachers lacked knowledge on information and communication technologies and how to use them. Alajaj (2001) recommended that it was important to improve the knowledge of headteachers in using modern technologies, and that this should be part of any training programme. The research sample demonstrated that there were headteachers with low-level qualifications, and Alajaj (2001) considered it important to develop those headteachers in order to help them achieve a higher degree and improve their performance.

Challenges facing male school headteachers in Saudi Arabia are classified by Al-Mutairi (2005) as follows: issues related to educational procedures, poor staff performance, a shortage of school staff, bad behaviour of students, shortages in regard to school buildings and facilities, continuous change in teachers' schedules, the increase in student numbers and pressure from the Ministry of Education to enrol more students, and dealing with students' absence from school (Al-Mutairi, 2005). Headteachers also struggle to manage their time when trying to focus on practical school work, because the Ministry of Education is constantly increasing the amount and requirements of administrative work, and thus putting more pressure on headteachers (Al-Mutairi, 2005).

By contrast, a different approach to how satisfied headteachers were with their work was established by Alzaidi (2008). The sample in Alzaidi's study included 131 male headteachers and he used two types of research methods: focus group and semi-structured interview. His study sample was divided between 25 headteachers involved in a focus group and 20 headteachers who were interviewed. Alzaidi (2008) also used a questionnaire in which 86 headteachers participated. The study took place in secondary schools in Jeddah, which is located in the western region of Saudi Arabia. Alzaidi's (2008) study showed that headteachers were satisfied with their relations with supervisors and the supervisory centre. The headteachers were also satisfied with the level of training teachers were receiving. However, participants pointed out that they were not satisfied with the lack of institutional autonomy that they had due to the centralized education system of Saudi Arabia. Respondents also stated that the current school environment was inadequate and lacked educational resources. Moreover, the study demonstrated that there was a lack of communication and support from the local authority. Furthermore, headteachers were not happy with their professional level, and there was therefore a need to establish a professional development programme, as there was no such programme at the time.

Following on from Al-Mutairi's (2005) study of Saudi male headteachers' job satisfaction, research by Alhazmi (2010) examined how satisfied female headteachers were with their work in Saudi Arabia. This research included five girls' secondary schools located in the city of Abha, which is in the southern region of Saudi Arabia. The sample involved five headteachers, ten deputy headteachers, five administrators and six teachers. Six themes were established in order to identify elements of the participants' satisfaction with regard to work, including: school administration, communication skills, relations with staff, students and parents, work environment and supervision. The researcher conducted interviews to collect data, along with classroom observations. The research concluded that headteachers were not happy with their current situation, and identified different aspects of their dissatisfaction, including poor relations with the Ministry of Education, an increase in schoolwork, restrictions on their authority, lack of training, lack of school supervision, inadequate working environments (which included unsuitable school buildings and a shortage of facilities) and a lack of financial support. The findings of Alhazmi's (2010) study

demonstrate the difficulties identified by the female headteachers who participated, which relate to this study.

A different research approach to comparing the differences between the professional needs of female and male headteachers was adopted by Alsharari (2010). In his sample, Alsharari included 470 headteachers, the number divided between female and male headteachers. Alsharari also added 18 female and 18 male headteachers who were interviewed. The sample of 470 participated in a questionnaire which was used to collect information from both female and male headteachers. The research took place in two cities located in the northern region of Saudi Arabia: Aljouf and Alqurayat. Alsharari's (2010) research demonstrated that female and male headteachers felt they needed to improve their knowledge of ICT and school administration, and how staff performance needed improvement, indicating that it was important for them to learn how to deal with their students. However, the findings of the research showed a statistical difference between female and male headteachers with regard to the level of importance of these matters. The research findings demonstrate that "both male and female headteachers stated that ICT was very important to them, school administration was second in importance for male headteachers, whereas female headteachers considered this as fourth in order of importance, staff development was considered second in importance for female headteachers, while male headteachers identified this as third in importance, female headteachers considered relations with students as third in importance, whereas male headteachers considered this fourth in order of importance" (Alsharari, 2010, 231-233). Table 7 summarizes the ranking of female and male headteachers in terms of their training needs and the levels of importance of these needs.

Table 7: Female and male headteachers' responses to the importance of the contents of training courses based on their training needs (Alsharari, 2010, 231)

Content	Female (rank)	Male (rank)
Information Technology Communication	1	1
Administrative Requirements	4	2
Staff Development	2	3
Student Affairs	3	4
Local Community	5	5
Finance and School Buildings	6	6

Regardless of the variation in importance, both male and female headteachers considered these aspects as important and in need of improvement. The research also demonstrated that both sets of headteachers felt that there was no communication and support between them and the local community. Both also considered that the state of the school buildings was inadequate and that they lacked resources. Both female and male headteachers complained about the lack of financial support. Furthermore, Alsharari (2010) showed that there was no statistical difference between male and female headteachers in their responses on the need for professional training courses. Alsharari's (2010) study was limited by difficulties in communicating with female headteachers, due to the cultural restriction on communication between males and females. He struggled to access girls' schools in his study, and to communicate with female headteachers because of the cultural background of Saudi Arabia, which limits male communication with females. However, he recommended that "there was a need to establish a training programme for both male and female headteachers" (Alsharari, 2010, 288-289). He also recommended that "any training course for female headteachers should be located close to their residence due to cultural factors regarding travelling that might otherwise prevent them attending". Furthermore, Alsharari (2010, 288-289) recommended that "both male and female headteachers with qualifications lower than a bachelor's degree should be developed through appropriate development courses".

In 2011, Al-Ahmadi conducted a study on the difficulties facing female leaders in Saudi Arabia. Her study adopted a questionnaire method to collect information from 160 female leaders. The results of the study demonstrate that female leaders experienced limitations with regard to their authority and decision making. The findings also concluded that female leaders struggled with a lack of resources. Cultural and personal aspects were also considered difficulties affecting female leaders in Saudi Arabia. Culture had an effect on female leaders, such as restrictions placed on their social life and means of transportation. With respect to the personal aspect, female leaders demonstrated that family life was important to them, and that it was difficult for them to balance family and work commitments.

Similar to Alsharari's (2010) research, but focusing on male headteachers, Alkarni explored the perception of male headteachers regarding their training needs. Alkarni (2015) adopted two methods to collect data: questionnaires and interviews. The

sample included 48 headteachers who participated in the questionnaire and 18 headteachers who took part in semi-structured interviews. The study focused on male headteachers from intermediate and secondary schools located in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Alkarni (2015) found that there was a lack of training and support for male headteachers, as well as a lack of an appropriate training programme concerned with headteachers' actual training needs. Furthermore, Alkarni (2015) presented a Proposed Leadership Development Model, which was designed to take into account the following three factors: perceptions of headteachers' training experience, identified professional developmental needs, and headteachers' preparation and global development trends. The proposed model only focused on male headteachers and did not include female headteachers. There is, therefore, an unclear future for the ability of the model to be adopted for female headteachers. From the studies mentioned above, problems facing headteachers in Saudi Arabia from 2001 to 2015 can be summarized as follows in Figure 11:

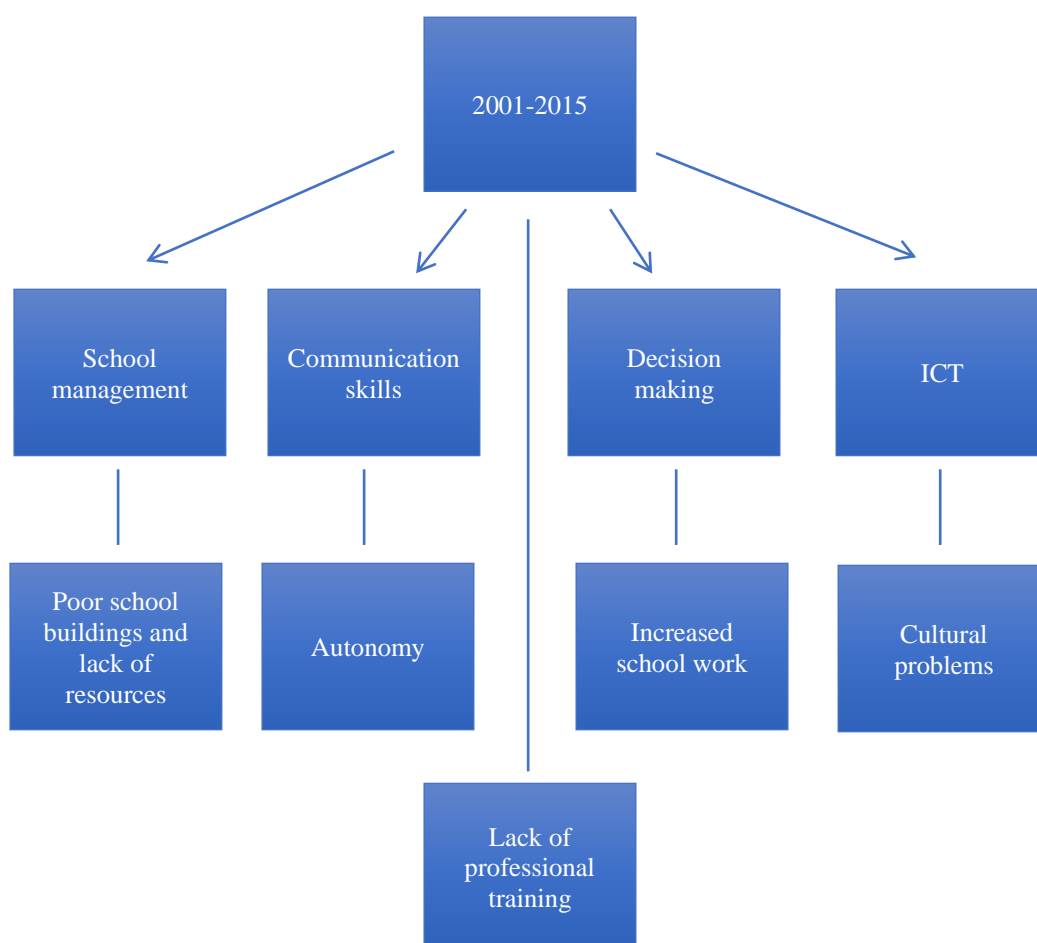


Figure 11: Difficulties facing Saudi headteachers 2001-2015 (source: the author)

In conclusion, from the studies mentioned above, it can be seen that there was a change in the professional needs of Saudi headteachers between 1988 and 2015, which is comparable with Lahui-Ako's (2001) observation that there is a change in the professional needs of school headteachers at different times. However, few pieces of research have been conducted on Saudi female headteachers, as mentioned in this section (Alfozan, 1989; Alhazmi, 2010; Alsharari, 2010). This is also a need for attention to be focused on Saudi female headteachers' professional development needs.

In Saudi Arabia, there has been an increase in the number of women participating in the field of work and entering the labour market (Country Watch Review, 2016). However, the country suffers from the absence of an adequate training policy. Saudi Arabia also lacks female influence in different areas, such as in the Saudi community and economy (Al-Hussaini, 1988). Female headteachers play an important part in achieving school outcomes, and it is vital to consider the importance of headteachers' professional needs in order for them to fulfil their leadership roles in school. Kawther (2000) mentioned the areas in which female headteachers and their deputies need to be developed: school management, ICT, evaluation and decision making. Furthermore, Kawther (2000) recommended that any training course should involve different levels of training in order to achieve effective development. A training programme should consider the professional needs of headteachers. Kawther (2000) recommended that there should be no age restriction for headteachers wishing to be involved in a training programme, and it was important to introduce a developed method for training, such as during school meetings.

In conclusion, from exploring research findings on headteachers' problems internationally, and in Saudi Arabia in particular, it is indicated that headteachers in Saudi Arabia have similar problems to other headteachers in different countries, as mentioned above. Figure 12 summarizes the challenges headteachers face in Saudi Arabia that are similar to those faced in other countries.

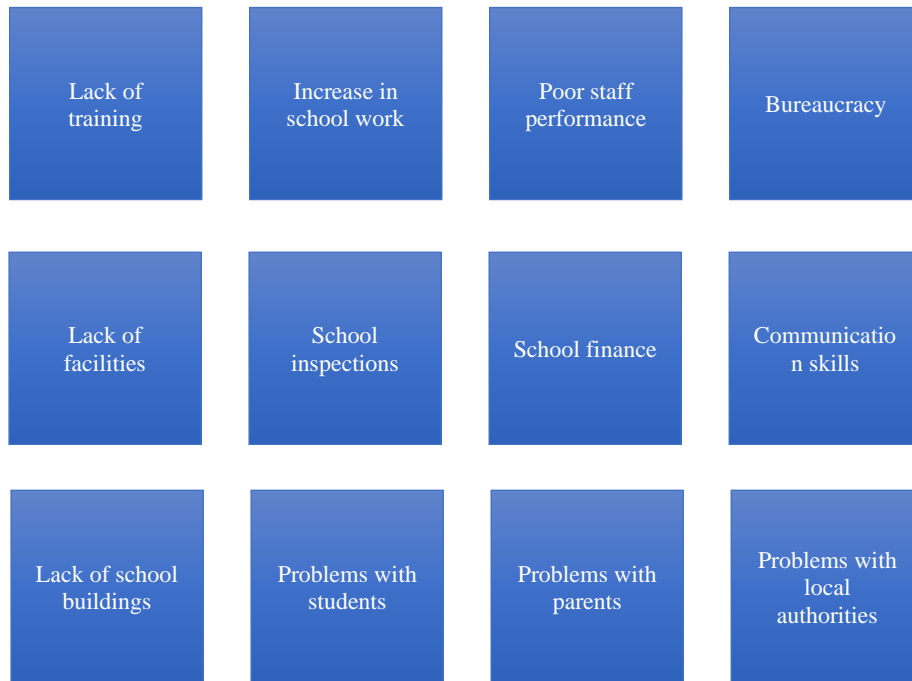


Figure 12: Problems facing school headteachers in Saudi Arabia that are similar when compared with other countries (source: the author)

2.11 Summary

This chapter has considered the concept of management in the education field. Management in education has been described as “the acts by which the manager can control, motivate, and guide her/his institution personnel, to achieve the institution and staff objectives” (Al-Jabr and Al-Mehelby, 1999, 20). The chapter discussed school administration and what it involves, as well as reviewing the literature regarding the responsibilities of headteachers and how they function in their schools. Headteachers’ responsibilities were explored in order to understand what skills could be developed in a professional development programme. The literature review chapter also demonstrated what professional development involves and presented various definitions. Professional development can be considered “as the general enhancement and growth of an individual’s skills and abilities through conscious and unconscious learning” (Buckley and Caple, 2000, 1). Moreover, the chapter explored different professional development models and their objectives in various countries, such as Canada (Huber and Leithwood, 2004) and the UK (Cowie and Crawford, 2009). The literature review included international examples of

professional development models related to headteachers' development and those in Arabic and Islamic countries with a similar culture and beliefs to Saudi Arabia.

It is essential to prepare headteachers for their position, and therefore a professional development programme should support development of the knowledge and skills of headteachers (Bush, 1998, 1999). In order to pursue headteachers' development, it is important that their professional development programme is diverse (Chin, 2003). A professional development programme for headteachers should involve different ways of learning, as well as different content. Therefore, strategies used for principals' professional development were also explored in this chapter. The strategies discussed in the literature and presented in the chapter included mentoring, coaching, individualized learning, facilitation, group learning, action learning and networking.

In addition, culture was considered an important aspect that could prevent or promote change (Morgan, 1993). Culture involves "the norms and values that are generally held about how people should treat each other, the nature of the working relationships that should be developed, and attitudes to change" (Torrington and Weightman, 1993, 18). However, Saudi Arabia demonstrates different cultural values from other nations which make it challenging to introduce elements of change, such as a professional development programme for females. Females in Saudi Arabia have a different personal, social and economic life from those in other countries, Islamic culture controlling their lives and placing limitations on them. The chapter illustrated the restrictions Saudi culture puts on women and provided examples of the challenges women face in their daily lives. It is important to consider these cultural barriers to change when designing a professional development programme for Saudi female headteachers (Idris, 2007).

Furthermore, there are challenges and difficulties facing school headteachers that may prevent professional development. The literature review discussed these challenges and included examples from different countries. Challenges facing Saudi headteachers in particular were discussed in this chapter, a review of the literature indicating similar problems facing headteachers globally. In conclusion, there is an increased interest globally in developing headteachers' professional development (Dean, 1991), especially for women. It is evident that countries such as the UK and Canada are focusing on the professional development of school headteachers due to the

importance of such programmes and their effects on headteachers. Other countries, such as Nigeria, are also trying to develop the skills of headteachers by involving them in a professional development programme. However, due to the lack of resources in Nigeria, that country still has a long journey to improve such programmes for school headteachers. Arabic and Islamic countries, such as the United Arab Emirates and Malaysia, are considered examples for Saudi Arabia in the way they offer headteacher development programmes, due to the similarities in culture, religion, and resources. However, Saudi Arabia still lacks such training initiatives for female headteachers, even though the country has the resources to establish such professional development programmes. The centralized education system and a culture that is mainly male-influenced and enforced by the Saudi Ministry of Education limits the professional opportunities for females in Saudi Arabia.

As the previous review demonstrates, there has been little research on Saudi female headteachers' professional development in Saudi Arabia (Al-Ahmadi, 2011; Alfozan, 1989; Alhazmi, 2010; Alsharari, 2010). Most of the research has only been undertaken on Saudi male headteachers' professional development (Al-Mutairi, 2005; Al-Sahlawi, 2001; Alajaj, 2001; Alfozan, 1997; Alkarni, 2015; Almanee, 1988; Alshareef, 1989; Alzaidi, 2008; Mosa, 1990). Culture is also considered an important aspect that strongly affects females in Saudi Arabia, and therefore controls their lives. This research explores both the professional needs of Saudi female headteachers and the cultural aspects that could affect their career development.

The chapter indicated that female headteachers could benefit from participating in a professional development programme, and that they would be more effective if the programme used different methods and elements (Chin, 2003). In addition, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia should consider developing a professional development programme for female headteachers that acknowledges their needs. After reviewing the literature relating to this study, it is important to develop a research methodology to help answer the research questions. The next chapter explores the research questions and the methodology used to gather information about headteachers' professional needs in this study, in order to help develop an appropriate professional development programme.

Chapter 3: Methodology

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research method is a way to enable the researcher to gather data in order to find answers to her/his research questions (Bryman, 2008). However, it is essential that the researcher is careful when selecting research methodologies. When carrying out a piece of research, there are various strategies and research designs that may be adopted; however, the nature of the research, questions and objectives may require a particular research strategy. In this study, the research strategy indicated that a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies, termed mixed methods, should be used. The data were collected using two methods - semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire - in order to gather information about professional development for headteachers. In addition to explaining the research design, this chapter will explore the validity and reliability of this research and describe the procedure for the data analysis. This chapter will also discuss the ethical issues involved in pursuing the research.

3.2 Research questions

The research questions aim to discover the appropriate professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The questions will be answered using both questionnaires and interviews. They are as follows:

1. What professional development have the principals received
 - i) before their appointment as principals;
 - ii) immediately after appointment;
 - iii) since their first year in the post?
2. What professional development do they want
 - i) before their appointment as principals;
 - ii) immediately after appointment;
 - iii) since their first year in the post?
3. How can professional development for school principals be facilitated?

4. What is the headteachers' opinion of appropriate content for a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
5. What barriers may exist to this facilitation?

3.3 Research design

According to Gorman and Clayton (2005, 2) research is “an inquiry process that has clearly defined parameters and has as its aim the discovery or creation of knowledge, or theory building; teasing, confirmation, revision, refutation of knowledge and theory, and/or investigation of problems for local decision making”. Methodology concerns the research framework which will be employed in practice. Furthermore, methodology is known as the “activity or business of choosing, reflecting upon, evaluating and justifying the methods you use” (Wellington, 2000, 22). Methodology is explained by Scott and Morrison (2006, 153) as follows:

Methodology is the theory (or set of ideas about the relationship between phenomena) of how researchers gain knowledge in research contexts and why. The ‘why’ question is critical since it is through methodological understanding that researchers and readers of research are provided with a rationale to explain the reasons for using specific strategies and methods in order to construct, collect, and develop particular kinds of knowledge about educational phenomena.

Methodology aims to present approaches to conduct a study and research paradigms (Kaplan, 1973). A research paradigm is described by Somekh and Lewin (2005, 347) as “an approach to research which provides a unifying framework of understandings of knowledge, truth, values and the nature of being”. There are two main paradigms, positivism and interpretivism. Positivism is recognized as “an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond” (Bryman, 2008, 13), and includes the following principles:

- Only phenomena and hence knowledge confirmed by the senses can genuinely be warranted as knowledge (the principle of phenomenism).
- The purpose of theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested and that will thereby allow explanations of laws to be assessed (the principle of deductivism).

- Knowledge is arrived at through the gathering of facts that provide the basis for laws (the principle of inductivism).
- Science must (and presumably can) be conducted in a way that is value free (that is, objective).
- There is a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative statements and a belief that the former are the true domain of the scientist. (Bryman, 2008, 13).

Interpretivism, according to Bryman (2008, 15), is “a term given to a contrasting epistemology to positivism”. He adds that interpretivism takes the view that there are “differences between people and the objects of natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action” (Bryman, 2008, 16).

Related to the positivist and interpretivist paradigms, there are two research strategies, qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research is aligned with the interpretivist paradigm, while quantitative research is aligned with the positivist paradigm. Madey (1982, 223) points out that “the integration of quantitative and qualitative methods within a single evaluation has synergistic effects in the three major phases of design, data collection, and analysis”. Moreover, Sekaran (1999) suggests that neither qualitative nor quantitative research is better or worse than the other; in fact they complement each other. The choice of a suitable method, whether it is qualitative, quantitative, or combined, is based on the research purpose, and the results expected. Methods refer to the variety of approaches used in educational research in order to collect data that are employed as a foundation for interpretation and inference, for prediction and explanation (Cohen et al., 2007). Sekaran (1999, 201) stated that research methods are “ways in which research studies are designed and the procedures by which data are analysed”. This study consists of a combination of both positivist and interpretivist paradigms. The researcher adopted a mixed methods combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches in this study. Such a combination is termed triangulation. The following section will describe in detail the qualitative, quantitative and triangulation methodologies.

3.3.1 Qualitative methodology

Van Maanen (1983, 9) defined qualitative research as “an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world”. Also, qualitative research can be described as “a process of enquiry that draws data from the context in which events occur, in an attempt to describe these occurrences, as a means of determining the process in which events are embedded and the perspective of those participating in the event, using induction to derive possible explanations based on observed phenomena” (Groman and Clayton, 2005, 3)

Qualitative research focuses on depth rather than breadth. It explores in-depth information about a small number of people, rather than a large group (Walker, 1985). Cassell and Symon (1994) noted that qualitative research has a varied history in education, communications, social work, sociology, medical science, anthropology, organizational studies and history. Qualitative research is described by Snape and Spencer (2004, 4) as involving “a clear objective for the research; the adoption of a flexible research strategy; generating data in a naturalistic and somewhat personalised context; appropriate choice of data analysis and interpretation methods, allowing theories to develop naturally from data, rather than having pre-formed theories as to outcome; mapping meaning, processes and contents while answering the questions ‘how’, ‘what?’ and ‘why?’”

In qualitative research, the techniques used are not intended to focus on numbers or measurements; they are aimed towards the participant’s reaction to the nature of the research (Bryman, 1988). Table 8 shows the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative research.

Table 8: Strengths and weaknesses of qualitative research (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012: 124)

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data preserve meaning and language used by participants. • Enables in-depth study of selected cases and description of complex phenomena in local contexts. • It can allow for cross-case comparisons. • It can explicate insiders' perspectives (i.e. the emic viewpoint) with authenticity. • It can identify contextual and situational factors. • It studies dynamic processes allowing researchers to identify and document patterns, sequences and change. • Grounded explanatory theories can be generated. • Data are typically collected in naturalistic settings and are not 'artificial'. • Idiographic causation (i.e. causation that we observe, purposively produce or experience in our lives) can be documented. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is difficult to generalize findings to different people, contexts and situations. • Testing hypotheses and theories can be cumbersome. • Some administrators, programmes and stakeholders might perceive qualitative research as less credible. • Data collection and analysis is often time consuming. • Qualitative results are more prone to researcher biases, errors and idiosyncrasies than quantitative data analysis.

Methods in qualitative research, such as interviews, enable the researcher to ask specific questions in order to receive answers that give a suitable framework for the various aspects at issue. This method helps the researcher to explore the world as understood by the interviewee (Wong, 1992). In addition, methods in qualitative research seek to understand the definitions of individuals, meanings of events and descriptions. Denzin and Lincoln (1994, 2) stated that "qualitative methods such as interviews, observations, and document reviews are predominant in this paradigm, being mostly anecdotal in nature, yet varying in the degree of structuredness. These

are applied in line with an assumption about the social construction of reality, in that research can be conducted only through the interaction between and amongst investigators and respondents”.

Data in qualitative research can be gathered using a variety of research methods. In social sciences, interviews are commonly used to gather data. Interviews can be considered as “an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, sees the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasizes the social situatedness of research data” (Kvale, 1996, 14). They are widely used by different researchers because of the advantages of this technique in composing a combined picture of a circumstance or issue. According to Tarawneh (1992), an interview is an excellent method to access and perceive a person’s constructions of reality, meanings, perceptions and definitions of situations. According to Kvale (1996, 11), “the use of the interview in research marks a move away from seeing human subjects as simply manipulable and data as somehow external to individuals, and towards regarding knowledge as generated between humans, often through conversations”. Moreover, interviews can be conducted in order to “provide access to the context of people’s behaviour and thereby provides a way for researchers to understand the meaning of the behaviour. A basic assumption in in-depth interviewing research is that the meaning people make of their experience [...] interviewing allows us to put behaviour in context and provides access to understanding their action” (Seidman 1998, 4).

An interview can provide greater depth of information compared with other data collection methods. Also, it gives the researcher the opportunity to ensure accuracy of information by allowing her/him to observe reactions, both verbal and non-verbal, displayed in the body language that occurs when answers are given (Abraham, 2000). The researcher also has the chance to convey information and guide the proceedings, as well as the opportunity to exchange information and ideas. However, when conducting an interview, there are different procedures that should be considered (Tuckman, 1972), as follows: before asking the interview questions, it is important to inform participants what the research is about and its aim. The researcher has hence given information about the research and its goals to the interviewees before starting the interview process. In an interview, the interviewer should avoid judging interviewees and influencing their views. Furthermore, the interviewer has a

responsibility to demonstrate the conduct of the interview to the interviewee. In this research, participants were given information about the interview procedure, as shown in Appendix 1.

The researcher chose semi-structured interviews as a method to collect data. According to Rubin and Rubin (2005, 88) a semi-structured interview “allow[s] depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee’s responses”. The researcher interviewed 10 female headteachers from 10 primary schools, giving them the opportunity to share their perspectives on designing a suitable professional development programme, and exploring what could prevent the creation and delivery of such a programme. Because of the flexibility of the semi-structured interview, the researcher chose it to give the interviewees the ability to control the interview, while at the same time, the interviewer was able to note any unclear responses and use supplementary questions to explore and gather more rich information. Semi-structured interviews were used to share information with female headteachers about their professional needs, designing a professional development programme, and what barriers could prevent the implementation of such a programme.

3.3.2 Quantitative methodology

Bryman (2008, 140) described quantitative research as “entailing the collection of numerical data, as exhibiting a view of the relationship between theory and research as deductive and a predilection for a natural science approach (and of positivism in particular), and as having an objectivist conception of social reality”. Also, quantitative research is defined by Creswell (2003, 18) as research “in which the investigator primarily uses post-positivist claims for developing knowledge”. Quantitative methods generate reliable, quantifiable data from which findings can be generalizable to the wider population. Weinreich (2006) mentions that measures in quantitative research are usually suitable for evaluation and comparing results with baseline data, or for managing needs assessments. Quantitative research has strengths and weaknesses, which are demonstrated in Table 9.

Table 9: Strengths and weaknesses of quantitative research (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 123)

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Researchers can test and validate theories. • Random samples, when used correctly, allow statistical generalization. • It is strong on internal (casual) validity, and replication is used to increase external (generalising) validity. • Nomothetic causation (i.e. scientific laws, general casual relationships) is demonstrated. • Experimental manipulation and control provides strong internal validity. • Laboratory experiments can be conducted and analysed quickly. • It produces standardised measures of relationship (for example, statistical significance, effect size). • It is useful when studying large groups of people and providing the etic (i.e. ‘objective outsider’) perspective. • Administrators, politicians and other stakeholders traditionally view quantitative results as more credible than qualitative results. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The categories of meaning and theories used by the researcher might differ from those used and accepted by local constituencies. • Researchers sometimes exhibit tunnel (narrow) vision and confirmation bias. • General research findings might not apply to some local contexts and particular individuals, and might, in certain circumstances, be considered potentially superficial.

Quantitative research can take a variety of forms, generally classified as experiment and survey (Creswell, 2003). In this research, a survey form was chosen as the research capture strategy and implemented through a questionnaire. Questionnaires can be categorized into three types: structured, semi-structured and unstructured

(Cohen et al., 2007). Responses in a structured questionnaire may be employed for statistical analysis and enable differentiation between the sample group (Oppenheim, 1994). Regarding unstructured questionnaires, respondents have the opportunity to state their opinions freely. Semi-structured questionnaires combine structured and unstructured elements (Cohen et al., 2000). The questions in a questionnaire can be classified as closed questions and open questions. Closed questions provide participants with a range of answers from which to choose and have a structured design. In addition, closed questions benefit from producing responses that are easy to analyse and can be used in comparisons between groups. The responses to a closed question can easily be transferred into codes and then analysed using computer software (Cohen et al., 2007). By contrast, in questionnaires with open questions, participants are free to give any answer they like, some of which may be unfamiliar to the researcher, which may benefit the research.

Cohen et al. (2007) outlined the advantages of a questionnaire as follows:

- It is an effective method of collecting data.
- It presents an economic way of collecting data.
- It enables the feasibility of generalization.

On the other hand, Bryman (2008) noted some disadvantages of questionnaires, as follows:

- The researcher will not have the opportunity to probe and clarify questions.
- The rate of the response might be low.
- The researcher will not have the chance to make sure if the questionnaire is answered by the right participant.

A questionnaire can be used solely to collect data or aligned with another research method. It is also a way of gathering information that includes thoughts, opinions, behaviour and knowledge in an impartial approach. Muijs (2012, 151-152) recommends various factors to consider when designing a questionnaire, which the current researcher has applied as follows:

- Keep it brief.
- Keep your questions clear and simple.

- Consider the order of questions.
- Include a ‘don’t know’ category in rating scales to give respondents who do not have an answer or an opinion the chance to make this choice.
- Avoid double negatives (“if you don’t disagree ...”) in questionnaires, as they lead to confusion among respondents, who have to take an extra cognitive action to interpret the question.
- Ask only one question on any item.
- Take into account cultural differences.

A semi-structured questionnaire was chosen for this research as a tool to collect data, because it can help gather a lot of information from a large number of participants and gives participants the freedom and privacy to answer the questions. The researcher chose Likert-type questions which could be analysed statistically, in order to acquire headteachers’ perceptions about appropriate professional development programmes. Likert scales aim to “measure intensity of feelings about the area in question” (Bryman, 2008, 146). Items were measured on a five-point scale, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. The questionnaire was divided into two categories: closed questions and open questions. Closed questions consist of a group of answers from which participants can choose one that is appropriate for them. There are some advantages regarding closed questions - the process of answering is simple, participants can complete the questionnaire easily, the researcher can compare answers easily, and it may give participants a clearer meaning of the questions (Bryman, 2008). By contrast, open questions give participants the opportunity to answer the question freely. The reason for adding open questions to the survey instrument was to give participants the chance to answer the questions in their own terms. Also, it allowed the researcher to explore new information from participants. The first section of the questionnaire consisted of questions about the participants’ qualifications, their experience and background regarding professional development programmes, and their perceptions about a professional development programme. The second section concerned the structure of possible professional development programmes, looking at time and length, and also examining possible issues in implementing a professional development programme. Using a questionnaire as a method to collect data is considered by Muijs (2012) to benefit research due to its flexibility and rich

information, and may, therefore, have advantages for the field of educational leadership (Muijs 2012).

From the foregoing discussions, it can be seen that quantitative research and qualitative research have certain differences and similarities. First, the differences between quantitative research and qualitative research are as follows:

- Quantitative research tends to focus on numbers, but qualitative research focuses on meaning.
- In quantitative research, the researcher is in control of the research, meaning that she\he brings her/his view to structure the research, whereas in qualitative research, the researcher is interested in the participant's view.
- In quantitative research, researchers are not involved directly with participants, but in qualitative research they are directly involved with participants.
- In quantitative research, the research concept and theory is being tested in the research, but in a qualitative research the theory and concept comes from the data.
- Quantitative research findings may be generalized to a population, whereas qualitative research is intended to understand behaviour, values and beliefs related to the context of the research.
- Quantitative research data is known as 'hard', in relation to being strong and unequivocal, whereas qualitative research is a contextual approach that generates rich data.
- Quantitative research tends to reveal large-scale social trends and links between variables; qualitative research focuses on small-scale features of social facts.
- Quantitative research focuses on people's behaviour; qualitative research focuses on the meaning of their actions. (Bryman, 2008, 393-394)

Table 10 summarizes the differences between quantitative research and qualitative research.

Table 10: Differences between quantitative research and qualitative research (Bryman, 2008, 393)

Quantitative	Qualitative
Numbers	Words
Point of view of researcher	Points of view of participants
Researcher distant	Researcher close
Theory testing	Theory emergent
Static	Process
Structured	Unstructured
Generalization	Contextual understanding
Hard, reliable data	Rich, deep data
Macro	Micro
Behaviour	Meaning
Artificial sittings	Natural settings

Nevertheless, quantitative research and qualitative research share some similarities, as follows:

- Quantitative and qualitative research both have the ability to collect a lot of information.
- The aim of both quantitative and qualitative research is to obtain an answer to research questions.
- Both methods are interested in linking a literature review with an analysis of the data collected.
- Quantitative and qualitative researchers seek to “uncover and then represent the variation that they uncover”.
- Quantitative and qualitative research deal with frequency as a “springboard for analysis”.
- Quantitative and qualitative research aims “to ensure that deliberate distortion does not occur”.
- Quantitative and qualitative research is concerned about “the importance of transparency”.

- Quantitative and qualitative research is concerned about noticing “questions of error”.
- Quantitative and qualitative research is concerned about making sure that the research methods are suited to the research questions (Bryman, 2008,395).

Moreover, qualitative and quantitative methods can be combined together to form mixed methods research, which is explained in detail in the following section.

3.3.3 Mixed methods

Mixed method research is “the paradigm that systematically combines aspects of quantitative and qualitative research methods into a single study to take advantage of each paradigm’s strengths” Hibberts and Johnson (2012, 122). Johnson et al. (2007, 129) define mixed methods research as follows:

Mixed methods research is an intellectual and practical synthesis based on qualitative and quantitative research; it is the third methodological or research paradigm (along with qualitative and quantitative research). It recognises the importance of traditional quantitative and qualitative research but also offers a powerful third paradigm choice that often will provide the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results.

This view is endorsed by Cohen et al. (2007), who describe mixed methods research as a paradigm that combines qualitative and quantitative research methods in a study in order to take advantage of the strength of each approach. Mixed method is defined by Hibberts and Johnson (2012, 123) as “the broad type of research in which elements or approaches from quantitative and qualitative research are combined or mixed in a research study”. Moreover, they state that “an important concept shared by proponents of mixed research is *the compatibility thesis* that says quantitative and qualitative methods can be used together *as long as the assumptions of both paradigms are respected* and the approaches are thoughtfully combined to complement each other for specific research purposes” (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 123). Using mixed methods also helps to improve the research quality (Bryman, 2008). Table 11 shows the strengths and weaknesses of mixed method research.

Table 11: Strengths and weaknesses of mixed research (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 126)

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers. • Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures and narrative. • Researchers can generate and test a mixed-methods grounded theory. • A researcher is not confined to a single method or approach. • It can provide fuller, deeper, more meaningful answers to a single research question. • It can concurrently study and link nomothetic (general) and idiographic (particularistic) causation. • It can link theory and practice to generate ‘practical theory’. • The strengths of an additional method can be used to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both. • Convergence and corroboration of findings can enhance evidence of a particular claim (called triangulation). • Divergence and additional findings can add insights and broader understanding that will be missed when only a single method is used. • Qualitative data can identify quantitative measurement problems. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is difficult for a single researcher to understand and conduct both quantitative and qualitative research; it might require a research team. • The researcher must understand multiple methods and approaches and how to appropriately mix them. • Methodological ‘purists’ contend that one should always work within a single paradigm. • It is more expensive and time-consuming. • There are challenges in balancing/assessing the outcomes of qualitative and quantitative data analysis at the interpretation and theorization stages.

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative components can insert an exploratory and feedback loop into otherwise quantitative studies. • Quantitative sampling approaches can be used to increase the generalizability of qualitative results. • Combining quantitative and qualitative research produces integrated, mixed or multiple knowledge. 	

In mixed methods research, the quality of the research may be improved by using different research tools (Cohen et al., 2007). Mixed methods research is also considered flexible, as changes can be made when needed (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012). There are eight steps in a mixed research process as follows:

- Determine whether a mixed design is appropriate.
- Determine the rationale for using a mixed design.
- Select or construct a mixed research design and mixed sampling design.
- Collect the data.
- Analyse the data.
- Continually validate the data.
- Continually interpret the data.
- Write the research report. (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 129)

There are a variety of research approaches on a continuum from monomethod research, through partially mixed research, to fully mixed research, as shown in Figure 13 (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 127).

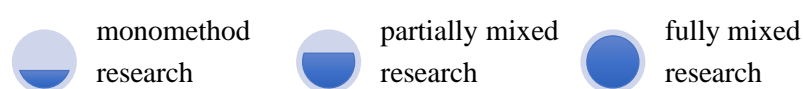


Figure 13: Research continuum (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 127)

Figure 13 shows that research can be strictly quantitative or strictly qualitative (mono-method research) on the far left, it can include minimum use of quantitative or a minimum use of qualitative (partially mixed research), as shown in the middle of Figure 1, or it can include equal use of quantitative and qualitative (fully mixed research), as shown on the far right of Figure 1. The design of mixed research involves two aspects: time orientation, and paradigm emphasis (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012). Time orientation means that researchers who are using strands/methods from both qualitative and quantitative research have the opportunity to use methods from each paradigm concurrently or sequentially. Paradigm emphasis means “the type of mixing of quantitative and qualitative methods and epistemological/paradigmatic assumptions” (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 127). In mixed research, equal status design indicates the equal use of methods or equally treated epistemologies. By contrast, dominant status indicates that one method controls the research and the other method is added (Hibberts and Johnson, 2012). Table 12 summarizes the design of mixed methods research.

Table 12: Design of mixed methods research (source: Hibberts and Johnson, 2012, 128)

Paradigm Emphasis Decision	Time Order Decision		
	Concurrent		Sequential
	Equal Status	QUAL + QUAN	QUAL → QUAN QUAN → QUAL
	Dominant status ₁	QUAL + quan + QUAN + qual	QUAL → quan qual → QUAN QUAN → qual Quan → QUAL

From Table 12, the symbols QUAN and quan refer to quantitative research; QUAL and qual refer to qualitative research. Capital letters refers to high dominance in the research, and lower-case letters refer to low dominance in the research. The (+) sign refers to concurrent data collection and the (arrow) sign indicates sequential data collection. The design of the research in this study is sequential; the researcher has used a quantitative approach using surveys, followed by a qualitative approach using semi-structured interviews. However, the design of this research is considered as dominant status; in this case, the research is predominantly quantitative, and the qualitative approach is added to the study. Mixed methods research has different

approaches, which can include triangulation, facilitation and complementarity (Hammersley, 1996). Triangulation is an approach that combines both quantitative and qualitative elements. Facilitation is a way of applying a research strategy that may help support the research. A complementarity approach is when the two research strategies are used to dovetail each other. This research has adopted a triangulation approach, which is explained in the next section.

3.3.4 Triangulation

Triangulation methodology is a way of mixing qualitative and quantitative research in order to triangulate results that may be corroborated mutually (Bryman, 2008). Triangulation is known as “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour” (Cohen et al., 2007: 141). Triangulation is also defined as follows: “Epistemological claims concerning what more can be known about a phenomenon when the findings from the data generated by two or more methods are brought together” (Moran-Ellis et al., 2006, 46). Bryman (2004) and Kelle (2001) mention some of the benefits of using triangulation in research, as follows:

- Researchers can conduct an accurate analysis when contrasting various findings of research methods
- Bias is minimized
- The legitimacy of findings is increased
- Research comprehension is greater
- By producing appropriate data forms, triangulation may assist to explain phenomena.
- From other methods triangulation supplements findings.

It is an important strategy that helps to abolish bias and enables the rejection of possible equivalent explanations (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Denzin, 1978). Miles and Huberman (1994, 235) stated that “triangulation is supposed to support a finding by showing that independent measures of it agree with it or, at least, don’t contradict it”. Triangulation helps the researcher to improve the research findings’ validity. It is important to use a mix of methods to gather data, in order to avoid bias. Hence, using a questionnaire and interviews will ensure the accuracy of the gathered data (Sekaran, 1999). With regard to this research, the researcher used both a questionnaire and

interviews as methods of obtaining information that would support the results of both tools, in addition to raising the accuracy of the information obtained.

3.3.5 Research strategy

There has not been much research written about in the literature on female headteachers' professional development in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, to make the current research as comprehensive as possible, I adopted a mixed-methods approach that involved both a questionnaire and interviews. A mixed method approach can help collect in-depth data and understand the participants' answers by using both questionnaire and interview as a method to collect data. The questionnaire method was used to collect as much information as possible from a large number of female headteachers, while interviews helped in understanding the information gathered from the questionnaire. The researcher began with the questionnaire to collect data, and then conducted the interviews. A questionnaire was chosen by the researcher because it enabled the collection of in-depth information from female headteachers about their opinions on developing a professional development programme based on their professional needs. In addition, it was chosen by the researcher in order to obtain data from a large number of people. This method is also considered more efficient in terms of time, cost and effort. According to Sherman and Feters (2007), in order to collect data, a questionnaire is considered the most popular method and is able to be administered personally, electronically, or can be delivered by post. In addition, a questionnaire is considered to be a valid source of reliable data (Creswell, 2003).

Examples of the use of a mixed methods approach in the area of educational leadership include a study conducted by Ivankova et al. (2006) on PhD students' persistence in an online educational leadership programme, which involved collecting quantitative data from current and former students using a survey. They then used interviews to collect qualitative data because they wanted to understand the predictive factors that were known from the quantitative data collected from the survey. Another study was conducted by Camburn et al. (2010) to investigate leadership practice and time allocation for principals. They used mixed methods to collect data, in order to ensure the accuracy of the findings. A further study by Muijs et al. (2006), investigating the relationship between leadership development and actual leadership behaviour in highly successful organizations used a questionnaire to collect quantitative data, then

utilized interviews to collect qualitative data. This type of method helped them to gather data from a broader cross-section of the staff, and more in-depth information from the interviews. It is important for any researcher to check their research tools in order for the participants to understand them. Piloting a research tool is one way to ensure that it is suitable for the participants to use and is discussed next.

3.4 Pilot study

Piloting questions is an essential process before distributing them to participants (Briggs et al., 2012). Piloting survey questions will also result in well-operated and functional survey questions (Bryman, 2008). The researcher conducted a pilot study of the survey questions with 10 of her colleagues and friends. The participants were women with a bachelor's degree who worked in the education field as teachers and supervisors. Regarding the questionnaire, the researcher piloted the questions and gave them to a group of people to test them, and then gave the questions again to the same group, which resulted in the same responses to questions, which supported the reliability of the questionnaire. Bernard (2000, 49) mentions that "When tests are developed, they are typically tested for reliability by giving them to a group of people then calling back those same people a week later to take the test again". The researcher implemented a pilot study in order to improve the validity of the research, with the aim of identifying problems in advance of commencing interviews, as recommended by Teijlingen et al. (2001). The researcher also piloted the interview questions with 10 of her colleagues and friends, who worked as teachers. The interviewees pointed out some misunderstandings regarding some of the questions, such as how a professional development programme could be effective. Based on their feedback, changes were made in order that participants in the main study could gain a better understanding of the interview questions. Bryman (2008, 248) stated that, during the course of a pilot, "questions that seem not to be understood or questions that are often not answered should become apparent". Translating the research instruments was another important step in this research, because the participants were Arabic speakers. The translation process is demonstrated next.

3.5 Translation

Both the survey and the interview questions were translated from English into Arabic, because the participants were Arabic speakers. The translation process involved

forward and backward translation in order to reduce any problems of inaccuracy (Douglas and Carige, 1983). This method was applied for cross-cultural adaptation, which incorporated two copies of the questionnaire and interview questions translated into Arabic. The translation was undertaken by two people. The first person was the researcher herself, who was naturally familiar with the research field; the second person was from a commercial translation company outside the research field, who would not be influenced by the research aims. After both translations were finished, they were compared to observe any inconsistencies and possible contradictions that might have emerged during the process of translation. Moreover, the content of the survey and interviews themselves underwent backward translation, which meant translating from Arabic into English.

3.6 Reliability and validity of the research

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability is defined as “A measure is reliable if it provides the same results on two or more occasions, when the assumption is made that the object being measured has not changed ... if a measure, or indeed a series of measures when repeated give a similar result, it is possible to say that it has high reliability” (Scott and Morrison, 2006, 208). It is defined by Bush (2012, 76) as follows: “Reliability relates to the probability that repeating a research procedure or method would produce identical or similar results. It provides a degree of confidence that replicating the process would insure consistency”.

Hartas (2010, 71) explains reliability as follows: “Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of a measurement, and is concerned with whether the results of a study are replicable”. The researcher applied the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient to measure the reliability of the questionnaire and its consistency in the research. Cronbach’s alpha is commonly applied to measure internal reliability, and is widely used by researchers (Bryman, 2008). Cohen et al. (2007, 506) stated that “The Cronbach alpha provides a coefficient of inter-item correlations, that is, the correlation of each item with the sum of all other items”. The Cronbach’s alpha value was .926, which reflects a high degree of reliability, as shown in Table 15 (see Chapter Four, p. 132), and the questionnaire is, therefore, suitable for use in this study.

Researchers may encounter various factors which can affect the reliability of findings. Respondents are often not interested, or are biased, or may choose one of the answer options without reading it (Sekaran, 2003). To avoid these issues, the researcher chose the respondents carefully, and made sure that they had the will to participate in the research (Hair, 2003). To assist in this, the researcher scheduled the interview dates according to the convenience of the participants. Regarding the questionnaires, the researcher avoided rushing the participants, giving them plenty of time to answer the questions, so as to avoid the questionnaire being completed without due consideration and interviews being rushed (Hair, 2003). The researcher gathered the questionnaire data by delivering and collecting the questionnaires personally. The researcher conducted the interviews in the headteachers' offices. The data were carefully analysed by reading them thoroughly to make sure no logical flaws occurred and the respondents' answers were not contradictory (Hair, 2003). Measuring reliability involves avoiding bias and making sure that the measurement is consistent over time and across the instrument's different items (Sekaran, 2003). In addition, measuring reliability involves the stability of the instrument. In the questionnaire, the questions were developed in a clear way in order to avoid misunderstanding. In the semi-structured interviews, the researcher avoided bias by getting the interviewees to trust her, giving a good introduction to the research, ensuring confidentiality of the participants' identity and personal information, giving participants freedom to talk as they wished and taking notes on everything they said.

3.6.2 Validity

Bush (2012, 81) defines validity as follows:

Validity is used to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon that it is intended to describe. The research design, the methodology and the conclusions of the research all need to have regard to the validity of the process.

Validity can also be described as follows:

Validity ... tells us whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe. If an item is unreliable, then it must also lack validity, but a reliable item is not necessarily also valid. It could produce the same or similar responses on all occasions, but not be measuring what it is supposed to measure (Bell, 1999, 104).

Validity is an essential aspect to produce effective research (Cohen et al., 2007). The collected data are used in order to inform the findings of the research. Suspect findings occur when the data are not verifiable. According to Sekaran (2003), the researcher is required to validate her/his findings. Also, Saunders et al. (2006) mention that research validity is achieved when it studies what it is meant to study, and when the findings are verifiable. The research measurement tools have to be understood by the participants in order to achieve accurate findings that are connected to the study objectives. The researcher ensured the validity of the research by adopting the following procedures:

The researcher used various methods of data collection to ensure that the collected data really showed what they appeared to show (Saunders et al., 2006). By adopting different methods, triangulation was possible, including cross-checking for various types of validity. Semi-structured interviews were used to gather more detailed information in order to give deep insight into the findings of the questionnaire and to achieve validity for the findings of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire content was pre-examined at different stages by pilot test using 10 participants who worked in the education field as teachers and supervisors in Saudi Arabia, as well as by the academic supervisor of the researcher.

Semi-structured interview validity is achieved when the researcher gains complete access to the meanings and knowledge of informants (Easterby-Smith et al., 2001). Moreover, possible flexible interaction between the interviewer and interviewee leads to more in-depth information. According to Saunders et al. (2006), semi-structured interviews have high validity. The researcher used the SPSS 22 program to measure the validity of the questionnaire in section 4.2 by applying Pearson's correlation coefficient to assess the internal validity between the variables. According to Cohen et al. (2007, p. 135), "Internal validity seeks to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which a piece of research provides can actually be sustained by the data". The Pearson's correlation coefficient of the questionnaire demonstrated that most results showed a positive relation between the variables, as shown in Table 16 (see Chapter Four, p. 126). As a result, there is a high level of consistency and, therefore, the research questionnaire can be considered sufficiently reliable.

Content validity is achieved when a “measure apparently reflects the content of the concept in question” (Bryman and Cramer, 2011, p. 82). Cohen et al. (2007) also mention that content validity can be achieved when the instrument used can actually measure the content that it is intended to. The questionnaire that was used as a data collection tool in this research was sent to colleagues of the researcher who worked in the education field to pilot the instrument. The colleagues’ feedback regarding the questionnaire was positive and the instrument was deemed appropriate for use in conducting the research.

When collecting the answered questionnaires, the researcher made sure that they had been answered by the right participants, by collecting them personally. The researcher gained approval from the Ministry of Education to access primary schools in Riyadh and was, therefore, able to access the primary schools by herself. The number of schools and the sample is discussed next.

3.7 Sample

Sampling can be divided into probability and non-probability (Schofield 1996). In a probability sample, the chance of members of the larger population being chosen for the sample is known. In non-probability samples, the chance of members of the larger population being chosen for the sample is unknown (Cohen et al., 2007).

The researcher chose a probability sample in order to achieve generalizations. This type of sampling helps the researcher to represent the wider population. Probability sampling takes different forms, such as “simple random sampling”, “systematic sampling”, “stratified sampling”, “cluster sampling”, “stage sampling” and “multi-phase sampling” (Cohen et al., 2007, 110). Cluster sampling was chosen by the researcher for interviewing female primary headteachers because this type enabled each member of the group to have an equal opportunity to be chosen. Cluster sampling is described as: “it is often the case that the members of a population can be broken down into pre-existing groups or clusters” (Sheskin, 2011, 100).

The sample included 10 female headteachers in primary schools in the city of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The sample for the interviews was small. Ritchie and Lewis (2003, 83) justify this as follows:

“First if the data are properly analysed there will come a point where very little new evidence is obtained from each additional fieldwork unit. Second, statements about incidence or prevalence are not the concern of qualitative research. Third, the type of information that qualitative studies yield is rich in detail. There will therefore be many hundreds of ‘bits’ of information from each unit of data collection. In order to do justice to these, sample sizes need to be kept to a reasonably small scale”. According to Saudi Ministry of Education statistics, the total number of primary schools for girls in the whole region of Riyadh is 456 (Ministry of Education, 2016). The researcher obtained a list from the Ministry of Education of schools in the region of Riyadh, and chose schools randomly from the list using a random number table. For the questionnaire, the researcher chose random sampling. The researcher chose 100 female headteachers to participate in the questionnaire. No inclusion or exclusion criteria were applied, such as experience, age and qualification, for either the interviews or the questionnaire. The following section will explain how the researcher collected the data.

3.8 Data collection

The researcher collected data by two methods: a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The collection of data started in June 2014 and continued until September 2014. The researcher delivered 150 questionnaires to 87 primary schools in Riyadh, asking headteachers if they could give extra copies of the questionnaire to their fellow headteachers, so that they also would have the opportunity to participate in the research. An additional 50 copies were handed to the headteachers who agreed to pass them on to other headteachers. The researcher delivered the extra copies because of the lack of time for the data collection and transportation, due to the strict rule in Saudi Arabia that prevents females from driving cars. The researcher hence had to rely on others to drive her to the schools she visited. While delivering questionnaires, the researcher asked the headteachers if they would like to participate in an interview. The questionnaire was printed on paper and delivered to the participants by the researcher herself. I delivered the questionnaires in person because of the poor postal service and infrastructure in Saudi Arabia. There would have been no guarantee of the survey being delivered to the headteachers unless I distributed the papers myself.

The researcher did not interfere with the participants. They filled in the questionnaire by themselves, so the questionnaire in this study was a self-reporting research tool (Johnson and Christensen, 2004). The researcher returned to the headteachers to collect the additional 50 questionnaires, only 14 questionnaires of which were completed. The questionnaire was used to gather information about professional development from female primary headteachers in Riyadh. The participants were given enough time to answer the questionnaires, and then the researcher collected them personally. Some of the female headteachers took around 20 to 30 minutes to answer the questionnaire, whereas others needed more time. This required the researcher to leave the questionnaires with the headteachers and return to the schools to collect them later. The researcher managed to collect 101 completed questionnaires from female primary headteachers in Riyadh. For the interviews, the researcher made phone calls to schedule appointments with the headteachers at their convenience. All the headteachers agreed to arrange their interviews in the morning. The researcher asked her father to drive her to each headteacher's school to conduct the interviews, due to the cultural restriction that, at the time, prevented women from driving. (The ban on women driving was lifted in the Kingdom in 2018; after the data collection conducted for this research.)

The semi-structured interviews took place at each headteacher's primary school. All of the interviewed headteachers chose their offices for the interview to take place, explaining that it was more comfortable and ensured their anonymity. It would aid the research if the headteachers felt free and comfortable to answer the interview questions. At the start of each interview, the researcher presented the female headteacher with a copy of the approval letter from the Ministry of Education to conduct the research. The researcher also gave a clear introduction to the research and her aims in conducting it. Each headteacher was then given a consent form relating to whether she agreed to be interviewed. During the interview process, the participants were not forced to rush their answers and were given enough time. Moreover, the participants were given the opportunity to ask questions to ensure that they understood the interview questions and could seek clarification if necessary.

Each interview took a maximum of one hour thirty minutes, and was recorded by the researcher after gaining permission to do so from the headteachers. The data obtained

from the semi-structured interviews were audio recordings that were transcribed in full.

Transcribing recorded interviews is an important step and has several advantages:

- It helps to correct the natural limitations of our memories and of the intuitive glosses that we might place on what people say in interviews.
- It allows more thorough examination of what people say.
- It permits repeated examinations of the interviewees' answers.
- It opens up the data to public scrutiny by other researchers, who can evaluate the analysis that is carried out by the original researchers of the data (that is, a secondary analysis).
- It therefore helps to counter accusations that an analysis might have been influenced by a researcher's values or biases.
- It allows the data to be re-used in other ways from those intended by the original researcher (Heritage, 1984, 238, cited in Bryman, 2008, 451).

However, there are some difficulties that may occur when transcribing a recorded interview, such as using a poor recording device. To avoid this particular problem, the researcher used an audio recorder, as it is considered to offer good-quality recording. When the researcher finished collecting the data, she started analysing them. The following section describes how the collected data were analysed.

3.9 The process of data analysis

Techniques to analyse quantitative data are specific, well developed, and oriented numerically and differently compared with the analyses of qualitative data (Sekaran, 1999). Data procured by such methods need to be precisely manipulated in order to be placed into a suitable form for analysis. Techniques used for data reduction include data coding, data grouping and data scaling. The researcher started to analyse the quantitative data first, then the qualitative data (Briggs et al., 2012). With regard to the questionnaire, the researcher used SPSS computer software to analyse the data. SPSS is an accurate and robust programme that is able to analyse different types of data in the social sciences (George and Mallery, 2000). The researcher made sure that the computed results were consistent with the nature of the study and statistical reasoning when using SPSS to analyse the data. Burns (2000) stipulates that statistical

reasoning must not be changed by using a computer package. The researcher is responsible for the right choice of statistical test, and interpretation of results. The information gathered from the questionnaires was translated into English, entered into the SPSS software and classified into nominal and ordinal variables. Nominal variables are concerned with groups or categories, for example the type or length of a programme (Cohen et al., 2007). By contrast, ordinal variables are concerned with quantities, such as coding from a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is “strongly disagree” and 5 is “strongly agree” (Cohen et al., 2007). The tests used in this research involved descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages, and the Chi-squared test. Descriptive statistics are used to identify if there is a relationship between variables (Bryman, 2008), and the Chi-squared test is used to test differences between categories (Cohen et al., 2007).

For analysis of the qualitative data, the researcher consolidated the data gathered from the semi-structured interviews with the participants. There is no standardized approach researchers can adopt to analyse qualitative data, because of the very nature of qualitative data. Various strategies have been used by various types of qualitative research (Saunders et al., 2006). The researcher divided the transcribed recordings into categories, to help analyse the data in a rigorous and systematic way. The researcher combined similar data together into categories. Saunders et al. (2006) mention that adopting frequency of certain events to quantify qualitative data helps the researcher to present a large volume of data that will be reviewed by using text. The researcher referred to the participants using codes to hide their identity. Two analytical processes were applied: one to organize the data and one to analyse them. Data were arranged and managed by forming codes and themes (Gibbs, 2002). According to Fielding (2002, 163), “Coding’ is fundamental to qualitative data analysis. The corpus has to be divided into segments and these segments assigned codes ... which relate to the analytic themes being developed. Researchers aim for codes which capture some essential quality of the segment, and which apply to other segments too”. Thematic analysis was chosen for this research as a method of analysing the interview data. The main themes and subthemes were generated as a result of the thematic analysis. According to Bryman (2008: 554), “themes and subthemes are the product of a thorough reading and re-reading of the transcripts or field notes that make up the data”. Themes can be identified in the following. Repetition: words related to the topic that

are repeated many times; indigenous typologies or categories: “local terms that may sound unfamiliar or are used in unfamiliar ways” (Ryan and Bernard, 2003: 89); metaphors or analogies: the representation of people’s thoughts in metaphors or analogies; transitions: “naturally occurring shifts in content may be markers of themes” (Ryan and Bernard, 2003: 90); similarities and differences: the way participants express their views of a topic in the same way or differently; linguistic connectors: “metaphors, transitions, and connectors are all part of a native speaker’s ability to grasp meaning in a text. By making these features more explicit, we sharpen our ability to find themes” (Ryan and Bernard, 2003: 92); missing data: “instead of asking, ‘What is here?’ we can ask ‘What is missing?’ Researchers have long recognized that much can be learned from qualitative data by what is not mentioned” (Ryan and Bernard, 2003: 92); and theory-related material: “in addition to identifying indigenous themes—themes that characterize the experience of informants—researchers are interested in understanding how qualitative data illuminate questions of importance to social science” (Ryan and Bernard, 2003: 93).

Moreover, data collected from the interviews were analysed using NVivo 10 software. Before conducting the data analysis, the information gathered from the interviews was translated from Arabic into English and then entered into the software. The data from the interviews were transcribed into a Word document, then imported as a document into the NVivo 10 software. Thematic analysis was applied in this study due to the wide use of this approach in qualitative data analysis (Bryman, 2008). Thematic analysis considers the themes and sub-themes generated from an inclusive examination of transcribed data (Bryman, 2008). The information generated from the interviews were coded in order to establish groups or categories from responses that are common or different (Saldana, 2013). In this research, the researcher examined the document thoroughly and generated categories from common responses from the female headteachers; the responses were grouped into themes, sub-themes, initially from codes (nodes) based on the information acquired from the interviews (Saldana, 2013). Themes and sub-themes are basically information generated from codes (Saldana. 2013).

Watling et al. (2012, 391) suggested that “codes may be pre-specified, based upon the aims of the project and the concepts upon which it is based, or they may emerge as the analysis proceeds, or a combination of both these approaches may be used”. The

coding process included all the participants' negative and positive responses, and established the main themes and sub-themes identified from the interviewees' answers. The following eight main themes were generated from the interviews: positive and negative effects of a professional development programme; programme elements; programme period; barriers; work atmosphere; programme time; programme location; and transportation. In addition, every main theme was identified using a number of codes (nodes). The sub-themes that emerged from the main themes were also coded in NVivo. For example, sub-themes regarding the positive effects of a professional development programme were as follows: experience exchange, administration development, personal development, school outcome, and knowledge expansion. The female headteachers who participated were identified in the NVivo software using number codes ranging from 1 to 10.

3.10 Ethical issues

In every piece of research, ethics are a vital aspect. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) mention that ethics involves values and moral principles that affect the research process of the researcher. Ethics can be defined as “a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others, and that “while truth is good, respect for human dignity is better” (Cavan, 1977, 810). Cooper and Schindler (2008, 34) stated that ethics involves “norms and standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others”. In a research process, it is vital to concentrate on ethical problems from the outset. The first step before conducting any research is seeking access to the organization (Cohen et al., 2007). Bell's recommendation (1991, 37) “is to gain permission early on, with fully informed consent gained, and indicating to participants the possible benefits of the research”. Access permission was obtained from the gatekeeper (Homan, 2001), which, in this research, was the Ministry of Education in Riyadh. The researcher was provided with a letter from her supervisor that indicated that she needed to collect data for her research. The supervisor's letter was then sent to the Saudi Cultural Bureau in London to obtain a letter from them to the Ministry of Education in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, showing that the researcher requested permission to collect data for her research, as the researcher had to obtain an authorization letter from the Ministry of Education to access the schools. The Ministry of Education requested information about the research, and the researcher had to provide the intended interview questions and survey before the Ministry would

authorize access. The researcher sent the information to the Ministry of Education and the Ministry emailed authorization to the researcher. The Ministry of Education also provided the researcher with a list of all schools located in Riyadh, which was helpful to the researcher. Informed consent is essential for research where participants may face stress, or reveal matters considered private (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992). Consent is a process that involves the participant's choice to participate in a piece of research, having been provided with information about that research (Cohen et al., 2007). Diener and Crandall (1978) defined informed consent as "the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions" (Diener and Crandall, 1978, cited in Cohen et al., 2007, 52). Therefore, it is important for any researcher to obtain consent before conducting research, because its importance "arises from fundamental democratic rights to freedom and self-determination, including choosing to join or not to join a project free from coercion or bribery and having the right to withdraw at any time" (ESRC, 2005, 7).

Informed consent includes four elements: competence, voluntarism, comprehension and complete information (Cohen et al., 2007). Competence involves participants' ability to make the right decision when they receive information relating to the research (Cohen et al., 2007). According to Cohen et al. (2007), voluntarism entitles participants to the freedom to participate in the research or not. Comprehension "refers to the fact that participants fully understand the nature of the research project, even when procedures are complicated and entail risks" (Cohen et al., 2007: 53). Complete information indicates that the researcher should provide full information to the participants about the research and what is expected from them (Cohen et al., 2007). Cohen et al. (2007) recommended that informed consent needs to include clarification and description of various factors, as follows:

- The purposes, contents and procedures of the research
- Any foreseeable risks and negative outcomes, discomfort or consequences, and how they will be handled
- Benefits that might derive from the research
- Incentives to participate and rewards from participating
- Right to voluntary non-participation, withdrawal and re-joining the project

- Rights and obligations to confidentiality and non-disclosure of the research, participants and outcomes
- Disclosure of any alternative procedures that may be advantageous
- Opportunities for participants to ask questions about any aspect of the research
- Signed contracts for participation (Cohen et al., 2007, 55).

The researcher acquired signed consent from the participants to participate in the research. The participants were given information about the research on the first page of the questionnaire, and a consent form which explained that they had the option to refuse to participate, as well as the opportunity to take part. Regarding the survey, the researcher wrote an introduction which included information about the research and what was required of the participants for the study. This included a consent form explaining that the participants were not obliged to participate in the research, and they were free to withdraw at any time. Participants were not forced to give an immediate response. At the start of each interview, the researcher explained to the interviewees about the research and what was expected from them. Privacy and anonymity were considered important in this research, as “The essence of anonymity is that information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity” (Cohen et al., 2007, 64). The participants’ names and identity were not used in this research, and other personal matters relating to the participants were not discussed. Confidentiality is essential for a researcher, in order to gain the trust of participants. McMillan and Schumacher (1993, 399) mention that “researchers have a dual responsibility, firstly, the protection of the participant’s confidence from other actors in the setting whose private information might enable them to identify them and secondly, the protection of informants from the general reading public”. With regard to confidentiality, Cohen et al. (2007, 65) state: “This means that although researchers know who has provided the information or are able to identify participants from the information given, they will in no way make the connection known publicly; the boundaries surrounding the shared secret will be protected”. In this research, the researcher ensured the confidentiality and privacy of the participants’ data. According to Christians (2000, 139), “Codes of ethics insist on safeguards to protect people’s identities and those of research locations”. Moreover, Christians (2000, 139) also states that “All personal data have to be secured or concealed and made public behind a shield of anonymity”. The participants in the research were referred to by codes in order to ensure their

privacy and confidentiality. Participants' personal information was not entered when saving the data electronically or mechanically (Briggs et al., 2012). The material obtained from the participants was kept in a locked safe in the researcher's office. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1993, 399), "Deception is viewed by most researchers as violating informed consent and privacy". The researcher made the participants aware of the research's purpose and an information letter was provided with the consent form. Harm in research can occur in the form of "physical harm; harm to participants' development; loss of self-esteem; stress; and inducing subjects to perform reprehensible acts" (Diener and Crandall, 1978, 19). The headteachers who participated in this research were protected from harm and were free to express their opinions without repercussions. Moreover, the researcher ensured the participants' right to withdraw from the study if they were uncomfortable with any question. The anonymity and privacy of the participants will not be compromised should any publications arise from the research. BERA (2004, para. 26) states: "The form of any publication, including publication on the Internet [should] not directly or indirectly lead to a breach of confidentiality and anonymity".

3.11 Summary

This chapter has indicated the research strategy for the study. Moreover, it has explained the methodology used, involving the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative approaches. This chapter also indicated the sample of the study and the methods used for collecting data. The validity, reliability and ethical issues of the research have been discussed. In addition, this chapter aimed to justify the methodology used in the study in order to collect the necessary data on professional development for female primary headteachers in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The next chapter discusses the findings of the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Research Findings

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings obtained from the analysis of the research data. This research included two methods of collecting data: interviews and a questionnaire. The aim of this study is to examine which professional development programme is appropriate and could be developed for female headteachers in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. The research adopted a mixed-methods approach to add credibility to the research findings (Bryman, 2008). The data collected from the questionnaires were analysed using the SPSS 22 programme, whereas data from the interviews were analysed using NVivo. First, the chapter will review the findings of the questionnaire and will then explore the results from the interviews.

4.2 Questionnaire

One hundred questionnaires were distributed to female headteachers in 87 primary schools in Riyadh, and an additional 50 copies were given to some of the headteachers to pass to other headteachers. The primary schools were chosen randomly. The researcher then revisited the schools to collect the questionnaires. Responses from 101 female headteachers were obtained from the 150 copies of the questionnaire originally distributed. The questionnaire contained three sections: the personal profile of the participating headteacher, the headteacher's opinion regarding participation in a professional development programme and the headteacher's opinion on the appropriate content of a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

The first section of the questionnaire contained questions concerning participants' academic qualifications, whether they had taken part in any professional development programmes, the length of any professional development programme attended, the location of the programme and its contents. Regarding the qualifications of the headteachers who participated in the survey, the majority (84.2%) of them had a bachelor's degree, 7.9% had a diploma qualification, 5% had achieved a PhD degree, and 3% had a master's degree. Figure 14 demonstrates the qualifications of the participants.

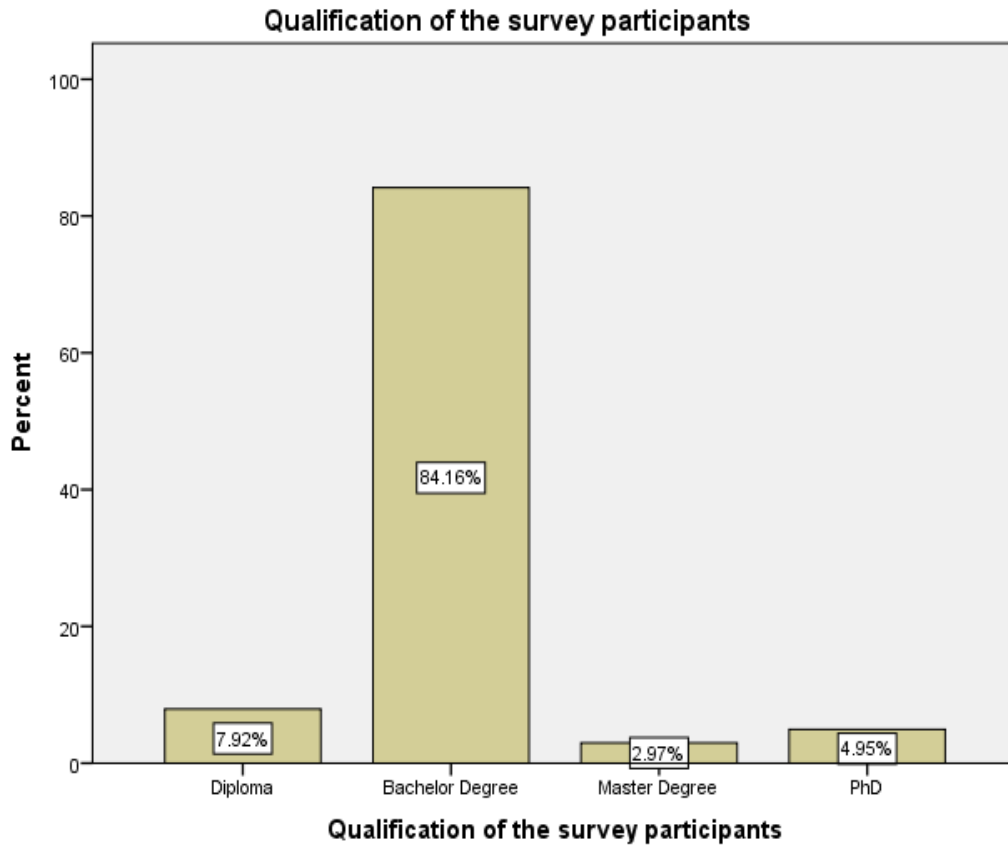


Figure 14: Qualifications of the female headteachers who took part in the study

The headteachers were asked if they had taken any professional development programmes. 37.6% stated that they had not taken any professional development programmes. The reasons for this were: because there were no professional development programmes for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, they had been newly appointed as headteachers, or the Ministry of Education sent them information about a course in advance, but they decided not to go because they had read about the course content from the information document. Nonetheless, 30.7% of the headteachers reported that they had taken just one professional development programme, 20.8% stated that they had taken two professional development programmes, 6.9% mentioned having attended three professional development programmes, while 2% had attended four professional development programmes and 1% had taken five. The courses attended by female headteachers were provided by the Ministry of Education. These figures show that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia are willing in principle to participate in professional development programmes. Table 13 demonstrates the professional development programmes taken by the headteachers.

Table 13: Number of professional development programmes taken by the female headteachers

Number of professional development programmes taken by the headteachers	Percentage
None	37.6
1	30.7
2	20.8
3	6.9
4	2
5	1
Missing	1
Total	100

The headteachers were then asked about the length of the professional development programmes taken. Their reply to this question included various answers, from one day, two to three days, two weeks, and one month. The majority (51.4%) of the headteachers answered that they had taken previous programmes for a period of two to three days, 4.9% of the headteachers mentioned one month as the period of time specifically for ICT, 3.9% of the headteachers stated that they had attended programmes lasting two weeks, and 9.9% answered they had taken a one-day programme. The following table (14) summarizes the lengths of the professional development programmes attended by the headteachers who took part in the study.

Table 14: Time spent by participants on professional development programmes

Length of professional development programme	Percentage of responses
1 day	9.9
2 -3 days	51.4
2 weeks	3.9
1 month	4.9
Total	70.1
Missing	30

The above data show that two to three days had the highest response from female headteachers. In the interviews, Headteacher 1 mentioned this was *“because it will not affect the headteacher’s work in school”*. This length of time was preferred because female headteachers are allocated a lot of work in school, which gives them little time to attend courses. Headteacher 10 referred to *“Difficulties such as there is not enough time, headteachers are busy with school work, the decrease in headteachers’ authority in schools, and the numerous aspects of headteachers’ school work”*. Moreover, if headteachers spend a lot of time outside their school, it would have a negative effect on the school and may lead to a failure in school outcomes. As Headteacher 7 stated, *“Negatively, there is only my absence from school, and there is no school assistant to replace me when I am away from school to attend a professional development programme”*. One month or two weeks as a period of time was considered appropriate by some headteachers to attend an intensive course which was taking place outside school time. Nevertheless, a period of one day to attend a professional development programme was considered reasonable and convenient by a few headteachers, because it would not take too much time away from school.

In the questionnaire, headteachers were asked about the subject matter that had been covered in the professional development programmes which they had attended, and their responses varied. The headteachers who answered this question identified common programmes: school management, leadership skills, evaluation, education policy and ICT. Evaluation received 19.8% of the responses, which indicated that this was the course that had been attended by the highest percentage of headteachers. Education policy courses had been attended by 17.8% of the headteachers, which were obligatory and provided by the Ministry of Education. Education policy courses took place three times a year, although this depended on whether there had been a change in policy from the Ministry of Education. This is not surprising as the provision of both evaluation and school policy are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, and so all headteachers are obliged to attend. In addition, 11.8% of headteachers mentioned that they had attended a leadership skills session, and 14.8% had enrolled on a school management course. ICT had been attended by 7.9% of the headteachers, although the ICT programme was provided by a private institute and the headteachers had to pay for it themselves. On the other hand, 0.9% of the sample did not respond

to this question, and 37.6% of headteachers had not attended any professional development programme.

Section 2 of the questionnaire concerns the opinion of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia regarding participation in a professional development programme. The section contained 17 statements, and participants were given the following options along a five-point Likert scale: “strongly agree”, “agree”, “not sure”, “disagree”, or “strongly disagree”. To measure the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was applied to the survey. Research reliability “is concerned with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable” (Bryman, 2008, 31). The reliability of a coefficient alpha is considered to be between 0 and 1 (Cohen et al., 2007). Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2007, 505) set guidelines for the alpha coefficient that can be used as follows:

> 0.90 is very highly reliable

0.80–0.90 is highly reliable

0.70–0.79 is reliable

0.60–0.69 is marginally/minimally reliable

< 0.60 reflects unacceptably low reliability.

In addition, Cronbach (1951) recommends using alpha separately for items that are connected to different factors. Therefore, Cronbach’s alpha was applied to each section of the questionnaire. A study conducted by Alkarni (2015) on headteachers’ professional learning in Jeddah used Cronbach’s alpha to measure the internal consistency of the research. The value of Cronbach’s alpha was at 0.90.

Table 15 demonstrates the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the impacts of a professional development programme.

Table 15: Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the impacts of a professional development programme

No. of items	Cronbach’s alpha
17	.926

Table 15 reflects a high score of .926, which suggests that these statements have a high level of reliability and can be considered significant. In addition, the survey was considered reliable to apply in the field.

Pearson's correlation coefficient or Pearson's r was applied to measure the relationship between variables. SPSS 22 programme was used to undertake Pearson's correlation coefficient and measure the relation between variables. The survey section results are presented in Table 16. Moreover, in this study, the statistical tests for Pearson's correlation were two-tailed. The researcher chose a two-tailed test, because she wanted to establish the opinions of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia with regard to a professional development programme (Cohen et al., 2007). In addition, Cohen et al. (2007, 504) commented that "The directional hypothesis indicates 'more' or 'less', whereas the non-directional hypothesis indicates only differences, and not where the difference may lie". The degree of freedom (df) was measured using the following formula: n (number in sample) - 2. Therefore, the df for the Pearson's correlation coefficient was $101 - 2 = 99$. The level of significance for the Pearson's correlation coefficient was set at 0.05. Two types of error may occur when conducting a test for statistical significance: a type I error, which is the "risk of rejecting the null hypothesis when it should be confirmed" (Bryman, 2008, 334); a type II error is "the risk of confirming the null hypothesis when it should be rejected" (Bryman, 2008, 334). When choosing a level of significance of 0.05, there is a low risk of committing a type II error, although there is a high risk of making a type I error. In this analysis, the significance level for the tests was set at 5%; however, where the significance of a statistical test is greater than 5% (for example, where it is 1%), this will be reported. The decision to use a 5% (as opposed to a 1% or 10% significance level) is arbitrary but as Gall et al. (2007) and Cowles and Davis (1982) report, a 5% significance level is invariably used in studies of this kind, and across the social sciences.

Table 16: Pearson's correlation coefficient for the impacts of a professional development programme

Statement Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	1																
2	.785**	1															
3	.462**	.438**	1														
4	.451**	.422**	.919**	1													
5	.381**	.398**	.782**	.853**	1												
6	.588**	.491**	.684**	.635**	.559**	1											
7	.658**	.701**	.468**	.452**	.423**	.658**	1										
8	.729**	.737**	.504**	.463**	.365**	.628**	.818**	1									
9	.644**	.625**	.670**	.637**	.645**	.698**	.654**	.743**	1								
10	.619**	.538**	.584**	.571**	.583**	.701**	.611**	.627**	.826**	1							
11	.684**	.655**	.414**	.348**	.259	.637**	.727**	.733**	.500**	.503**	1						
12	-.079	-.163	.150	.205	.280	-.001	-.191	-.117	.090	.121	-.246*	1					
13	.583**	.569**	.558**	.548**	.524**	.627**	.688**	.753**	.770**	.752**	.587**	.045	1				
14	.714**	.685**	.462**	.418**	.315	.461**	.668**	.744**	.655**	.637**	.627**	-.066	.739**	1			
15	.802**	.785**	.516**	.472**	.394**	.544**	.717**	.788**	.648**	.821**	.671**	-.101	.711**	.861**	1		
16	.750**	.729**	.459**	.391**	.318**	.471**	.718**	.806**	.659**	.638**	.661**	-.054	.693**	.897**	.921**	1	
17	.499**	.480**	.524**	.495**	.438**	.487**	.350**	.471**	.522**	.548**	.424**	.196	.654**	.538**	.542**	.574**	1

(**) statistically significant at 1% level, (*) statistically significant at 5% level

From the table above, the probability for this test is set at $p < 0.05$. The highlighted results in the table above are: .196, .150, .121, .090, .045, -.054, -.101, -.066, -.079, -.163, -.001, -.191, -.117 and -.246. These highlighted results are lower than the critical value of 0.205, and are not, therefore, statistically significant at the 5% level. The results in the table marked with asterisks (*) demonstrate that they are significant at the 5% level and are, therefore, considered statistically significant to the research. The

data in the above table demonstrate that the female headteachers agreed with the statements in the questionnaire. The headteachers also demonstrated high response with Statements 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 14 and 15, which demonstrates a high level of significance and will be discussed at the next paragraph. However, Statement 12 (*A professional development programme will suit me as a headteacher, regardless of my training needs*) is significantly low, which suggests that the female headteachers disagreed that a professional development programme would suit them as headteachers, regardless of their training needs and the type of programme. The table demonstrates that there is a statistically significant relationship, indicating that a professional development programme would have a positive effect on the performance of female headteachers. After demonstrating the results of the Pearson's correlation coefficient from the above table, the following section illustrates the responses of female headteachers with regard to their opinions of a professional development programme.

Table 17: Participants' responses to Section 2 of the questionnaire

Statement	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly disagree (%)
1- A professional development programme would help develop my leadership skills.	68.3	30.7	1		
2- A professional development programme would help improve my management of the school.	63.8	35.6	1		
3- My communication skills with school staff would be strengthened by a professional development programme.	45.5	41.6	12		
4- My communication skills with students would improve following a professional development programme.	42.6	43.6	13.9		
5- I could use a professional development programme to expand my communication skills with parents.	39.6	41.6	18.8		
6- A professional development programme would assist me in school development.	57.4	38.6	4		

Statement	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Not sure (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly disagree (%)
7- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on the quality of my leadership as a headteacher.	65.3	31.7	1	2	
8- My performance as a headteacher would be improved by a professional development programme.	64.4	30.7	4	1	
9- School outcomes could be advanced if I as a headteacher follow a professional development programme.	48.5	43.6	6.9	1	
10- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher in managing a school's financial resources in a better way.	46.5	46.5	5.9	1	
11- A professional development programme based on my training needs as a headteacher would be effective.	68.3	28.7	3		
12- A professional development programme will suit me as a headteacher, regardless of my training needs.	12.9	16.8	13.9	29.7	26.7
13- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on my decision making as a headteacher.	49.5	43.6	5.9	1	
14- I as a headteacher could use a professional development programme to expand my knowledge.	60.4	34.7	4	1	
15- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to carry out my roles effectively.	64.4	34.7	1		
16- I as a headteacher would be better prepared for my management roles with a professional development programme.	63.4	34.7	1	1	
17- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to understand my own strengths and areas of improvement with regard to school management and leadership.	52.5	39.6	7.9		

Closer inspection of table 17 shows that Statements 1 and 11 had the highest proportion of respondents (68.3) strongly agreeing with them, whereas Statement 12 had the lowest proportion of respondents (12.9) strongly agreeing with it. Second statement: *“A professional development programme would help improve my management of the school”*. The responses included the following: 63.4% of the headteachers stated that they strongly agreed with this statement, 35.6% agreed, and 1% felt were unsure. In the interviews, headteachers supported the idea that a professional development programme could improve school management, as Headteacher 9 said, *“It benefits me in managing the school, I learn how to manage things in school and lead people”*. Third statement: *“My communication skills with school staff would be strengthened by a professional development programme”*. The headteachers gave the following responses: 45.5% strongly agreed with this statement and 41.6% agreed with it. However, 12.9% of the headteachers stated that they were not sure about this statement. The headteachers in the interviews agreed that a professional development programme would help in *“improving the headteacher’s relationship with school staff”*, as stated by Headteacher 1.

Fourth statement: *“My communication skills with students would improve following a professional development programme”*. The respondents gave the following answers: 42.6% of the headteachers stated that they strongly agreed with this statement and a percentage of 43.6% agreed. However, 13.9% of the headteachers felt that they were not sure about this statement. There was also a positive response towards headteachers’ communication skills with students, as Headteacher 1 states, *“improving the headteacher’s relationship with school staff, students”*.

Fifth statement: *“I could use a professional development programme to expand my communication skills with parents”*. The responses were as follows: 39.6% of the headteachers strongly agreed with this statement, while 41.6% agreed with it. However, 18.8% of the headteachers stated that they were not sure about the statement. Nevertheless, headteachers in the interviews mentioned that a professional development programme would help in *“improving the general relationship”*, which included relationships with parents, as mentioned by Headteacher 1. The reason for headteachers being less likely to regard a professional development programme as helping them to communicate with parents, as opposed to staff or students may be because parents had no influence on school policy.

Eighth statement: *“My performance as a headteacher would be improved by a professional development programme”*. The following responses were given: 64.4% of the headteachers strongly agreed that a programme would support them in improving their performance, and 30.7% agreed that it could improve their performance. However, 4% of the headteachers were not sure that it would have an effect on their performance, while 1% disagreed with the statement and did not think it would improve their performance. In the interviews, the headteachers supported the idea that a professional development programme could have a positive influence on headteacher performance. Headteacher 10 commented: *“It affects positively by making headteachers well organized. Also, improvement in work achievement time if there is a well-planned work strategy. Improvement in work delegation to school staff”*.

Ninth statement: *“School outcomes could be advanced if I, as a headteacher, followed a professional development programme”*. The headteachers responded as follows: 48.5% of headteachers strongly agreed that school outcomes would be improved, and 43.6% agreed that school outcomes would gain an advantage from a professional development programme. However, 6.9% of the headteachers were not sure that it would have an effect on school outcomes, while 1% disagreed and did not think that school outcomes would be affected by a professional development programme. Headteachers in the interviews agreed that school outcomes could change positively due to a professional development programme, as demonstrated by Headteacher 2, who indicated *“a lot of positive effects, such as the improvement in education, students’ minds, and a positive change in the teacher as well”*. However, Headteacher 8 commented on *“A positive effect if there is school development starting from the school environment and reaching the human capacity, which includes school staff, students, parents, and everything related to schools in general”*.

Eleventh statement: *“A professional development programme based on my training needs as a headteacher would be effective”*. A high number (68.3%) of headteachers strongly agreed that a professional development programme would be effective if it was based on their training needs, and 28.7% agreed with the statement. However, 3% of the headteachers were not sure if a programme based on their training needs would be effective. Regarding the interviews, Headteacher 4 gave the following opinion on this matter: *“Also, when designing a professional development programme,*

the content of the programme should be related to the headteachers' needs and the benefit of the educational process".

Twelfth statement: *"A professional development programme will suit me as a headteacher, regardless of my training needs"*. This statement received the following responses: 12.9% of the headteachers strongly agreed that any professional development programme would be suitable for them, 16.8% agreed it would suit them regardless of their training needs, while 13.9% were unsure whether it would be suitable for them or not. However, 29.7% of the headteachers disagreed and stated that it would not be suitable for them if it was not designed based on their training needs, and 26.7% strongly disagreed that it would not suit them, and that their training needs were important in developing a professional development programme. The responses to this statement show that the headteachers felt that it was important for a professional development programme to be designed based on their needs in their profession as headteachers. In the interview, Headteacher 10 stated: *"the professional development programme should be related to the actual work field"*. Headteacher 7 added: *"we need a professional development programme but it needs to be specific to our work field"*. Furthermore, Headteacher 8 stated: *"I want to have courses that are specialized for headteachers' needs"*.

Fourteenth statement: *"I, as a headteacher, could use a professional development programme to expand my knowledge"*. A majority of 60.4% of headteachers strongly agreed that a professional development programme could help them gain knowledge, and 34.7% agreed that it could expand their knowledge. However, 4% of the headteachers were not sure that it would help them in gaining knowledge, while 1% disagreed that it could help them expand their knowledge. In the interviews, the headteachers agreed that a professional development programme could increase their knowledge. Headteacher 5 in the interview agreed that it could improve headteachers' knowledge by *"increasing knowledge, and learning new skills"*.

Sixteenth statement: *"I, as a headteacher, would be better prepared for my management roles with a professional development programme"*. A large proportion (63.4%) of the headteachers strongly agreed that it would prepare them for their management roles, and 34.7% agreed. However, 1% of the headteachers were not sure that it would prepare them for school management, while 1% disagreed, feeling that it

would not have an effect on preparing them for the role of school management. The headteachers in the interviews demonstrated that a professional development programme could prepare them to manage their schools, as Headteacher 2 stated: *“It prepares me particularly in everything related to management, such as decision making, how to deal with school staff and persuading them, and public relations”*.

The results demonstrate that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia believed they needed a professional development programme, and recognized its importance to them and their profession. Furthermore, they believed that the design of a professional development programme had to be compatible with their needs as female headteachers.

The statements were also analysed based on the participants’ qualifications, in order to explore in depth the impact of qualifications upon their responses to each statement. A chi-squared test was used to determine if there was a difference between the two variables: headteachers’ qualifications and the statements concerning the impact of a professional development programme (Onchiri, 2013). A Cramér’s V test was included in the analysis between headteachers’ qualifications, the impact of a professional development programme, and the elements of a professional development programme. Cramér’s V “is the most common strength test used to test the data when a significant chi-squared result has been obtained” (McHugh, 2013,143). In addition, Cramér’s V helps determine if the difference in Chi-squared test results is great or not. Cramér’s V can also be used to show a small effect ($0.10 \leq V < 0.30$), medium effect ($0.30 \leq V < 0.50$), and large effect ($V > 0.50$) size. However, before conducting a chi-squared test, it was important to identify the degrees of freedom, which can be shown as:

$$df = (\text{number of rows } (r) - 1) \times (\text{number of columns } (c) - 1) = 12$$

By setting the degrees of freedom at 12, and using a 5% confidence level, chi-squared tables reveal a threshold value for 5% confidence level and 12 degrees of freedom as 21.026. Hence any chi-squared results below 21.026 are not significant at the 5% level. Table 18 demonstrates the findings of the chi-squared test of headteachers’ qualifications and the impacts of a professional development programme.

Table 18: Chi-squared test of headteachers' qualifications and the impact of a professional development programme

Statement number	Chi-squared value
1- A professional development programme would help develop my leadership skills.	9.569
2- A professional development programme would help improve my management of the school.	37.006
3- My communication skills with school staff would be strengthened by a professional development programme.	13.375
4- My communication skills with students would improve following a professional development programme.	12.005
5- I could use a professional development programme to expand my communication skills with parents.	6.511
6- A professional development programme would assist me in school development.	15.445
7- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on the quality of my leadership as a headteacher.	24.848
8- My performance as a headteacher would be improved by a professional development programme.	69.370
9- School outcomes could be advanced if I as a headteacher follow a professional development programme.	58.125
10- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher in managing a school's financial resources in a better way.	44.663
11- A professional development programme based on my training needs as a headteacher would be effective.	20.282
12- A professional development programme will suit me as a headteacher, regardless of my training needs.	24.352
13- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on my decision making as a headteacher.	72.869
14- I as a headteacher could use a professional development programme to expand my knowledge.	46.267
15- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to carry out my roles effectively.	35.732
16- I as a headteacher would be better prepared for my management roles with a professional development programme.	36.850
17- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to understand my own strengths and areas of improvement with regard to school management and leadership.	5.908

The above table shows the non-highlighted results as more than 21.026, which indicates that they are statistically significant. In addition, there is an association between the headteachers' qualifications and the impact of a professional development programme. The results that are not highlighted are lower than 21.026, which demonstrates that there are insignificant relationships between these statements and headteachers' qualifications. Chi-squared and Cramér's V tests were carried out between the qualifications of the headteachers and the impact of a professional development programme.

The results are shown in detail below.

Table 19: Cramer's V statistics for Chi-squared statistics looking at the differences between headteachers' qualifications and their responses to the questionnaire statements

Statements	Chi-squared value	Cramér's V
13- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on my decision making as a headteacher.	72.869*	.490
8- My performance as a headteacher would be improved by a professional development programme.	69.370*	.478
9- School outcomes could be advanced if I as a headteacher follow a professional development programme.	58.125*	.438
2- A professional development programme would help improve my management of the school.	37.006*	.428
15- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to carry out my roles effectively.	35.732*	.421
14- I as a headteacher could use a professional development programme to expand my knowledge.	46.267*	.390
10- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher in managing a school's financial resources in a better way.	44.663*	.384
16- I as a headteacher would be better prepared for my management roles with a professional development programme.	36.850*	.349

Statements	Chi-squared value	Cramér's V
11- A professional development programme based on my training needs as a headteacher would be effective.	20.282	.317
7- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on the quality of my leadership as a headteacher.	24.848*	.286
12- A professional development programme will suit me as a headteacher, regardless of my training needs.	24.352*	.283
6- A professional development programme would assist me in school development.	15.445	.277
3- My communication skills with school staff would be strengthened by a professional development programme.	13.375	.257
4- My communication skills with students would improve following a professional development programme.	12.005	.244
1- A professional development programme would help develop my leadership skills.	9.569	.218
5- I could use a professional development programme to expand my communication skills with parents.	6.511	.180
17- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to understand my own strengths and areas of improvement with regard to school management and leadership.	5.908	.171

* =significant at 5% level

What is interesting about the data in this table is that there is a difference with regard to the qualifications of female headteachers and the questionnaire statements. In addition, a greater difference can be seen in Statement 13, which states that “A professional development programme would have a positive effect on my decision making as a headteacher”. On the other hand, Statement 17 has the lowest difference, which indicates that there is no statistical difference between headteachers’ qualifications and Statement 17 (“A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to understand my own strengths and areas of improvement with regard to school management and leadership”). In conclusion, Section 2 has demonstrated the results of the Pearson’s correlation coefficient and the Chi-squared

and Cramér's V tests. The following section explains the analysis and results of Section 3.

In Section 3 of the questionnaire, the female headteachers were asked about their opinions regarding the content of professional development programmes. The possible answers to these questions were categorized based on a five-point Likert scale as follows: "very important", "important", "not sure", "not important", and "not very important". Furthermore, this section involved a Cronbach's alpha test to determine the reliability of the research questions, as explained earlier. Table 37 indicates the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this section of the questionnaire.

Table 20: Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the elements of a professional development programme

No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
20	.906

The table above shows a .906 Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which suggests that these questions have a high level of reliability and were appropriate for the field of research. However, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for Section 3 is lower than the Cronbach's alpha coefficient in Section 2.

Moreover, Section 3 underwent a Pearson correlation test to measure the relationship between variables, similar to Section 2. Table 21 shows the results of the Pearson correlation test for Section 3 of the survey.

Table 21: Pearson's correlation coefficient for the elements of a professional development programme

Statement Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	1																			
2		1																		
3			1																	
4				1																
5					1															
6						1														
7							1													
8								1												
9									1											
10										1										
11											1									
12												1								
13													1							
14														1						
15															1					
16																1				
17																	1			
18																		1		
19																			1	
20																				1

(**) statistically significant at 1% level, (*) statistically significant at 5% level

From the table above, the confidence level is set as $p < 0.05$, as for Table 16. Furthermore, the results marked with asterisks (*) indicate that these results are significant at the level of 5%. As in Table 16, a two-tailed test was performed for this part. However, the highlighted results mean that they are not statistically significant at the 5% level. Table 21 shows that elements 5 (Decision making) and 11(Mentoring other staff) have the highest levels of significance, which indicates that there is a strong positive relationship between these elements among female headteachers. However, elements 14 (Curriculum development) and 15 (Facilities management) have the

lowest levels of significance and are, therefore, considered to have a less strong relationship with female headteachers. In addition, curriculum development and facilities management are considered to be difficult for female headteachers to influence because of the dictatorial nature of the Ministry of Education and the centralized education system.

The headteachers were asked in Section 3 about the elements of designing a professional development programme. Their answers were as follows in Table 22.

Table 22 demonstrates the results of the responses regarding the content of a professional development programme.

Table 22: Participants' responses to Section 3 of the questionnaire

The content of a professional development programme	Very important (%)	Important (%)	Not Sure (%)	Not important (%)	Not important at all (%)
1. School management (staff, students, parents, and the wider community)	71.3	23.8	4	1	
2. School leadership (leadership skills)	80.2	19.8			
3. Managing school finance and resources	54.5	42.6	3		
4. Communication skills	51.5	38.6	9.9		
5. Decision making	63.4	34.7	2		
6. External relationships with parents, education authorities and special interest groups	47.5	39.6	11.9	1	
7. School development	67.3	29.7	3		
8. Quality and evaluation	75.2	21.8	3		
9. Conflict management	71.3	25.7	3		
10. Leadership development	78.2	18.8	2	1	
11. Mentoring other staff	76.2	20.8	1	2	
12. Politics and policy	23.8	28.7	17.8	13.9	15.8
13. School climate and culture	45.5	50.5	2	1	1
14. Curriculum development	18.8	23.8	26.7	10.9	19.8
15. Facilities management	44.8	55.5	4	1	
16. Planning	43.6	49.5	5.8	1	
17. ICT and learning	70.3	24.8	4	1	
18. Marketing and strategic choice	48.5	44.6	5	2	
19. Evaluation	71.3	23.8	5		
20. Psychology	48.9	27.7	21.8	2	

Closer inspection of the table shows that the majority of the headteachers agreed that most of the content listed for professional development programmes was important to

them and would improve their performance in schools. However, female headteachers did not have the opportunity to give their opinion on planning, politics and policy as part of the content of a professional development programme, because this aspect is mainly controlled by the Ministry of Education. In addition, the results from the table show that female headteachers had the desire to make decisions and influence planning, politics and policy, which suggests that these areas were important to them. The Ministry of Education issues the planning and school policies, which are sometimes inappropriate for headteachers and may have a negative effect on their schools. Therefore, by including the influence of headteachers in designing policy and planning modules, the Ministry of Education may avoid negative effects on schools and improve school outcomes and quality. Regarding school management, 71.3% of the female headteachers agreed that it was very important, 23.8% answered that it was important for them, 4% were not sure, while only 1% responded that it was not important to them. However, the majority (95%) of the sample agreed that school management was important and should be included when designing a professional development programme. The headteachers in the interviews had a response of 60% supporting school management, which corroborates the importance of this element in the survey.

With regard to school leadership, 80.2% of the headteachers answered that it was very important to them and 19.8% stated that it was important. In addition, all the headteachers who participated agreed that school leadership was essential to them and should be included when designing a professional development programme. The headteachers in the interviews showed 50% support regarding leadership skills.

In connection with managing school finance and resources, just over half of the headteachers (54.5%) indicated that managing school finance and resources was very important and 42.6% felt that it was important for them. On the other hand, 3% of the headteachers were not sure about managing school finance and resources in terms of programme content. In the interviews, 60% of the headteachers responded positively towards including units on managing school finance and resources in any professional development programme.

Regarding communication skills, 51.5% of the headteachers considered communication skills to be very important, 38.6% agreed that they were important,

and 9.9% were not sure about the inclusion of communication skills in a professional development programme. In the interviews, communication skills had the highest response of 50%, which suggests a lack of communication skills and a need to improve this situation.

In terms of decision making, 63.4% of the headteachers considered it to be very important to them, 34.7% felt that it was important, while only 2% were unsure about decision making as part of the content of a professional development programme. In the interviews, 40% of the headteachers supported including decision making in a professional development programme.

With regard to quality and evaluation, 75.2% of the sample agreed that was a very important item to include, 21.8% of the headteachers stated that it was important, and 3% were not sure about quality and evaluation as part of a professional development programme. In the interviews, the headteachers had a response of 50% towards evaluation, which suggests that it might be important for them.

Leadership development received a number of responses regarding its importance: 78.2% of the headteachers stated that it was very important, 18.8% stated that it was important, and 2% responded that they were not sure about leadership development. However, 1% of the headteachers felt that leadership development was not important. Regarding the interviews, 50% of the headteachers interviewed felt that leadership development was important.

Mentoring other staff received 76.2% of the responses from headteachers agreeing that it was very important, 20.8% stated that mentoring other staff was important, only 1% were not sure about mentoring other staff, while 2% felt that mentoring staff was not important for them as programme content. Headteachers in the interviews supported mentoring staff, with 50% of them believing that this was essential in their work.

Politics and policy as programme content divided views among the participating headteachers: 23.8% agreed that it was very important, 28.7% stated that it was important, while 17.8% were not sure about politics and policy as part of a professional development programme; 13.9% were not happy about politics and policy and stated that it was not important, while 15.8% strongly agreed that it was not very important.

However, 40% of the headteachers in the interviews felt that they would like to have an influence on policy.

The responses to curriculum development varied among the headteachers: 18.8% stated that it was very important, 23.8% that it was important, and 26.7% responded that they were not sure. On the other hand, 10.9% of the headteachers disagreed and stated that it was not important and 19.8% responded that it was not at all important. Moreover, 40% of the headteachers in the interviews stated that they would like to have an input into developing the curriculum for schools. In Saudi Arabia, curriculum development is controlled and designed solely by the Ministry of Education, so the headteachers' responses may have been influenced by not having a say in it.

ICT and learning had a very positive response, with 70.3% of headteachers stating that it was very important and 24.8% supporting it by stating that it was important. However, 4% of the headteachers were unsure about including ICT and learning in a professional development programme, and 1% stated that it was not important. However, 50% of the headteachers in the interviews would like to include ICT as an element in designing a professional development programme.

Regarding marketing and strategic choice, 48.5% of the headteachers stated that it was very important, 44.6% agreed that it was important, 5% were not sure, and 2% did not agree and stated that it was not important. Evaluation received a high response, with 71.3% of the headteachers mentioning that it was very important, 23.8% agreeing that it was important, and only 5% being unsure about this topic as part of programme content. In the interviews, 50% of the headteachers felt that evaluation was important in their school work. The reason for these responses could be because evaluation could have an effect on the quality of the school and school outcomes.

Psychology as an element to be considered in designing a professional development programme received divided responses from the headteachers: 48.9% supported it strongly and chose it as being very important, 27.7% agreed that it was important, 21.8% were not sure, and 2% stated that it was not important. In addition, 50% of the headteachers in the interviews supported psychology and considered recommending it as an element in the design of a professional development programme.

However, the headteachers' responses to the content of a professional development programme based on their academic qualifications were different. A chi-squared test was adopted to determine the relation between headteachers' qualifications and elements of designing a professional development programme, as shown in Table 23. As referred to earlier, it is important to ascertain the degrees of freedom in order to conduct a chi-squared test; in addition, the degree of freedom is set at 12.

Table 23: Chi-squared findings of headteachers' qualifications and the elements of a professional development programme

Statement Number	Pearson Chi-Square Value
1- School management (staff, students, parents, and the wider community)	21.463
2- School leadership (leadership skills)	14.297
3- Managing school finance and resources	9.899
4- Communication skills	5.974
5- Decision making	10.657
6- External relationships with parents, education authorities and special interest groups.	16.132
7- School development	8.178
8- Quality and evaluation	19.499
9- Conflict management	1.971
10- Leadership development	44.439
11- Mentoring other staff	36.506
12- Politics and policy	19.256
13- School climate and culture	43.122
14- Curriculum development	11.474
15- Facilities management	44.766
16- Planning	36.705
17- ICT and Learning	44.336
18- Marketing and strategic choice	11.120
19- Evaluation	14.761
20- Psychology	20.957

The above table shows that the non-highlighted results are more than 21.026, which indicates that they are significant. Therefore, there is a strong relation between the headteachers' qualifications and some elements of designing a professional

development programme. However, the results that are not highlighted are lower than 21.026, which suggests that there are insignificant relationships between these statements and headteachers' qualifications.

A cross-tab analysis that utilized chi-squared and Cramér's V values was used to discover the relationship between headteachers' qualifications and the elements of designing a professional development programme. The results are shown in detail below.

The Cramér's V results demonstrate the difference with regard to headteachers' qualifications and the importance of the elements to be considered when designing a professional development programme for female headteachers. The results are summarized in Table 24.

Table 24: Cramér's V results with regard to headteachers' qualifications and the importance of the elements of a professional development programme

Elements	Chi-squared value	Cramér's V
Facilities Management	44.766*	.384
Leadership Development	44.439*	.383
ICT and Learning	44.336*	.383
School Climate and Culture	43.122*	.377
School Leadership (leadership skills)	14.297	.376
Planning	36.705*	.348
Mentoring other staff	36.506*	.347
Quality and evaluation	19.499	.311
Evaluation	14.761	.270
School management	21.463*	.266
Psychology	20.957	.263
Politics and policy	19.256	.252
External relationships with parents, education authorities and special interest groups.	16.132	.231
Decision making	10.657	.230
Managing school finance and resources	9.899	.221
School development	8.178	.201
Curriculum development	11.474	.195
Marketing and strategic choice	11.120	.192
Communication skills	5.974	.172
Conflict management	1.971	.099

*=significant at 5% level

In conclusion, the results based on the headteachers' qualifications demonstrate different opinions on the elements of designing a professional development programme. Headteachers with a bachelor's degree represented 84.2% of the sample for the questionnaire, while there was 7.9% of headteachers with a diploma, 3% master's, and 5% PhD. Furthermore, the majority of the 7.9% responses from headteachers with diploma qualifications were positive towards implementing the proposed elements in designing a professional development programme. This may be because they had a lack of qualifications, which could prevent them from doing their

work as headteachers properly, compared with headteachers who had higher qualifications. Headteachers with a bachelor's degree showed positive responses, which may demonstrate a desire to learn new subjects and participate in courses that could help develop their skills as headteachers. Headteachers with a postgraduate qualification demonstrated different responses from the other headteachers with lower qualifications, which may be because they had already obtained a high level of skills that enabled them to work efficiently, or because there were low numbers of headteachers with postgraduate qualifications in schools. However, the results regarding policy, planning, facilities management and curriculum development show that the headteachers would like to take part in influencing the programme design, rather than the Ministry of Education. This suggests that the present policies of the Ministry of Education may lead to dissatisfaction with the current situation among female headteachers, which may in turn result in them working less efficiently in school.

Section 3 of the questionnaire included open questions, the responses to which are presented in the following section. The open questions in the survey were analysed manually by the researcher.

Q1- What other aspects of the headteacher's role, which are not mentioned above, do you think should be included in a professional development programme? (please write your answer below and give your reasons)

17 of the participants did not respond to this question and 84 simply responded with "*No comment*".

Q2- In your opinion, where should professional development programmes be provided (for example, in school or elsewhere)? (Please give your reasons)

The answers to this question indicated four main preferences, as shown in Figure 15:



Figure 15: Main preferences for the location of a professional development programme (source: the author)

With regard to the location of a professional development programme, 39.60% of the female headteachers stated they would prefer a specialized training centre. Moreover, a few of the headteachers explained their choice of a specialized training centre as “a specialized training centre because it is well prepared”. Furthermore, another headteacher justified her choice, stating, “a training centre because it provides qualified staff to present the programme”. Nevertheless, one headteacher pointed out that a training centre should be “provided with essential technologies to deliver the programme and is proper for human interaction, with good lighting and air conditioning”. A training centre also has to be authorized by the Ministry of Education to present the programme. In the interviews, all 10 headteachers agreed that a professional development programme should be located at a certified training centre, which supported the findings of the questionnaire.

On the other hand, 22.77% of the headteachers surveyed preferred that a professional development programme should take place in a well-prepared place outside school. Some of the respondents gave the reason for their choice by saying, “because it is quieter”. Another headteacher mentioned attending a professional development programme in a place other than school “as a change from the working environment”. Moreover, the location outside school should be well-prepared, qualified to execute

the programme, “a place that makes headteachers feel comfortable” and “in one place that is located close to everyone and has clear directions for everyone”. Some of the participating headteachers gave examples of such places as “in halls which are designed for meetings in order to provide a good atmosphere for development”. One headteacher suggested “different places such as a public library”. Another provided as an example, “in a different place and I prefer at different places and different countries to expand the headteachers’ knowledge and improve her skills”. However, a few of the headteachers preferred schools as a location for professional development programmes. Their justification was “to gain a lot of participation”. Also, some of the headteachers added, “at school because it is easier to attend due to transportation difficulties”. On the other hand, a few of the headteachers in the survey did not care about the location of a professional development programme, and did not mind where it took place. The following table 25 shows the headteachers’ responses towards the location of a professional development programme.

Table 25: Total responses and percentage for the location of a professional development programme (source: the author)

PDP location	Total responses	Percentage
Specialized training centre	40	39.60%
A suitable place other than school	23	22.77%
In school	12	11.88%
Any place	12	11.88%
Missing	14	13.86%

Q3- In your opinion, how long should a professional development programme take?
(Please give your reasons)

There are nine main preferences regarding the length of a professional development programme, as follows in Figure 16:

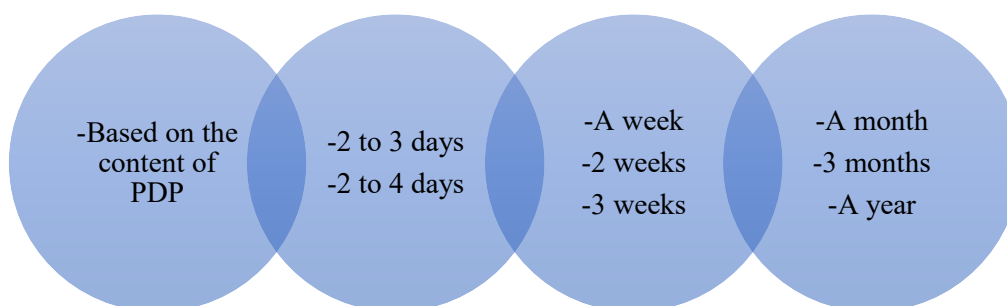


Figure 16: Main preferences for the length of a professional development programme (source: the author)

The responses from the headteachers participating in the survey varied regarding how long a professional development programme should take. 29 headteachers agreed that a week was a suitable length of time. In order to gain a good understanding of the professional development programme, to achieve the aims of the programme and to avoid interrupting school work, the programme should be a week long. Some of the participants explained that a week was necessary “to understand the subject of the programme”. One headteacher supported this belief by saying, “to achieve good understanding”, a week-long programme was needed. Moreover, another headteacher agreed that “a week-long course was necessary to enable the headteacher to have a good understanding”. Furthermore, one participating headteacher preferred a week in order “to avoid interrupting the headteacher’s work”. Another participant who had chosen a week favoured “one week due to the mass of school work”, a further head adding, “to prevent school work delays”. Nevertheless, some participants simply commented, “because some content needs more time”. One headteacher’s justification for a week-long programme was “to achieve the aim of the programme”.

Twenty-seven headteachers mentioned that the length of a professional development programme should be based on the content of the programme itself. The reasons they cited in favour of the content determining the length of the programme included ensuring successful delivery of the programme, achieving the aim of the programme, some programme contents needing more time, and in order to achieve a good understanding from the programme. One headteacher argued that it “depends on the content of the programme to deliver it successfully”. Another noted that it “depends on what the programme needs to apply it successfully”. Moreover, another participant argued that the length depended on how long it would take to “achieve the programme

goals”. A further comment was that the length of the programme should be “based on the subject because some of the subjects need more time”. Other headteachers mentioned that the programme’s length should be “based on the programme to gain a good understanding”.

On the other hand, 13 respondents recommended that two to three days was a proper length of time for a professional development programme. One participant argued that a headteacher “*is committed to school work*”, so two to three days would provide enough time for a professional development programme. Another headteacher complained that they were busy with school work and would prefer a course that would not interrupt or affect their professional duties, stating that “*it is important to consider a programme that will not interrupt the headteachers’ school work*”. Also, one headteacher agreed that a two to three-day programme “*will not make the headteacher busy from doing school work*”. Moreover, other participants preferred two to three days for a professional development programme in order “to help the headteacher to concentrate on her work in school”.

However, 8 headteachers chose a month as the ideal length for a professional development programme. Few of the participants gave their reasons for preferring a programme of this length. One headteacher believed that a professional development programme should take “*a month to achieve the full aims of the programme*”. Furthermore, another recommended that a professional development programme should take “*up to a month or at separate times during the school year in order to prevent the headteacher from getting bored and to benefit from it*”. Nevertheless, another respondent preferred a month-long course to benefit from it and “*to understand and apply the programme in school*”. Similarly, another headteacher’s recommendation was for a professional development programme “*at least a month long to benefit from all the development skills*”.

However, 7 participants in the survey preferred two weeks as the proper amount of time for a professional development programme. A very few of them provided their reasons, which were similar to some of the previous reasons mentioned before. One participant stated a preference for two weeks “*due to the programme’s importance*”. Another participant added “*two weeks to achieve the aims of the programme*”. Similarly, another headteacher’s preference was “*two weeks to apply the aims of the*

programme effectively". On the other hand, 2 headteachers chose three months as a suitable time for a professional development programme, although they did not indicate why they had chosen this time length for that programme. Finally, 2 headteachers preferred a year for a professional development programme but did not state the reasons for their choice.

One headteacher chose two to four days for a professional development programme to take place, and justified this by saying, "*because the headteacher is busy doing school work*". On the other hand, three weeks as an ideal amount of time for a professional development programme was chosen by only one headteacher, which she explained, advocating "three weeks to apply the aims of the programme in a proper way". Table 26 summarizes the total responses and percentages regarding the length of a professional development programme.

Table 26: Total responses and percentage for the time length of a professional development programme (source: the author)

Preferred Length of PDP	Total responses	Percentage
Based on the content of a PDP	27	26.7%
2 to 3 days	13	12.8%
2 to 4 days	1	0.9%
A week	29	28.7%
2 weeks	7	6.9%
3 weeks	1	0.9%
A month	8	7.9%
3 months	2	1.9%
A year	2	1.9%
Missing	11	10.8%

Table 26 shows that the majority (28.7%) of headteachers preferred one week as the length of time for a professional development programme. The reason for this could be that it was considered a reasonable length of time for a professional development programme to take place. 26.7% of headteachers judged that the length of a professional development programme should be based on the content of the programme, i.e. how long it would take to achieve its aims and for participants to benefit from it. However, 12.8% of the participants agreed that two to three days was an appropriate length of time for a professional development programme, in order to

avoid interruption and delays to headteachers' school work. Furthermore, 7.9% of headteachers indicated that a month was a good time for a professional development programme to achieve the aim of the programme and gain good understanding to apply in the workplace. Moreover, the table indicates that two weeks was suggested by 6.9% of headteachers for a professional development programme to take place. A sample of 1.9% agreed that three months was the proper time for a professional development programme, whereas 1.9% preferred a year. However, 0.9% of the participating sample chose two to four days for the programme, whereas 0.9% preferred three weeks. In the interviews, however, the headteachers' responses were different from those in the questionnaire. The majority (60%) of the headteachers asked preferred two weeks for the duration of a professional development programme. Their second choice was two to three days, which was the response of 50% of the headteachers asked. Moreover, 40% of the headteachers were divided between one day and two years as a suitable period of time, and 30% recommended three days or one week as an appropriate length of time for a professional development programme.

Q4- In your opinion, when should a professional development programme take place? (for example, in-service or out-service, please write your answer below and give your reasons).

The answers to the timing of a professional development programme revealed five main preferences from the survey, as follows in Figure 17:

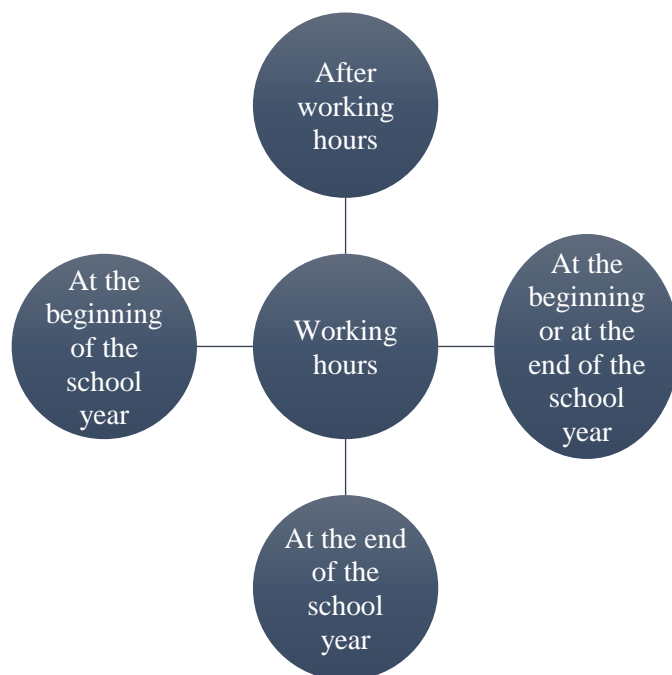


Figure 17: Main preferences for the time of a professional development programme (source: the author)

The responses regarding the timing of a professional development programme were different according to each participant in the survey. The courses provided by the Ministry of Education usually take place four to five times a year, although this depends on whether there have been any significant occurrences, such as a new policy or a change in the curriculum. Most of the headteachers participating in the survey preferred to attend a professional development programme after working hours. The reasons for this were varied. For example, one headteacher mentioned that *“after working hours shows that participants are more interested”*. Another headteacher recommended that *“after working hours headteachers should be paid for the extra hours”*. Furthermore, one participant added that programmes should be held *“after working hours to avoid interrupting the main school work”*, while another pointed out that school work was finished after working hours, favouring *“after working hours because I don’t have school work”*. Several headteachers agreed that such programmes should be scheduled after working hours, stating, *“after working hours because the headteacher does not have school work that prevents her from attending the programme”*. Another participant justified her choice by saying that programmes should be scheduled *“after working hours to enable the headteacher to focus on her school work and her commitments at school”*. One participant recommended holding

such a programme after working hours because the headteacher's mind would be more relaxed, instead of busy thinking of school work, and freer *"to understand the programme"* as well as for *"high concentration and full benefit"*. Similarly, another headteacher recommended that programmes should be held *"after working hours because the time is suitable and the headteacher is available to attend"*.

However, some of the headteachers recommended that a professional development programme should take place during working hours. Some headteachers complained that they could not find transport after working hours, *"...after working hours there is often no transportation available"*. Transport could be difficult because they had to rely on their male family members to transport them, and male relatives were often unavailable due to other commitments. Another headteacher pointed out that during working hours was suitable, if the headteacher was not busy with school work, stating that programmes should be held *"during working hours but it depends if the headteacher has completed her school duties"*. Moreover, there was a recommendation from one headteacher, who stated that professional development programmes should be held *"during working hours but at separate times to avoid putting pressure on the headteacher"*. Another headteacher's reason for choosing to attend professional development programmes during working hours was to enable *"the headteacher to attend by letting her off school work because for cultural reasons a headteacher cannot be away from her home and family responsibilities for a long time"*. However, some of the participants were insistent about a professional development programme taking place at the beginning or end of the school year, during working hours.

A few of the participants preferred that a professional development programme should take place at the beginning of the school year during working hours, and some provided their reasons. For example, some of them mentioned that there was no school work at that time of the year, so they were free to attend the programme. Similarly, some of them agreed that such programmes should be held *"at the beginning of the school year because there is no management work"*. Others argued that if the programme was held at the beginning of the school year, they could *"benefit from applying it in the school year"*.

Regarding the idea of scheduling professional development programmes to take place “*during working hours at the end of the school year because the school work is completed*”, all of the participants agreed that at that time of the year, headteachers have completed their school work, and have less school commitment, thereby freeing them up to attend a professional development programme. Regarding timing professional development programmes to occur at the beginning or end of the school year during working hours, some of the participating sample preferred both times, as long as such programmes were during working hours, their justification being similar to the previous reasons. Some of them agreed that a suitable time for a headteacher to have a professional development programme was, “*during working hours because it is a suitable time for the headteacher to attend at the beginning or end of the school year*”. Also, they agreed that the headteacher was not so committed to school work because it is finished: “*the time is when the headteacher finishes her school work, which is at the start or end of the school year*”. The following Table 27 summarizes the participants’ responses to the question concerning the time of a professional development programme.

Table 27: Total responses and percentage towards the timing of a professional development programme (source: the author)

Time of PDP	Total responses	Percentage
After working hours	26	25.7%
At the beginning of the school year	12	11.8%
At the end of the school year	16	15.8%
At the beginning or end of the school year	16	15.8%
Working hours	20	19.8%
Missing	11	10.8%

From Table 27, it can be seen that just over a quarter (25.7%) of the headteachers in the survey preferred to attend a professional development programme after working hours, because they were not undertaking school work at that time. A further 19.8% of headteachers believed that attending a professional development programme during working hours was acceptable, as long as the headteacher was not committed at school. 15.8% of headteachers preferred to attend professional development programmes at

the end of the school year during working hours, because they would have completed their school work by then, and were hence available to attend. The same percentage (15.8%) agreed that at the beginning or the end of the school year, during working hours were suitable times for headteachers to attend professional development programmes. 11.8% of the participants chose to have professional development programmes at the beginning of the school year during working hours, because they believed that they would then have the opportunity to apply the skills that they had learnt from taking the programme, during the school year. However, 90% of the headteachers interviewed preferred a professional development programme that took place at the end of the school year, during working hours. In addition, 60% of the headteachers mentioned that the programme should take place at the beginning of the school year during working hours. However, 40% preferred a programme that took place after working hours, 30% stating they would prefer it to occur during working hours, without stating their preference for the start or end of the school year.

Q5-Do you have any other comments you would like to make in relation to headteachers' professional development? (if so please write them in the line below).

Some of the participants in the survey responded to this question by saying "no comment", whereas some of them left it blank with no answer. However, most of the headteachers responded, and their responses were different from each other. The headteachers agreed that a professional development programme was important for them, as one headteacher said: *"I hope new headteachers will benefit from the programme because it is essential"*. Moreover, another headteacher suggested that headteachers should be paid for attending a professional development programme after working hours by saying, *"headteachers should be paid for attending the programme for the extra hours"*. Some of the headteachers pointed out that it was essential to design a professional development programme based on the needs of the headteachers in order for them to benefit from it and achieve improvement in the workplace. For example, one stated that *"the programme has to be designed based on the needs of headteachers"*. One headteacher endorsed this point by saying, *"choose qualified staff to do the programme"*, another participant agreeing that it was necessary to *"provide qualified staff to do the programme"*. Also, some participants pointed out that it was important to benefit from other experienced staff from outside Saudi Arabia to provide a professional development programme for headteachers: *"a professional development*

programme needs foreign expertise to develop the profession". The scheduling of professional development programmes was mentioned by the participants in the survey as an important element in a professional development programme. Generally, it was thought that a professional development programme should take place at an appropriate time for headteachers, and provide more time for training. Hence one headteacher stated that it was not only the design of the programme that was important, but also the need to *"allow enough time for training"*. Another participant agreed that it was important to *"choose an appropriate time for the programme to take place"*. Endorsing this view, another headteacher noted that *"the programme should take place at a proper time for the headteacher so that it will not affect her work at school"*. However, respondents also thought that the location of the programme should be suitable for the presentation of a professional development programme hence one respondent argued that it was important to *"provide a suitable place to do the programme"*. Similarly, another participant considered that it was important to *"provide a good place for the programme to take place"*. In essence, respondents believed that the design of the programme should be based on their needs, qualified staff (from outside SA) should be hired to deliver the professional development programme, a good location for training was essential, and it was necessary to choose an appropriate time for headteachers to attend a professional development programme in order for the programme to be successful.

In conclusion, the findings of the analysed questionnaire show that there was interest from the female headteachers in Saudi Arabia regarding participation in a professional development programme. However, the researcher also used interviews to explore further information from female headteachers with regard to their participation in a professional development programme, the results of which will be discussed in the following section.

4.3 Interviews

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, data gathered from the semi-structured interviews were analysed using NVivo software. The participants interviewed were 10 female headteachers with a bachelor's degree from 10 primary schools in Riyadh. The schools were chosen randomly from a list provided by the Ministry of Education. The interviews took place at each headteacher's school, in her office. First, the

headteachers were asked if they would like to participate in an interview. They all agreed to participate and signed a consent form. The headteachers were also asked if the interview could be tape-recorded, and they all agreed. The recorded interviews were transcribed and then entered into NVivo for analysis. The transcribed audio recordings contained 2,426 words, which were translated from Arabic into English. The 10 female headteachers were asked questions regarding a professional development programme. The questions were designed to elicit the headteachers' opinions about the design of an appropriate professional development programme which would be compatible with their field of work. The questions were as follows:

1. In your opinion, what would be the likely positive and negative effects of implementing a professional development programme for primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
2. In your opinion, in what ways, and how, do you think that a professional development programme could improve your performance as a headteacher? (Please explain why.)
3. In your opinion, what elements should be included in a professional development programme to make it suitable for primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
4. In your opinion, where should a professional development programme be provided? (Please give your reasons.)
5. In your opinion, how long (days/weeks) do you feel a professional development programme should take, and why? (Please give reasons.)
6. In your opinion, when, during someone's career as a headteacher, should she attend a professional development programme? (Please give your reasons.)
7. In your opinion, what barriers could hinder the implementation of a professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia? (Please give your reasons.)
8. Are there any other comments that you might wish to make about the possible provision of a professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia?

The findings from the 10 interviews with the headteachers also demonstrate the headteachers' opinions regarding professional development programmes, and can be categorized under the following eight themes in Figure 18:

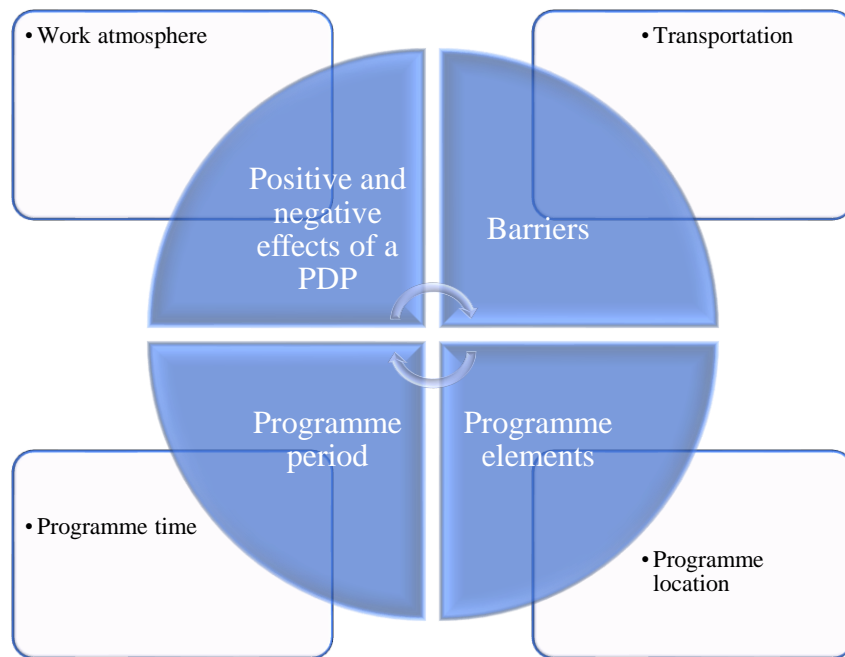


Figure 18: Interview themes (source: NVivo results)

Each interview question will be explored individually below, to identify the responses of the headteachers participating in the study. The interview questions were chosen to explore the participants' responses in depth.

Question 1: In your opinion, what would be the likely positive and negative effects of implementing a professional development programme for primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?

The responses to this question were divided into two parts: the positive effects of a professional development programme and the negative effects of a professional development programme.

First: Positive effects of a professional development programme (PDP)

With regard to the theme of the positive effects of a professional development programme, all the headteachers agreed that it would benefit them. For example, Headteacher 7 stated: *"Positively, I feel that the professional development programme profits me in every aspect of my work"*.

Moreover, the positive effects of a professional development programme can be separated into five sub-themes in Figure 19, as follows:

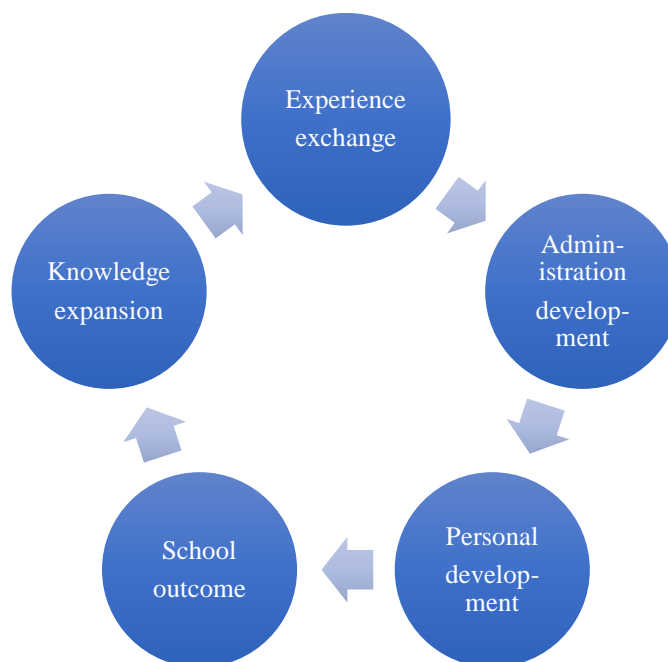


Figure 19: The five sub-themes on the positive effects of a professional development programme (source: NVivo results)

Some of the headteachers interviewed indicated that they would benefit from other experienced headteachers being on a professional development programme with them, and that this would lead to the gaining and exchange of experiences. Headteacher 1 mentioned *“experience exchange with other headteachers and gaining new concepts”*. Headteacher 4 stated: *“The positive effect is that the headteacher looks at the professional opinions of educational experts and learns new things about school management”*. Headteacher 6 added: *“Positively, to transfer experience to management staff in school”*.

Administration development was also mentioned as a positive effect of a professional development programme. A professional development programme can help develop inexperienced headteachers, so that they can lead their schools better. Moreover, it can help headteachers in the way they manage their schools. Headteacher 9 reported: *“It would benefit me in managing the school, I would learn how to manage things in school and lead people”*. Headteacher 10 added: *“It affects positively by making*

headteachers well organized. Also, improvement in work achievement time if there is a well-planned work strategy. Improvement in work delegation to school staff". A professional development programme could also help headteachers in learning new ideas and skills that could improve their career prospects. Headteacher 4 noted that someone on such a programme would *"learn new things about school management"*. Headteacher 5 added that such a programme would have the advantage of *"increasing knowledge, and learning new skills"*. Headteacher 9 stated: *"The positive effects are in increasing my knowledge by learning new things and understanding them"*.

A professional development programme is intended to support the improvement of headteachers' personal development. Headteacher 10 supported this by stating that it would *"affect positively by making headteachers well organized"*. Headteacher 1 added the aspect of *"self-change and developing it"*. Headteacher 5 also mentioned *"Positive effects such as self-improvement"*.

A professional development programme could also affect school outcomes, which may be improved as a result. This improvement could include the whole school, starting with the headteacher and encompassing school staff and students. Headteacher 2 supported the idea that a professional development programme can affect a school by mentioning that *"a lot of positive effects, such as the improvement in education, students' minds, and a positive change in the teacher as well"* would result from such a programme. Headteacher 8 also mentioned *"A positive effect if there is school development starting from the school environment and reaching the human capacity, which includes school staff, students, parents, and everything related to schools in general"*. Table 28 lists the opinions of the headteachers who participated in the study regarding the positive effects of a professional development programme.

Table 28: Headteachers' frequency for the sub-themes of the positive effects of a professional development programme (source: NVivo results)

	Headteacher 1	Headteacher 2	Headteacher 3	Headteacher 4	Headteacher 5	Headteacher 6	Headteacher 7	Headteacher 8	Headteacher 9	Headteacher 10	Total Responses	Percentage
Sub-themes												
Experience Exchange	2	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	0	8	80%
Administration Development	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	2	7	70%
Personal Development	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	5	50%
School Outcome	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	5	50%
Knowledge Expansion	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	4	40%

Table 28 demonstrates that most respondents expressed a first preference for experience exchange, which reflects that it was very important for headteachers to exchange experiences with each other to gain knowledge and improve in their profession as headteachers. The second preference was administration development, at 70%, which suggests that a professional development programme could improve headteachers' administration in the workplace. Personal development was third in importance to the headteachers who participated, at 50%, which indicates that a professional development programme would also improve personal development for headteachers. School outcomes were considered important by 50% of the participating headteachers, demonstrating that school outcomes would receive a positive effect from a professional development programme. Knowledge expansion had the lowest participant endorsement of 40%, which shows that they believed that a professional development programme may expand their knowledge to some extent. This might enable them to learn new subject areas that could help them improve their skills. However, Headteachers 2, 5 and 9 agreed on the importance of all the sub-themes, with regard to the positive effects of a professional development programme.

Second: Negative effects of a professional development programme (PDP)

The headteachers who participated were asked whether there were any possible negative effects of applying a professional development programme. All agreed that there were no negative effects when implementing a professional development programme. Headteacher 10 stated that *"There are no negative effects if there is*

development”, while Headteacher 8 added that “*There are no negative effects of professional development programmes*”. However, some of the headteachers argued that school work may be affected when they attended a professional development programme. Headteacher 7 noted that the only negative aspect of implementing a professional development programme was that her office work would be postponed until she returned to school following the programme, because there was no one to cover her and do her administrative work while she was away. Headteacher 7 commented: “*Negatively, there is only my absence from school, and there is no school assistant to replace me when I am away from school to attend a professional development programme*”.

Question 2: In your opinion, in what ways could, and how do you think this would happen, a professional development programme improve your performance as a headteacher? (Please explain why.)

Question 2 supports Question 1 in the way that a professional development programme could have a positive effect on headteachers. All the headteachers interviewed agreed that a professional development programme could improve their performance, but the reasons varied from one headteacher to another. These answers are categorized under the following themes in Figure 20:

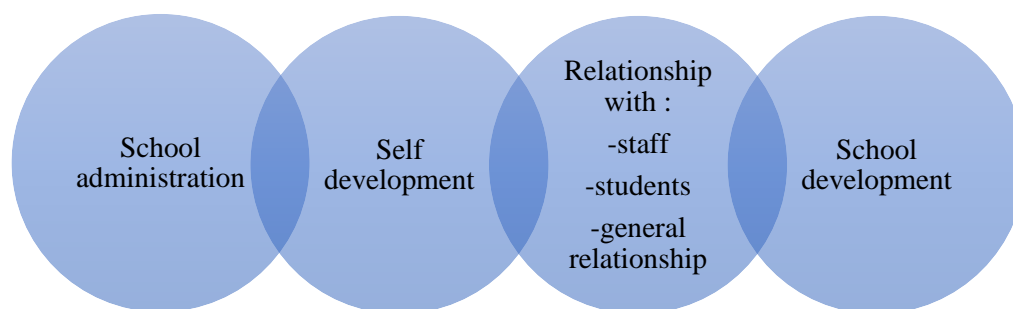


Figure 20: Themes identified regarding how a professional development programme can improve headteachers' performance (source: Nvivo results)

Moreover, each response was analysed by NVivo and the results are shown in Table 29.

Table 29: Headteachers' responses to the impact of PDP on their performance (source: NVivo results)

PDP Impact on headteachers performance	Headteacher 1	Headteacher 2	Headteacher 3	Headteacher 4	Headteacher 5	Headteacher 6	Headteacher 7	Headteacher 8	Headteacher 9	Headteacher 10	Total Responses	Percentage
School Administration	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	30%
Self improvement	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	10%
Relationship with staff, students, and general relationship	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	20%
School development	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	10%

The above table demonstrates that 30% of the headteachers interviewed felt that a professional development programme could help them with school administration processes. The results above show that 20% of the headteachers interviewed agreed that a PDP might improve their communication skills with staff and pupils, and help facilitate general relationships, including those with parents and government authorities such as the Ministry of Education. 10% of the headteacher interviewees believed that a PDP might improve them as headteachers, and 10% agreed that it could help in developing their schools. As mentioned above, these results support the previous statement that a professional development programme could have a positive effect on headteachers' performance.

More explicitly, Headteacher 1 felt that a professional development programme could help in *"Improving administration work, self-improvement for the headteacher, improving the headteacher's relationship with school staff, students, improving the general relationship"*. Headteacher 2 also mentioned that *"It develops me by explaining education policy and making it clear to new headteachers. It prepares me particularly in everything related to management, such as decision making, how to deal with school staff and persuading them, and public relations"*. Moreover, Headteacher 7 stated that *"A professional development programme assists me as a headteacher in applying strategies and developing school staff"*. Headteacher 9 added that *"The programme makes the headteacher familiar with how to do her work in school"*.

Question 3: In your opinion, what elements should be included in a professional development programme to make it suitable for primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?

There are some sub-themes indicated in this question, as shown in Figure 21.

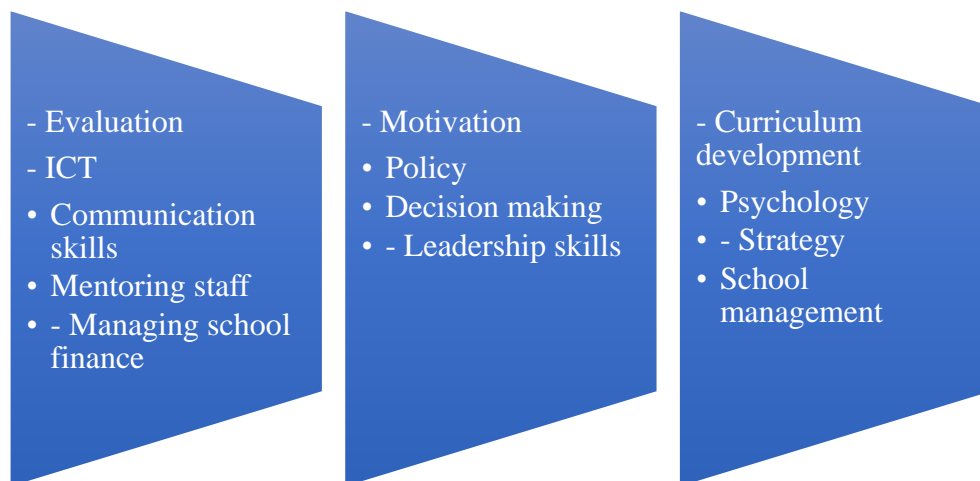


Figure 21: Sub-themes of elements of a professional development programme (source: NVivo results)

The headteachers' answers varied regarding what elements should be included in a professional development programme. Headteacher 1 agreed to the inclusion of some elements: *"Leadership skills that assist me as a headteacher. Staff management. Staff appraisal. Computing and its basis. Psychology and the general relationship. Relations with students. I would like to have an opinion on curriculum development"*. Moreover, she mentioned *"The importance of motivation and work"* in her field. She added that she did not mind learning anything new that may help her in her work as a headteacher, stating, *"I would like to learn anything that concerns an advantage for the school"*.

Headteacher 2 was also specific with regard to what elements she would like to include in a professional development programme: *"Ways to lead and leadership skills, school management, work environment, psychology"*. However, Headteacher 3 mentioned that if she had the opportunity to choose the elements of a professional development programme, *"I would add strategies and school planning"*.

However, Headteacher 4 had a different opinion regarding the elements of professional development, and argued that when designing a professional development programme, it should match the needs of the headteachers and the workplace. She stated: *“The first thing is that the development of headteachers should not only be theoretical, it should also be applied and practised in the field of work. Also, when designing a professional development programme, the content of the programme should be related to the headteachers’ needs and the benefit of the educational process”*. Moreover, Headteacher 5 added: *“Learning to authorize work to school staff in case the headteacher needs to attend a programme or course outside the school. Time management, school management, leadership skills”*. Headteacher 6 agreed with these elements and mentioned *“Management development, school management and managing school financial resources”*. Headteacher 7 agreed that she would like to learn anything that supported her in her work as a headteacher, but there was nothing else specific that she would add. She stated: *“No specific content. I think any content that helps a headteacher in her work field of school management”*. However, Headteacher 8 specified some elements she would like to add to a professional development programme: *“Management programmes, programmes related to school, such as managing school incomes, ICT, psychology, school authority which is compatible with the actuality of the work field”*.

Headteacher 9 suggested that before applying a professional development programme, the content of the programme should be reviewed thoroughly. She argued that *“The content of a professional development programme should include everything negative and positive before we can apply them in the work field to open the opportunity for headteachers to discuss it. Also, before designing the programme, headteachers’ opinion about the content of the programme should be considered”*. Moreover, she added some elements she would like to be included in a professional development programme. Her statement included the following: *“Moreover, I would like to add staff management, leadership skills, psychology, managing the school, and school resource management”*. Headteacher 10 referred to the following elements: *“School management is considered generally important, leadership skills, school resource management, communication skills, decision making, and anything that could help to improve headteachers’ performance”*. Table 30 summarizes the elements suggested by the headteachers who participated in the study.

Table 30: Headteachers' responses to professional development elements (source: NVivo results)

PDP Elements	Headteacher 1	Headteacher 2	Headteacher 3	Headteacher 4	Headteacher 5	Headteacher 6	Headteacher 7	Headteacher 8	Headteacher 9	Headteacher 10	Headteacher 11	Total Responses	Percentage
School management	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1		6	60%
Managing school finance	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1		6	60%
Mentoring staff	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0		5	50%
Communication skills	3	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1		5	50%
ICT	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0		5	50%
Leadership Skills	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1		5	50%
Evaluation	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0		5	50%
Psychology	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0		5	50%
Strategy	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0		5	50%
Policy	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0		4	40%
Decision making	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1		4	40%
Curriculum development	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0		4	40%
Motivation	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0		3	30%

The table above indicates the difference in importance to the headteachers between the various elements of a professional development programme. Most of the headteachers were certain of the importance of school management, showing at 60%. Similarly, 60% of the headteachers interviewed agreed that managing school finance is important. However, communication skills, mentoring staff, ICT, leadership skills, evaluation, psychology, and strategy were important, and that professional development programme on these elements would assist them in their workplace. Policy, decision making and curriculum development had 40% of the responses, which indicates their perceived effect on improvement of the headteachers' profession. Motivation had the lowest support, at 30%, in achieving improvement for headteachers. However, Headteachers 2, 5, and 9 agreed on the importance of all the

elements of a professional development programme, and that these should, therefore, all be included when designing one.

Question 4: In your opinion, where should a professional development programme be provided? (Please give your reasons.)

Regarding the location of where a professional development programme should take place, all the headteachers who participated in the interview agreed that it should be held in a well-prepared setting. Most of the headteachers were also specific about the location, which they felt should be in a designated training centre. Headteacher 1 mentioned that it should be *“Close to the area where I live or close to my neighbourhood”*. She argued this *“because the current training centre is unqualified for setting up a professional development programme”*. Moreover, Headteacher 2 felt that a professional development programme should take place *“in a centre that is specialized in development and is well prepared to carry out professional development programmes”*. She added that *“these centres should graduate from presenting a professional development programme to applying it to the actual field of work”*.

Headteacher 3 agreed that a professional development programme should be located in *“a nearby place but in a specialized place and well prepared for everything, for example meetings, programmes”*. She added: *“Also, it should have experienced people to do the programme. And it should not take place in schools”*. Headteacher 4 mentioned that such a course could be held in *“Any place that is well prepared for a professional development programme”*. Headteacher 5 was more specific, when she stated that a professional development programme should be held *“in a well-prepared training centre and have easy-to-find directions”*. Headteacher 6 supported Headteacher 5’s statement when she commented that a professional development programme should be conducted *“in a specialized training centre because it is well prepared for setting up a professional development programme and it provides expertise to deliver the programme”*. Headteacher 7 agreed that *“A professional development programme should take place in a well-prepared training centre”*. Her reason was that *“the available training centre is not suitable”*. Moreover, Headteacher 8 felt that professional development programmes should be located in *“Specialized training centres”*. She explained that this was *“in order to obtain a programme with its right resources and to be presented by experts, not by any random*

person with no qualifications". Headteacher 9 also agreed that a professional development programme should be held *"in a training centre"*. Her reason was to enable those who took part *"to exchange experience and have a good understanding of the programme"*. Headteacher 10 also mentioned that *"It should take place in training centres"*. She argued this *"because I prefer it to be a specialized place to present a professional development programme"*. Table 31 demonstrates the responses of the headteachers to the location of a professional development programme.

Table 31: Headteachers' responses to the location of a professional development programme (source: NVivo results)

PDP Location	Headteacher 1	Headteacher 2	Headteacher 3	Headteacher 4	Headteacher 5	Headteacher 6	Headteacher 7	Headteacher 8	Headteacher 9	Headteacher 10	Total Responses	Percentage
Qualified Training centre	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	100%

Question 5: In your opinion, how long (days/weeks) do you feel a professional development programme should take, and why? (Please give reasons.)

The headteachers who participated had different opinions about the period of time a professional development programme should take. However, some of the participants agreed on some points of the question content. Headteacher 1 stated: *"The programme period I prefer would be from two to three days every two weeks"*. She justified this by saying this was *"because it will not affect the headteacher's work in school"*. Headteacher 2's answer was different, regarding the period of time needed for a professional development programme, in that she mentioned that *"It depends on the subject of the programme. Some programmes need a long time and some need from two to three days in order to implement it efficiently"*. Moreover, Headteacher 5 supported Headteacher 2 when she stated that *"It depends on the content of the programme itself"*. Headteacher 3 would prefer a professional development programme *"to be once a week"*. Her reason was *"in order that a headteacher can attend the programme and it does not affect her work at school"*. However, Headteacher 4 replied by stating, *"I think two weeks is a minimum time for a*

professional development programme". She continued by saying, *"in order to gain full understanding from the programme and achieve its purposes"*. Headteacher 6 agreed with Headteacher 4, commenting, *"I think the minimum time for a professional development programme is two weeks"*. Her reason was *"to achieve the programme goals"*. Headteacher 10 had the same opinion as Headteacher 6, mentioning that a professional development programme period should be *"Not less than two weeks"*. She argued this *"because the content of the programme could need more time for a better understanding"*.

However, Headteacher 7 had some preference about the period of time a professional development programme should take. Her comment was: *"I prefer sometimes to be days instead of a week"*. She also pointed out that this would be *"so that headteachers will not be busy with their duties in their schools and in order to benefit from the programme"*. Headteacher 8 had a slightly different suggestion. She would prefer a professional development programme that took *"Two years"*. Her justification was *"in order to achieve good understanding of every area of the programme, such as financial resources, management, and psychologically"*. However, Headteacher 9 would prefer a professional development programme that took *"From three days to a week"*. She continued that this was *"to achieve full understanding of the programme"*. Table 32 shows the programme periods preferred by the headteachers who participated in the interviews.

Table 32: Professional development programme lengths (source: NVivo results)

PDP Period	Headteacher 1	Headteacher 2	Headteacher 3	Headteacher 4	Headteacher 5	Headteacher 6	Headteacher 7	Headteacher 8	Headteacher 9	Headteacher 10	Total Responses	Percentage
1 Day	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	4	40%
2-3 Days	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	5	50%
3 Days	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	30%
One week	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	30%
Two weeks	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	6	60%
Two years	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	4	40%

Table 32 shows that 60% of the headteachers agreed that a professional development programme should take two weeks in order to achieve the aim of the programme. In addition, 50% of the headteachers who participated preferred that a professional development programme should take from two to three days. Moreover, 40% of the headteachers chose one day, and 40% preferred two years as a professional development programme period. Nevertheless, 30% of the headteachers were divided between three days and one week for the length of time taken by a professional development programme.

Question 6: In your opinion, when, during the school calendar, should a professional development programme take place? (for example in-service or out-service) (Please give your reasons.)

The answers to this question included the following sub-themes, as shown in Figure 22.

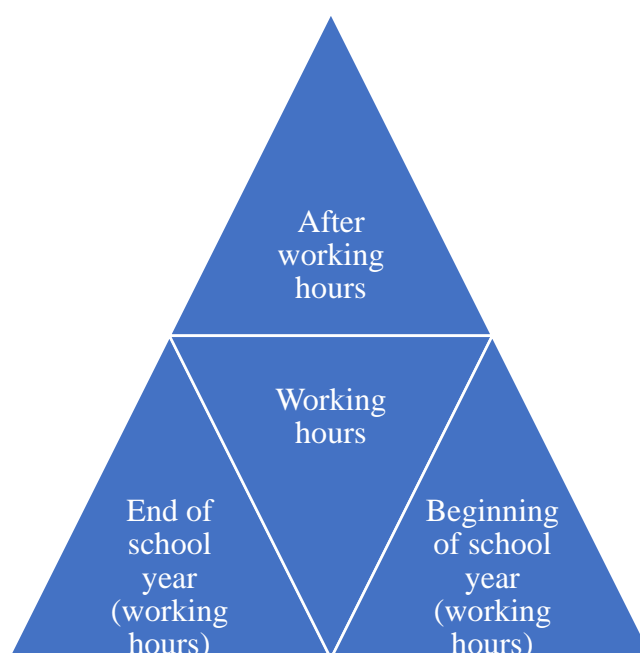


Figure 22: Sub-themes for professional development programme time (source: NVivo results)

Most of the responses were in favour of holding PDP programmes during working hours. For example, Headteacher 2 would prefer a professional development programme that took place *“In working hours because after working hours the headteacher has family commitments and other commitments”*. However, some of

the answers were specific with regard to the timing of the professional development programme. Headteacher 1 would prefer a professional development programme that took place at the end of the school year because then *“the management work for the headteacher is less”*. Headteacher 10 agreed with Headteacher 1, stating that a professional development programme should take place *“During work hours, specifically at the end of the school year because the school work is finished”*. Headteacher 5 would also prefer a professional development programme held *“at the end of the school year in order to benefit from it and apply it for the next new school year”*. Headteacher 6 agreed that a professional development programme should take place *“At the end of the school year because school management work is finished or becomes less, which results in the headteacher being able to attend the programme”*.

However, some of the headteachers were more flexible about the timing of a professional development programme. They did not mind if a professional development programme took place at the beginning or end of the school year, as long as it was during working hours. Headteacher 3 commented on the timing of a professional development programme by stating that it should take place *“In the students’ exam period or at the beginning of the school year because then the headteacher does not have much work to do in school”*. Headteacher 4 agreed that it should take place *“At the beginning of the school year or at the end of the school year because at that time management work at the school becomes less”*. Headteacher 7 also mentioned that a professional development programme should be held *“At the start of the school year or at the end of the school year because it will not affect students when we are busy outside school”*.

Nevertheless, Headteacher 9 did not mind whether a professional development programme was held at the beginning or end of the school year. She stated: *“I prefer at the beginning of the school year because there is not much work. Also, I don’t mind at the end of the school year because the students are on holiday”*. However, one headteacher’s response was in favour of a professional development programme taking place after working hours. Headteacher 8 would prefer a professional development programme held after working hours. She commented: *“I prefer it to take place in the evening after working hours on condition that there are rewards like money or holidays in order to attend the programme”*. Table 33 summarizes the

headteachers' responses regarding the timing of a professional development programme.

Table 33: Timing of a professional development programme (source: NVivo results)

PDP Time	Headteacher 1	Headteacher 2	Headteacher 3	Headteacher 4	Headteacher 5	Headteacher 6	Headteacher 7	Headteacher 8	Headteacher 9	Headteacher 10	Total Responses	Percentage
After working hours	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	4	40%
Beginning of the school year (working hours)	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	6	60%
End of the school year (working hours)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	9	90%
working hours	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	30%

Table 33 shows the headteachers' responses regarding the timing of a professional development programme and the preferences among the headteachers. The majority (90%) preferred a professional development programme to take place at the end of the school year during working hours. Furthermore, 60% saw the beginning of the school year as a suitable time for a professional development programme to take place. In addition, 40% of the headteachers interviewed agreed upon attending a professional development programme after working hours. 30% of headteachers would prefer to attend a professional development programme during working hours, regardless of whether it was held at the beginning or end of the school year.

Question 7: In your opinion, what barriers could hinder the implementation of a professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia? (Please give your reasons.)

The responses of the headteachers who participated in this study regarding this question indicated eight sub-themes, as follows in Figure 23.

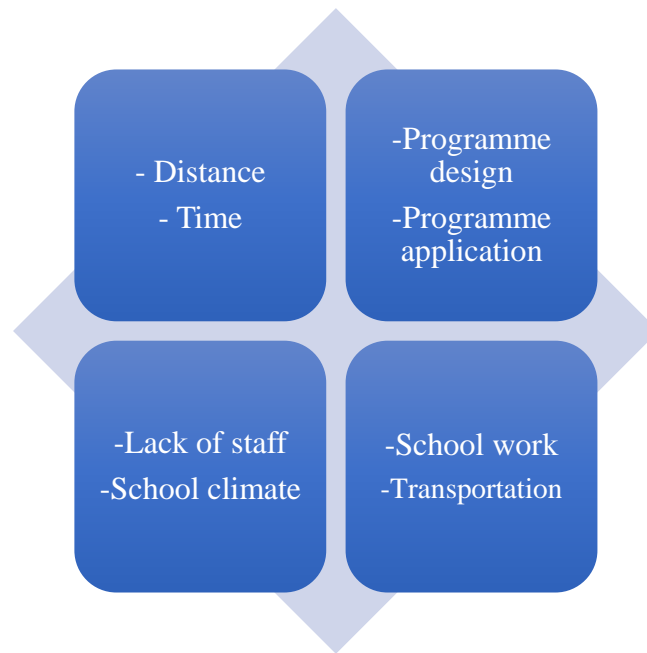


Figure 23: Sub-themes of professional development programme barriers (source: NVivo results)

The headteachers gave various replies regarding what could represent a barrier to a professional development programme. Some pointed out that transport was a major issue for them, especially as women are not allowed by law to drive in Saudi Arabia. A few of the headteachers depended on their husbands for their main means of transport, whereas some of them relied on a private driver or hiring a taxi to drive them to the programme location. In Saudi Arabia, women are not allowed to travel alone. Moreover, they are not allowed to travel by train or plane without a male companion, and there is only one train service in Saudi Arabia that links Riyadh, the capital, with Dammam, which is located in the eastern region of the country. The only way that women can travel to other cities is by plane or by car, which can take a long time. Headteacher 1 complained about transport, pointing out that it was a major issue for her, her first answer to the question being “*Transportation*”. Moreover, Headteacher 3 stated that “*Transportation is a big issue for me*”. Headteacher 9 also commented on the transport problem, stating that “*transportation is not available*”.

The headteachers who participated in the interviews complained about the timing of the professional development programme. Their main issue was that a professional development programme could take place at inappropriate times for headteachers,

such as the examination period or when they had to deal with a lot of school work. This would lead to them being unable to attend the programme and losing the benefit of gaining knowledge and new information that could help them in their career. Headteachers 1,6,8 and 9 mentioned *“choosing inappropriate times for the programme”* as a concern for them.

The school work allocated to headteachers was also a problem for them. The amount of school work was too much for the headteachers to handle, which led to their being too busy to attend a professional development programme. In addition, there may not be many staff in a school who could take the headteacher’s place while she was away. Headteacher 10 referred to *“Difficulties such as there is not enough time, headteachers are busy with school work, the decrease in headteachers’ authority in schools, and the numerous aspects of headteachers’ school work”*. Headteacher 3 supported Headteacher 10, stating that *“the accumulation of school work that has to be done by the headteacher”* may prevent her attending a programme.

School climate was another aspect that could stand in the way of a professional development programme. Some staff may be less motivated to accept development programmes, or they were not willing to cooperate with the headteacher. Headteacher 5 commented: *“The only obstacle I feel is that a few headteachers do not like to attend professional development programmes or they are not willing to attend it, or there is no cooperation from them to attend”*.

The location of a professional development programme was raised by one participant as an obstacle that could prevent it from being attended. The reason may be due to the kind of transportation issues referred to earlier, or because the location was not well-prepared. Headteacher 2 argued that the setting in which a professional development programme takes place should be well-prepared for the programme. She mentioned that the location is an important aspect in order for the programme to be successful. She stated that the *“Location should prepare the place in every way the programme needs, such as projectors, equipment and meals that need to be available in the place”*.

Programme design and application were mentioned by the participants as being critical to headteachers and their work in school. If the programme was not designed to address the needs of the headteachers, it may not benefit them in their career, and would not be successful. Headteacher 7 was of the opinion that the success of a

programme “*depends on who makes the professional development programme*”. If the programme is inappropriately designed for headteachers, it may not be beneficial for them. Headteacher 8 also stressed design of the programme and its application, commenting that “*The programme is not well designed, meaning that the programme contents are random and not compatible with the actual work field, which leads to difficulty in applying the programme*”. Headteacher 9 was concerned that if a programme is not well-designed in terms of the needs of headteachers, “*the programme is not applicable to the work field, which leads to not applying it to schools*”.

Not only was the design of a professional development programme crucial, but the staff who present the content are also an important aspect of the programme. The headteachers in the interviews argued that it was important that the staff delivering the programme should be qualified in order to achieve the aims of the course. Headteacher 9 complained that “*Expertise is not available to present the programme*”. Furthermore, Headteacher 8 pointed out that “*choosing unqualified people to present the programme*” would be a barrier. Current courses are presented by teachers or staff appointed by the Ministry of Education who had originally worked as teachers. Moreover, Headteacher 4 agreed that “*assigning unqualified people to do and design the programme*” was considered an obstacle to the success of the programme. Table 34 shows the participants’ responses regarding barriers to a professional development programme.

Table 34: Barriers to a professional development programme (source: NVivo results)

PDP Barriers	1 Headteacher	2 Headteacher	3 Headteacher	4 Headteacher	5 Headteacher	6 Headteacher	7 Headteacher	8 Headteacher	9 Headteacher	10 Headteacher	Total Responses	Percentage
Location	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	4	40%
Programme application	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	8	80%
Programme design	1	1	1	2	1	0	1	1	1	0	8	80%
Providing extra staff	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	5	50%
School climate	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	4	40%
School work	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	4	40%
Time	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	7	70%
Transportation	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	5	50%

According to Table 34, 80% of the headteachers focused on the design and application of a professional development programme in the workplace as a major issue for them. They felt that if the programme were not designed based on their needs, it would be hard to apply in the workplace. In addition, 70% of the headteachers considered timing could be a barrier to a professional development programme, such as inappropriate times chosen for them to attend. Furthermore, 50% of the interviewees mentioned transport as an issue for them, especially as females are not allowed to drive in Saudi Arabia. In addition, 50% of the headteachers mentioned that there was a need to provide extra school staff due to a shortage in personnel. Regarding location, school climate and school work, 40% of the headteachers mentioned these issues, which may pose difficulties for them in being able to attend a professional development programme.

Question 8: Are there any other comments that you might wish to make about the possible provision of a professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia?

Most of the headteachers who participated in the study replied to this question by referring to different aspects of training. Some of the headteachers agreed that a professional development programme was essential for them, but it had to be designed

to address their needs and work field requirements. Headteacher 10 mentioned that *“the professional development programme should be related to the actual work field”*. Headteacher 7 supported this suggestion, stating: *“We need a professional development programme but it needs to be specific to our work field, such as school management, staff performance appraisal, and exchanging experiences with other headteachers”*. Headteacher 8 had a specific comment regarding the design of a professional development programme: *“I want to have courses that are specialized for headteachers’ needs”*.

Not only was the design of a professional development programme emphasized by the headteachers who participated, but the staff presenting the programme were also an important aspect. Headteacher 5 mentioned: *“I prefer people with qualifications and experience to present a professional development programme, not for it to be presented by random people with no qualifications and experience”*. As mentioned before, this was due to teachers or individuals who were previously teachers but now worked at the Ministry of Education presenting the courses.

Workload was an obstacle that might prevent headteachers attending a professional development programme. Some of the headteachers complained about the amount of school work allocated to them and that it was too much for them. They referred not only to the amount of school work, but also the lack of school staff who might assist them in their work. The headteachers required a decrease in school administrative work, and the provision of extra school staff to help them in school and take their place while they were out of school attending a professional development programme. Headteacher 1 commented: *“I would like the Ministry of Education to cooperate with school headteachers by reducing the work in order that the headteacher can develop herself and by providing extra staff to replace the headteacher when she attends a professional development programme”*. Moreover, Headteacher 2 added: *“I hope that education can improve to a high level, that is, by providing a well-prepared working environment and simplifying all the obstacles headteachers face and not increasing school work, which leads to weakening the educational field”*.

On the other hand, Headteacher 7 indicated that school visits were one way to achieve the exchange of experiences in order to improve headteachers and link schools, stating, *“I would prefer headteachers to visit other schools in order to exchange experiences*

and connect schools in one network". Nevertheless, in order to achieve improvement, headteachers should be obliged to attend a professional development programme. As Headteacher 10 stated: *"Headteachers' training and development should be mandatory in order to achieve development for all headteachers"*.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the results gathered from both the quantitative and qualitative data gathered in this research. The quantitative data were statistically analysed using the SPSS 22 program, and the NVivo program was applied for analysing the qualitative data. The findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data are essential and support each other in order to compensate for each other's limitations. The findings acquired from the quantitative data demonstrate the female headteachers' perspective towards the impact of a professional development programme. They also show female headteachers' opinions regarding what elements were preferred in designing a professional development programme. The qualitative data display themes that support the findings of the quantitative data. This can be demonstrated in the proposed length of time of a professional development programme, the location of the programme, the impacts of the programme, and what elements are preferred in designing a professional development programme.

The data suggest that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia would like to participate in such a programme. Moreover, the female headteachers who participated in this study agreed that most of the content when designing a professional development programme was important. However, some of the headteachers had a low level of response towards curriculum development, and politics and policy, because the Ministry of Education is responsible for these topics and the headteachers did not have an opinion about them.

The findings from the quantitative and qualitative data demonstrate that there are some difficulties that may affect the implementation of a professional development programme. These difficulties were identified by the headteachers as lack of transport, lack of time, and the large amount of school work that is allocated to female headteachers. Furthermore, the findings collected from the quantitative and qualitative data indicate that female headteachers would prefer a professional development programme that took place in a qualified training centre, some headteachers

identifying the reason for this as schools not being qualified to host a professional development programme.

The next chapter will present a discussion of these findings in relation to the literature review and the research conceptual framework.

Chapter 5: Discussion

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This study aimed to present recommendations for the design of a professional development programme for female headteachers in primary schools in Saudi Arabia. This chapter discusses the findings of the previous chapter in order to answer the following research questions:

1. What professional development have the principals received
 - iv) before their appointments as principals;
 - v) immediately after appointment;
 - vi) since their first year in the post?
2. What professional development do they want
 - iv) before their appointment as principals;
 - v) immediately after appointment;
 - vi) after their first year in the post?
3. How can professional development for school principals be facilitated?
4. What is the headteachers' opinion of appropriate content for a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
5. What barriers may exist to this facilitation?

In Chapter 4, the findings in general demonstrated a positive response to the idea of designing a professional development programme that suits female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. However, the headteachers specified some requirements for the design of such a professional development programme. Furthermore, the headteachers referred to certain issues that may affect the application of a professional development programme. This chapter contains four sections that discuss the findings in detail.

5.2 First: Female headteachers' background and experience

This section presents an answer to the research question concerning what professional development the principals had received, including the period before the participants became headteachers, when they were appointed as headteachers, and the year after

they became headteachers. The findings detail headteachers' experience of participating in a professional development programme. However, although the headteachers regarded the courses they had attended as professional development programmes, there is, in practice, no professional development programme established for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia provides female headteachers with courses on educational policy, changes in the school curriculum and evaluation. 7.9% of the headteachers who took part in the study had attended an ICT course in a private institution, which suggests that headteachers have the desire to learn new skills, but that lack of attention from the Ministry of Education is paid towards female headteachers in the courses it provides.

Moreover, the training courses provided for female headteachers by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia are presented by unqualified people who are fellow teachers or inspectors from the Ministry of Education, as Headteacher 9 complained in the interviews: *"Expertise is not available to present the programme"*. Therefore, headteachers may have difficulty in benefiting from these courses, which is contrary to the aim of the programmes, which is to enable headteachers to be more effective. Williams (1982, 16), for example, defines professional development as "the process by which individuals, groups and organizations learn to be more effective and efficient". The timing of the courses presented by the Ministry of Education is also considered by female headteachers to be inappropriate. These courses usually take place during the school examination period, or when headteachers have a heavy workload, which prevents them from attending. During the interviews for this research, headteachers complained about the time the courses took place, such as Headteacher 1 referring to the ministry *"choosing inappropriate times for the programme"*. Furthermore, during the survey, one headteacher agreed that it was important that *"the programme should take place at a proper time for the headteacher so that it will not affect her work at school"*. Alhazmi (2010) pointed out that headteachers in Saudi Arabia are given a lot of school work, which means that they have insufficient time to spare for attending professional development courses.

The courses provided by the Ministry of Education usually take place at a centre of educational supervision or a school. The distances involved in reaching these locations are sometimes a problem for female headteachers. Some venues are a long way from the headteachers' workplace, which can result in a struggle to attend. This problem

is caused mainly by females not being allowed to drive in Saudi Arabia, so they have to rely on a male family member to take them to places. In addition, Saudi Arabia does not have a metro system in the cities, and suffers from a largely non-existent rail network. However, even if there were other transport options, such as a rail network, women would probably not be allowed to travel on them unaccompanied. Centres of educational supervision and schools are not sufficiently equipped to hold the courses. Moreover, they lack facilities and cannot adequately accommodate such courses. Headteachers in both the survey and the interviews mentioned that the location and distances involved were inappropriate for them. During the interviews, Headteacher 1 argued that she would prefer to attend a place *“Close to the area where I live or close to my neighbourhood”*, and this was *“because the current training centre is unqualified for setting up a professional development programme”*. Furthermore, one headteacher stated in the survey that it was important to *“provide a suitable place to do the programme”*. In Saudi Arabia, schools and centres of educational supervision are not well-designed, have poor facilities and there is a lack of suitable venues (Al-Ogail, 2005).

However, staff development in the education field is considered to be globally important, because it leads to high quality in education (Lee, 1993). Headteachers in Saudi Arabia acknowledge that a professional development programme may be important to them, as one headteacher stated in the survey, *“I hope new headteachers will benefit from the programme because it is essential”*. Moreover, Headteacher 7 stated in her interview that *“We need a professional development programme but it needs to be specific to our work field, such as school management, staff performance appraisal, and exchanging experiences with other headteachers”*.

However, female headteachers were not satisfied with the courses currently provided by the Ministry of Education, in addition to there being a need to change and start to design a proper professional development programme. The headteachers' responses from the survey and interviews suggested that they would prefer a professional development programme that was designed specifically for them. In her interview, Headteacher 8 stated that *“The programme is not well designed, meaning that the programme contents are random and not compatible with the actual work field, which leads to difficulty in applying the programme”*.

In conclusion, the female headteachers who participated in the study were not satisfied with the courses provided by the Ministry of Education. The current courses were poor, did not meet the needs of the female headteachers and were, therefore, inadequate. Furthermore, these courses were presented by staff members from the Ministry of Education, who are basically teachers, in addition to the presenters having lack of experience in conducting training. Moreover, the locations of the courses provided did not qualify as venues, because they were usually located in schools, which lack basic facilities, such as projectors and proper seating areas. Also, the insufficient state of school buildings means that they are not well-prepared for such programmes. Not only is it important to provide a suitable venue and staff to conduct a professional development programme, it is also vital to consider the professional needs of female headteachers in order to achieve the aims of a development course. The next section explores the professional needs of the female headteachers who took part in this study.

5.3 Second: The professional needs of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia

This section is concerned with the research question relating to what professional development female headteachers need; this includes before they are appointed as headteachers, when they have been appointed, and for the year after they are appointed. The female headteachers who took part in the study expressed a positive reaction towards the impact of a professional development programme. The findings in Chapter 4 confirm that there is the potential for a professional development programme to have a significant impact on female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. This indicates that they are willing to accept the idea of such a programme being established for them. Harris and Townsend (2007,174) present an example of the impact of a professional development programme on headteachers in the UK: “this programme has provided the skills, knowledge and understanding for developing leaders to initiate important development work and that this has made a positive difference to the quality of teaching and learning”. However, while no such professional development programme exists for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, cultural influences and professional needs should be considered when establishing such a programme. Facilitating a professional development programme should take into account the cultural aspects of Saudi Arabia in order to achieve change. According to Morgan (1993, 41):

Effective change also depends on changes in the images and values that are to guide action. Attitudes and values that provide a recipe for success in one situation can prove a positive hindrance in another. Hence, change programmes must give attention to the kind of corporate ethos required in the new situation and find how this can be developed.

Identifying the professional needs of female headteachers is also important. Chapter 4 refers to female headteachers mentioning that it was essential to consider their training needs when designing a professional development programme. In the survey, 97% of the headteachers supported the statement that a professional development programme would only be effective if it were based on their training needs. As one headteacher commented, “*the programme has to be designed based on the needs of headteachers*”. Those interviewed commented in similar vein.

Designing a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia requires qualified staff to present the material. The headteachers in this study demonstrated that it was important to them that the Ministry of Education should appoint qualified staff in order to provide a professional development programme. The female headteachers were not satisfied regarding the current situation with the courses presented. In the survey, one headteacher stated that it was important to “*provide qualified staff to present the programme to headteachers*”. Furthermore, another headteacher suggested in the survey that such a programme would benefit from the introduction of foreign expertise to present the material: “*a professional development programme needs foreign expertise to develop the profession*”. Using foreign expertise would benefit female headteachers by providing them with trainers who are well educated in professional development, such as instructors at the National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership in Malaysia (Singh, 2009), from neighbouring countries in the Middle East such as Oman (Al-Farsi, 2007) or the UAE (Macpherson et al., 2007). By the selection of appropriate staff to present a professional development programme, female headteachers would gain a good understanding of the programme and benefit from it. Exploring international experiences could be of great benefit to developing female headteachers’ knowledge.

In the results outlined in Chapter 4, the headteachers suggested that it was important to choose an appropriate time and length for a professional development programme to take place. Female headteachers in Saudi Arabia have a great deal of school work to do and it would be important to establish an appropriate time for them to attend a

development programme. The study shows that they had two time preferences for a professional development programme to take place. In the survey, 25.7% of female headteachers suggested that they would prefer to attend a professional development programme after working hours, because of their current situation. One headteacher justified this by saying that a development programme should take place “*after working hours to avoid interrupting the main school work*”. However, in the interviews, 90% of the female headteachers stated that they would prefer a professional development programme to take place at the end of the school year during working hours. Headteacher 1 explained in her interview that she would prefer a programme to take place “*During work hours, specifically at the end of the school year because the school work is finished*”.

The duration of a professional development programme should also be considered. This study demonstrates that female headteachers suggested two time lengths for a professional development programme. In the questionnaire, 28.7% of the female headteachers who responded would prefer a professional development programme to last for one week. They argued that this length of time would support them in achieving a good understanding of the programme and prevent them from neglecting their school work. One headteacher’s justification for this was in order “*to achieve the aim of the programme*”. However, in the interviews, female headteachers suggested two weeks as a suitable length of time for a professional development programme to benefit from the content.

In this study, a chi-squared test was used to explore whether there was a relation between the female headteachers’ qualifications and the perceived impact of a professional development programme, and also the headteachers’ professional needs. The results show that there was no statistically significant difference regarding female headteachers’ qualifications. This study is similar to Alajaj’s (2001) work on the training needs of headteachers in Alqurayat Governorate schools in Saudi Arabia, which found that there were no statistical differences between headteachers’ professional needs and their qualifications and experience.

This study shows that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia have identified a set of learning development targets to fulfil their professional needs. Female headteachers in Saudi Arabia often work as school managers without any previous preparation or

knowledge of the position. Their management of the schools can be ineffective and may not recognize the needs of their staff and students, which can have a negative impact. Pang and Tam (1986) recognize that the purpose of educational leadership is to improve the outcome of schools. Studies conducted by AlFozan (1989) and Almanee (1988) demonstrate that headteachers in Saudi Arabia had problems with their methods of management and faced issues with staff, students, parents and the Ministry of Education. This study supports these findings, and shows that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia continue to experience problems with their management and communication skills. Female headteachers' professional needs have been identified in this study from the results obtained from the questionnaire and interviews. Their professional needs are identified in descending order of importance as follows.

School leadership was identified as the highest priority by female headteachers. This indicates that they lack leadership skills and require more attention on development. Lack of leadership skills can have an effect on organizations (Grint, 2005). The importance of leadership skills development for the headteachers profession is recognized globally. Leadership development is widely acknowledged and included in development programmes for headteachers in the USA (Murphy and Shipman, 2003), Canada (Huber and Leithwood, 2004), Europe (Fouquet, 2006), Asia (Chong et al., 2003) and Africa (Crossley et al., 2005).

Mentoring other staff came second in importance for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Female headteachers experience difficulties in managing their staff, which is a problem that has been identified in different studies (Carr, 1994; Cooper and Kelly, 1993; Englezakis, 2002; Hobson et al., 2003). Similar to Saudi Arabia, a study conducted on headteachers in Cyprus (Englezakis, 2002) shows that dealing with staff can be challenging, because of their low performance and negative response when mentored. Research by Alkarni (2015) conducted among Saudi headteachers identified that headteachers struggled to manage their staff.

The female headteachers in this study demonstrated that there is a need to develop evaluation, as this practice is important in improving the quality of school outcomes. Both the questionnaire and interviews, as shown in Chapter 4, illustrate that female headteachers would like to see improved evaluation. The need to improve their skills was identified as a problem facing female headteachers in Alfozan's (1989) research

and was also indicated in Alshareef's (1989) work, in which Saudi male headteachers were shown to lack evaluation skills.

School management was also considered very important by female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. As mentioned above, female headteachers are often appointed without any preparation for undertaking this position. This can, in turn, cause inadequate management of the school, which may have a negative result on the school outcomes. In the questionnaires and interviews, female headteachers mentioned that they still needed development on how to manage their schools effectively. In the interviews, Headteacher 1 stated that she would like a professional development programme to help her in *"Improving administration work, self-improvement for the headteacher, improving the headteacher's relationship with school staff, students. Improving the general relationship"*. Moreover, Headteacher 9 mentioned that a development programme *"makes the headteacher familiar with how to do her work in school"*. By developing female headteachers' management skills, school aims and policies could be achieved effectively. Khawaja (2004, 9) states that school management is considered to be *"The set of organized efforts made by school personnel in order to achieve the education objectives at the school level"*. A study conducted by Alfozan (1989) on male and female primary school principals in Riyadh in order to identify their training needs, found that one of these training needs was to address the lack of school management. In addition to Alfozan's (1989) study, various Saudi studies on headteachers have revealed that headteachers need to learn how to manage their schools. Managing a school was challenging for them due to their lack of knowledge in this area of administration (Al-Ahmadi, 2011; Alajaj, 2001; Alfozan, 1997; Alhazmi, 2010; Alkarni, 2015; Almanee, 1988; Al-Mutairi, 2005; Al-Sahlawi, 2001; Alsharari, 2010; Alshareef, 1989; Alzaidi, 2008).

The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia does not offer ICT in its courses for female headteachers. This study shows that female headteachers have to pay private institutions so that they can attend a course on ICT, which indicates that they feel that ICT is important and may support them in their profession. Alfozan (1989) mentioned that there is a lack of support in technical development for female headteachers. Female headteachers in Alsharari's (2010) study also mentioned that ICT is very important to them and they would, therefore, like to learn about and improve their knowledge in this area. In the questionnaire, 95.1% of female headteachers agreed

that ICT should be included when designing a professional development programme. In Norway, the design of leadership development programmes includes ICT, due to its importance in the profession of headship (Wales and Welle-Strand, 2005). Similarly, Singapore has improved its professional development programme for headteachers by introducing new technology (Chong et al., 2003). These findings relate to Alajaj's (2001) research on the training needs of headteachers in Alqurayat Governorate in Saudi Arabia, which found that they needed to develop their information technology skills.

Female headteachers in this study demonstrated that they wanted to develop their decision-making abilities in school. As a result of the bureaucracy and centralized education system in Saudi Arabia, female headteachers have very limited authority in their schools (Alzaidi, 2008). In the survey, 98.1% of the female headteachers reported that they would like to have decision making included when designing a professional development programme, and 40% of those interviewed also pointed out that decision making should be included in a professional development programme. In Oman, the professional development programme designed for headteachers includes decision making, due to the importance of this skill (Al-Farsi, 2007). This finding relates to a study conducted by Alsharari (2010) on the professional needs of headteachers in public schools in Saudi Arabia. His research concluded that headteachers were often unable to contribute to decision making and participating in school planning.

Communication skills were also considered important for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. In both the survey and the interviews, the female headteachers identified that they needed improvement in their communication skills. They indicated that they had difficulties communicating with staff, students, parents and the Ministry of Education. It has been found that a lack of communication skills can cause problems and stress for headteachers (Cooper and Kelly, 1993). Several international development programmes have included communication skills, because it is known that these are essential for headteachers, such as those in the USA (Murphy and Shipman, 2003), Canada (Huber and Leithwood, 2004), Europe (Cowie and Crawford, 2009; Fouquet, 2006; Wales and Welle-Strand, 2005), Asia (Chong et al., 2003) and Africa (Crossley et al., 2005).

In this study, the female headteachers reported that they would like to be rewarded for attending a professional development programme. In the survey, one headteacher suggested that “*headteachers should be paid for attending the programme for the extra hours*”. Motivation not only focuses on financial reward, but also includes support and encouragement for female headteachers. In Malaysia, supervisors visit headteachers in their own schools to support them and give them advice (Singh, 2009). However, there is a lack of motivation and support from the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia towards female headteachers, who, as a result, may not be interested in a professional development programme, due to a lack of motivation.

In this study, an interesting finding was the low level of response towards planning, policy and curriculum development. The female headteachers considered that these factors were less important to them, due to the fact that they do not have any control over them. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia is the only body that has any control over these aspects (Alzaidi, 2008). However, regardless of the low response, the female headteachers in the study reported that they would like to participate in designing policy, planning and the curriculum. In the interviews, Headteacher 1 stated: “*I would like to have an opinion on curriculum development*”. Furthermore, Headteacher 3 mentioned that she would like to participate in “*policy and school planning*”. This study relates to Alajaj’s (2001) research on the training needs of headteachers of state schools in Alqurayat Governorate in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which indicated that curriculum development is a high-level training need.

However, not only was identifying the professional needs of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia important, but also the time of the professional development programme and where it should take place. In this study, the female headteachers indicated that school work took up a lot of their time, and that taking a professional development course should take place at an appropriate time for them. It is important to select a suitable time for a training programme in terms of the people who are to participate (Al-Khateeb and Al-Khateeb, 2001). Saudi female headteachers also have to consider their personal life and commitments towards their families. It may be challenging for them to attend a training course that may have an impact on their personal life. Therefore, it is important to take into account when a training course should take place, so that it does not have a negative influence on female headteachers’ personal lives. In Greece, female headteachers explained that responsibility towards their families

was one of the challenges restricting their professional development (Brinia, 2011). As reported in Chapter 4, 25.7% of female headteachers in the survey would prefer a professional development course that took place after working hours, and 28.7% chose one week as a suitable length of time for a programme. In the interviews, 90% of headteachers stated that they would prefer a professional development programme to take place during working hours, but at the end of the school year, and 60% mentioned two weeks as a suitable length of time. Therefore, this study demonstrates that the length of time on which the female headteachers agreed was one to two weeks, and that a professional development programme should take place after working hours, when female headteachers usually had less, or no school work to do. In the survey, one headteacher justified her choice, stating that it would require “*2 weeks to apply the aims of the programme effectively*”, and in the interviews the headteachers agreed that this duration would be sufficient to achieve the aims of the programme.

Regarding the location of a professional development programme, the current status of the courses that the female headteachers attended was not considered by them to be appropriate. In the questionnaire, 39% of female headteachers would prefer to attend a professional programme in a specialized training centre. One headteacher explained that she would prefer programmes to be conducted in “*a specialized training centre because it is well prepared*”. Furthermore, 100% of the female headteachers in the interviews supported the responses in the questionnaire by stating they would also prefer a qualified training centre. Headteacher 5 stated that a professional development programme should take place “*in a specialized training centre because it is well prepared for setting up a professional development programme and it provides expertise to deliver the programme*”. Providing a suitable place that is well-equipped for participants to attend a professional course may help to achieve the aim of the programme by giving the right support to headteachers. Providing a suitable location may encourage female headteachers to attend a professional programme, because increasing the number of headteachers attending would mean that they can benefit from each other’s experience. Headteachers can benefit from the exchange of experiences, which can in turn lead to effective development (Van Velsor and McCauley, 2004). This type of exchange can, for example, be implemented through school visits, as applied in England and Wales, which would be of benefit to school headteachers (Hobson et al., 2003). In addition, informal networking, such as using

social media programmes may be considered as a way of experience sharing between female headteachers in Saudi Arabia (Bush and Glover, 2004; Bush et al., 2007).

This study shows that female headteachers require a programme that can prepare them for becoming a headteacher. In addition, not only is a preparation programme needed, but headteachers also require continuous development throughout their professional careers, because their roles are becoming more complex (Sherman, 2000). This suggests that, when applying a development programme, the professional needs of the headteachers, as well as cultural aspects, should be considered. The next section demonstrates in detail how a professional development programme could be facilitated for female headteachers.

5.4 Third: Facilitation of a professional development programme for female headteachers

The aim of this section is to present the responses to the research question regarding how professional development for school principals can be facilitated. The findings of this study demonstrate that female headteachers were interested in participating in a professional development programme. However, the participants indicated that it is essential that the design of the programme is based on their professional needs. As mentioned above, the headteachers also argued that the courses presented by the Ministry of Education were poor and did not focus on their position as headteachers. Therefore, any professional development programme for female headteachers should be facilitated appropriately. The importance of professional development for school headteachers is recognized worldwide, for instance in the USA and Australia (Lee, 1993). Moreover, it is important to take into account that professional development is a continuous and long process that may change with time and changes to education policy. Cawood and Gibbon (1981) argue that professional development is not a short process. Early and Weindling (2007) also recommend that professional development should be a continuous process, because the professional needs of headteachers go through changes, starting from the first day a headteacher is appointed. Headteachers' work is becoming more complex, along with an increase in their workload (Sherman, 2000). Female headteachers are required by the Ministry of Education to do more work over and above their school management duties, such as overseeing the maintenance of school buildings, arranging the repair of air conditioning and plumbing, and generally resolving whatever equipment breaks down in their schools.

This study shows that, based on the current situation of female headteachers and the consideration that there is no professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, continuing professional development may be suitable for them. Continuing professional development is important for the improvement of organizational performance and is, therefore essential for good leadership and school management, as mentioned by Bush et al. (2010). Female headteachers can benefit from undergoing continuous professional development, whereby they can learn new skills and be supported in achieving better school outcomes. Heystek (2007, 500) supports the suggestion that continuous professional development helps headteachers by preparing them “with tools and techniques to manage a certain situation better in order to achieve the aims determined by policy more efficiently”. In England, assessment of the effect of the Developing Leaders Programme on both schools and pupils revealed that “this programme has provided the skills, knowledge and understanding for developing leaders to initiate important development work and that this has made a positive difference to the quality of teaching and learning” (Harris and Townsend, 2007, 174).

It is important to apply various procedures to review the impact of change on headteachers’ usual behaviour, in order to gain new skills and experience. In order to achieve effective development, Van Velsor and McCauley (2004) recommend that challenge, support and assessment should be included in professional development.

The female headteachers who had been appointed in schools, and who took part in this study, had no knowledge of how to manage their schools. It would be helpful to support them by providing an induction course which combines knowledge and skills relating to how they could lead their schools effectively. In England, a six-day induction programme as part of the Early Headship Provision (EHP) in 2006 presented by the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) helped new headteachers to gain knowledge and skills appropriate for their position (Kusi, 2008).

Female headteachers could also benefit from establishing a support group that brings together female headteachers from all parts of the region, so that they could exchange experiences and provide support for each other. There are no formal support groups for either male or female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. However, they may use social media as an informal social group to communicate with other headteachers, which may

be more convenient for them because of difficulties in getting to actual meetings due to government restrictions on females driving, and struggling to find a male relative to provide transport. In the interviews, 80% of the female headteachers agreed that a professional development programme could help headteachers come together and exchange experiences. Headteacher 1 stated that she would benefit from meeting other headteachers and taking part in “*experience exchange with other headteachers and gaining new concepts*”. In Kenya, a project called Primary School Management (PRISM), designed for primary headteachers, encourages the developing of a principals’ support group, which combines headteachers from various areas of education in order to support each other and exchange experiences (Waudou et al., 2002).

Mentoring can also be applied as a strategy to develop the performance of female headteachers, giving them the support they need to help gain new skills and knowledge. Mentoring headteachers can have a positive impact and, therefore, a positive outcome. In the UK, the Department for Education and Employment recommended this strategy, stating:

Mentoring is a key professional development activity. Current practice varies and teachers have found benefits from mentor relationships with other teachers...

We have found that in many cases the relationship offers the mentor as much opportunity to develop as the person being mentored. We should like schools to extend this excellent practice (Department for Education and Employment, UK, 2000: 15).

Headteachers in Saudi Arabia do not have structured mentoring, either formal or informal, because the Ministry of Education does not supply it in schools. However, experienced headteachers can mentor new headteachers, by giving them support and advice. It is important to choose an appropriate mentor who is well-trained and qualified in order to achieve the purpose of mentoring. Burgess and Butcher (1999) warn that a mentor failing to deliver the appropriate skills and knowledge can lead to a gap between what the actual mentoring consists of and the perspective of mentoring behaviour. Therefore, mentors should be well prepared with the appropriate skills to achieve effectiveness. Moon et al. (2000, 99) define mentors’ skills as follows: “effective mentors create realistic frameworks for support and know how to exploit contextual factors. They demonstrate the process of: listening and counselling,

motivating, support, consultation, drawing out, target setting, renewing and reflecting, sharing, problem solving, and developing a common approach”. In the UK, experienced headteachers are appointed as mentors for new headteachers to give them support and provide them with feedback on their performance (Moon et al., 2000). A study by Coleman (2002) on training female headteachers in England and Wales found that female headteachers can be encouraged by female role models, and that mentoring was especially important for female headteachers.

Moreover, coaching is considered an effective method of developing the skills and knowledge of headteachers, by being presented with feedback regarding their performance in order to enhance their learning. As with mentoring, neither formal nor informal coaching for school headteachers occurs in Saudi Arabia. Downey (2003) notes the importance of coaching in professional development, improving performance and learning from others. Similar to mentors, coaches should be selected carefully, be well-trained for coaching, and have knowledge of the education sector. In Scotland, after the findings of the SEED (2006) Report that the SQH programme did not meet the professional needs of headteachers, mentoring and coaching were applied to fulfil these requirements.

Networking has the ability to improve the leadership skills of female headteachers, who can benefit from networking by exchanging experiences and learning new skills. Networking is recommended by Bush and Glover (2004), because it helps headteachers in developing their leadership skills. However, this study shows that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia did not experience networking, which is similar to the position regarding mentoring and coaching. In the interviews, Headteacher 7 acknowledged the potential of school visits, stating: *“I would prefer headteachers to visit other schools in order to exchange experiences and connect schools in one network”*. South Africa has adopted school visits as a way of encouraging the exchange of experience between headteachers and the forming of networks between them, as Bush et al. (2010, 120) explain:

the new national qualification for principals in South Africa, the Advanced Certificate in Education (School Leadership), includes provision for “cluster learning”, where participants are arranged in geographical groups to facilitate networking and collaborative learning.

The current study shows that there is a need to prepare female headteachers for managing their schools. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia needs to think about designing a preparation programme for female headteachers, who would benefit greatly from this programme, preparing them with a good understanding of the school context and skills to support them in management. Bush (1998, 1999) mentions that it is essential to prepare headteachers as part of a professional development programme, because preparing them with knowledge and significant skills is a basis for supporting their decision making. It is also important to consider variety in designing the elements of such a programme, as recommended by Chin (2003).

The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia could cooperate with private institutions or universities to provide a professional development programme, as has occurred in other countries, such as the USA (Bjork and Murphy, 2005), Norway (Wales and Welle-Strand, 2005), Taiwan (Lin, 2003) and the UAE (*Gulf News*, 2003). However, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia does not show any intention of doing this, nor does it show any interest in taking the opportunity to benefit from the services offered by universities or private institutions. While many studies have discussed the training needs of headteachers in Saudi Arabia, such as those conducted by Almanee (1988), Alfozain (1989), Alshareef (1989), Al-Sahlawi (2001), Alzaidi (2008), and Alsharari (2010) the current study confirms that there is still a need to improve the performance of headteachers.

The findings of this study have explored what could be included in the design of a professional development programme, when it could take place, how long it should last and where it could be located. Taking into account these findings, a professional development programme could be proposed for female headteachers as follows (Figure 24).

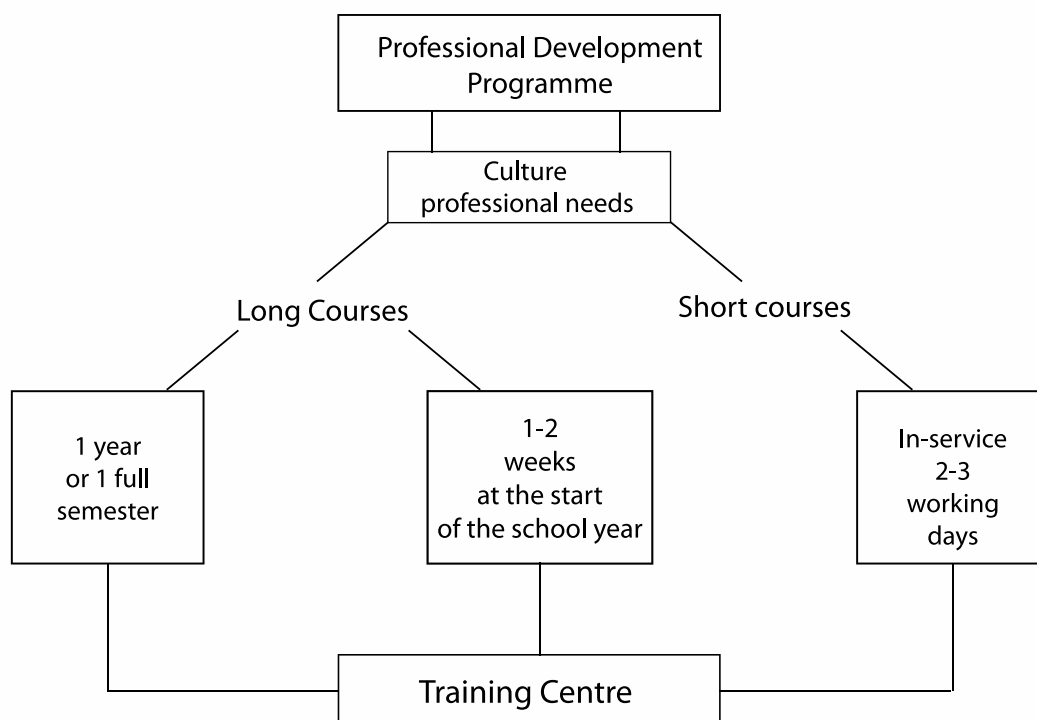


Figure 24: Proposed professional development programme for female headteachers in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia (source: the author)

Based on the current situation of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, the programme could be designed to include a short course and a long course. The short course could take 2-3 days during working hours (in-service) and would be continuous throughout the school year. The long course could take place for 1-2 weeks during working hours at the start of the school year (before the students return to school). The long courses could be for one semester or one year for a university-based programme and the headteachers could obtain a certificate at the end of the course.

In addition, the design of the short courses for a professional development programme is different from that of long courses with regard to their content. The reason for the difference in the design of short and long professional development programmes for female headteachers is that, due to the absence of such programmes for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, short courses can benefit female headteachers who have already been appointed, whereas long courses are targeted at future female appointees. Short courses can focus on school management, school leadership, managing school finances and resources, communication skills, decision making, leadership development, and mentoring. As mentioned earlier, these courses can take from 2 to

3 days during working hours. Based on the current situation of Saudi female headteachers and the lack of preparation programmes for them, short courses can be adopted using mentoring, coaching, and networking. Short courses are applied as part of a continuous professional development programme during the year, whereas long courses involve a more comprehensive design of content. Moreover, long courses can be divided into two parts: an induction programme for a period of 1 to 2 weeks and a second part which is a full year on an intensive programme. Long courses contain material on the following: school management, school leadership, managing school finances and resources, communication skills, decision making, external relationships with parents, education authorities and special interest groups, school development, quality and evaluation, conflict management, leadership development, mentoring, politics and policy, school climate and culture, curriculum development, facilities management, planning, ICT, marketing and strategic choices, and psychology. The full-year programme should be provided as university-based study.

The professional development of Saudi female headteachers does not end by finishing the base model and intensive model, there should be a continuous professional development programme throughout the year for both experienced and newly appointed female headteachers. Nevertheless, universities in Saudi Arabia such as Princess Norah university and King Saud university should take part in the design of the base and intensive models and continuous development programme to maintain the quality of such programmes (Wenchang and Daming, 2001). Both courses would take place at a well-equipped training centre and be presented by qualified training staff. By adopting this model, female headteachers' school work would not be interrupted, and they would be able to benefit from attending the courses. In addition, Bush (2018) presented a model that supports the model proposed in this research and is shown in Table 35.

Table 35: A model for leadership preparation and induction (Bush, 2018: 69)

Development phase	Purpose
Succession planning	Talent identification
Leadership preparation	To develop leadership understanding and skills
Recruitment and selection	Careful matching of qualified candidates with school (avoid ‘square pages’ in ‘round holes’)
Induction	An ongoing process focused on professional learning
In-service development	Leadership learning as a career-long process

Bush’s proposed model, as shown in the above table, can be applied in various education systems when taking into account the needs of a certain context, which, in the case of Saudi Arabia, is the culture. The model starts with the careful selection of suitable candidates who show promising leadership skills. These candidates undergo a leadership preparation programme in order to develop their leadership capacities. In addition to a leadership preparation programme, induction is also important for both newly appointed and experienced female headteachers as they can be mentored by an experienced mentor. The learning phase of female Saudi headteachers does not end upon completing a professional development programme; instead, it is an ongoing process, in which they can continue to learn through an in-service development programme. Female Saudi headteachers should be carefully matched with an appropriate school. My proposed model, along with Bush’s model, could be applied with female Saudi headteachers because it is comprehensive and can be adapted in accordance with Saudi culture.

However, there are some factors that could prevent the application of such a development programme for female headteachers. The next section explores the factors that may affect the implementation of a professional development programme for female headteachers.

5.5 Fourth: Barriers affecting a professional development programme

This section presents answers to the research question regarding what barriers may exist to facilitating a professional development programme for female headteachers. In this study, various barriers were found that affected the professional development of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Females in Saudi Arabia have a social life that is controlled by culture. Middle Eastern countries tend to focus on accommodating contradictions in culture and religion to support inclusion instead of exclusion (MacPherson and Tofighian, 2008). Saudi women have limited freedom in their social life, while female headteachers have no training programme, which can lead to difficulties in their work. Brinia (2011) supported the suggestion that a lack of appropriate training is considered an issue in female principals' experience. The barriers to training identified in this study can be categorized as follows.

5.5.1 Culture

This study has identified that one of the barriers that affect the professional development of female headteachers is linked to culture. Culture has an important influence on theory building, as MacPherson and Tofighian (2008, 406) state, "The normal patterns of Western knowledge production regarding educational leadership have limited proven technical capacity to accommodate diversity as a norm in pluralistic societies". Women's lives in Saudi Arabia are strictly controlled by males who have interpreted Islam to accommodate what they think is acceptable and, therefore, limits their freedom (Effendi, 2003). The current study shows that female headteachers face difficulties in transportation because, by law, they cannot drive, or even ride a bicycle. They have to rely on male family members to drive them, which can sometimes be difficult due to the lack of time men have, or if they are busy at their own workplace. Also, women cannot use other public transport in Riyadh, such as buses and taxis, because this is considered to be inadequate and unsafe. The buses are typically used by male workers, and Saudi families generally do not want their female relatives using this form of transport to travel around the city. The Saudi Ministry of Transportation started planning a metro in Riyadh in April 2014, is estimated for completion in 2018 (Aldalbahi and Walker, 2016). Moreover, if a female has to use a taxi, she should have a male companion, and sometimes faces sexual harassment from the taxi driver. Furthermore, walking is considered difficult for females because of the distances involved; there is no adequate pedestrian environment and a lack of

pavements, and the weather is extremely hot, with temperatures reaching 57°C in the summer (Alfouzan, 2011). The only train service available in Riyadh goes from Riyadh to the city of Dammam, which is located in the eastern region of Saudi Arabia. However, women still need a male companion if they are to use form of any public transport. The law that prevents women from driving was established by male influence in Saudi Arabia, although it is the opposite to what Islam encourages, which allows them to ride a horse or a camel - the equivalent to a car in modern life. Effendi (2003) maintains that male influence has interpreted Islam to declare what is and is not acceptable in terms of women's behaviour. In addition, females in Saudi Arabia are controlled by the Ulama Sunni interpretation of Islam, and the culture of Saudi society (Sallam and Hunter, 2013). Therefore, there is a high level of masculine power in Saudi Arabia which may affect the acceptance of change or new behaviour in society, which relates to Hofstede (1980). Hofstede (1980) mentions that countries in the Middle East show cultural characteristics of a high collectivism orientation, a high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and femininity or masculinity characteristics. The results of this study show that Saudi Arabian culture is more like Rosenholtz's (1989) notion of a "stuck" culture that supports learning impoverishment, no risk taking, gatekeeping leadership, isolation and insular focus. Therefore, Saudi educational culture demonstrates ineffectiveness and obstructs improvement, similar to Law and Glover's (2000) idea of declining cultures. This can result in a "country [that] lacks the ideal environment which one can advocate for women's education" (Alsuwaida, 2016, 111).

Segregation in Saudi Arabia is considered a problem with regard to women's education, men clearly having more opportunities for learning than women. Male headteachers are provided with training courses, but this provision is absent for female headteachers. The existing professional inequality can cause frustration among female headteachers. If they were to have the same professional opportunities as male headteachers, it would enable them to have a significant effect on their schools. According to Alsuwaidi (2016, 114), "The Saudi government is rigid and does not recognize that the unification of gender in the education system might boost meaningful learning experiences".

5.5.2 Saudi Arabia's education system

Saudi Arabia has an education system that is centralized and controlled solely by the Ministry of Education. This causes a high level of bureaucracy, which restricts female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, female headteachers cannot interfere with policies produced by the Ministry of Education. For example, in my professional teaching career, the Ministry of Education changed the curriculum for both science and Arabic, without any clear justification to teachers or their headteachers, which led to teachers struggling to teach these subjects. The Ministry also compelled the teachers to attend short courses, which took only three days, to learn how to teach students from the new curriculum, which was insufficient for the teaching staff. According to Fenech (1994, 131), “centralised educational systems constrain local autonomy”. It is clear, therefore, that female headteachers may experience difficulties in their work due to the bureaucracy of the Ministry of Education. In the survey, 52.5% of the female headteachers who took part felt that it was important to have an opinion on the school policy developed by the Ministry of Education. In the interviews, 40% of the female headteachers wanted to participate in developing school policy. This shows that female headteachers in Saudi Arabia are keen to influence the education system and would prefer not to have the type of bureaucracy that limits them. However, there is a lack of communication between female headteachers and the Ministry of Education as the only educational authority in Saudi Arabia. The Ministry of Education does not give female headteachers the opportunity to express their opinions on school policies or curricula. This lack of communication can result in headteachers becoming stressed. In his research with 94 headteachers in South Australia, Carr (1994) identified that a lack of assistance from the educational authority could lead to headteacher stress. If headteachers are struggling to control their stress levels, this could lead to emotional exhaustion (Brock and Grady, 2002).

This study demonstrates that female headteachers have a lack of authority in their schools. Female headteachers cannot make decisions in their own school due to the policy of the Ministry of Education (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). Therefore, there is a lack of autonomy because Saudi Arabia is considered a centralized country. For example, in the case of extreme weather, such as the sandstorms which are likely to occur in Saudi Arabia, the headteacher does not have the authority to cancel the school day and this can cause health issues for their staff and students. In the interviews, Headteacher 10

explained that *“the decrease in headteachers’ authority in schools”* was considered to be one of the difficulties that female headteachers face. This result is related to Alajaj’s (2001) study, which indicates that headteachers have a low level of authority and cannot influence educational policy and curriculum because these are mainly controlled by the Ministry of Education.

Programme presenters who are not sufficiently trained to deliver a development programme are considered an issue for female headteachers. It is important to choose qualified trainers to provide such a development programme, as failing to do so will result in insufficient outcomes. In addition, the trainers require knowledge of headteachers’ professional development in order for them to benefit from the training. However, Saudi Arabia lacks the trainers and facilities to provide such a development programme. This study found that the female headteachers who participated were not satisfied with the current presenters of the courses, and this could deter them from attending such programmes. In the survey, one headteacher stated that the organizers should *“provide qualified staff to present the programme to headteachers”*. Moreover, in the interviews, Headteacher 8 stated that *“choosing unqualified people to present the programme”* was a problem that may prevent the aim of a professional development programme being fulfilled. Al-Askar (1994) mentions that trainers who lack qualifications cannot deliver the necessary information to trainees, which can lead to a negative effect on the latter.

5.5.3 School climate

Female headteachers in Saudi Arabia are provided with a great deal of school work, which causes them stress. As pointed out above, stress can have a negative effect on headteachers’ performance in schools. The Ministry of Education issues a significant workload to female headteachers, which may deter them from participating in development courses. In the interviews, Headteacher 10 complained about the amount of work given by the Ministry of Education and referred to *“the numerous aspects of headteachers’ school work”*. Moreover, Headteacher 3 commented that *“the accumulation of school work that has to be done by the headteacher”* can deter female headteachers from attending a professional development programme.

In 2003, the National College for School Leadership in England reviewed some of the problems experienced by headteachers, which included headteachers facing a

lot of school work (Hobson et al., 2003). Similarly, a national study conducted by Cooper and Kelly (1993) among headteachers in the UK found that the high level of school work was causing stress for headteachers. Furthermore, Carr (1994) found in his research on 94 headteachers in South Australia that managing a lot of school work was stressful for headteachers, and the same problem was found by Englezakis (2002) when studying the workload of headteachers in Cyprus. Giving headteachers a lot of school work can also create a lack of balance between their school management and their school leadership. In Papua New Guinea, for example, it was found that headteachers experienced difficulties in balancing school management and instructional leadership (Lahui-Ako, 2001).

Time was considered by the female headteachers in this study to be a challenge, due to their struggle with the level of school work they undertook. Female headteachers were worried that spending time attending a development programme would disrupt their school work and, therefore, affect the school. Moreover, female headteachers had commitments towards their families, and long working hours could be stressful for them. Brinia (2011) mentioned family responsibilities as one of the external problems facing female headteachers. In the survey in the current study, one headteacher explained that *“a headteacher cannot be away from her home and family responsibilities for a long time”*. In Saudi Arabia, women occupying professional roles as headteachers are unlikely to receive support from their partners with respect to sharing parental responsibilities. In addition, time was challenging for female headteachers due to the fact that school work could be interrupted, as well as their commitments to family life. This result is in line with the situation in Papua New Guinea (PNG), where headteachers struggle to find time because of the large amount of school work they are given (Lahui-Ako, 2001).

However, headteachers' relationships with school staff, students, parents and the education authority were identified as a barrier in this study. Managing school staff can be a source of stress for headteachers. In addition, headteachers' relationships with staff can be negatively affected by this stress. Female headteachers in Saudi Arabia are obliged to apply the school policy and curriculum issued by the Ministry of Education. However, applying these policies to staff can be both challenging and difficult. In this regard, Saudi Arabia is similar to its neighbouring country, Oman. In Oman, headteachers are the only authority in their schools, leaving staff with no

participation in the decision-making process, which can affect the relationship between them (Al-Farsi, 2007).

Headteachers' relationships with students can also be challenging. Female headteachers undergo pressure when dealing with student attendance, students' issues, and having to accept large numbers of pupils in their schools. Al-Mutairi (2005) identified that problems with students, such as poor attendance and high student numbers in schools, can increase the pressure on headteachers.

The relationship between headteachers and parents can also create difficulties. Female headteachers may encounter challenges when dealing with parents, which can occur when parents are absent from their child's school life, when they have special social circumstances, or when they are aggressive. Several studies have identified the relationship between headteachers and parents as stressful (Brinia, 2011; Bristow et al., 2007; Phillips and Sen, 2011).

School buildings in Saudi Arabia can also affect female headteachers' work negatively. The Ministry of Education has to rent premises because there is a shortage of school buildings. Some of the school buildings are inadequate and lack appropriate facilities. Dealing with the maintenance of schools, such as plumbing, air conditioning and electricity supply, can add to the pressure on headteachers. Female headteachers sometimes have to pay for this maintenance themselves, because of poor communication between them and the Ministry of Education. This issue has been identified in studies such as those by Al-Ogail (2005), and Whitaker (2003).

5.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings of the research and answered the study questions. The results of this study demonstrate that there is a lack of professional development for female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh. The female headteachers who took part in the study were not satisfied with their current status and would like to improve their knowledge and management skills. The study shows that there is currently no professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, who are mainly attending courses on school policies and the curriculum provided by the Ministry of Education. These tend to be presented by teachers who lack experience, in addition to the inadequate location of such courses. The Ministry

of Education should, therefore, consider establishing a professional development programme for female headteachers. Such a development programme should be designed based on female headteachers' professional needs. It is also important to consider the cultural aspects of female headteachers in order to apply the development programme efficiently. This chapter discussed the current professional status of primary school female headteachers and identified their professional needs. Moreover, by identifying what should be considered in designing a professional development programme, this chapter has demonstrated how such a programme could be applied to female headteachers. A professional development programme can be facilitated by several methods, such as mentoring, with new headteachers benefiting from coaching by experienced headteachers, participating in a support group to exchange knowledge, and networking to encourage the promotion of new skills and knowledge among female headteachers.

However, there are several challenges that may prevent the application of a professional development programme for female headteachers. These challenges were demonstrated in this chapter in order to gain a more complete understanding of what may deter female headteachers from attending a professional development programme. There are challenges are affected by Saudi culture, such as transportation and segregation. The study shows that female headteachers are facing transport difficulties, due to an existing government law that prevents women from driving. In addition to transportation, women are segregated from men in public life, which indicates that Saudi men have more professional and educational opportunities than women. The education system in Saudi Arabia has a high level of bureaucracy and, therefore, places restrictions on headteachers' freedom in their schools. The centralized system prevents headteachers from communicating and expressing their opinions to the Ministry of Education, and only the Ministry can control and establish policies, which can frustrate headteachers in Saudi Arabia. There are other problems that may deter headteachers from participating in a professional development programme, which are the increase in the amount of school work and lack of time, as well as problems that may occur from managing staff, students and parents. Moreover, the current status of school buildings means that they lack essential equipment, such as projectors and air conditioning. This chapter has provided a clear understanding of the professional requirements of primary female headteachers in Riyadh, how these

could be accommodated in their work field, and the challenges facing these development programmes. The next chapter presents the conclusion to this study and identifies its limitations.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study had the aim of exploring the professional needs of female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. It was important to identify their professional needs in order to design a professional development programme for them. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia has shown an interest in developing the education system in the country and has spent (£37 billion) in order to achieve this (UK Government GOV, 2015). Therefore, the Ministry of Education, which is responsible for the education system in Saudi Arabia, has been developing school curricula in order to keep pace with the changing world. Moreover, the Ministry of Education has also designed a professional development programme for teachers in order to achieve the aims of the education policy in Saudi Arabia. However, female headteachers in Saudi Arabia have not been included in the professional development programme, only male headteachers having the opportunity to participate in a professional development programme designed specifically for them. Different countries have considered the importance of designing a professional development programme for headteachers to improve their national education. Therefore, the Saudi government needs to address the importance of developing female headteachers equally with male headteachers, in order to achieve improvements in the education system in the country. This chapter presents a review of the study and the findings achieved in the fieldwork in order to reach a conclusion. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and offers recommendations for future research.

6.2 Research overview

The purpose of this study was to identify the professional needs of female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh in order to design a professional development programme based on these needs. It was also important to explore the experiences of female headteachers when attending a professional course in order to establish their professional needs. Moreover, this study has considered the cultural aspects of designing a professional development programme that could be suitable for female headteachers in Riyadh. The female headteachers who took part in this study identified the following aspects of professional need: leadership skills, management

skills, communication skills, ICT, facilities management, the development of a curriculum and education policy.

The study gave an overview of headteachers' school administration duties and how they function in school. The literature also identified the educational management skills that support headteachers in the workplace. Headteachers are considered leaders in their schools and their leadership skills can influence the way they manage their work environment, as explained in the literature review. Moreover, the research reviewed the roles and responsibilities of headteachers, and the changes that have occurred in these roles over time. A review of the way headteachers function in school and what their roles are provides a good understanding of which skills should be developed. Therefore, the literature review demonstrated the concept of professional development and its role in the improvement of headteachers. The literature review also discussed experiential learning theory, which is considered essential to understanding the models of professional development for headteachers. However, culture also plays an important role in applying any professional development model, as demonstrated in the literature. The literature review considered the effect of culture in general, and of Saudi culture in particular, which is the area of focus in this study. Culture in Saudi Arabia is different from that in most countries, as explained in the literature review, and it is important to consider this when designing a professional development programme. The literature review also examined international experiences in designing professional development programmes for headteachers, and the way these have been applied in the workplace. Moreover, the review presented an overview of other Arab and Islamic countries which have had experience in designing and applying a professional development programme for school headteachers. Saudi Arabia could benefit from these experiences in designing a professional development programme for its own female headteachers. Saudi Arabia has the lowest educational attainment compared with Gulf countries in the Middle East, such as the UAE and Qatar. This is shown in Table 36, which summarizes the ranking in the educational attainment of the Gulf countries.

Table 36: Gulf countries' ranking for educational attainment (source: World Economic Forum, 2016)

Gulf country	Educational attainment
Saudi Arabia	105
Qatar	92
United Arab Emirates	32
Oman	97
Kuwait	47
Bahrain	84

Saudi Arabia could gain advantages from these experiences, due to the fact that these countries have very similar values and the same religion.

After demonstrating a good understanding of the experiences of different countries, the strategies that could be used to apply a professional development programme for female headteachers were demonstrated in the literature review. However, there may be some challenges when applying a professional development programme, which the literature review also revealed. Understanding these challenges and difficulties may help when designing a professional development programme in order to avoid or minimize such barriers in the future.

In this study, the research questions were designed in order to fulfil the aim of the research, as follows: What professional development have the principals received? This includes the period before they were appointed as headteachers, after they had been appointed, and since their first year as headteachers. What are female headteachers' professional needs? This study combined the period before they became headteachers, when they had become headteachers, and since their first year as headteachers. How can professional development for female headteachers be facilitated? What difficulties and barriers may affect the facilitation of a professional development programme for female headteachers?

The next section demonstrates the tools used to answer the research questions and how the data were analysed.

6.3 Collection and analysis of the data

This study used two methods to collect data: a questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire and the interview questions were translated into Arabic because the participants in the research sample were Arabs. Both the questionnaire and interviews were piloted and tested to make sure that they were clear and could be understood by the participants. The sample for the questionnaire contained 100 female headteachers, but the researcher printed an additional 50 copies of the questionnaire because of the short time available to collect data. The researcher travelled to schools and delivered the questionnaires to the headteachers in person, as well as leaving extra copies for delivery to other headteachers. The researcher revisited the schools to collect the questionnaire forms. The researcher collected 101 questionnaires in total from female primary school headteachers.

With regard to the interviews, the researcher conducted individual face-to-face interviews with ten female headteachers in their school offices.

After collecting responses from both the questionnaires and the interviews, the researcher analysed the data using two software programmes: SPSS 22 for the questionnaire, and NVivo for the interviews. The research methodology and data collection for both the questionnaires and interviews were explained in Chapter 3.

6.4 Research findings

This study shows that there is no professional development programme designed for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia provides courses that focus only on school policy and any updates to the school curriculum. The results from the analysed data show that the female primary school headteachers in Riyadh who participated were not satisfied with the current courses offered by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia. The female headteachers argued that the current courses were not designed for their needs, and lacked subjects related to their profession as school headteachers. Not only were the courses unsuitable, but the staff who presented them were not sufficiently qualified to do so. The female headteachers also pointed out that these courses took place at inappropriate times for them. Furthermore, the headteachers explained that they were responsible for a lot of school work, which prevented or deterred them from attending such courses. Moreover, the courses were located in venues that were not properly equipped to

present a development course for female headteachers, such as schools or centres of educational supervision. Therefore, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia should consider establishing a professional development programme for female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh, and elsewhere.

Moreover, the female headteachers in Riyadh who participated reported that they had a lack of management and leadership skills, which required attention from the Ministry of Education. Furthermore, the findings demonstrate that there was insufficient communication between female headteachers and the Ministry of Education, due to the bureaucracy of the education system in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, females in Saudi Arabia are controlled by their culture, which can influence the professional development of female headteachers. Based on the findings from the data, the Ministry of Education should take into account the professional needs of female headteachers and the cultural aspects in Saudi Arabia.

This study has explored the likely effects of a professional development programme on female primary school headteachers in Riyadh, and has demonstrated what they imagine might be the impact on their performance. A professional development programme could also have a positive impact on female headteachers' management, leadership and communication skills. The impacts of a professional development programme on female headteachers are shown in detail in Chapter 4.

Female headteachers from primary schools in Riyadh identified the elements that needed to be considered in designing a professional development programme. As mentioned in Chapter 4, these elements are concerned with leadership, management and communication skills. Furthermore, the female headteachers indicated that they would like to participate in the decision making regarding school policies in Saudi Arabia, adding that they would also like to influence the composition of the school curriculum.

This study explored ways to facilitate a professional development programme for female primary school headteachers in Riyadh. As shown in Chapter 4, some could help in considering the possibility of applying a professional development programme, depending on their current situation. Moreover, it is important to take into account the choice of an appropriate time and location to apply a professional development programme. The findings of this study suggest that the facilitation of a professional

development programme for female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh would be successful and, therefore, achieve its aim.

However, this study also explored barriers that could prevent the facilitation of a professional development programme for female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh. Culture is identified in this study as a barrier that could prevent the implementation of a professional development programme. Saudi culture restricts the freedom of females in Saudi Arabia, such as preventing women from driving. Culture also has an influence on the decisions of the Ministry of Education in designing school policy and curricula. This study also considered the ways in which the bureaucracy of the Ministry of Education has a negative effect on facilitating a professional development programme. Furthermore, the current school climate is affecting female primary school headteachers, identified in Chapter 4 as involving a significant amount of school work, a lack of time, shortage of school buildings, and female headteachers' relationships with staff, students, pupils' parents and the Ministry of Education.

6.5 Research contribution

This study has focused more comprehensively on female primary school headteachers in Riyadh than any other prior research. In 1989, a study was conducted by Alfozan on female and male headteachers in Riyadh in order to explore their training needs. However, at the time, headteachers were not considered to have much knowledge, and their qualifications were lower than a bachelor's degree. There have been several research studies on headteachers' professional development, such as those of Alajaj (2001), Alsharari (2010) and Alkarni (2015). However, most of this research was conducted on male headteachers, with only a few studies on female headteachers. Furthermore, research involving female headteachers was limited, because the researchers who conducted the study were male and, therefore, had restricted access to female headteachers, due to the cultural norms that operate in Saudi Arabia.

As a female researcher, I have more freedom to access girls' primary schools and meet the female headteachers face to face. Therefore, this study provides in-depth insight into the professional needs of female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh. Moreover, it provides additional knowledge regarding the impact of culture, particularly upon females in the Saudi context, when establishing a professional development programme.

This study makes an important contribution to female headteachers' field of work because of the lack of research on female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. It is also an original study for the education system in Saudi Arabia in proposing what could be in a professional development programme for female headteachers. While the study was conducted on female primary school headteachers, it could be applied to female headteachers at other levels, such as intermediate and secondary schools, in the same region. Furthermore, this study could be widely applied to regions in Saudi Arabia other than Riyadh, which is the capital of the kingdom. Therefore, this research could be a benchmark for establishing a development programme for female headteachers, considering both their cultural circumstances and their professional needs. I recommend the use of the mixed methods approach applied in this study to other researchers intending to investigate the professional development needs of female headteachers in order to help design a professional development programme.

6.6 Study limitations

This study was affected by different limitations, which can be explained as follows. First, the research was limited to female headteachers in primary schools in one city, Riyadh. Second, data collection for this study took place at the end of the second semester of 2014-2015, when the female headteachers were busy with the school examination period. Therefore, the responses of the female headteachers reflect this busy time. Third, the opinions of the female headteachers who took part in this study were influenced by culture in the Saudi context. Finally, the female headteachers' qualifications and experience imposed a limitation on this study. Most of the female headteachers held a bachelor's degree and diploma. Also, many lacked experience in managing their schools because they had not been well prepared for this position. Nevertheless, female headteachers had no experience of participating in a professional development programme, due to the fact that the Saudi Ministry of Education does not provide such a programme.

6.7 Recommendations

The findings of this study demonstrate that female headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh were not satisfied with their current situation and, therefore, the following recommendations can be made:

- It is important to establish a professional development programme designed specifically for female headteachers in primary schools.
- Using external experts may benefit the design of a professional development programme and prepare qualified trainers to establish such a programme. The literature demonstrates examples of Gulf countries, such as the UAE, which have benefited from consulting external experts.
- When designing a professional development programme for female headteachers, it is important to consider their professional needs.
- It is important to take into account the cultural aspect in designing a professional development programme for female headteachers, because females in Saudi Arabia are affected by culture, which places limitations on their social lives and careers.
- It is important to choose appropriate times to conduct a professional development programme to avoid disrupting female headteachers' school work.
- It is vital that a professional development programme takes place in a well-qualified training centre in order to achieve the aims of the programme.
- The programme should be located at a convenient venue in order to encourage female headteachers to attend.
- Regular meetings for female headteachers should be established in order to benefit from other female headteachers' experiences.
- Mentoring female headteachers could be of benefit in helping them gain knowledge and new skills to help manage their schools.
- There is a professional development programme for Saudi male headteachers. The Ministry of Education could adapt this programme and apply it to the training of female headteachers.

6.8 Suggestions for further study

The findings from this study demonstrate that there is a need to improve the performance of female headteachers in Saudi Arabia, which could be achieved by establishing a professional development programme for them. Globally, professional development programmes are recognized as achieving improvements in headteachers' performance in their schools. However, in the Saudi context, there are various cultural aspects which act as barriers and can affect the development of female headteachers.

The aim of the following suggestions is to identify an appropriate method for female headteachers' professional development, which could in turn lead to positive school outcomes. Therefore, recommendations for further study are listed as follows:

- It is recommended to apply this study to different areas of Saudi Arabia.
- Distinguish the cultural aspects of different areas in Saudi Arabia that may influence female headteachers.
- Identify the professional needs of female headteachers in order to obtain a clear idea of how to design a professional development programme.
- Discover what could motivate female headteachers to attend a professional development programme.
- Explore other Gulf countries which have benefited from external expertise in establishing professional development programmes for headteachers, in order to design a similar programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia.

6.9 Conclusion

I believe that the questions in this study have been answered and produced a new perspective regarding female headteacher professional development education in Saudi Arabia. In addition, this information will help future researchers in addressing female headteachers' professional development in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia has invested greatly in improving the education system of the country since King Abdullah became ruler in 2005. Since then, the number of higher education institutions has increased to 52 universities and colleges. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia has also changed the education policy and curriculum, so that these will be compatible with the developments occurring around the world. King Abdullah had an interest in female education in Saudi Arabia. He established a scholarship programme in 2005 with the intention of improving education by sending students abroad to study. After King Abdullah passed away in 2015, Prince Salman became King of Saudi Arabia. However, I believe that there is still neglect from the country towards female education. Males in Saudi Arabia have a better curriculum than females, as they are provided with subjects such as computer science and physical education. Females in Saudi Arabia are also severely restricted by a culture that is controlled by male influence. The Ministry of Education has designed a professional development programme for male headteachers alone, but did not consider including female

headteachers. I believe that female headteachers have the right to develop themselves equally to male headteachers and, therefore, the Ministry of Education should pay attention to female headteachers' professional development. Islam has always encouraged females to learn and work, and has never prohibited their freedom.

King Salman shared the same ambition as King Abdullah, and has continued to sponsor scholarships for students abroad. Moreover, King Salman's son, Deputy Crown Prince Mohammed bin Salman, has established the Saudi Vision 2030, which is aimed at improving Saudi Arabia. The Saudi Vision 2030 includes reform of the education system. Significantly, the Deputy Crown Prince has highlighted deficiencies in the education system, which ill prepares graduates for productive employment, particularly in the private sector, in which skills shortages have led to expatriates' employment. A new curriculum is planned that presumably seeks to redress the balance between religious teaching and the needs of a modern economy (Forbes Middle East, 2016).

This vision considers the importance of education for both males and females. Therefore, I believe that Prince Mohammed shares in the hopes of the younger generation for an improved future for Saudi Arabia. This vision will give the country a new perspective on the reform of education that I believe will offer equal opportunities for females and males. Gulf countries in the Middle East that share the same culture and beliefs as Saudi Arabia demonstrate higher educational attainment. They have invested in improving their education systems to achieve educational outcomes that will produce a well-educated generation and benefit their country. With regard to Saudi Arabia, there is still a lack of attention on the education system from the government, regardless of the size of the budget spent on education, which is clearly demonstrated in the kingdom's very low educational attainment ranking as shown in Table 72. Therefore, the Saudi government needs to focus on improving the education system in order to follow other Gulf countries' educational development. However, if the Saudi government disregards this problem, it will result in frustration among female headteachers that may negatively affect their staff and school outcomes. The government also needs to give women more freedom and reduce the restrictions on their daily lives, such as the need to obtain permission from a male guardian permission to travel. Furthermore, Saudi females should have the same educational opportunities as males by being provided with the same curriculum and subjects.

Female professionals should have the same career development opportunities as men, and this should include female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. If the Saudi government does not apply these changes, the kingdom will fall further behind its neighbouring countries, which will affect other aspects of the country, such as the economy.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Research consent in English

Benchmarking best practice - preparing primary school principals for staff management: female headteachers in Saudi girls' schools.

My name is Ashwaq Alotaibi. I am a doctoral student at the University of Lincoln in the United Kingdom. I would like to invite you to participate in my research. This pamphlet explains my research so that you can decide if you would like to participate. My research is about the professional development of female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The research will explore professional development programmes in order to design an appropriate professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The research is designed to answer the following questions:

- How should professional development be provided to female primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
- What are the professional development needs of female primary school headteachers?
- What role could be played by professional development for female primary school headteachers in promoting education quality in Saudi Arabia?

The aim of the research is to find an appropriate professional development programme for female headteachers that is culturally suitable. Female headteachers are invited to participate in this research. The headteachers who are invited to participate in this research are from primary schools because primary school is the basis of the public education system and its leadership quality is vital. The researcher will use two methods to collect data for this research: interviews and a survey. Moreover, 100 participants will be asked to participate in a survey. The survey will include general questions about participants at the beginning, then include specific questions about professional development, such as what type of professional development did you receive? However, participants have the right to withdraw from the research at any time before the publication of the research. Moreover, participants will not be forced to answer any questions they do not like, and the data from the participants will be

confidential. This research will help to develop an appropriate professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia. The contributions participants make to this research will also help in the design of a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia based on their needs.

Signature/verbal consent _____

Date _____

Name _____

Email/contact _____

For more information, you can contact:

Ashwaq Alotaibi

Mobile: 0555372023

Email: 12296827@students.lincoln.ac.uk

Appendix 2: Research consent in Arabic

تهيئة مدرء المدارس لأداره الطاقم المدرسي :مدرء مدارس البنات في السعوديه

- انا اشواق العتيبي طالبة دكتوراه في جامعه لندن في بريطانيا. ارجب بدعوتكم للمشاركة في بحثي.
- هذا الخطاب يوضح معلومات عن البحث وذلك لمساعدتك في المشاركة في البحث. موضوع البحث هو عن التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية في المملكة العربية السعودية. سيقوم البحث باكتشاف برامج التطوير المهني وذلك لتصميم برنامج تطوير مهني مناسب لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية. صمم هذا البحث للاجابة عن الاسئلة التالية :
- ١- هل من الممكن تصميم برنامج تطوير مهني مناسب لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية بناء على التجارب العالمية؟
- ٢- ما هي المواد في برامج التطوير المهني الاخرى التي يمكن اضافتها في برنامج التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية؟
- ٣- ما هي المواد الغير متواجدة في برامج التطوير المهني الاخرى والتي يحتاج تواجدها في تصميم برنامج التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية؟
- ٤- ما هي المعوقات التي من الممكن ان تعيق تطبيق برنامج التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية؟

الهدف من البحث هو ايجاد برنامج تطوير مهني مناسب لمديرات المدارس. الفئة المستهدفة هي مديرات المدارس الابتدائية. الطريقة المستخدمة لجمع معلومات البحث هي الاستبيان. هذا البحث يتطلب مشاركة ١٠٠ مديره مدرسه. يتضمن الاستبيان اسئلة عامه عن المشارك في البحث في البداية ثم يتضمن بعد ذلك على اسئلة عن التطوير المهني مثال على ذلك ما هو نوع التطوير المهني الذي حصلت عليه؟ المشاركون في هذا البحث لديهم الحق بالانسحاب من المشاركة في البحث في اي وقت قبل نشر البحث. المشاركون في هذا البحث لن يتم اجبارهم على اجابه اي سؤال في الاستبيان و معلومات المشاركين في البحث سيتم حفظها بسريه تامة. هذا البحث سوف يساعد في تصميم برنامج تطوير مهني مناسب لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية.

التوقيع/ اقرار لفظي

التاريخ

الاسم

البريد الإلكتروني/ عنوان الاتصال

لمزيد من المعلومات يمكنك التواصل مع:

أشواق العتيبي

جوال: ٠٥٥٣٧٢٠٢٣

بريد الكتروني: 12296827@students.lincoln.ac.uk



Appendix 3: Research questionnaire in English

Section 1: Personal profile

Please tick ☒ the appropriate answer:

What are your academic qualifications?

Diploma ☐

Bachelor ☐

Master ☐

PhD ☐

Have you undertaken any professional development programme?

Yes ☐ (If yes please go to question 4)

No ☐ (If no please go to section 2)

If yes, how many professional development programmes have you taken?

.....

How long were the professional development programmes?

Programme one

Programme two

Programme three

Programme four

Programme five

Where did you undertake the professional development programme? (Please state the institute and country if it is obtained outside Saudi Arabia)

Programme one

Programme two

Programme three

Programme four

Programme five

What were the professional development programmes about?

Programme one

Programme two

Programme three

Programme four

Programme five

Section 2: Your opinions on participating in a professional development programme

7. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements regarding participating in professional development programmes in Saudi Arabia, by putting a tick in one of the boxes for each statement.

Statement	Agree Strongly	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
1- A professional development programme would help develop my leadership skills.					
2- A professional development programme would help improve my management of the school.					
3- My communication skills with school staff would be strengthened by a professional development programme.					
4- My communication skills with students would improve following a professional development programme.					
5- I could use a professional development programme to expand my communication skills with parents.					
6- A professional development programme would assist me in school development.					
7- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on the quality of my leadership as a headteacher.					
8- My performance as a headteacher would be improved by a professional development programme.					
9- School outcomes could be advanced if I as a headteacher follow a professional development programme.					

10- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher in managing a school's financial resources in a better way.					
11- A professional development programme based on my training needs as a headteacher would be effective.					
12- A professional development programme will suit me as a headteacher, regardless of my training needs.					
13- A professional development programme would have a positive effect on my decision making as a headteacher.					
14- I as a headteacher could use a professional development programme to expand my knowledge.					
15- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to carry out my roles effectively.					
16- I as a headteacher would be better prepared for my management roles with a professional development programme.					
17- A professional development programme would help me as a headteacher to understand my own strengths and areas of improvement with regard to school management and leadership.					

Section 3: Your opinion about the appropriate content of a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia

8. Please indicate how important the following elements are for a professional development programme for female headteachers in Saudi Arabia by putting a tick in one of the boxes for each statement. (Which range from 1=very important to 5=not important at all)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1- School management (staff, students, parents, and the wider community)					
2- School leadership (leadership skills)					
3- Managing school finance and resources					
4- Communication skills					
5- Decision making					
6- External relationships with parents, education authorities and special interest groups.					
7- School development					

8- Quality and evaluation					
9- Conflict management					
10- Leadership development					
11- Mentoring other staff					
12- Politics and policy					
13- School climate and culture					
14- Curriculum development					
15- Facilities management					

16- Planning					
17- ICT and Learning					
18- Marketing and strategic choice					
19- Evaluation					
20- Psychology					

9- What other aspects of the headteacher's role, which are not mentioned above, do you think should be included in a professional development programme? (please write your answer below and give your reasons)

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10- In your opinion, where should professional development programmes be pointed? (Please give your reasons)

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11- In your opinion, how long should a professional development programme take? (Please give your reasons)

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12- In your opinion, when should a professional development programme take place? (for example in-service or out-service, please write your answer below and give your reasons)

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

13- In your opinion, should a professional development programme be certificated?

Yes ☐

No ☐

14- Would you like to mention anything else related to headteachers' professional development?

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

In the second stage of the research I will interview female primary headteachers to get more information about professional development programme in Saudi Arabia, if you would like to be interviewed please contact me on the following information:

Mobile number: 0555372023

Email: 12296827@students.lincoln.ac.uk

Thank you for your participation

القسم الاول : المعلومات الشخصية

ارجو وضع علامة [X] بجانب الاجابة المناسبة :

١ . ما هي مؤهلاتك العلمية :

☐ دبلوم
☐ بكالوريوس
☐ ماجستير
☐ دكتوراه

٢ . هل حصلت على اي برنامج تطوير مهني؟
☐ نعم
☐ لا (اذا كانت الاجابه لا ارجو الانتقال للقسم الثاني)

٣ . اذا كانت الاجابه نعم، كم عدد برامج التطوير المهني التي حصلت عليها؟
(الرجاء كتابه عدد البرامج التي حصلت عليها في السطر التالي)

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٤ . ما هي المدة التي استغرقها برنامج التطوير المهني؟
(الرجاء كتابه مده البرنامج ب اليوم / الاسبوع / الشهر)
• البرنامج الاول
• البرنامج الثاني
• البرنامج الثالث
• البرنامج الرابع
• البرنامج الخامس

٥ . من اين حصلت على برنامج التطوير المهني؟
(الرجاء ذكر المعهد، والبلد اذا تم الحصول على البرنامج من خارج المملكة العربية السعودية)
• البرنامج الاول
• البرنامج الثاني
• البرنامج الثالث
• البرنامج الرابع
• البرنامج الخامس

٦ . ماهو موضوع برنامج التطوير المهني؟
(الرجاء كتابه وصف مختصر عن البرنامج)
• البرنامج الاول
• البرنامج الثاني

1

• البرنامج الثالث

• البرنامج الرابع

• البرنامج الخامس

القسم الثاني : رأيك بالمشاركة في برنامج التطوير المهني

7.الرجاء ذكر مدى اقرارك مع العبارات التالية المتعلقة بمشاركتك في برنامج تطوير مهني في المملكة العربية السعودية مستقبلا وذلك بوضع علامة بجانب كل عبارة.

العبارة	موافق بشدة	موافق	غير متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
1-برنامج التطوير المهني ممكن ان يساعد في تطوير مهاراتي القيادية					
2-برنامج التطوير المهني ممكن ان يساعد في تطوير ادارتي للمدرسة					
3-مهاراتي في التواصل مع الطاقم المدرسي قد تكون اقوى من خلال برنامج التطوير المهني					
4-مهاراتي في التواصل مع الطالبات قد تكون افضل من خلال برنامج التطوير المهني					
5-برنامج التطوير المهني يساعدني في زيادة كفاءة مهارات التواصل مع اولياء أمور الطالبات					
6-برنامج التطوير المهني يساعدني في تطوير المدرسة					
7-برنامج التطوير المهني له تأثير ايجابي في جوده قياده مدريره					
8-ادائي كمديره مدرسه سيتطور من خلال برنامج التطوير المهني					
9-مخرجات المدرسة ستكون افضل من خلال مشاركتي كمديره مدرسه في برنامج التطوير المهني					
10-برنامج التطوير المهني يساعد مديره المدرسه في اداره موارد المدرسه الماليه بطريقه افضل					
11-برنامج التطوير المهني المصمم بناء على احتياجات مديره المدرسه التدريبيه يكون فعال					
12-اي برنامج تطوير مهني سيكون مناسب لي كمديره مدرسه بغض النظر عن احتياجاتي التدريبيه					



13-برنامج التطوير المهني له تأثير ايجابي في اتخاذ القرارات لمديره المدرسه					
14-انا كمديره مدرسه قد اشارك في برنامج التطوير المهني لزيادة خبراتي المعرفيه					
15-برنامج التطوير المهني يساعدني كمديره مدرسه في اداء مهامه الاداريه بكفاءة					
16-برنامج التطوير المهني يقوم بتهيئتي كمديره مدرسه لأداء مهامه الاداريه					
17-برنامج التطوير المهني يساعدني كمديره مدرسه على فهم وإدراك نقاط الضعف والقوه المرتبطة بالقيادة وإداره المدرسه					

القسم الثالث : رأيك في العناصر المناسبة عند تصميم برنامج تطوير مهني لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية

8-الرجاء ذكر ما هي اهميه العناصر التاليه في تكوين برنامج تطوير مهني لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية وذلك بوضع علامة بجانب كل عنصر (حيث ان التقييم يبدأ من 1=مهم جدا الى 5=غير مهم)

العبارة	1	2	3	4	5
1-اداره المدرسه (الطاقم المدرسي ، الطالبات ، أولياء الامور،المجتمع)					
2-القيادة المدرسيه (مهارات القيادة)					
3-اداره الموارد الماليه المدرسيه					
4-مهارات التواصل					
5-اتخاذ القرارات					
6-العلاقات الخارجيه للمدرسه مع اولياء الامور ، الادارات التعليميه والمجموعات الخاصه التعليميه					
7-التطوير المدرسي					



8-الجوده والتقييم

9-اداره الأزمات والصعوبات

10-التطوير القيادي

11-الإشراف على الطاقم المدرسي					
12-السياسات التعليمية والسياسة					
13-البيئة المدرسية					
14-تطوير المناهج					
15-إداره المرافق المدرسيه					
16-التخطيط					
17-التكنولوجيا ونظم المعلومات					
18-التفكير الاستراتيجي والتسويق					
19-التقييم					
20-علم النفس					

9- ما هي العناصر الأخرى الغير مذكورة سابقا ، في رأيك يجب اضافتها في برنامج التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس في المملكة العربية السعودية (الرجاء كتابه الاجابه مع ذكر الأسباب)

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10- في رأيك ، أين يجب أن يقام برنامج التطوير المهني ؟ (مثال : في المدرسه أو مكان آخر)

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11- ما هي المدة من المقترض أن يستغرقها برنامج التطوير المهني ؟ (الرجاء ذكر الأسباب)

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12- في رأيك ، متى يجب أن يقام برنامج التطوير المهني؟ (مثال : أثناء ساعات العمل أو خارج ساعات العمل مع ذكر الأسباب)

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13- في رأيك ، هل يجب أن يحصل المشاركون في برنامج التطوير المهني على شهادة؟

☐ نعم
☐ لا

14- هل لديك أي تعليقات أو إضافات أخرى مرتبطه ببرنامج التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس

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في المرحله الثانيه للبحث سأقوم بعمل مقابلات مع مديرات المدارس الابتدائية وذلك لجمع المعلومات عن برنامج التطوير المهني. اذا كانت لديك الرغبة بالمشاركة في المقابلات أرجو التواصل مع العنوانين التاليه:
جوال : ٥٥٥٣٧٢٠٢٣
البريد الالكتروني: 12296827@students.lincoln.ac.uk

شكرا لمشاركتكم



Appendix 5: Interview questions in English

Interview Questions

1. In your opinion, what would be the likely positive and negative effects of implementing a professional development programme for primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
2. In your opinion, in what ways and how, do you think that a professional development programme could improve your performance as a headteacher? (please explain why)
3. In your opinion, what elements should be included in a professional development programme, to make it suitable for primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia?
4. In your, opinion, where should a professional development programme be provided? (Please give your reasons)
5. In your opinion, how long (days/weeks), and why, do you feel should a professional development programme take? (Please give reasons)
6. In your opinion, when, during someone's career as a teacher, should they attend a professional development programme? (Please give your reasons)
7. In your opinion, what barriers could help or hinder the implementation of a professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia? (Please give your reasons)
8. Are there any other comments that you might wish to make about the possible provision of a professional development programme for female primary headteachers in Saudi Arabia?

Appendix 6: Interview questions in Arabic

اسئلة المقابلة


١. في رأيك ، ما هي التأثيرات الايجابية و السلبية التي ممكن ان تحصل عند تطبيق برنامج تطوير مهني لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية في المملكة العربية السعودية؟
٢. في رأيك ، كيف من الممكن ان يقوم برنامج التطوير المهني بتطوير اداء المديرات (ارجو ذكر الاسباب)
٣. في رأيك ، ما هي العناصر التي يجب اضافتها عند تصميم برنامج تطوير مهني بحيث يكون مناسب لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية في المملكة العربية السعودية ؟
٤. باعتقادك ، اين يجب وضع برنامج التطوير المهني ؟ (الرجاء توضيح الاسباب)
٥. باعتقادك ، ما هي المدة (ايام/ اسابيع) التي يستغرقها برنامج التطوير المهني ، ولماذا ؟ (الرجاء توضيح الاسباب)
٦. باعتقادك ، من خلال مهنتك كمعلمة ، متى يجب الحضور لبرنامج التطوير المهني ؟ (الرجاء توضيح الاسباب)
٧. باعتقادك ما هي العقبات التي تعيق وضع برنامج تطوير مهني لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية للبنات في المملكة العربية السعودية؟ (الرجاء توضيح الاسباب)
٨. هل هناك اية تعليقات تودين اضافتها حول امكانية تزويد برنامج تطوير مهني لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية للبنات في المملكة العربية السعودية ؟



Appendix 7: Permission from the Saudi Ministry of Education

الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض
General Administration of Education in Riyadh

الرقم: ٣٥١١٨٩٧٨١
التاريخ: ١٤٣٥/٠٦/٢١
المرفقات: -



وزارة التربية والتعليم
Ministry of Education

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التربية والتعليم
٢٨٠
الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض
إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

تسهيل مهمة بحث

UNIVERSITY OF LINCOLN / اشواق فالح عيد العتيبي	اسم الباحثة / الجامعة
متطلب للحصول على درجة / الدكتوراه .	الغرض من الدراسة
التطوير المهني لمديرات المدارس الابتدائية في المملكة العربية السعودية	عنوان الدراسة
مديرات المدارس الابتدائية بمدينة الرياض.	عينة الدراسة
تأمين الباحثة من إجراء مقابلة مع العينة. استيفاء الاداة من عينة البحث المحددة.	نوع التسهيل

المكرمة / مديرة المدرسة الابتدائية


حفظها الله

ويعد “ السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

بناءً على تعميم معالي وزير التربية والتعليم رقم ٥٥/٦١٠ وتاريخ ١٤١٦/٩/١٧هـ بشأن تفويض الإدارات العامة للتربية والتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح للباحثين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات ، وبناءً على تفويض مدير عام إدارة التربية والتعليم إدارة التخطيط والتطوير في الخطاب ذي الرقم ١١/٣٣٦٧٤٨٢٣ والتاريخ ١٤٣٣/٤/١٤هـ بشأن تسهيل مهام الباحثين والباحثات ، وحيث تقدمت إلينا الباحثة (الموضحة بياناتها أعلاه) بطلب إجراء الدراسة ، نأمل تسهيل مهمتها ، مع ملاحظة أن الباحثة تتحمل كامل المسؤولية المتعلقة في توزيع الأدوات واستلامها من عينة البحث بعد استيفائها، ولا يعني سماح الإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم موافقتها بالضرورة على مشكلة البحث أو على الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراستها ومعالجتها.

شاكرين طيب تعاونكم .

٦/٢١
مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير
لعمه بدره الحبيب
سعود بن راشد آل عبد اللطيف



ص / لكل مكتب تربية وتعليم .
ص / قسم الدراسات والبحوث .

نموذج (٥/٣)

البريد الإلكتروني: planingm@rge.gov.sa / al-takhteet@hotmail.com هاتف ٤٠٢٠١٣٨ - فاكس ٤٠٢٧٠٥٨ - ستارل ٤٠٥٥٩٥٠ تحويلة ١٤٠٤



"إفادة"

الموضوع: انتهاء مهمة أدائية بحثية .

اسم الباحث	أشواق فالح عيد العتيبي .
الكلية / الجامعة	University of Lincoln .
الغرض من الدراسة	متطلب للحصول على شهادة / الدكتوراه .
مجال الدراسة والعينة	مديرات مدارس ابتدائية تابعة للإدارة العامة للتربية والتعليم بمنطقة الرياض

حفظه الله

إلى سعادة الملحق الثقافي السعودي / لندن

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد ...

بناءً على تعميم معالي وزير التربية والتعليم رقم ٥٥/٦١٠ وتاريخ ١٤١٦/٩/١٧هـ بشأن تفويض الإدارات العامة للتربية والتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح للباحثين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات وتسهيل مهامهم ، وحيث تقدمت إلينا الباحثة (الموضحة بياناتها أعلاه) بطلب إجراء دراستها والتي بدأت من تاريخ رفع خطاب تسهيل المهمة من إدارة التخطيط والتطوير وحتى ١٤٣٥/٨/٢٠هـ ، وعليه نفيدكم أن الباحثة قد أنهت كافة إجراءات الدراسة وتطبيق الأدوات في مجال البحث على العينة المحددة أعلاه ، التابعه لإدارة التربية والتعليم في منطقة الرياض التعليمية ، وبناءً على طلبية تم منحه الإفادة تجدون برفقه مشاهد الحضور وانتهاء المهمة الأدائية للدراسة .

شاكرين طيب تعاونكم .

مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

لسته بيرية المحسن ١٠١٤٤

سعود بن راشد آل عبد اللطيف



١٤٤٤

نموذج (٢/٦)

ص / قسم الدراسات والبحوث.