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The leadership style of headteachers and its relationship with primary school pupils' achievement in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

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The leadership style of headteachers and its relationship with primary school pupils' achievement in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

by

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Abstract

This study utilised a descriptive research methodology to determine the leadership styles of primary school headteachers in Riyadh City and their relationship with pupils' achievement.

Following a review of the literature, questions were generated as follows:

1. Is there a relationship between the number of years of experience of the headteacher and his educational level (qualification of the headteacher)?

2. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification of the headteacher) and school size (number of pupils in school)?

3. Is there a relationship between school size and experience of the headteacher?

4. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and the achievement of pupils?

5. Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and the achievement of the pupils?

6. Is there a relationship between school size (number of pupils in school) and pupil achievement?

7. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

8. Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and his style in leading the school?

9. Is there a relationship between the school size and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

10. Is there a relationship between the achievement of the pupils and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

Pfeiffer and Jones' (1972) adaptation of the Leader Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used. The findings of the study revealed three administrative styles: Spokesman and Manager, Striving for Achievement and Professionalism, and Autocratic. These three styles are predominant in primary schools in Riyadh. They do not have a link with pupil achievement, but there was a relationship between the qualification of the headteacher and the achievement of pupils and also the experience of the headteacher and pupil achievement. No evidence was found to suggest that any other relationships existed. The study supports the need for qualifications and experience and other general criteria to be taken into consideration when selecting school headteachers, and formal training to be given prior to becoming primary school headteachers.

With all this in mind, it should be noted that in measuring pupil achievement, we cannot take the headteacher's leadership style for granted.

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Abbreviations

EPL   – Educational Professional Leadership

GAGE   – General Administration of Girls' Education

LBDQ   – Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire

Statement of Copyright

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without his prior written consent, and information derived from it should be acknowledged.

Declaration

This thesis results entirely from my own work. None of the material offered in this thesis has previously been offered in any other degree.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to:

1. The memory of may late father and my beloved mother.

2. The people of Saudi Arabia involved in educational development.

3. The Palestinian people who struggle to liberate their land.

4. The Lebanese resistance in Southern Lebanon.

5. The people of Iraq and the Sudan.

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Introduction

This thesis argues that in measuring pupils' achievement we cannot take the leadership role, in particular that of headteachers, for granted. In a sense, the thesis considers that the quality of leadership of the headteacher is central in fulfilment of the requirement for positive pupil achievement. If we look at the literature on pupils' achievement, we can better appreciate that it involves a number of school-related issues (Johnson and Synder, 1986), of which leadership style of the headteacher is but a part. As such, the thesis argues that although measuring pupils' achievement is so complex that a variety of factors may be influential and, however, should be brought to mind if we are interested in understanding the real problems of pupils' achievement. The point I wish to make about the effect on pupils' achievement of the headteacher's leadership style is derived from this general idea. Thus, we will note here that there are few studies which involve the effect of the headteachers' leadership style in the measurement of pupils' achievement in Saudi Arabia. To stress, the present researcher considers that what headteachers do in school may have an effect on pupils' achievement in Saudi Arabia, and attempts to make a systematic analysis of this connection.

To explore this connection, the following research questions were generated from a review of the literature:

1. Is there a relationship between the number of years of experience of the headteacher and his educational level (qualification of the headteacher)?

2. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification of the headteacher) and school size (number of pupils in school)?

3. Is there a relationship between school size and experience of the headteacher?

4. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and the achievement of pupils?

5. Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and the achievement of the pupils?

6. Is there a relationship between school size (number of pupils in school) and pupil achievement?

7. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

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9. Is there a relationship between the school size and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

10. Is there a relationship between the achievement of the pupils and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

Significance of the study

1. The present study presented information that no one has as yet addressed systematically in Saudi Arabia: that is to say understanding the association between headteacher leadership style and pupil achievement in the primary school in Saudi Arabia.

2. This study has brought all relevant documents together which no one else has done before: that is the comprehensive review of the documents from the Government.

3. It used Pfeiffer and Jones' (1972) adaptation of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) for field analysis which no one has as yet used in Riyadh City with male headteachers.

Means of the study

1. A discussion of relevant documents.

2. A discussion of relevant studies.

3. A discussion on research methodology.

4. Carry out a field study.

5. A discussion of the findings and previous studies.

6. Conclusions drawn based on both the findings and previous studies.

The structure and scope of the study

The study consists of eight chapters which mainly cover the most serious aspects of the current problems and the relevant knowledge about them, methods of solving them in other parts of the world, and then an empirical study of leadership style of the headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools with recommendations for policy and future research.

Chapter one describes the cultural background and educational system and the problems facing the education system in Saudi Arabia. It also examines the concept of education in relation to the culture of the people of Saudi Arabia; and the Islamic traditions.

Chapter two is principally concerned with the concept of the leadership organisation of the school and the headteacher's style of behaviour as related to his effect on pupils' achievement based on the literature. The aim of this chapter is to explore other current issues and knowledge. In fact, chapter two presents the views of a number of researchers and writers on the administration of education and leadership in school, in relation to pupils' achievement.

Chapter three deals with the design of research and methodologies used to conduct the empirical aspect of the study, and a brief note is given on matters arising from major viewpoints identified in the literature review. In the chapter, more emphasis is placed on research methodology. The following concepts are given special attention: the methodological approach, description of the research sample, selection of the sample, the data gathering processes with reference to the questionnaire, the preliminary study. It also considers the factors involved in the process of research design and circumstances under which field work was conducted.

Chapter four presents the data obtained in this study relating to the relationship between headteacher biographical variables, school size and pupil achievement.

Chapter 5 deals with statistical analysis of the headteachers' responses to the questionnaire and also considers the validity and reliability of the questionnaire in investigating types of leadership style adopted by primary school headteachers in Riyadh City.

Chapter 6 uses factors derived from principal components analysis of the LBDQ as sub-scales to elicit the relationship between the headteachers' leadership style and pupils' achievement.

Chapter 7 is concerned with discussion and the interpretation of the results. The interpretations are justified and given detailed explanation.

The final chapter (Chapter 8) deals with a brief conclusion and summary of the study as a whole, as well as implications. The implications are subdivided into two categories: the first deals with the practical issues of leadership, particularly in schools; the second is addressed to other researchers in the field of education administration in Saudi Schools.

Chapter One

The Background of Culture and Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

1.1 Introduction

The main purpose of a school is to provide effective education for all the registered pupils. However, schools operate within an administrative context which includes such activities as policy- making, organisation, communication, co-ordination and evaluation.

As Johnson and Snyder (1986) state:

> "A picture of an effective school is beginning to emerge. The analysis of instructional leadership tasks verifies that school planning in successful schools generally is collaborative in nature and includes setting school improvement goals that relate to instruction, assigning goal tasks to teams who plan and carry out their plans collectively and holding individual teachers accountable for their role in the school's success through planned and assessed performance. "(p.242)

Headteachers whose main concern is dramatic productions, or who fail to take a comprehensive view of the life of a school, create major problems in the school's effective operation.

Schools are seeking a leader who can envisage solutions to problems and assist others in reaching the goals of the school. Leadership is described as one of the major responsibilities of school officials. The fundamental problem of leadership style is that of discovering its nature.

Southworth (1990) outlines the problem:

> "The head is always, in law as well as in fact, responsible for the situations in his or her school. Successful heads have interpreted these powers and duties wisely. They have not been authoritarian, consultative or participative as a matter of principle, they have been all those at different times as the conditions seem to warrant, though most often participative.

Their success has often come from choosing well, for knowing when to take the lead and when to conform to leadership offered by their colleagues. They do not excuse poor practice in their school on the grounds that someone else suggested it, or that they delegated the decision to others. "(p.5)

There have been problems, however, associated with the effects of the principle of instructional leadership behaviour of the headteacher on the school processes and results such as student achievement. Another problem in relation to this has been the ambiguous nature of the headteacher's role, particularly with regard to instructional leadership.

Heck (1990) et al reveals the problems with regard to leadership:

"Strong principal instructional leadership has been shown to be correlated with school effectiveness (Andrew & Soder 1987, Bossert at al 1982; Hallinger & Murphy 1986). Although several theoretical models about how principal instruction behaviour affects school processes have been constructed, researchers are still not sure whether the association between effective principal instructional leadership and student achievement reflect a cause and effect or coincidental relationship. "(p.94)

How do leaders succeed? Leadership is necessary for the school system to carry out a successful educational programme and merits serious attention, as does a leader's behaviour among individuals and groups which causes both to reach educational goals.

Marks and others (1978) argue:

"With this concept of educational leadership, it is the responsibility of the local school system to perform various leadership tasks.

1. *The superintendent and supervising principal must inform the community as to the needs, and purposes, of the school.*

2. *The community needs help in defining its educational goals. This help should come from the supervising principal.*

3. *The role of educational leadership is to facilitate instruction, so that teaching and learning become more effective and efficient.*

4. *Leadership, if it is truly democratic, helps to create growth and to stimulate the development of new leadership. "(p.94)*

If we look at the leadership styles in Saudi Arabian schools, and how they affect student learning, it may be helpful in explaining the reasons for the success or failure of schools. The relationship between a headteacher and his colleagues and his effectiveness is reflected in the activities and methods used by the teachers which, in turn, is reflected in the performances of the students in their examinations. Headteachers have a great responsibility towards their schools. Do they fulfil their roles effectively? Do they undertake staff development to improve their performance?

1.2 The Problems Explored in this Study:

The problems explored in the study are four-fold:

1. What kind of leadership styles are adopted by school headteachers and what is their relationship with student achievement?

2. What relationship does professional education have with student achievement?

3. What relationship does the size of the school, namely the number of students, have with student achievement?

4. What relationship does the greater experience of headteachers have with student achievement?

1.2.1 The Purpose of the Study:

It is the assumption of the writer that the research findings on leadership style provide the most valid evidence in determining the theory and practice of leadership style in education. The primary purpose of this study is to test the styles of management and leadership at elementary schools in Riyadh City in Saudi Arabia. I will indicate patterns in leadership style in education. A synthesis of leadership research in education is needed to discover the status of leadership style in the field of education. There are implications for leadership style in education which are arrived at from leadership research.

1.2.2 Research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the number of years of experience of the headteacher and his educational level (qualification of the headteacher)?

2. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification of the headteacher) and school size (number of pupils in school)?

3. Is there a relationship between school size and experience of the headteacher?

4. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and the achievement of pupils?

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7. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

8. Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and his style in leading the school?

9. Is there a relationship between the school size and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

10. Is there a relationship between the achievement of the pupils and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

1.2.3 Procedures and Sources of Data:

The research procedure used for this study was survey and analysis. The literature relating to leadership style research was surveyed to discover the nature of leadership styles. A survey was then planned and the research data resulting from it was analysed.

The data produced a list of the common properties of leadership style and this was then used to provide a statement of the conception of leadership style. An investigation was also made into additional literature which yielded various approaches and procedures in leadership style within education. The criterion for this investigation was the concept of leadership style. The implications of the leadership style for the education of school pupils were also formulated from approaches and practices used in education, as well as from the examination results. This study utilised the literature on the subject of leadership style in education as set out in the second chapter.

1.2.4 Limitations of the Study:

The study groups are taken from the principals (headteachers) of public elementary schools in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, who have held headships for more than one year. The number of schools taking part in the study was ninety-two. The results of students' examinations in the fifth level were also used.

1.3 The Problem in a Cultural Context:

Before examining the influence of leadership styles on student achievement in elementary schools in Riyadh City, it is necessary to examine the cultural context in which education and school administration takes place.

This chapter will identify current problems relating to the educational system in Saudi Arabia by looking at their historical context. It is extremely difficult to find people who are willing to discuss the existing educational situation in Saudi, and the few articles that have been published on the subject are written in English.

In the south western part of Asia lies the Arabian Peninsula, now called Saudi Arabia. The Arabian Peninsula is approximately one third the size of the United States. Saudi Arabia occupies about four fifths of this peninsula. It was established under the leadership of King Abd Al-Aziz Al-Saud in 1926. It is about 870,000 square miles (Walpole et al., 1971, p.102).

1.3.1 The Origins of the Arabian Peninsula:

For at least 3,000 years the Arabian Peninsula has been inhabited by semitic speaking people. Arabia was earlier inhabited by nomadic semitic tribes who developed ways of life, suitable for living in a desert, which are now being modified. The Arabian people are proud of their descent from the original inhabitants of the peninsula and of being the propagators of the Arabic language and Islam (Walpole et al., 1971, p.80).

The Arabs were originally descended from two tribes, the northern and the southern. The southerners were supposedly descended from Himyar, son of Quhtan, and are generally agreed to be the true Arabs, whereas the northerners were supposedly descended from Abraham (peace be to him) the prophet, through his son, Ishmael, and his descendant, Adnan.

There was significant rivalry between members of the two groups in early Islamic times, but this is of little consequence today except on the southern fringes of the country where different tribes do not become allies unless they are from the same group. The southerners have maintained a reputation of being pure and of being the originators of the First Kingdom of the Arabian Peninsula, but the northerners acquired prestige through one of their tribes, the Qurayah, who rule Makkah (holy place) and the tribe into which the prophet Mohammed was born. This is a brief summary about the roots of the Arabian people (Walpole et al., 1971).

The population of Saudi Arabia is now virtually all Muslim, speaking Arabic, the semitic language of the Peninsula inhabitants and the one in which the holy books of Islam are recorded. Relative physical homogeneity has resulted from the absence of large scale immigration into the area (Walpole et al., 1971, p.103).

1.3.2 Religion

Islam is the religion of all permanent residents of the country. It is a pervasive influence in the lives of its adherents, the fundamental motivating force in most phases of their culture.

Islam in Saudi Arabia is strengthened by the country's association with the personality and life of the prophet Mohammed (peace be to him), the presence of the holy cities of Makkah and Madinah as the objects of pilgrimage and history, and the isolation from non-Muslim influences. The declaration of oneself as a Muslim is a prerequisite for nationality. The people are profoundly conscious that they are Muslims, even though they do not all understand the doctrines or practise the teachings of their religion. The conversion of immigrants to Islam is not infrequent, but conversion in the opposite direction does not occur. Muslims do not repudiate their religion which is a fundamental part of their lives (Walpole et al., 1971, p. 104).

1.3.3 Islam and Education:

Education in the Arabian Peninsula remained haphazard until a message of the prophet Mohammed came from the holy city of Makkah. In Islam, education is one of the most important activities to be found in any society. The first revelation received by Mohammed, the great prophet of Islam (peace be with him), was *"recite thou in the name of the Lord, who taught by the pen"*. It was revealed to the holy prophet, who did not know how to read and write, that the pen would make a great contribution in the dissemination of knowledge.

The Divine message, the Holy Quran, is full of prophecies about the dissemination of knowledge through time. Many prophecies have now been fulfilled. In the light of the Holy Quran, Muslim people were able to establish many branches of learning. Verses in the Holy Quran, which relate to education, state that seeking knowledge is obligatory

for every Muslim male and female and that this knowledge must be sought from cradle to grave. Islam encourages all people to seek knowledge and to teach it to others.

The history of Islamic education is a proud one. As long ago as the Middle Ages, education under the Muslims was so widespread that it was hard to find any Muslim who could not read or write (Barkatullah, 1974, p. 17).

1.4 Social Structural Aspects in Saudi Arabia

The social value system in Saudi Arabia, according to Al-Awaji (1971), exerts a profound impact upon the bureaucratic system to the extent that only in situations where there is harmony between value expectations and demands on the one hand, and requirements of bureaucratic rule directives on the other, can the latter be carried out effectively. This, however, does not imply an exclusion of the influence of other environmental factors such as political system (institutions and ideology), economic conditions and technological innovation. It only focuses on the relative magnitude and durability of social values. While other systems may be changed by immediate development (e.g. political uprising, discovery of economic resources - oil for instance - or introduction of modern technological methods), the society of Saudi Arabia may have undergone some observable change in their outlook as a result of abundant wealth and new cultural exposure, despite the conspicuous changes in both the economic conditions and the organisational and formal environments (Al-Awaji, 1971, p.53).

The society of Saudi Arabia has predominantly three fundamental characteristics:

1.   The centrality of the family in the social structure of the tribe, the village and the town. The society in Saudi Arabia had been predominantly tribal but, as Al-Awaji (1971) states, the tribal system is steadily undergoing a fundamental change toward its eventual dissolution. First, the decline of animal husbandry because of the succession of severe droughts, has forced nomads to drift away from the desert life and to seek other sources of income in neighbouring villages and towns, where

they gather in scattered ghettos. Second, because of the decline of the tribal system, the creation of a strongly centralised government through the use of force, has put an end to tribal rivalry and, by doing so, has eliminated a primary basis of tribal existence, namely the need for mutual protection. The centralised government also employed most of the nomadic tribes in the service sector, the army and the national guard, which is a tribal army. Also associated with these developments are the attractions of the expanding cities and the growth of the private service sector (Al-Awaji, 1971, p.57).

Tribal ties are still important in Saudi Arabian society. People who have tribal backgrounds still boast about it with a sense of pride.

Al-Awaji (1971) stated that the Arab tribal system consists of large kin groups, each of which may include a number of very cohesive lineages, consisting of a few extended families whose relationship is normally recognised by members of the lineages. Mutual obligation and interdependence mainly stem from the facts that 1) members of a lineage rely for their protection on their lineage kin group and/or the tribe at large and 2) members of the lineage share common economic interests and therefore they are obliged to participate in and enhance the interests of their group.

2. The village. The Saudi Arabian village is a local territorial unit dependent on agriculture and there are some villages which function as trade markets for some of the tribes. The villages are also important in the social structure because they are a transitional stage between tribalism and urbanisation. For these reasons, some writers tend to classify Saudi Arabian villages into two types, tribal and non- tribal. Lipsky (1959) stated that:

> "Saudi villages fall within two broad categories: tribal and non tribal.
> Typical of the first category is the village populated by the settled section
> of a nomadic tribe. The leadership of this type of village is provided by

the leading sheikhly family of the tribe. Tribal villages may be composed of tribesmen who have become completely or only partially seden-tarised. In the latter case the villages spend a portion of the year wandering with their goats and sheep, perhaps residing in the village only at planting and harvesting times. Others are primarily agricultu-ralists who pasture a few animals in the vicinity of the village or hire shepherds to tend their flocks.

In the non tribal village, the villagers do not regard themselves as united in a tribe and the village head holds his office not as a tribal chief leading a group of relatives by hereditary right but as a local admin-istrator managing the affairs of the village as a small territorial unit. In villages of this type the inhabitants generally do not consider themselves related through a single remote ancestor. Their lives tend to be sedentary and immersed in agriculture. They are, nevertheless, strongly influenced by the nomadic, tribal society to which they are always in close physical relationship. Despite their reluctance to settle down, nomadic sheikhs have always had houses, landed property, and other interests in the tribal and non tribal villages. The sheikh and the elders of the non tribal village are chosen - much as in the tribal setting - from the leading village families. Long-established non tribal villages are most numerous in the Eastern Province in the vicinity of the large oases. Many of these villages are inhabited in whole or in part by peaceful and sedentary Shiites. The non tribal pattern also prevails in many newly established settlements in which the inhabitants are drawn from different areas.

Land ownership in both tribal and non tribal villages is linked primarily to the extended family, whose members own jointly the lands from which they derive their livelihood. The appearance of a new wealthy class with money to invest has made landholding by individuals increasingly important; absentee landlordism, however, does not constitute as important a problem as in other Middle Eastern countries. " (p. 82)

The social position of the individual villager is determined by his belonging to a particular extended family and by its position within a larger kin group or in the village as a whole. Consequent changes in economic condition and the organisation into the large cities because of greater business opportunities and for government jobs has caused a huge emigration from the villages to the cities in Saudi Arabia (e.g. Riyadh, Makkah, Madinah, Jeddah, Taif, Al-Damam, Al- Khubar and Abhi). As a consequence, they contain the most powerful, economic, political, educational and administrative elites in the country. In other words, they have a monopoly over wealth and power. They are also highly

developed in terms of infrastructure and general services, as compared to villages. In addition, these cities contain dissimilarity and heterogeneity which stem from the historical background. However, with respect to broad similarities, they can be classified into categories. Al-Awaji (1971) stated that:

> " .... because of the religio-historical significance of Makkah and Madinah, and the important location of Jeddah as a trade centre on the Red Sea, these cities' social structure, cultural orientation and economic and political organisations are quite different from the rest of Saudi Arabian cities. That is, mainly because they have always been exposed to Muslim migrations, they are socially and ethnically heterogeneous. Different cultural traits have been absorbed and assimilated into one culture which is rather unique to these cities. Trades and handicrafts are the basic economic activities. Therefore, social organisation is based on occupational patterns and commercial relationships although the family is still the fundamental social unit. "(p.39)

But other cities in Najd, Asir and Al-Ahsa regions acquired similar historical development and common characteristics. Al-Awaji (1971) mentioned

> "They were mainly agriculture-orientated, although other activities such as handicrafts existed. Their social organisation was homogeneous and centred around large kin groups and lineages. They were usually ruled by a few powerful families. It fundamentally differs from their original characteristics, as was the situation with Riyadh, Buraidah, Unaisah and Majmah in Najd and Al-Damam and Al-Khuber in the Eastern Province. But on the other hand, big cities in Asir have witnessed relatively minor alteration. " (p.40)

Society in Saudi Arabia is influenced by family which is the centre of all activities in Saudi Arabia, and which remains the primary source of identification and is organised around related males, where descent is traced in the paternal line. A newly born child automatically carried the father's name and religious identification. Sex and age are two basic determinants of one's status in his family. Traditionally, the father is responsible for the economic welfare of his family and for all outside decisions and activities affecting

it. The mother's attention, in turn, is centred around the welfare of the husband and the children. The responsibility of the parents towards their children, in later life turns out to be the responsibility of the children: that is to say when the children are grown up they become responsible for the welfare of their parents. The latter form their own families of procreation. In return, the children are expected to obey and respect their parents. As the children grow up to assume economic responsibility, "they are required by Islamic law to extend this responsibility to their aged parents or other needy relatives in the extended family" (The Holy Quaran, Sura 4 Iah 11 and Sura 4 Iah 23 and 24). Generally, the Islamic law governs all aspects of the family such as marriage rules, divorce, inheritance and relationship between children and parents.

Society in Saudi Arabia is influenced by two main factors. The first is by its own traditions as a determinant of social values.

The second is the Islamic teachings as determinants of social values. In other words, Islam is referred to as value premises. However, the Arabian peninsula is the birthplace of Islam and the population of Saudi Arabia has remained almost exclusively Muslim in religion.

1.4.1 Islam:

What is Islam? Islam is the source of political legitimacy, the judicial system and the moral code of the society. Islam is the primary political and social frame of reference. In other words, it is the formal religion of the state and therefore its principles are the supreme authority. On the other hand, it is a social and cultural institution whose system of social conduct and spiritual forces penetrates every aspect of Muslim life (Qutb, 1991, p.3).

1.4.2 Social Stratification in Saudi Arabia

In principle, Saudi Arabian society is casteless. Until recent years a social-class distinction, as it is known in the West, did not exist there. This is well noted by Walpole et al (1971):

> "The society, strongly influenced by the Islamic teaching that all Muslims are brothers in the religious community, shows remarkably little differentiation by social rank. High individual status depends on family affiliation, good financial resources, higher education or an important position in government service, but there is no discrimination in social relations between individuals of differing status."(p. 59)

Al-Awaji (1971) states:

> "One important reservation is due here with regard to inter-marriages. Since kinship and lineage relationships are highly maintained in the traditional sector of the society, . inter-marriage is practically restricted by the interference of families in marriage arrangements, particularly when the proposed relations are considered to be of lower origin or status such as craftsmen and the like.
>
> Nevertheless, with the present economic and social conditions, which have inevitably begun to create a new middle class and to widen the disunity between layers of the social strata, the society is now moving towards a new socio-economic stratification. By and large, the social structure is steadily approaching a sharper socio-economic stratification in which the society is divided into four distinctive clusters."(p.63)

From my own knowledge, the society of Saudi Arabia is broken into groups:

1. Largely consists of the components of the power structure, namely the Royal Family.

2. Upper Class: A small group of wealthy families (e.g. the very rich businessmen and former high ranking officials) and the present top officialdom.

3. Middle Class: The middle class which combines both small business and professional people such as staff of the universities and civil servants.

4. Lower Class: The lower class includes skilled workers. The only common thing among the masses is their daily struggle for food and shelter. As a result, social mobility in Saudi Arabia is influenced by three variables, its own traditions, Islamic teachings and new economic conditions. According to Walpole et al (1971):

> *"In the period since World War II, new opportunities for social mobility have appeared. The impact of industrialisation, combined with continuing changes resulting from the unification and pacification of the Kingdom, has been tremendous in the social as well as in the economic sphere. The autonomy of pastoral and agricultural kin groups has lessened, and that of individuals has increased, as they have opportunities to earn cash wages, acquire material possessions, and become independent of family economic activities. A new group of entrepreneurs, small contractors, lower government employees and professionals has appeared. The high prestige group is still dominated by established families, but it now includes individual concessionaires for large companies, and government officials as well. Membership in this group can still be acquired by marriage, but it is increasingly accessible through education, economic enterprise and good social or governmental connections."* (p.59)

Thus the new economic conditions caused by the discovery of oil and mainly transmitted to the society through bureaucratic activities (jobs, contracting and services) have provided the basis for new social mobility along both geographical and social lines. All these changes lead to a new stratification system in which a bourgeois class is in the making.

At the outset, one may suspect that the role of the Saudi and Arab family basically differs from the role of the family in the West. However, looking closely at the patterns of Saudi and Arab family relationships and the extent of their consequential effects upon the individuals in relation to other groups outside the family circle, the distinction between the two social settings become quite apparent.

The degree of the commitment and the obligations of Saudis towards their families are very great and the result is a limited pattern of associations outside the family. Lipsky (1959) stated that:

"All social relations in Saudi Arabia are indirectly if not directly tied to family considerations and the family is the fundamental and essential repository of every individual's personal identity. There are variations in the family as it exists among the nomadic Arabs and in the towns, but the basic pattern is the same and the differences are largely of degree. In practice family obligations take precedence over all others. Both economic and political life are organised in terms of the family or extensions of it. Among nomads and village cultivators alike, the family is largely a self-sustaining unit; in the towns the typical business enterprise is the family concern consisting of fathers, sons, brothers, or uncles and nephews. In the political sphere the fundamental unit is the extended family and beyond this the lineage or the tribe. The central government works through the tribal sheikhs and is itself powerfully influenced by them and by the heads of the important merchant families. In business and government alike it is taken for granted that the individual will use his position to benefit his relatives, and failure to do so would generally be regarded as morally reprehensible."(p.45)

1.5 Context of the Study

This study was located at primary schools in Riyadh. Riyadh is the heart of the Arabian

Peninsula, and of central Najd, and the capital of Saudi Arabia. The original reason for

a settlement in Riyadh was its potential for cultivation, hence its name, Al-Riyadh, from

the Arabic root "the gardens". It is situated on a sedimentary plateau 600 metres above

sea level, at the confluence of Wadi Hanifah and its tributaries, Wadi Aysan and Wadi

Batha. It has a very dry climate and low rainfall, but a good underground water supply

makes it one of the few natural fertile areas in the Kingdom outside the south-west.

When the name Riyadh first occurred in the Najdi chronicles it referred to the villages

on the ancient site of Hajr with their gardens in the seventeenth century. Once established

as a desert city in the middle of the eighteenth century, Riyadh was ruled by its chief,

Diham Ibn Dawwas, from 1773 until 1902, when it was captured by Abdul Aziz Al-Saudi.

Riyadh's subsequent history has remained closely linked with the reformed faith and the

House of Saud. Its recovery by Abdul Aziz marked a turning-point in Saudi fortunes: he

used it as the base from which he unified Najd and most of the rest of the Arabian

Peninsula. While the new Saudi state was growing, he began rebuilding Riyadh as its capital.

The basic character of Riyadh changed after 1930, as the city - along with the country itself - entered a period of very rapid growth. By the early 1950s the population had quintupled; concrete, cars and asphalt were widely used; and the old mud town was engulfed by an increasingly modern city. The railway from Dammam and the first airport were built. Then it was decided to assemble most of the Ministries in Riyadh.

Its governmental role forever transformed the city. Very few of the original mud-brick structures have survived the comprehensive modernisation of Riyadh which was instituted by the 1974 city plan and is scheduled to continue into the new millennium. In the late 1990s, Riyadh's population holds steady at around 1.8 million, and every inhabitant enjoys standard amenities such as water and sewerage disposal, while consumption of electricity peaks at around two megawatts. Since 1986, the Riyadh Development Authority has utilised a computerised urban intelligence system for mapping, planning and anticipating trends in demography.

As the capital, Riyadh has become the home to thousands of government officials, the large number of government buildings give the city its distinctive appearance. As noted in *Stacey International* (1990), as Riyadh City grew, it also became a centre of commerce and industry; villagers and tribesmen from all over the country have been attracted by its many opportunities, which have long been international in scope. In the words of *Stacy International* (1990) goes on to state that:

> *"Arab immigrants and temporary residents from all over the world were admitted to assist in the capital's development and functions. Today in Riyadh, as in many other world capitals, the majority of the population is not indigenous"*

> *"For short periods the strain of exceptionally swift development told on the city. In the early 1970s, the old and new were jumbled together, and the cars and trucks of Batha Street moved in a*

*cacophony of horns, stirring up dust from the broken pavements.
In those days it was still a city in search of its proper identity.
Down came the old buildings and up went the new. And down
came some of the new to be replaced by the newer and finer
edifices which stand today. "* (p.31)

It should, however, be noted here that vigorous and coordinated planning and
architectural control told in the end and finally shaped the city. As *Stacey International*
(1990) argues that from the start, land use was carefully defined to ensure that there were
areas for schools, hospitals, mosques, gardens and playgrounds. Planners and architects
alike created an elegant and efficient modern capital whose characteristics, both in
concept and detail, recalled Riyadh's history. Thus the 1990s seems to see Riyadh as the
mature international capital with confidence and pride in its civic identity. Stark Najdi
simplicity in some of its modern buildings is complemented by some of the most
avant-garde and creative structures ever designed to meet the administrative and technical
needs of a modern state.

The conference Palace in Al Nasiriyah is the largest in the Middle East. It has proved
itself a sophisticated host-capital for the move, now under way, of the entire diplomatic
corps from Jeddah; between 1983 and the new century, buildings and amenities will
expand to accommodate some 90 diplomatic missions and 22,000 people.

In 1983 commercial air traffic was transferred to the magnificent new King Khalid
International Airport, which is among the world's largest. It is designed to cater for 15
million passengers by the year 2000, and its air cargo facilities are the most modern in
the Middle East. A great new complex houses the King's Office, the Council of Ministers
and the Consultative Assembly. Together with the continuing programme to expand the
Kingdom's highway system, such developments have put an end to Riyadh's traditional
isolation. Traffic systems include a 93 kilometre six-lane ring road which circles the city
and links it to the inter-peninsula highways (*Stacey International*, 1990, p.3).

The education system in Riyadh has also been given consideration. The rapid growth of primary and secondary education for both boys and girls is leading to increased demand for university places. Riyadh has the oldest of the Kingdom's seven universities, King Saud University at Riyadh, which is also the country's largest and, since it moved to a new site just outside the city, one of the most spectacular and modern in both its design and equipment.

Set up in 1957 as Riyadh University, it was renamed in 1982 after its founder, King Saud Ibn Abdul-Aziz. The university has grown enormously in its nearly 40 years' life. Its modest student intake of only 21 pupils in 1957/58, the first academic year, soared to an estimated 22,427 in 1984/85, representing about a quarter of all university students in the Kingdom. Continued expansion of the university is planned, with the number of students expected to rise to 24,000 by the end of the Kingdom's Fourth Economic Development Plan (1985-1990). The university has two branches, in Abha and Qassim, both of which are planned to be extended during the next five years.

The new university city is just outside Riyadh on the route to the ancient city of Diriyah. King Saud University contains a township, which was opened to students in 1984/85, and includes academic blocks, staff and student accommodation, sport complexes, a mosque and commercial and civic centres. Among the advanced technology in use there are sophisticated television and library systems and the latest equipment for the study of astronomy and meteorology.

The university complex also includes the King Khaled teaching hospital and Faculty of Medicine, formally opened in December 1981 as part of the University's Silver Jubilee celebrations. The 817-bed hospital and medical faculty provide pre-medical, pre-clinical and clinical training for 900 students, while the hospital can cater for 3,000 outpatients a day as well as in-patients.

The university offers studies in a wide range of subjects, with Faculties including those of Arts, Science, Administrative Sciences, Pharmacy, Agriculture, Education, Engineering, Medicine, Dentistry and Allied Medical Sciences. The university also includes an Arabic Language Institute, Women's Academic Studies Centre and a library housing more than 1 million volumes (*Journal of the Arab British Chamber of Commerce*, 1986, p.10).

Riyadh has another university, the University of Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud, which offers the study of Islamic legislation.

Riyadh reflects the city's Najd heritage as the capital of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

1.6 The Development of Education in Saudi Arabia

Formal education in Saudi Arabia began in 1924 with the establishment of the Directorate of Education(23) (*Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1989, p.9). Before that date, education was available only in a Mosque (place for Muslim prayer) known as 'Kuttab' (from the Arabic root 'to write'). In these teaching places teachers gave instruction in the traditional skills of reading, writing, poetry, primary mathematics and the science of religion. The teaching at kuttabs consisted mainly of memorising the Quranic verses (Abd-el Wahab, 1970, p.45). During the period of the Directorate of Education (from 1924 to 1953), much was achieved in the field of education.

1.6.1 Boys' Education

In 1925 the Directorate established the Al-Limi Institute, which was the first post-elementary, government sponsored education institution in the kingdom, and it also established a school for religious sciences in 1933 - the Tahder Albauthat school. In 1935 this became the first official secondary school from which graduates were admitted to university. From 1934 onward the Directorate of Education introduced a number of educational innovations to the country, such as:

1.   The first Saudi elementary school curriculum.

2.   Regulations for private schools (1937).

3.   Evening schools.

4.   Higher education - in 1949 the College of Sharia in Makkah was established.

5.   A teacher training college (1952) (*Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.6).

However, despite these significant improvements, we must keep in mind that the finances of the Directorate of Education remained relatively limited, especially during the Second World War. From a statistical statement which dates back to 1947 (5 years prior to the establishment of the Ministry of Education), the total number of schools in Saudi Arabia - elementary, intermediate and secondary - only totalled 65, with a total enrolment of about 10,000 students (all male) (*Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.7).

The modern period of Saudi education began with the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1953 (Nyrop, 1977, p.79) (see chart 1). The Ministry was entrusted with the responsibility for the training and supervising of the education of all Saudi Arabian citizens. For this purpose the country was divided into educational districts (see chart 2), each responsible for its own schooling, under the overall direction of the Ministry of Education. More education districts were created during 1980-1986 raising their number to 40 (Survey Census by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabi, 1991, p.2).

Under the direction of the Ministry of Education every stage of schooling was covered by a separate administrative section - one for elementary, one for secondary, one for cultural relations, and others for physical and social education and school health (Nyrop, 1977, p.79).

The population welcomed this spread of education throughout the country and the new schools were full as soon as the school buildings were complete.

The system of public school education for boys, introduced in 1953, initially provided for primary, preparatory and secondary stages and in 1968 was expanded to include higher education (Nyrop, 1977, p.93).

1.6.2   Girls' Education

A generation ago, state schools for girls were unheard of in Saudi Arabia and now they are a vigorous reality. The economic and social change allowed in the country was bound to lead to the demand for female education sooner or later but, to use official terminology, the female education introduced was of a type compatible with the country's religious position and with Arab tradition.

Islam encourages all people, regardless of their gender, to seek knowledge and to spread it. The Quran mentioned, *"Allah (God) wishes knowledge to be spread to all mankind"* (The Holy Quran, Sura 9), as the prophet Mohammed (peace be on him) said about education.

> *"The seeking of knowledge is obligatory upon every Muslim, male and female. "*(Barkatullah, 1974, p.7)

From what has been previously mentioned, we find that Islam allows all people, whether male or female, to be educated, but the system of education for girls in the kingdom adheres to Islamic law, and girls are still strictly segregated from boys.

> *"Early in 1960 a Royal Decree was issued announcing the creation of formal government sponsored education for girls and 15 schools for this purposes were opened rapidly including three teacher-training schools. " (Education for All,* Saudi Arabia, 1965, p.36)

The government gave its initial approval for higher education for girls and permitted girls to attend the Universities of King Saud and Alamam Mohammed bin Saud in Riyadh

and of King Abd Al-Aziz in Jeddah. Female students view university lectures by male professors by closed circuit television and can ask questions of the lecturer by means of a remote-control hook up.

> *"In the academic year 1970 a Girls College of Education was established for the first time in Riyadh" (Second Development Plan*, 1975, p.335).

1.6.3   The New Image of Education in Saudi Arabia

The modern education system introduced in Saudi Arabia has been practised and implemented in a traditional way, influenced by goals and objectives set out in policy documents. The principles, aims and objectives of education are:

- Prompting a spirit of loyalty to Islamic law;

- Demonstrating complete harmony between science and religion in Islamic law;

- Encouraging and promoting the spirit of scientific thinking and research;

- Strengthening the faculty of observational contemplation and enlightening the students about God's miracles in the universe and God's wisdom in enabling his creatures to fulfil an active role in the building up of social life and steering it in the right direction;

- Understanding the environment and broadening the mental horizon of students by introducing them to different cultures of the world;

- Equipping the students with at least one of the living languages to enable them to acquire knowledge of arts and new discoveries, to transmit our own knowledge to other communities and to participate in the spreading of Islam and serving humanity;

- Helping in the proper psychological development of the children and enabling them to grow spiritually, emotionally and socially according to the well-established Islamic traditions;

- Studying individual differences among students in order to orientate them properly and help them grow in accordance with their abilities, capabilities and interests;

- Providing special education for mentally and physically handicapped students;

- Training the necessary manpower and diversifying education, with special emphasis on vocational training;

- Inspiring students with a zest for work, and providing them with scientific skills, together with instruction in applied science training and practice in handicrafts, and participation in production processes, as well as helping them acquire experience in laboratories, workshops and farms, and encouraging the study of the scientific principles of the various activities leading to increased productivity and creativity (*Report about Education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.35).

1.7 The Public Education System in Saudi Arabia:

Education in Saudi Arabia is free from primary through to higher levels but there is no compulsory or universal primary education.

1.7.1 The Stages of Schooling:

1.7.1.1 The Elementary Stage:

Education is provided in primary schools from the age of 6 (duration 6 years). It represents the base of education, and equips the children with the fundamentals of culture and the basic skills in reading, writing and arithmetic. It also instils the habits and attitudes necessary for citizenship (*Report about Education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.36).

1.7.1.2 The Intermediate Stage:

This is the second stage in the general education ladder. The duration of study is three years, during which time the students are required to master the basic skills they have acquired in the previous stage. Study at this stage deepens their awareness of cultural values in society. At this stage students are required to make a vocational decision in order to continue in suitable courses in the secondary stage.

2. Vocational Training.

Those studying at the general education section take courses similar to the courses for normal pupils in elementary, intermediate and secondary schools. However, there is a slight change in subject matter and the method of teaching to suit the circumstances of handicapped pupils.

Vocational training is imparted to pupils who are old enough to work; they are trained in the handicrafts suited to their capabilities.

In addition to vocational training, the pupils receive a certain level of general education and culture that will help them in their everyday life.

Graduates from the sections of general education receive certificates equivalent to the certificates of general education of normal pupils. Graduates from the sections of vocational training receive the relevant vocational diploma.

The Special Education Department in the Ministry of Education supervises this type of education, supplies the Braille-printed books and assists the graduates of vocational sections to find work, or set up in business on their own or in partnership with others.

Up to date methods and audio-visual aids suited to the incapacity of the handicapped are used, while at the same time observing our Islamic traditions. Highly qualified teachers and administrators are employed, and boarding sections are established for those whose social and physical handicaps require special care.

Special Education Institutes:

1. Al-Nour Institutes for the Blind (Males)

These are found in several towns of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and are restricted to the education of blind males. The first institute was established in 1966 (Nyrop, 1977) in Riyadh, and almost all institutes include a section for general education covering the

elementary, intermediate and secondary stages of education on one hand, and an elementary vocational section on the other. Study in the sections of general education, in terms of duration and stages, is similar to the study in the schools of general education for normal pupils, and the certificates are equivalent.

Study in the vocational sections, however, takes six years, culminating in the relevant vocational diploma. Besides vocational training (theory and practice), an education at elementary level is imparted.

2.   Al-Nour Institutes for the Blind (Females):

These institutes include sections for general education that covers the elementary stage, the intermediate stage, and teacher training of a secondary level. They also include a section for vocational training similar to the vocational sections for blind males. The first institute was established at the same time as that for the blind males.

3.   Al-Amal Institutes for the Deaf and the Dumb:

There are some institutes for males and others for females. These institutes were established in the year 1966 (*Educational Statistics in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.33). The study begins with a preparatory stage similar to the kindergarten of normal pupils. After the preparatory stage comes the elementary stage which includes a general education section and a vocational training section. Following the elementary stage comes a vocational intermediate stage. The courses of study at the sections of the general education are similar to those of the elementary stage of normal pupils. There are, however, slight changes made necessary by the circumstances of the deaf and dumb.

4.   Institutes for Mentally Handicapped:

These institutes started in 1972, and there are some institutes for males and others for females, and they teach the mentally handicapped. Study at present begins with a two-year preparatory stage, followed by a stage of general education and a stage of vocational

training, both at the elementary level. Study here corresponds to its counterpart in the other institutes of special education (*Educational Statistics in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.33). According to the *International Encyclopedia of Education* (1994), on work in special education:

> *In 1985-86 there were 27 special education institutions serving 2,820 students (1,840 males, 980 females). Five years later, in 1989-90, the number of institutions was only 35 serving 4,551 students (2,953 males, 1,598 females). These students were distributed as follows: 833 in nursery schools, 2,918 in elementary schools, 480 in intermediate schools, 108 in secondary schools, and 212 in vocational programs.* "(p.5146)

1.7.1.6 Adult Education:

There is a problem with illiteracy in Saudi Arabia and the Ministry of Education has established schools for male adult education. These schools are responsible for adult literacy as well as religious education. This includes reading, writing, arithmetic and promoting awareness of the various aspects of life (*Report about development of education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.37).

The literacy programmes carried out through evening classes are based on a two-year course over eight months each year. This course involves twelve hours a week during the first year and fifteen hours a week during the second year. During these two years the adult is given intensive courses in reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction. There are two stages in the literacy programme:

First Stage: A Struggle for Literacy

This stage takes two years with eight months of study in each year. This study takes place in the evening. In this stage the learner acquires some knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic and religion. The student who finishes this standard should be equivalent to that of the student who has successfully completed the fourth year of primary school.

Second Stage: Follow-Up

The student who finishes the first stage has the opportunity to complete his study in the second stage. It is again two years, with eight months in each stage. During this time he prepares himself for the primary certificate. If the student passes this examination, he is then granted the same primary school learning certificate as his fellow students in the primary school (Abd-el Wahab, 1970, p.45).

Besides the evening schools for male and female students, day school study exists to fight illiteracy among the majority of people in Saudi Arabia, and there are some programmes offered during the summer holidays when both the teachers and college students are free. Literacy courses are organised in villages and isolated areas. Television classes are also offered.

Unfortunately, there are shortages in this field of professional teachers, administrators, and all types of illustrative materials (Educational Statistics in Saudi Arabia, 1985, p.34).

The Ministry of Education is responsible for adult male education, and the General Administration of Girls Education is responsible for female education. There are some other government and private organisations which share nonformal education of students according to the *International Encyclopaedia of Education* (1994), as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Distribution of students in adult education

Institution	Total Number of Students	Male	Female
Ministry of Education	62,930	62,930	-
GAGE	61,167	-	61,167
Other government agencies	8,854	7,402	1,452
Private schools	2,258	2,258	-
Total	135,209	72,590	62,619

Source: International Encyclopedia of Education (1994), p.5149.

Writing about the enrolment of students in adult education, the *International Encyclopedia of Education* (1994) states that:

> *"the country's 1989-90 student enrolment of 3,020,442, about 4.5 percent (135,209) were enrolled in adult education programs that were administered mostly by the four major educational institutions that administer formal education programs. The shares of nonformal students between these institutions are shown in Table 1.*
>
> *The general purpose of adult education in Saudi Arabia is the eradication of illiteracy. Between 70 and 80 percent of all Saudi adults of 15 years of age and older were estimated to be illiterate in 1982. This was a reduction from a UNESCO 1962 estimate of 97.5 percent. While illiteracy eradication is a goal in itself for some, the majority of adult students probably enrol in order to obtain the basic literacy requirements of private and government employers or to improve their chances for promotion with such employers. "(p.5149)*

1.8 Higher Education in Saudi Arabia

Higher education in the Kingdom embraces every stage of formal education following completion of the various types of secondary courses. There are several authorities supervising higher education, the principal one being the Ministry of Higher Education.

This stage of education is offered by the universities, the colleges under the presidency of Girls Education, some military colleges under the Ministry of Defence and Aviation, the National Guard and by King Fahd Security College under the Ministry of the Interior. There are seven universities in the Kingdom (*Report on education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.28).

1.9 Educational Administration in Saudi Arabia

Like other countries in the region, Saudi Arabia was late to adopt a modern educational system. Educational practices in the region were defined and controlled by the ruling authorities. In this, educational administration differs from the administration of other services provided by government agencies (Abd-el Wahab, 1970).

Education in Saudi Arabia is highly centralised. General education policy is formulated through the six bodies in the Council of Ministers responsible for education, which are:

1. The Ministry of Education, which is the principal authority for boys' education at every level.

2. The Presidency, which is the principal authority for girls' education at every level.

3. The Ministry of Defence, which is responsible for the administration and finance of its own schools. Advice on educational matters is given by the Ministry of Education, which also inspects the schools.

4. The National Guard, which is responsible for administration and finance of its own schools. Advice on educational matters is given by the Ministry of Education, which also inspects the schools.

5. Other organisations which operate at national and local levels and administer and finance private schools. Advice on educational matters is given by the Ministry of Education, which inspects these schools.

6. Colleges providing higher education, directed by the Ministry of Education or by religious authorities.

The universities are completely independent (Abd-el Wahab, 1970, p.46).

The hierarchy of the administrative organisation is as detailed below.

1.9.1 Ministry of Education (see Chart 1)

The Ministry of Education is responsible for boys' education at all the three stages: elementary, intermediate and secondary, as well as teacher training, special education and adult education. The Minister of Education is the head of the Ministry and he presides over a number of councils and supreme committees. Among the departments governed by the Minister are: the Minister's Office, the Planning Department, the Follow-up

Organisational Plan of the Ministry of Education

Minister of Education

Deputy Minister

Public Relations Dept — Office — Planning Dept — Legal Dept
Follow-up Dept

Gen Sec for Boy Scouts
Gen Sec for Adult Education
Gen Sec for Special Education — Office — Admin Develop Dept
Gen Sec for Islamic Orientation

Assistant Deputy for Antiquities & Museums
- Gen Dir for Museums
  - Museum Study & Design Dept
  - Dept of Museum Study & Design
  - Classification & Indexing Dept
- Gen Dir for Registration & Protection of Antiquities
  - Research & Excavation Centre
  - Antiquities Registration Unit
  - Antiquities Protection Unit
  - Technical Unit
  - Examination Unit
  - Research Unit
- Gen Dir for Libraries
  - Supplies Dept
  - Library Equipping Dept
  - National Museum
  - District Museums
  - School Libraries
  - National Library
  - Public Libraries
  - Educational District Offices

Assistant Deputy for External Cultural Relations & Libraries
- Gen Dir for Ext Cultural Relations
  - Exhibition & Conferences Dept
  - Cultural Exchange Dept
  - Unesco/Alesco Sect

Assistant Deputy for Projects & Maintenance
- Gen Dir for Maintenance
- Gen Dir for Supervision & Execution
- Gen Dir for Studies & Design
- Gen Dir for Admin & Fin Affairs
  - Admin Com Centre
  - General Services Dept
  - Warehouse Dept
  - Purchasing Dept
  - Budgeting Dept
  - Finance Dept
  - Personnel Dept
  - Stock Control Unit

Assistant Deputy for Teachers
- Gen Dir for Guidance & Training
- Gen Dir for Teacher Training
- Gen Dir for Tests & Follow-up
  - Educational Training Dept
  - Educational Guidance Dept
  - Sup & Audio-Visual Aids Dept
  - Textbooks Dept
  - School Planning Dept
  - School Services Dept
  - Follow-up Dept
  - Test & Distribution Dept

Assistant Deputy for School Affairs
- Gen Dir for School Supplies
- Gen Dir for Planning & School Services
  - Junior Colleges Dept
  - Teachers Institutes Dept
  - Educational Documents Dept
  - Medical Supplies Dept
  - Health Units Dept
  - Technical & Voc Activity Dept
  - Sport & Social Activity Dept
  - Scientific & Library Activity Dept
  - Cultural Activity Dept
  - Student Guidance Dept
  - Counselling Dept
  - Food & Catering Dept
  - Examination & Records Dept

Assistant Deputy for Educational Development
- Gen Dir for Educational Research
- Gen Dir for Educational Technology
- Gen Dir for Designing & Developing Curricula
  - Educational Studies Dept
  - Production Dept
  - Designing Dept
  - Curricula Develop Dept
  - Curricula Design Dept

Assistant Deputy for Students Affairs
- Gen Dir for Student Health
- Gen Dir for Student Activities
- Gen Dir for Student Counselling & Guidance
- Gen Dir for Student Services

Caption: *Chart 1 - from Educational Statistics in the K.S.A. p55 1986*

Organised Plan of the District Office
(Under the Ministry of Education)

```
                    Director of Education
                              |
        +---------------------+---------------------+
        |                     |                     |
  Administrative            Office          Director of
    Analyst                              Administrative Affairs
        |                                         |
        |                          +--------------+--------------+
        |                          |              |              |
        |                   Financial Affairs  Personnel      Administrative
        |                      Section         Section      Communications Section
        |                          |              |              |
        |                    Services Office              Engineering and
        |                          |                     Maintenance Staff
        |                  Purchasing and
        |                 Warehouse Section
        |
  Director of
 Technical Affairs
        |
   +----+----+----+----+
   |    |    |    |    |
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Statistics Section

Budgeting Section

Administrative
Inspection Section

School Health
Section

Students Affairs
Section

Examinations
Section

Youth Welfare
Section

Adult Education and
Combating of Illiteracy Office

Libraries and Audio Visual
Aids Section

Technical Board

The Background of Culture and Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

ORGANISATIONAL PLAN OF
THE HEADQUARTERS OF THE PRESIDENCY OF GIRL'S EDUCATION

Higher Committee for Girls Ed.

Advisor's Dept.

Direct. Gen. for Admin. Inspect.

Office

Educational Affairs Committee

Office

Assist. Deputy

Direct. Gen. for Personnel Affairs

Direct. Gen. for Projects

General Depots Department

Administrative Communication Centre

Direct. Gen. for Financial Affairs

Bids & Purchasing Department

Stock Control Department

Public Service Department

Health Service Department

Financial & Admin. Affairs Committee

Office

Vice-President

President of Girl's Education

Public Relations Department

Direct. Gen. of Examinations

Direct. Gen. of Planning, Budget & Follow-up

Assist. Deputy for Educational Affairs

Deputy for Educational Affairs

Office

Direct. Gen. for Teacher Training

Direct. Gen. for Supervision

Cultural Affairs Department

Tech. Education Department

Direct. Gen. for General Education

Direct. Gen. for Ed. Development

Private Education Department

Direct. Gen. for Ed. Research

Department, the Public Relations Department, and the General Secretariat for Boy Scouts.

The Ministry has one Deputy Minister under whom comes the General Secretariat for Islamic Orientation, the General Secretariat for Adult Education, the General Secretariat for Special Education, the Administrative Development Department, the Deputy Minister's Office, the General Directorate for Administrative and Financial Affairs and the Directorates of Education at local level. The Deputy Minister is helped by seven Assistant Deputy Ministers responsible for the different aspects of the educational process. These include: Assistant Deputy Ministers for student affairs, educational development, teachers' affairs, cultural affairs and libraries, archaeological sites and museums and projects and maintenance.

The directorates of education in the districts function under the Deputy Minister. They supervise school affairs and education at the district level. The districts vary in size and are classified into three categories according to size (*Report on development of education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.28) (see Chart 2).

1.9.2 Presidency of Girls' Education (Chart 3)

This controls and supervises the education of girls at all the three stages - elementary, intermediate and secondary and also controls colleges of education and a number of junior teacher training colleges for girls. It is also responsible for the education of boys and girls at the pre-elementary stage.

The administrative system is headed by a President, assisted by a Vice-President. The presidency functions through two main organisations:

- the educational organisation, which is headed by a Deputy President for Educational Affairs, assisted by an Assistant Deputy for Educational Affairs, and

Organisational Plan
of
the General Organisation
for
Technical Education & Vocational Training

Board of Directors

- Governor
  - Advisors
    - Office
  - Planning
  - Financial Controller
    - Secretariat

Deputy Governor for Financial & Administration Affairs
- Board & Lodging
- Director General of Financial & Admin Affairs
  - Administrative Services
  - Purchasing
  - Financial Affairs
  - Warehouse
  - Personnel
- Engineering Dept.

Deputy Governor for Technical Education & Vocational Training

Directorate Gen. for Vocational Training
- Vocational Training Secretariat
- Programs & Evaluations
- Trainees Affairs
- Instructor Training & Audio-Visual Aids Centre
- Vocational Training
- Pre-Vocational Training
- On-the-Job Training

Directorate Gen. for Technical Education
- Technical Education Secretariat
- Agricultural Education
- Research & Curricula
- Industrial Education
- Commercial Education
- Examinations

Head Office Southern Province — ABC — A Higher Technical Institutes

Head Office Central Province — ABC — Vocational & Commercial Secondary Schools

Head Office Western Province — ABC — Vocational Training & Pre-Vocational Training Centers

Head Office Eastern Province — ABC

Admin = Administrative
Gen. = General
Dept. = Dept...

Organizational Plan of the Ministry of Higher Education - Riyadh

Minister of Higher Education

Higher Committee for Scholarships to Govt. Personnel

Secretariat of The Supreme Council for Universities

Experts & Advisors

Office

World Assembly For Muslim Youth

Al-Majalla Al-Arabia

King Abdulaziz Research Centre

Deputy Minister

Deputy Minister for Financial & Admin. Affairs

Deputy Minister For Cultural Affairs

Deputy Minister for Technical Affairs

Office

Office

Islamic University

King Saud University

King Faisal University

King Abdulaziz University

King Faisal University

Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University

Umm Al-Qura University

Directorate General for the Development of the Higher Education

Dept. of Scholarships & International Inter-University Relations

Engineering Dept.

Planning & Budgeting Department

Organisation & Management Unit

Director General of the Administration

Certificates Evaluation Department

National Research Centre

Dept. for Relations with Private Sector

Data Centre & Library

Dept. for Coordination With Govt. Dept.

Research & Translation Department

Planning & Follow-up Department

Department for Educational Offices Abroad

International Inter-University Relations Dept.

Scholarships Department

Project Dept.

Services & Maintenance Dept.

Personnel Dept.

Finance Dept.

Governmental Relations Dept.

Communications Centre

Admin. = Administrative
Gen. = General
Dept. = Department
Govt. = Government

MAP OF THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

Location of The Educational District Offices
Under The Ministry of Education

- from Educational Statistics in the K.S.A. 1986

- the administrative organisation, which is headed by the Deputy President for Administrative Affairs who is assisted by an Assistant Deputy President for Administrative Affairs.

The presidency of girls' education was re-organised and the following departments were directly attached to the President of Girls' Education: the Public Relations Department, the Directorate General for Planning and Follow-up, the Department of Consultants, the Higher Committee for Girls' Education, the Directorate General for Administrative Inspection, and the Directorate General of Examinations (*Report about education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986,p.27).

1.9.3 Technical and Vocational (Chart 4)

Technical and vocational education is administered by a governor. The governor exercises his duties and responsibilities under the supervision of the Board of Directors, headed by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs. Directly under the Governor comes the Advisor, the Financial Controller, the Planning Units and the Secretariat of the Board of Directors (see chart 5) (*Report about education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.27).

1.9.4 Ministry of Higher Education (See Chart 5)

The Ministry is responsible for the supervision, co-ordination and follow-up of higher education programmes and their links to the National Development Programmes in different fields and for providing the various sectors with the necessary technical and administrative power.

The Ministry also supervises scholarships, international academic relations and the education offices abroad.

The Ministry's executive sectors are as follows:

- Technical Affairs sector

- Scholarships and International Academic Relations

- Higher Educational Development

- The General Secretariat for Supreme Council of Universities

- Financial and Administrative Affairs sector *(Report about the development of education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.37)..

1.10 The Major Issues Facing the Education System in Saudi Arabia

1.10.1 Centralised administration

After reviewing the system of education in Saudi Arabia, we find some elements of the education system which are inordinately complex in structure. Educational practices in the region are defined and controlled by the ruling authorities. In this, education does not differ from the procedures of other government agencies:

> *"since the creation of the Ministry of Education in 1954, government sponsored public education has become more important than private secular or traditional religious education. The Minister of Education, appointed by the king, supervises the education of male and female students and oversees all schooling within the country"* (Walpole et al., 1971, p.157).

This means that education in Saudi Arabia is formulated through the Council of Ministers within the Ministry of Education. The administrative system is a centralised one with all decision-making in the hands of the Minister and the General Director of Education. The Minister of Education directs the schools from a central office through ministerial decrees and circulars via the General Director, who instructs the inspectors, the headmasters (principals) and teachers on what they should do in all situations from general policy to every detail of daily routine. Also, under this centralised system, the power of policy making, curriculum development, textbook production, promotions and terminations of staff, etc., lies in the hands of the Ministry of Education. The Minister and the Director of Education are responsible for carrying out central government directives and policies. The Director is assisted by other personnel who are in charge of various departments.

"The Higher Committee on Education Policy is a Higher Committee formed on the highest level including the ministers concerned with educational affairs and presided over by H.M. the King to supervise education in the Kingdom" (Report about education in Saudi Arabia, 1986, p.37).

The complexities of the highly centralised system of education in boys' and girls' schools discourages creative innovation. In my experience, in the field of education for boys, there are administrators who want to try new ideas and creative techniques but they often find it difficult to do so since they have to get permission to try new initiatives. Other major problems which face education in Saudi Arabia today are:

1.   Students who drop out of school before completing the relevant level. These may have stopped attending school before achieving functional literacy;

2.   Regional disparity - the percentage distribution of enrolment at school level between regions among females;

3.   Teaching is perceived by Saudis as low in status and a poor choice of occupation which means that teacher training and retention of people in the profession are serious problems (*Fourth Development Plan from 1985-90*, 1985, pp.53-272).

Why is teaching perceived by Saudis as of low status and a poor choice of occupation, especially in view of the imperative placed on education by Islam?

To answer this question, a study was made by the Faculty of Education of King Saud University, Riyadh, in 1977-78, concentrating on Saudi teachers who left the teaching profession, preferring other jobs to teaching. The findings of the study highlighted five major factors:

1.   Financial:

I   Saudi teachers were paid less than any other comparable government employees. This problem has now been solved by increasing teachers' salaries. Teachers are now paid more than any other government employee of a comparable grade.

II   There is no financial reward for excellence - good teachers are paid the same as bad.

III   The demand for housing is comparable to that in other government work. Teachers demand from the government the provision of accommodation and equality with other government employees.

IV   The demand for health care is comparable to that in other government work, bringing teachers in line with other government employees with regard to the health service.

2.   Class Load

I   Teaching schedules are heavily loaded.

II   Besides teaching, the school requires other work of the teacher, such as desk work and committee work in schools.

III   Teachers cannot choose to be sent to rural or urban areas but have this decision made for them.

IV   The teaching profession is very difficult because of the lack of credentials and teaching experience.

3.   Administrative Problems

I   Schools do not co-operate with teachers, as in co-operating on a workable programme of school control, meeting with teachers or taking up suggestions, ideas and acting on the needs of the school.

II   There is a shortage of good education administrators and professionals.

III   Schools are burdened with complex routines.

IV   Teachers have very little spare time.

V There is little or no co-operation between teaching staff in schools.

4. Social Problems

I People often do not place great value on teaching as a possible career.

II Students do not pay attention or respect to teachers.

III Little is done to help teachers working in rural schools, and unattractive features of teaching include the possibility of being posted to a distant or rural school, as well as the relative difficulty of the work as compared with most other government work.

5. Education Problems

I There is not enough teaching equipment.

II Students do not work hard, and consequently learn slowly.

III School buildings are not suitable for teaching and learning.

IV The range of subjects on the curriculum is too wide.

V Class size is too high (*A study about Saudi teachers who give up teaching*, 1978; in Arabic, translated by the researcher).

There was a discussion, translated from Arabic by the researcher, published by *Al-Yamamah* magazine, about the curriculum development with some educational staff from the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh (3 September 1992). The staff state:

> *For 23 years (1969-1992), education policy in the Kingdom has remained unchanged, and the education system has remained traditional:*
>
> * *Six years' elementary school;*
>
> * *Three years' intermediate school;*
>
> * *Three years' secondary school.*

They also mentioned that the curriculum and its organisation was old-fashioned and encouraged the teaching of theory rather than practice. Further, the curriculum evaluated students solely by out-dated examination methods, while neglecting the value of the student as an individual and ignoring students' needs, life skills and society.

They recommended:

1. School buildings should be suitable for education.

2. Teacher training should be reviewed and revised.

3. The teaching methods should be suitable for education, such as the use of audio-visual aids playing an effective part in achieving education.

4. Preparation of school text books should be suitable in the accomplishment of the aims of education.

5. The curriculum should be based on scientific methods rather than personal perspectives.

6. Saudi Arabia's education policy should be updated.

7. Education in various fields of science relating to the modern world should be developed.

8. The education system should be modernised and provided with modern technology (*Al-Yamamah Magazine*, 30 September 1992, p.30, in Arabic translated by the researcher).

The government has endeavoured to encourage free education for all. It has also made it a major part of its policy to try to provide education for every child in the country, regardless of his colour or physical condition. The total public expenditure on education in 1992 was £2089.13 million (*Statistical Yearbook*, Ministry of Finance, Saudi Arabia, 1993, p.3). The government has improved the conditions of service of teachers and is

encouraging young people to choose teaching as their career. Changes have been introduced and programmes have been initiated which are designed to improve the quality of education, such as the modernisation of the curriculum and instructional methods in schools. The Saudi Arabian government is an open-minded and liberal one and therefore realises the importance of education. They are trying their best and using the kingdom's rich natural resources in an effort not only to provide good education but also to create a higher quality of life for today's population and for generations to come.

1.10.2 Lack of Administrative Flexibility

Administration is also affected by other factors such as lack of flexibility. Given the centralised administration in education, there is limited contact between the 40 education districts, each with a director responsible for the fulfilment of the Ministry of Education's directives in his region. Walpole et al. (1971) indicated that:

> *"The districts, however, are allowed leeway in determining course electives and selecting textbooks to supplement the basic syllabus, which is uniform in government operated schools. The Ministry periodically sends inspectors to public and private schools to ensure adherence to its regulations"*(p.136)

This makes it extremely difficult to introduce a democratic style of administration. Of course, some managers succeed in creating this style of administration within their own unit as a result of their own personalities and abilities, but this is rare. The nature of the system encourages administrators to adopt an autocratic style in many cases. The system is, in any event, closely controlled by regulations and statutes which reduce the scope for flexible and democratic administration. There are few opportunities for workers to function independently within the Saudi administrative system and to take responsibility for their decisions because of the high degree of bureaucratic control throughout the system. Furthermore, the opportunities for workers to act independently and on their own responsibility are limited by the lack of clear organisational values in the system.

As a result of the lack of flexibility in the Saudi administration, there is an unbalanced

distribution of educational services among districts.

> *"In spite of the Government's efforts to provide adequate
> educational facilities in all parts of the kingdom, there is still
> some sort of inequity in distribution of educational facilities
> among districts and in meeting requirements. In some cases there
> is also inequity in provision of facilities within the district units
> themselves" (Report about education in Saudi Arabia, 1986,
> p.37)*

There is also evidence of an unbalanced distribution of pupils between schools within

districts:

> *"The disparity among districts is the average number of students
> per school in the district. It has been noticed that while some
> schools have too many students in relation to the facilities they
> have, others are not fully utilised." (Report about education in
> Saudi Arabia, 1986, p.80)*

Another failing is the impact of the bureaucratic environment on the organisation's

structure, which is designed specifically to make maximum use of administrative

specialists who possess a high level of expertise. The interaction between the

administrative bureaucracy in Saudi Arabia and its environment has been mentioned by

Al-Awaji (1971) in his statement:

> *"1.   Lack of skilled personnel;*
>
> *2.   The organisational deficiencies resulting from:*
>
> > *a)   the relative antiquity of original structural bases
> > compared to the present complex functions; and*
> >
> > *b)   the unfamiliarity of the bureaucratic leadership with
> > modern organisation and methods. "(p.80)*

We note, therefore, that the Saudi administration of education is, in many ways, in need

of development to take account of modern theories of effective educational management.

The problems in the Saudi administration reflect the relative conservatism of Saudi

society and also the fact that this is a very new system and that there is a great shortage of trained people able to apply modern theories of management.

1.11   The Curriculum for the Boys and the Girls

Curriculum development and text selection take place in the Ministry of Education. All students of the same sex follow a single undifferentiated curriculum in elementary school. The curriculum remains tradition-oriented and emphasises classical Arabic and Islamic religion. History, geography, mathematics, sports are an integral feature of boys' education.

1.11.1 Post-elementary education curriculum for boys

Post-elementary education is divided into two types - intermediate and secondary levels. Arabic is the language of instruction, but foreign languages are introduced as part of the curriculum. The most commonly taught foreign language is English.

Intermediate level: in the secondary level, emphasis is placed on the study of classical Arabic grammar and rhetoric, Islamic law, customary law and theology. Admittance to the modern intermediate level is limited to the better qualified students and is determined by competitive examinations. Instruction in this level includes traditional and modern courses. Emphasis is placed on spoken and written Arabic and Islamic religion. Courses in history, Arabic literature, mathematics, geography and science are also offered. The secondary level serves as preparation for the university Admission is dependent on an intermediate school diploma. On entering the secondary level, a student is expected to choose either arts or sciences as his field of specialisation. Students in the sciences programme are required to concentrate on English, physics, chemistry and biology and they must also take courses in religion and history (*Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1985, p. 15).

The arts programme entails the study of one foreign language (English), history, Arabic literature, Arabic language, geography and Islamic religion and jurisprudence.

1.11.2 Vocational Training Centre Curriculum

In the vocational training centres, the programmes are required to concentrate on technical, commercial and agricultural training. Academic courses are supplemented with on-the-job training in all of the trades, including engineering, architecture and electronics. These vocational schools are primarily designed to provide trained typists, stenographers, office workers, and bank employees (*Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1985, p. 18).

1.11.3 Girls' education curriculum

The authorities for education in Saudi Arabia assert that the curriculum in girls' schools is equivalent to that of boys' schools, but that girls' education emphasises those courses assumed to be suitable for girls in their role in Saudi Arabian society. Religion, Arabic and home economics are taught in elementary school. At the post-elementary stage, these courses are supplemented with social studies and a foreign language. The curriculum in girls' schools is the same as that of boys' schools, emphasising classic Arabic and Islamic religion. History, geography, mathematics and science are also offered together with Arabic literature and foreign languages (English) (Nyrop et al., 1977, p.94).

1.12   Curriculum development

Since 1984, the development of the curriculum has undergone a constant improvement process to make it more responsive to the significant developments which are taking place in the Kingdom in the economic and social field. It has also been necessary to meet the increasing demand for education and to keep abreast with up to date educational concepts and technology.

The first step in the development of the curriculum was the establishment of a national committee in 1984, the function of which was to determine the future curriculum of schools. The committee deals with all stages of education and is also concerned with issues such as measurement and testing, special education, audio/visual aids, and student

guidance and counselling. In this field, the Ministry of Education is responsible for boys'
education and the Presidency of Girls' Education is responsible for education for girls.
The two authorities are essential members of the curriculum development committee.

1.12.1 The achievements of the national committee in developing the curriculum in Saudi Arabian schools

The national committee has drawn up a new syllabus for mathematics. Audio-visual aids
have been introduced to help teach modern mathematics, science and geography. Schools
have been supplied with audio materials and other didactic materials, as well as employing
new teaching techniques. However, many teachers continue to employ a didactic
approach of oral instruction and the extreme use of the blackboard (*Educational statistics
in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, pp.15-16).

1.13 Further Serious Obstacles Facing Education in Saudi Arabia

1.13.1 The shortage of buildings

One of the serious obstacles to the spread of education is a shortage of buildings. In rural
areas, the vast distances and the nomadic habits of as many as a third or more of the
people complicate the provision of school rooms. Quite apart from the problem of
providing teachers in isolated localities or migratory camps, the Ministry of Education
for boys and the Presidency of Girls' Education has yet to solve the problem of providing
facilities and supplies. In urban areas, especially big cities, overcrowding because of
rapid population growth had caused many classes to be held in rented space designed for
other purposes. According to Al-Heji (1979), education suffers from the inadequate
school buildings in all cities in the Kingdom, which are not suitable as places for teaching
children for many reasons, such as health and small size (p.42). General demand for
buildings has far outstripped supply in all cities in the Kingdom and education has suffered
accordingly.

> *"Both the Ministry of Education and the General Administration of Girls' Education have achieved significant progress in the construction of new school buildings to replace the rented ones and equipping them with the requisite furniture and other equipments" (Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1986, p.19).*

Even alteration of existing structures for school use is difficult. Construction practices produce a high percentage of interior bearing walls, making modification of existing partitions very difficult. Serious crowding was also reported in many cities.

1.13.2 The management of education

Saudi Arabian education follows the traditional system. Four bodies or authorities responsible for education are:

1.   The Ministry of Education, which is the principal authority for boys' education in the Kingdom.

2.   The Presidency, which is the principal authority for girls' education.

3.   The Ministry of Defence, which is responsible for educating boys and girls for children whose parents are working in the Ministry of Defence.

4.   The National Guard, which is responsible for educating children whose parents are working in the National Guard.

All the Ministry of Defence and National Guard advice on educational matters is given by the Ministry of Education. The Minister of Education for Boys and the President of Girls' Education are appointed by the King. The former supervises the education of male students and the latter supervises the education of females. Under them are two deputy ministers, one concerned with the administration of education, the other with cultural affairs. At a lower level, the office of the Director General of Education supervises training procedures at all levels and handles the administrative aspects of social welfare and health of students, examinations, libraries and scholarships. The Minister of

Education also acts as Chairman of the Supreme Council for the promotion of Arts, Science and Fine Arts, which selects and writes text books to be used in schools and translates certain educational materials. The Ministry of Education is also responsible for the curricula at all levels. It provides the salaries for all teachers and gives permission for the promotion of the teachers (*Report about education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.37).

This centralisation causes some problems in the educational programme, because in the rural areas the schools have to wait for the overall educational plan, the curriculum, the text books and all the school's supplies to be sent from the Ministry of Education. This delays the beginning of the school year. The Ministry of Education has attempted to improve the system of management. In 1986, there was a reorganisation and an Assistant Deputy Minister was appointed to be responsible for each of the following: school affairs, students' affairs, teachers' affairs, projects and maintenance and educational development. The aim was to achieve greater efficiency in the management of the educational system in the Kingdom, by covering all stages of general education under a single authority, in respect of such matters as school affairs, student affairs and teacher affairs. Under the Assistant Deputy Minister for Educational Development are three general directorates for curriculum design. Educational technology and educational research were introduced in 1984 to boost the programmes of research and qualitative improvement of education. Forty educational districts were created to achieve closer supervision of schools (*Educational statistics in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.15). In the Presidency of Girls' Education, similar changes also took place, when the general directorate of curriculum, research and textbooks, and the department of audio-visual aids were merged to form a new General Directorate for elementary, intermediate and secondary education.

The Presidency of Girls' Education created 125 school districts for the supervision of schools (*Educational Statistics in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.15).

The reorganisation in the Ministry of Education was aimed to release education from a centralised to a decentralised system. But, unfortunately, the administrative changes have failed to create a decentralised system. The educational districts, in effect, adopt a centralised style of management by their concern for the administrative and financial matters. Thus, schools are restricted by educational district regulations and decisions (Al-Heji, 1979, p.40; in Arabic, translated by researcher).

1.13.3 Illiteracy in Saudi Arabia - a major obstacle in developing nations

The problem of illiteracy in Saudi Arabia is the most serious issue that is facing the development of the country. There are many obstacles to achieving literacy. They are:

1. the absence of compulsory education;

2. the absence of universal primary education;

3. the increase in the number of school age children who do not find or seek schooling;

4. the absence of detailed statistical materials on the age groups and the sex of illiterates;

5. children leaving school before achieving literacy (Saudi Arabian Five Years Plan, 1986, p.275).

Al-Saloom (1994) attributes the causes of adult illiteracy in Saudi Arabia to the failure of children to find a place in schools. About 70% of boys and 65% of girls aged 7 years fall into this category (Al-Saloom, 1994, p.44, in Arabic translated by researcher).

A further factor contributing to illiteracy is the lack of variety in teaching skills and techniques and the lack of enthusiasm on the part of teachers to undertake in-service training. The main style of teaching is lecturing with the use of the blackboard. There is an overemphasis on children merely acquiring knowledge and learning by rote. Such teaching techniques do not take into account a child's attitudes, interests, mental ability and inventive spirit, although the importance of these is recognised by educational policy

in Saudi Arabia. Article Numbers 41, 43, 59 and 69, emphasise the importance of encouraging children to think, search, observe, elicit and be creative. But, unfortunately, teaching in Saudi Arabian schools does not accord with this policy. Al-Saloom (1994) argues that the teaching techniques practised in Saudi Schools merely train children in mental skills and fail to promote children's thinking and inventiveness. He contends that the traditional approaches of lecturing and the use of the blackboard require little effort by teachers in lesson planning. Furthermore, the emphasis on rote learning and cramming children's minds with information does not develop their understanding. If the student has an open mind and tries to argue with the teacher, the teacher will consider that the student is not a disciplined student and the teacher recommends punishment on the grounds of misbehaviour. Al-Saloom states that teachers in Saudi Arabia are unwilling or unable to re-skill themselves. Consequently, there is a low level of efficiency among many teachers and headteachers in Saudi Schools, leading to poor quality education for the children (Al-Saloom, 1994, p.36).

The Kingdom spares no effort to update, develop and broaden its activities in this field in order to eliminate illiteracy and provide an opportunity for students to further their education.

> "The educational policy document dedicated eight articles to detail the importance and objectives of adult education and how to eradicate illiteracy (Articles 180-187). Article 14 of the Code of Adult Education and combating of illiteracy which was issued by Royal Decree No.22/M dated 9 February 1392H (1972 AD) provides that a comprehensive plan be drawn for the eradication of illiteracy in 20 years. As per this plan, illiteracy will be completely wiped out from Saudi Arabia by 1993/94. A special department has been established in the Ministry of Education to evaluate and follow up the 20 year plan which is now in the second part of the expansion phase during which it is expected that about 30% of the illiterate populate will be made literate, i.e. at the rate of 6% per year" (Educational Statistics in Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, 1986, p.34).

Education is not cramming or pouring in of knowledge and information, but is concerned with the development of a pupil's total personality in so far as this can be achieved by the school. It means that the abilities and potentialities of the pupil must be taken into account and opportunities must be provided to enable children to develop into rational and responsible members of society. The Saudi Arabian authorities realise the importance of education, so they are trying their best not only to provide education, but to put the Kingdom's rich and natural resources into creating a new life for today's population and for generations to come.

1.14   The Philosophy of Education in Saudi Arabia

The philosophy of education in Saudi Arabia grows from the traditional culture which stems from Islam. Islam encourages all people to seek knowledge and to teach it to others. Education is one of the most important activities to be found in any society, which is particularly true of Islamic countries, which place great emphasis on seeking education throughout life because of its beneficial effect on the behaviour of the individual.

The first revelation to Mohammed, the great prophet of Islam (peace be on him), was a command from his God which was:

> *"Recite thou in the name of the Lord, who taught by the pen"*
> *(Holy Quran, Iah 6).*

The Holy Quran, in regard to education, states that seeking knowledge is obligatory for every Muslim male and female, and that one must *"seek knowledge from cradle to grave"*. This means that everyone should have the opportunity to receive education. Education should make provision for children to develop as individuals and schools should provide appropriate environments which contribute to the healthy growth of children whilst providing sound education and the development of logical thinking. By raising the efficiency of education in schools, the incidence of illiteracy among Saudi adults could

also be significantly reduced (*Fourth Development Plan in Saudi Arabia*, 1985-1990, p.272).

The document '*Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*' sets out the principles, aims and objectives of education. The most significant are as follows:

1. Muslims in Saudi Arabia and their Muslim brothers elsewhere believe in only one God. The religion is Islam and Mohammed (may peace be upon him) is God's Apostle and Messenger.

2. The total Islamic concept of life.

3. Seeking knowledge is the obligation of each individual and it is the duty of the state to provide and disseminate education.

4. Recognition of women's rights to obtain suitable education on an equal footing with men in the light of the Islamic laws.

5. Relating education in all stages to the state's general development plan.

6. Conscious interaction with the international development in cultural fields.

7. Using Arabic as the language of instruction at all stages (*Report about education in Saudi Arabia*, 1986, p.13).

The philosophy of education in Saudi Arabia is to develop a child's ability so that he or she will be ready and able, as a man or woman of the next generation, to serve and honour his or her country and nation in every sphere of activity with zeal, intelligence and integrity. Thus, the philosophy of education in Saudi Arabia heeds the Islamic concept of life and also recognises that knowledge and ability are the responsibility of each individual and that it is the duty of the state to provide and spread education. This concept of philosophy raises many questions, for example: is it the role of teachers and those responsible for guiding education to implement this concept? Has the curriculum been

effective in developing skills and abilities in our children in school? How has the school textbook helped in the accomplishment of these aims and how far has it been a useful aid for teachers? Are school libraries and audio- visual aids playing an effective part in achieving education? In answer to all these questions I would like to draw from my own experience:

1. The shortage of textbooks by qualified authors does not help students to learn skills and knowledge which help them to deal with life. A study dealing with these concepts was made by Power (1982) in which he said:

> *"The educational objective of preparation for life has two sides: one side has to do with the preservation of culture, or with those appurtenances to civility enabling us to live decently as human beings; the other side has to do with practical accomplishment, with those human skills that contribute to comfort, success and physical well-being. "*(p.241)

2. The obstacles to educational growth come from a shortage of textbooks by qualified authors, and a shortage of equipment such as libraries, audio- visual aids and buildings. This impedes the development of effective education in Saudi Arabia.

As Power (1982) argues,

> *"children in school, or in educational circumstances of any kind, have a capacity for growth and this growth is best when it enables children to use their capacity in connection with new aims. New aims are distilled from the experience of life itself. Such aims must be neither routine nor the inventions of curriculum builders, educationalists, philosophers or teachers. Such aims have only one consequence, they arrest growth. "*(p.242)

1.14.1 The philosophical base in the practice of education in the Kingdom

Curriculum development and text selections take place in the Ministry of Education for Boys and the Presidency of Girls' Education. The curriculum in Saudi Arabia remains traditionally oriented and emphasises classical Arabic and Islamic religion.

1.14.2 Arabic Language

One of the basic philosophies of education in Saudi Arabia is that the Arabic language is a source of Arabic pride and a means of preserving Arabic literature and poetry commemorating the heroic past of the Arabic people. God honoured it by making it the language of the Quran which is our constitution and the basis of our life (Abd- el Wassie, 1970, p.47).

1.14.3 The Religion of Islam

We believe that Islam has thus transformed our weakness into strength and our submission into pride and within a few decades engendered a glorious civilisation based on Islam. This has become one of the landmarks of our history. Consequently, Islam is the basis of our education system since it is through this that the new generations come to understand their duties towards God and man and also become acquainted with their own heritage and glorious past (Abd- el Wassie, 1970, p.47).

1.14.4 The need to provide children with knowledge and skills

Though we insist on putting the religious element and Arabic language as the basis for education, this does not mean that we isolate our children from modern technology. We must educate our children by the best methods to enable them to pursue the most advanced studies, both theoretical and practical. The object of education in Saudi Arabia is, as mentioned in the report *Education in Saudi Arabia*, to develop general education by the following objectives:

a. Striving for development of general education to cope with rapid growth in social and economic fields as well as anticipated technological changes;

b. Continuing efforts for strengthening and widening the scope of technical education;

c. Reviewing and developing the curriculum, methods of instruction and training programmes;

d.   Consolidating higher education with evaluation of postgraduate studies for Master and Doctoral degrees and gearing up of university research to the needs and aspirations of society;

e.   Making use of educational innovations in the fields of educational technology, evaluation, educational guidance and counselling (Abd- el Wassie, 1970, p.48).

As can be seen from a review of the development of education in Saudi Arabia, many demands of a modern society still have to be met. For example, Saudi Arabia needs more scientists, engineers, professors and experts in a wide range of subjects. The training for these specialists must begin in the primary and secondary schools with courses of study that epitomise the results of human progress. To this end, we must follow the example of developed countries as to how to organise and develop our system and to provide it with high technology, suitable buildings, visual aids, well-trained teachers etc., to make teaching more effective.

1.14.5 Providing personnel for the education system in Saudi Arabia

The speed with which the educational effort by the Ministry of Education has expanded the number of schools has probably led to the neglect of some of the basic problems facing the education system of the country. Among the most pressing problems, as a result, is a shortage in the number of personnel and in qualified staff. The Ministry of Education adopted certain policies to deal with the shortages, particularly of teachers. these are outlined in the *International Encyclopedia of Education* (1994):

> *"Three main policies have been adopted to deal with these shortages: (a) the recruitment of foreign personnel, most of whom were teachers from neighbouring Arab countries; (b) the employment of Saudi teaching and administrative staff whose training in education was often deficient; and (c) the building of training facilities for Saudi personnel. The qualifications of Saudi personnel have improved over the years. In their early years, the Ministry of Education and GAGE often hired teachers who possessed no higher qualification than literacy."*(p.5148)

Teaching should be made a more attractive and respected job in Saudi Arabia, and this may increase the numbers of teachers.

One of the concerns of the Ministry of Education regarding this problem is the relationship between the lack of interest for Saudis in becoming teachers and the salaries and social status of Saudi teachers. The low social status of the profession makes the country heavily dependent on non-Saudi teachers. The Ministry of Education has built institutes for the preparation of teachers in all levels of school education in order to provide skilled teachers. As the *International Encyclopedia of Education* (1994) states:

> *"Elementary teacher-preparation institutes were built. These institutes offered a two-year program after elementary school. They were later upgraded to provide three years of teacher training after the intermediate school and now provide most of the Saudi teachers at the elementary level. Intermediate and secondary school teachers are predominantly four-year college graduates although some Saudi teachers at the intermediate level come from two-year teacher-training programs. In 1989-90 there were 127 teacher-training institutes at the secondary level (13 for males and 114 for females). These offer a three-year program below the college level. In the same year there were 40 postsecondary training institutes, mostly two-year junior colleges of education that are being upgraded into four-year autonomous colleges of education. Of these, 22 serve males and 18 serve females. Aside from these, there are six university colleges of education that serve both sexes, albeit separately. There are also seven fully-fledged colleges of education that are exclusively for women and operate under GAGE's Agency for Colleges. Besides preparing first-time teachers, these colleges often offer in-service training programs for school principals, supervisors, and teachers. (p.1548)*

Of the 16,620 teachers who worked for the Ministry of Education and GAGE in 1989-90, about 71 per cent were Saudi nationals, a jump from 1979-80 when Saudis were 60 percent of all teachers, and an obvious reflection of two factors. First, salaries paid to Saudi teachers are very competitive in comparison with salaries paid in most other branches of the civil service or the private sector, making teaching an attractive profession for an ever increasing number of Saudis. Second, there are, as indicated before, various

facilities for training teachers. It is an irony that a country that suffered a severe shortage of teachers only a few years ago will in a few more years be graduating more teachers than it can absorb. This is already happening in the major cities and at the elementary level throughout the country. One possible solution to this problem, occasionally discussed, is to convert some teacher-training junior colleges into multispeciality polytechnic or community colleges.(*International Encyclopedia of Education*, 1994, p.5148).

It should be noted here that people often do not place great value on teaching as a possible career. Many teachers regard the headmaster's/principal's role as a way to escape from the teaching load or, it may be said, there are some teachers who have had limited experience in teaching and training but nevertheless want to get a better position. As such, every teacher wants to become headteacher of a school, while at the same time the selection and appointment of the headteachers has its own problems. Most of the headteachers carry a Diploma in Teaching, together with some teaching experience, but some Saudi headteachers have only secondary and primary certification with some teaching experience. So, school headteachers in Saudi Arabia are not required to have any administrative credentials before being appointed to their position. In fact, selection and appointment is usually made on the basis of personal relations or reputation. It is very easy for teachers to form a good relationship with the person who has the authority to select and appoint teachers for the position of heading a school. Unfortunately, there is no national standard for the selection of the headteacher of a school. As Al-Saloom (1994) (in Arabic, translated by researcher) argues:

> "The education policy contains 336 articles ... but only one
> article mentioned that the new headteacher must be efficiently
> didactic, but it does not mention administration."(p.40)

1.14.6 The impact of external influences on development of the education system in Saudi Arabia

The education system in Saudi Arabia was influenced by other education systems from neighbouring Arab states, according to the *International Encyclopedia of Education* (1994), as "with little prior expertise in modern education, the educational system in Saudi Arabia basically adopted the curricula of other Arab countries, especially those of Egypt." The adoption of such a system has greatly influenced the Ministry of Education and the schools in Saudi Arabia. As Bacillous (1967) states:

> *"In centralised planning, as manifested in the Egyptian school system, the higher administrative authorities capitalised on their role in planning for effecting central control and adherence to rigid standards of performance."*(p.646)

It may be said that the Egyptian educational system has been incorporated into the Saudi Arabian education system. However, the problems of centralisation were less acute. Since 1954, when it was first established, the Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia exhibited a highly inconsistent hierarchical structure through the centralisation of the educational organisation authority and the widespread responsibility over such minor issues as supplying books and other materials to the school.

In this regard, the *International Encyclopedia of Education* (1994) states:

> *"Both the Ministry of Education and GAGE have a curriculum department, although little has changed in their educational programs since their inception. Both organisations hire the authors of the required textbooks, print the books, and distribute them among their schools. Thus, there is a uniform curriculum in the country."*(p.5149)

The Ministry of Education and the General Administration of Girls' Education have their own school district offices which depend heavily upon their central organisations for educational decisions, greatly limiting the delegation of authority to local school districts. Therefore, the school districts in Saudi Arabia simply transmit and carry out the decisions of the central organisation of the Ministry of Education. By way of a suggestion, it may

be that if decision-making responsibilities are shared, this can make a better contribution to the running of the education system and particularly of the schools in Saudi Arabia.

1.15 The flow of power in the Ministry of Education and headteacher position

As noted elsewhere in this study, the education system in Saudi Arabia is highly centralised. Curricula, the education policy and other educational issues are planned, as well as controlled, by the central government: that is, the Ministry of Education. Chart 1 above shows how the line of authority flows. In other words, what we mean here is that authority flows from top downwards. In terms of the formal schools, at the top we have the Minister of Education, followed by the secretary general, followed by the administrative head of the Ministry. After this comes the director general (who is sometimes known as the National Chief Education Administrator) and then finally the headteacher. From the perspective of education administration, the school headteacher holds the lowest executive position in the education hierarchy.

The school administration in Saudi Arabia is characterised as an establishment with its goals, programmes, clientele, technical corporation, bylaw, suitable equipment, and a physical and social environment with which it (i.e. the school administration) interacts. The school administration performs a number of functions.

1.15.1 In the organisational and administrative fields

The bye law of the elementary stage determines the administrative position of the school administration and its functions in a detailed and concentrated way. The bylaw was formulated decades ago and coincided with the establishment of modern (recent) school administration in the Kingdom (*The educational policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1974, p.10). The byelaw included general rules which concerned the education and its aims and organisation, the subjects (courses) which were taught to the pupils, and the conditions of children's admittance to school, scholastic timetable, and examinations, etc.

The byelaw defined the obligations (functions) of the school administration as follows:

1. The headteacher is responsible for all aspects of functions in a school, whether administrative, financial or technical. He also presides (personally or by a deputy) over councils and school committees. The byelaw specifies the headmaster's duties in direct supervision concerning study management, teachers' attendance and methods of their teaching, clerical work, keeping records, managing periodic meetings, and teaching six class periods a week.

2. The deputy: the deputy helps the headteacher and undertakes executive, administrative, technical and clerical work. He is directly responsible to the headmaster for managing the study, teachers' and pupils' uniformity (attendance), dealings, school maintenance, and school activities. The deputy teaches six class periods and he is considered the acting headmaster in case of the latter's absence.

3. The clerk: the clerk performs various clerical work related to the school's affairs.

4. The storekeeper: the storekeeper is responsible for managing the school's trusteeship (property). He receives, dispenses, registers, and manages the school's trusteeship.

5. The school controller: the school controller supervises the scholastic timetable, regularity of classes, porters, and guards.

6. The teacher: the byelaw defines the teacher's functions as attending school regularly, teaching, assessing and examining pupils and implementing the instructions of the school administration.

7. The acting teacher: the acting teacher is a teacher who works once a week to help the school controller in performing his duties.

8. The librarian: the role of the librarian was specified in managing the library and organising its scientific and cultural activities and facilitating ways of benefiting from the library.

9. The social worker: the social worker is responsible for administering the activities of social education, organising ceremonies, managing public service projects, and managing the students' (pupils') social affairs (*The educational policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*, 1974, p.11).

1.15.2 The functions of the headteacher in Saudi Arabian schools

The functions of the headteacher in Saudi schools do not allow him the independence and authority to design the educational policy that he deemed to be suitable to achieve the educational goals. In other words, the headteachers have no autonomy to enable them to evaluate the human and material requirements needed to implement the educational policy, to define timetables for the stages of implementation, to design the organisational hierarchy which makes a clear link between their own duties and the specialised administrative units inside the school and allocates responsibilities and the suitable powers to co-ordinate the working units to ensure the progression of the activities in one harmonised direction, to develop the work-force and direct the activities of employees to enhance their morale, to set criteria for supervising performance and determining the positive and negative deviations and to study their causes and assess the progress in performance.

All the above mentioned powers which the educationalists in Saudi Arabia demanded to be offered to the school headteacher were not available in reality.

> "*it is supposed that the school administration should have the powers to lay down the plans to prepare and to implement the scholastic programmes, to discuss the curricula and to decide and to ratify the educational philosophy and to choose the teachers, to make available the instructive means which help in teaching, and to create a proper climate in the school to enable the educational process to attain its goals easily.* "(Mahdar, 1983, p.61, in Arabic translated by researcher)

The headteacher in the Saudi school is not prepared and qualified to be an expert in the philosophy of education and to put together a special philosophy suitable to his school. He is not a man of educational strategies to be able to lay down the required practical policy. The headmaster is only a guardian taking care of his school and he has supervisory powers and functions. His relationship with the Ministry of Education is limited by letters which contain reports from his side and instructions from the other's (i.e. from the Ministry of Education).

The responsibility of implementation is given to a person who is under the control of an external organisation (i.e. the headmaster). As a result, the autocratic type of school administration is the only type which exists, and this reduces opportunities for collegiality, collectivity and teamwork. This means that there is no place for collective decisions, expression and differentiation of opinions, philosophies, and policies, or spending time in discussions in order to agree on one point of view. Unfortunately, this autocratic type of management is the most common form of management in the Arab world.

From his experience in the field of teaching and from his observations, the researcher formed a personal impression of the headteachers of the elementary schools in Riyadh. The researcher found that the headteachers were autocratic. In other words, the traditional method of personal interaction which creates a climate for mutual understanding and good relations, was not used by the headteacher in his relationship with his aides. All of them performed their duties and obligations in a traditional and humane manner. The school actually reflected its society.

The headteacher and the teachers in the Saudi school are controlled by social status, or familial (tribal) prestige (position) more than they are controlled by the professional posts which distinguish between the president and the people who are subservient to him. The president had a despotic, autocratic, personality and the junior people had to be

submissive in character. We should make a distinction between a relationship based on tribal or family ties, which is currently dominant in Saudi Arabia, and a relationship based on professional efficiency. This latter relationship is seldom found. The climate in the school is similar to that climate within a family, and employees (as individuals) behaved in a simple way but the degree of their integration in the educational work was low or normal. The important thing was to fulfil the needs of the school.

The summary of the researcher's conception about the headteacher is that the headteacher has no choice and his view is not important in the administration policies which are determined by the educational authorities. The headteacher and the teachers were at the same educational and qualification level and the headteacher had no real authority in choosing the teachers and he had no budget at his disposal.

The headteacher also was not negligent or tolerant to the degree to raise the slogan of "Laissez-faire laissez-passer". The headteacher performs his function in an open and small society, and every behaviour is scrutinised and discussed by others, as he is under the supervision of many eyes. The headteacher and his deputy are appointed by a ministerial decree.

In applying for a job in school administration in the Saudi schools, the priority is given to good conduct and autobiography and not given to seniority or qualification. The applicant's conduct may be considered good as a result of the passivity of the personality not of its positive ability. The person who is ambitious to occupy the post of a headteacher or a deputy does not usually make a great effort to be noticed and is not considered as a trouble-maker. He is a person who does not make trial and error decisions during his work, and does not take responsibility for initiatives which may expose him to accountability. The ambitious teacher adheres literally to the instructions and directions of the authority (Qambar, 1992, pp.25-27; in Arabic, translated by the researcher). In

other words, the headteacher candidate is usually submitted to a "taming or subduing process" before he can occupy the post of a headteacher.

The school administration and the headteacher in Saudi Arabia devote their efforts to managing the internal affairs of the schools such as managing the class and the staff and it has become an administration for control: controlling of attendance and non-attendance, controlling the starting and ending of classes, controlling the order in classes and preventing the making of noise and chatter, and controlling the allocation of curricula according to the plan of the Ministry of Education and the Directorate of Education (Principality).

The researcher, through his work as a teacher, notes that the authority of a school administration was concentrated in the headteacher, and the authority in class was concentrated in the teacher. It was an authority which did allow the class participation, and it observed the formal (or official) structure of relations which ensured the position of the teacher. As a result, the climate in classes was of a closed type which caused boredom, indifference, and depression for students. In such a climate, students did not find interesting issues which could fulfil their psychological and social needs and they did not find anything interesting which might attract their attention as individuals.

1.15.3 The educational dimension of the school administration

From the above analysis, it is clear that the school administration, in performing its administrative functions, is serving itself not its goal. It seems that the school administration seeks to implement the instructions of the authorities and to avoid making any trouble. The school administration consumes its efforts in routine organisational work which keeps the required formal structure in place regardless of its content.

It should be noted here that the shortcomings in the administrative work of the headteacher reveal a weakness; the headteachers are often accused of being concerned mainly to please the authority from above (in the ministry). The headteacher usually does not seem

to consider his professional duties as an educator as important as his administrative duties. He may consider these technical functions as obligations and duties for other supervisors and teachers. This situation seems to reflect itself negatively on the education and its goals. This, of course, is a characteristic of bureaucratic authority which is felt to represent the highest authority in the education system and is only concerned with administration.

These drawbacks and shortcomings can mean that the administration of education in the Kingdom does not help schools to achieve their educational goals. It does not address matters such as the modification of the school structure, class climate, plans of study and methods of teaching, the diversification of the formative activities; nor does it address the technical, athletic, social, scientific and practical development of students, nor methods of assessment which exceed rote memorising.

In other words, it can seem clear that our schools follow scholastic curricula in their academic character and neglect the importance of experience, activity and perseverance. The examinations and tests of knowledge acquisition do seem not to assess mental capability or personal creativity.

The inspectors appear not to be concerned mainly with assessing the quality of education and whether it achieves the educational goals of a school. They appear to concentrate on the formal administrative structure such as the plans of the study during the months of the year, preparation for daily classes and its writing down in the teacher's notebook, correcting of the homework. In summing up, the teacher practised a traditional function which would seem to be dictated by "verbal education" which did not only use its obsolete technology (chalk and talk).

1.16 The headteacher's school role in Saudi Arabia

As mentioned previously, school headteachers in Saudi Arabia are not required to have any administrative credentials to be appointed as headteachers of a school. The

headteacher as the leader of a school should have a vital interest in the constructive administration of the staff and pupil personnel in school, which is one of the most difficult responsibilities of a headteacher. The headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools are responsible for the general supervision of the whole school, the teaching staff and their attendance, absence and supervision, and helping teachers. Hence, the headteacher's role is to help every teacher to improve his working relationships with other teachers, and should provide the necessary authority and responsibility. Visiting the teacher in the classroom is one of the many valuable means available to the headteacher for improving instruction. The number and kind of visits will depend upon the overall supervisory programme in action in the school. The purpose of the headteacher in visiting classrooms is to aid teachers so that they are better able to stimulate and guide their pupils' learning. Also, it is to study the nature and the quality of the pupils' learning and the means by which the teacher is guided by the headteacher in the school. Visits by the headteacher to the teacher in the classroom should begin early in the school year and should be continued periodically throughout the term. There is not generally a schedule of visits to teachers in the classroom, rather they are arranged according to the headteacher's wishes. The teachers would probably be most uncomfortable with a sudden visit. According to Williams and Mullen (1990):

> "In general, there was a strong support for classroom observation as a part of a teacher's appraisal providing that this observation was arranged in such a way that it did not come without warning to the teacher. It was also generally felt that systems of observation should provide an ongoing perspective, for the observer, of the full spectrum of the teacher's classroom work, that it should be unobstrusive and, if possible, that it should support the learning situation." (p. 8)

The headteacher comes into the classroom after the beginning of the class and is seated at the rear of the room, not interrupting the class. The headteacher will take notes and will confer with the teacher on items that are noted during the classroom visit.

Schedule making

The headteacher and the staff of the school are responsible for planning, organising and evaluating the timetable of classes in school. A good schedule must be designed so as to provide pupils and teachers with a sense of confidence and security from the first day to the last. It should provide a good balance in section size and in the number of pupils and class.

According to the school policy in Saudi Arabia, groups of pupils stay together in the same classroom through the school years. Only the teacher changes for different subjects. Pupils do not move to different rooms for different subjects or choose one course instead of another. They can change rooms if they are going to physical education activities. Headteachers in Saudi Arabia are not permitted to establish or participate in designing the curriculum. This is done solely by the Ministry of Education at the Curriculum Department.

The headteacher is involved in a supervisory manner in determining the size of class in his school.

The headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools should follow Circulars which come from the Ministry of Education to the headteacher, and through which the headteacher receives supervision from the Ministry of Education to carry out his responsibilities. The headteacher should follow the Circulars of the Ministry of Education for his role in school. According to Circular No. 4/262 of the Ministry of Education, dated 1987 (in Arabic, translated by the researcher), checking up on teachers' attendance, preparation, visiting classes, co-operation with school inspectors, distributing duties to workers at school, following up school activities and teacher's performance, are all identified in the regulations and instructions issued by education systems as responsibilities to be shouldered by the headteacher.

The Circular entitled *School Administration* (1987, p.75) indicated the relationship between the school and educational inspectors (the Ministry of Education or the educational region sends their directors to the school to look at how the education process is going on). So school inspectors have an important mission to fulfil and the school should co-operate with them. The school should also follow the instruction of the inspectors when setting up the curriculum and arranging the class schedule. The school and its administration should follow the instructions and regulations from the main inspector or administrator of the region. Moreover, the school headteacher should meet the inspector and tell him about any problems, either on the level of administration or education, which occur to him and seek the inspector's advice concerning the matter (*Circular* No. 4/262, 1987, p.75).

The Ministry of Education mentioned in the Bulletin issued in 1962 that:

1.   it is not allowed for school staff to engage in politics either inside or outside the school;

2.   anyone who works in the school has no right to make direct contact with the Ministry of Education except via the headteacher or his deputy (*Bulletin of the Education System in Saudi Arabia*, Ministry of Education, 1962, p.11; in Arabic, translated by the researcher).

The above is mentioned by the Circular or Bulletin issued by the Ministry of Education, in which the functions of the headteachers of Saudi Arabian schools are determined.

On the other hand, the headteacher is considered the base of the educational ladder which is the vehicle on and through which the educational goals of the country are achieved and in which administrative decisions are transformed into actions. The attainment of these goals depends on the management of the school and on the headteacher in particular. This requires of the Ministry of Education that it should understand the roles which

should be performed. Although the importance of the role of headteacher in transforming educational goals into achievements is self-evident, it is nonetheless symptomatic that a number of headteachers in the Kingdom do not understand the roles that they ought to undertake.

These roles basically consist of the supervision of the educational process, the maintenance of liaison between the various departments within the school, and the relationship of the school with the outside community as well as the purely administrative aspects of the job itself. Although many headteachers carry out these responsibilities, they still do not sufficiently maintain the balance that ought to exist between them, tending typically to concentrate on one role while ignoring or minimising the others. This can be ascribed either to their inexperience, negligence or their misperception of those roles. Al-Dayel (1988) states that many headteachers allocate too much of their time to the administrative aspects of their responsibilities and this affects their other duties; whereas they could conveniently delegate their authority to oversee most of these aspects to other members of the school (Al-Dayel, 1988, p.75; in Arabic, translated by the researcher).

On the other hand, the expansion of education in the Kingdom has resulted in the assumption of the leadership of those schools by some non-qualified, self-interested headteachers. Many of these headteachers lack the drive necessary to carry out their roles effectively. This results in very unfavourable school circumstances. This inevitably leads to the appearance of some undesirable values like sluggishness in carrying out duties, dominative individualism, destructive competitiveness, renunciation of responsibilities, nepotism, lack of co-operation between school members and the disappearance of good interpersonal relationship which are important to the realisation of the educational goals. Cook et al (1971) stated that

> "It's very easy to turn a blind eye to problems in a school, and pretend that everything is all right, when there is tension or trouble or something that is not going right. I think it's the head's

job to be open-minded and bring such things to the surface/ If things are slipping or not going quite right, the head must be able to bring these out into the open in a good-humoured sort of way. And the head must be able to deal with problems, not through directives, but by involving everyone in a solution. "(p.70)

Additionally, some headteachers doggedly cling to the older management methods that they know and resist the introduction and use of newer methods. Everard et al (1990) addressed

"schools are not, and cannot be, closed systems; their boundaries must be semi permeable if they are to thrive and respond to environmental change. "(p.9)

This would appear to be what is lacking currently in the Saudi Arabian education system.

In fact, the organisation of a school is very complex. It needs qualified leaders, but most headteachers in Saudi schools are not sufficiently qualified to understand their duties and responsibilities towards the school and its personnel. The aim of this study is to identify the headteacher's role and style in order to make clear what leadership style is used by headteachers, which style is most effective in terms of pupil achievement, and to offer headteachers the knowledge which will enable them to understand, and consequently carry out, their role and duties as primary school headteachers more effectively.

A headteacher should be thought of as an instructional leader of a school. The headteacher works with teachers and pupils, carries out school administration tasks, aids teachers and gives them information and support, is responsible for promoting teachers and pupils and represents the school to the society. He must understand the purpose of supervision and be able to organise and administer. The headteacher still has limited qualifications in educational administration. There are still no formal training programmes for school administrators in Saudi Arabia. School administrators were formerly teachers who may only hold the required Diploma or Bachelor's degree to teach in high school or primary

school. According to *Al-Yamamah* magazine in November 1994, the Minister of Education in Saudi Arabia stated (in Arabic, translated by the researcher) that:

> *"the Ministry of Education has informal part-time training programmes which are given to teachers, supervisors (inspectors) and headteachers every year and over 4,478 graduated in the academic year 1993-94. This training is provided in the field of instruction/guidance related areas. "*(p.13)

The writer recommends that training programmes for the school headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools held during the summer vacation period might help to develop and improve their job skills. Moreover, they will keep in touch with new educational development through these training programmes.

1.17   Summary of Chapter One

This chapter's aims are to identify current problems relating to the education system in Saudi Arabia, which is located in the south western part of Asia lying on the Arabian peninsula. For at least 3,000 years, the Arabian peninsula has been inhabited by semitic speaking people. They descend from two tribes, the Himyar from the south, and Adnan from Abraham (peace be to him) the prophet through his son Ishmael from the north. The Arabian peninsula (Saudi Arabia) is proud of the Prophet Mohammed who was born in this land and the founding of Islam. The first revelation to Mohammed (peace be to him) was "recite thou in the name of the Lord, who taught by the pen".

This chapter has identified the development of education in Saudi Arabia. The formal education in Saudi Arabia began in 1924 with the establishment of the Directorate General of Education, and the first post-elementary institution was Al-Lima Institute. From 1934 the Directorate General of Education introduced a number of educational innovations to the country and the first higher education began in 1949. In 1953, the Ministry of Education was established as the authority of education in the country instead of the Directorate General of Education. Female education began in 1960. Public education is

free from primary through higher levels, but there is no compulsory or universal primary education. The national system comprises six years of primary education, designed for children aged 6. The intermediate school is for children holding the primary school certificate, and secondary school is for students who hold intermediate school certificate. Students spend three years in each of these schools. There are also vocational and technical centres for the students who did not go to public schools. There is an opportunity for education for disabled children.

There are issues which are facing the educational system in Saudi Arabia, as a result of the education not being compulsory. There are some students who drop out of school completely, causing illiteracy among the children. A number of students from high school do not find a place in the university. The teachers of public education have low morale. The education in Saudi Arabia has not changed in 23 years, and there is a lack of administrative flexibility as a result of the centralisation system and lack of skilled personnel.

The curricula which are given to the students in school are traditional. In elementary school, the students are taking Arabic, Islamic religion, history, geography, mathematics and sport.

In post-elementary schools, subjects are Arabic language and rhetoric, Islamic law, history, geography, Arabic literature, mathematics, science and the emphasis is on the spoken and written word.

Secondary school students choose either Art or Sciences as their field. In the science programme, they are required to concentrate on physics, chemistry, biology, religion and history.

The arts programme consists of history, Arabic literature, Arabic language, English, geography and Islamic religion.

Another problem facing education is the shortage of suitable buildings for teaching children at all stages of public education. There is also an illiteracy problem which presents obstacles to the development of the country. The aim of education in Saudi Arabia is to create good citizens by providing religious, moral, mental and physical education to enable them to occupy a place in society with full awareness of their rights and obligations. The statutes and the role of school headteacher was formulated decades ago and the functions of the headteacher in Saudi Arabia are not of authorisational or independent type which could grant him the right to design the educational policy.

1.18   Conclusion

A review of the development and philosophy of education in Saudi Arabia shows that it appears to have developed more rapidly in quantity than quality. This can be attributed to various failings such as lack of finance, and failure of the administrative systems. Government efforts do not seem to have guaranteed educational progression, although the government is deeply involved in education. Some of the obstacles we came across were that the concentration of administration in education lies in the hands of a few officials and is aggravated by the absence of any clear definitions with regard to duties of employees.

The educational system should be able to provide all the necessary skills required to meet a complete occupational structure as well as the qualified manpower to obtain this. We should clean out all obstacles in order to modernise education and make it easier for teachers and for children to comprehend. Technical education should be expanded to cope with the demand.

Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the relevant literature relating to the effect of leadership style on pupils. Research on the subject of the leadership style in education in Saudi Arabia is scarce. Hence this review relies mainly on literature available in the UK and USA relevant to the study, especially relating to the variables of leadership style concerned with task and people, and effect on pupils' achievement. The word leadership is freely used in all cultures and there is a great deal of misunderstanding of its meaning, and so for the purpose of this study an attempt will be made in this chapter to define this term. Many people who have researched and written about leadership have tried to analyse the characteristics of successful leaders. Some have concentrated on personal and physical characteristics such as height, appearance, energy level, self esteem, dominance, general intelligence, and oral fluency. Others have concentrated on such matters as the leader's charisma and his relationships with subordinates. But the question is raised, why do people obey leaders? That is, what makes people obey their leader? It seems to be related to "the legitimisation of authority for the workers", as well as personal characteristics. According to Hanson (1985):

> "The question of 'why people obey' relates to the legitimisation of authority for the workers. Weber defined three 'pure' types of authority, the first legitimated by the sanctity of tradition, such as the divine right of kings. The second was legitimated by the charismatic character of the leader, exemplified by the person who inspires great loyalty and confidence among his or her followers. The third type of authority, according to Weber, is 'legal- rational' – authority based on a belief in the supremacy of the law."

> "In organisations based on legal-rational authority, the organisation's charter and formally established policies vest the authority of command in specific offices to be used by the people who occupy those offices. The legitimacy of the controlling

*influence of the supervisor over the subordinate is a matter of
organisational law. Anyone who accepts the terms of employment
in effect is accepting a legal constraint on his or her behaviour
and considers it his or her duty to obey orders. In this context,
when a teacher chooses to sign a contract with a school system,
he is prepared and willing to bind himself to the decisions of his
superiors in all aspects of school tasks.* " (pp. 19- 20)

It should be mentioned here that Hanson (1985) provides these comments on the definition

of leadership based on a review of work in different disciplines (p.ix), rather than based

on his own empirical work in the area of school. Thus, it may be argued, that certain

issues to which Hanson (1985) gave consideration may be of little meaning in certain

contexts.

The important question about what is meant by leadership is raised by Fiedler (1974):

> *What then do we really mean by the terms* leader *and* leadership??
> *It is illuminating to look at some of the ways that leadership has
> been defined by those who have worked in this area.* (p.3)

Fiedler then proceeds to provide the following definitions:

> *"Leadership is the exercise of authority and the making of
> decisions" (Dubin, 1951).*

> *"Leadership is the initiation of acts that results in a consistent
> pattern of group interaction directed toward the solution of
> mutual goals" (Hemphill, 1954).*

> *"The leader is the man who comes closest to realising the norms
> the group values highest; this conformity gives him his high rank,
> which attracts people and implies the right to assume control of
> the group" (Homans, 1950).*

> *"The leader is the person who creates the most effective change
> in group performance" (Cattell, 1951).*

> *"The leader is one who succeeds in getting others to follow him"
> (Cowley, 1928).*

> *"Leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward
> goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1948).*

One point needs to be made here about Fiedler's (1974) view of the definition of leadership. He quotes definitions offered by different people and considered them all to be meaningful, but this to me is just theory, the practice could be different. This point will be investigated in my field work, and in fact these are the kinds of thing we shall be looking for.

Whitaker (1993), after reviewing a large body of literature on management of change in schools, defines leadership as "behaviour that enables and assists others to achieve planned goals" (p.73).

Hoy and Miskell (1978) define it as follows:

> "Leadership may be defined as a process through which persons or groups intentionally influence others in the development and achievement of group or organisational skills." (p.50)

It is interesting to note that the eight definitions make reference to the effect that individuals have on others within the group. This implies that leaders can exist only inside an organisation.

The common element from the above definitions seems to be that leadership involves influencing the manner in which other people behave. Our concern in this chapter is mainly to review the literature, and the review considers literature relevant to the topic from both within and outside the field of education. Also, it should be noted that the term headteacher has been used interchangeably with the term principal (Thomson, 1992, p.30). These two terms will be used in this study to refer to the leadership in the school.

2.2 Historical Development of Organisation Theories

If leadership is exercised within the context of an organisation, then perhaps a useful starting point would be to consider the nature of schools as organisations, their purposes and the factors that contribute to their efficiency as institutions.

The study of organisation and management is often referred back to Max Weber, the German social scientist, who propagated the concept of bureaucratic organisation (1921). The concept of bureaucracy was not generally known to organisation theorists until 1940 when Talcott Parsons demonstrated its application to the academic world. However Hanson, (1985) states that by the turn of the century, scientific management theory had been propagated by a number of managerial thinkers, the most famous of them in the USA. In 1880, Taylor had defined principles and practices of scientific management which sent shock waves through all sectors of corporate life. As such, Hanson sees Taylor as the father of scientific management and further argues that Taylor believed in the adoption of a reward system that would in a way motivate workers to achieve higher levels of productivity (Hanson, 1985, p.21).

If Taylor has been influential on the development of scientific management in America, another influential scholar, a French national, has been Fayol (1841-1925), whose definition of the administrative process has since played an important role in the area of management. Fayol established five elements basic to organisations: planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling (Hanson, 1985, p.22).

Mayo, in his studies in Hawthorne (1927-1932) as reported by Owens (1970, p.47), concentrated upon the human relations concept in achieving a higher level of productivity in an organisation rather than the materialistic concepts of organisations. Mayo (ibid) emphasised the psychological forces acting on the workers. He recognised that their needs and motivations were important for the efficiency of the organisation.

2.2.1 Organisation and Islam

Earlier ideas concerning organisational theory in Islamic civilisation can be traced back to Ibn Khaldun (1332-1406), an historian and sociologist. He is also recognised as the founder of sociology by his direct involvement in this field. Ibn Khaldun was remarkably appreciated by some scholars in the field of organisation theory. Dale (1960) argues that

Ibn Khaldun provided one of the first systematic expositions of the comparative method in the study of organisations, and the development of his conclusions was brilliantly conceived. Ibn Khaldun was an adviser on organisation and political action to kings and caliphas (Calipha came from the Arabic root "leader") in North Africa and Spain during the fourteenth century. Some of his ideas are perhaps still applicable, e.g. Dale (1960, pp.17-18) contends that Ibn Khaldun felt that an understanding of organisations must proceed from external data transmitted from the past or from personal experience to explanatory or demonstrable knowledge of their cause and nature. The style of leadership role, according to Ibn Khaldun's theory, was influenced by two factors: the wider environment and the immediate organisation. Ibn Khaldun argued that organisations could produce a rational regime which worked either for the common good or for the selfish goals of its leaders.

Dale (1960) argues that the views of Ibn Khaldun were the predominant theories in Arab Muslim civilisation during the fourteenth century.

2.2.2 Organisation and School

In education, the consensus theorists have seen schooling performing two functions: first, schools represent a rational way of sorting and selecting people so that the most able attain the highest status position; second, schools teach cognitive skills and norms essential for the performance of most roles in a complex society. As a result, a school is a complex organisation function for achieving the goals of education by interaction. The headteachers and teachers are involved specifically in planning, problem solving, decision making, communication and providing good skills to students. Owen (1970) noted:

> "In order to get the organisation's work done, the people in the various roles must meet face to face and interact; they must communicate, make decisions, plan and so forth. This requires interaction between people, not just interaction between roles. Thus, in the school a teacher is much more than the job

description would indicate, much more, surely, than the table of organisation would indicate." (p.50)

2.3 School Administration and Leadership Research

2.3.1 School administration

Walker (1965) has indicated that when a group of people is brought together in some systematic way in order to achieve a desired objective, we refer to the group as an organisation. Clearly, important features of any organisation are its purposes and its system of administration to achieve these purposes. Walker summarised the functions of school administration as follows:

A   Administration as decision-making.

B   Administration as problem-solving.

C   Administration as a social process.

D   Administration as leadership (p.26).

2.3.2 Function of school administration

In the literature of the Arabic world, Dr. Sulayman (1978) argues that the function of a school is determined by factors inside and outside the school. On the other hand, it is important to remember that school administration is not a goal in itself, but a means of organising learning so as to attain the goals of the school. Dr. Sulayman (1978) further states that, for school administration to be effective, it must have the following characteristics:

1.   It must have well-planned goals. He suggests that these are best implemented through systems and good planning for the benefit of children.

2.   It must be flexible, and at the same time have clearly defined leadership roles.

3.   It must respect the opinions and ideas of individual workers (p.293).

A comparative study of evidence from three countries (Harber, 1992) argues that the main factors which contribute to school effectiveness are:

1. *The leadership role of the principal and senior management team is vital.*

2. *It is crucial for schools to be well managed institutions. In this context a happy, efficient staff is of key importance. So is the part played by in-service training. Staff operating on agreed united policies appear to be the most effective.*

3. *Effective schools are orderly at all times, both inside and outside the classroom.*

4. *The quality of teaching staff is perhaps the most important factor. Schools with a weak staff will never be as effective as those with a strong staff.*

5. *Schools need to concentrate more of their endeavour upon teaching itself while at the same time promoting empathic pupil care and learning-centred approaches in the classroom.*

6. *The curriculum should be as important for low-achieving as high-achieving pupils.*

7. *Regular feedback on performance needs to be given to all pupils.*

8. *The academic demands on performance need to be given to all pupils.*

9. *Pupils should expect and receive professional standards from teachers at all times. When this happens pupils reciprocate.*

10. *Proper use should be made of classroom teaching time as part of standard practice within schools.*

11. *Traditional 'core' subjects should be emphasised by schools, particularly reading, writing and maths. It seems that reading standards are vitally important. Once pupils fall behind in the basics, disaffection may replace a desire to learn.*

12. *Pupils should be encouraged to participate in the running and organisation of the school. When pupils identify with their school and its staff they will be more respectful and show more positive behaviour and learning features.*

13.   Pupils are more likely to feel part of a school unit in buildings which are clean and well cared for, and in schools whose organisational structure does not make them feel lost. " (pp.161-162)

It is interesting to note the studies by Dr Sulayman and Dr Harber in that they link the functions of a school to its management and wider environment. Their research seems to indicate that in developing countries which are characterised by centralised systems and bureaucratic restrictions, rules and regulations may be too restrictive to enable schools to achieve their educational goals.

Preedy (1993) cited the work of Purkey and Smith (1983), who emphasise six factors as very important for school effectiveness:

1.   curriculum-focused school leadership;

2.   supportive climate within the school;

3.   emphasis on curriculum and teaching (for example, maximising academic learning);

4.   clear goals and high expectations for students;

5.   a system for monitoring performance and achievement;

6.   parental involvement and support (p.230).

Preedy (1993), further, discusses two research studies about the effectiveness of school on students' achievement. She showed two important aspects. The first concerned teaching, and the second teacher development. These two factors were more important for school effectiveness than the cultural background of the school. Preedy quoted the Mortimore study:

"Teaching is an important aspect of school effectiveness. Indeed, some researchers claim that the major contributor to school effectiveness is teaching rather than school culture. Be that as it may, we do know that the more structured and reflective the

approach to teaching, the more likely it is that students' academic performance will improve. These specifications can therefore be used by teachers as a basis for auditing and reviewing their own teaching. The second and related reason is that teacher development and school development are inextricably linked. Management is everyone's responsibility and the school's development plan provides a structure for integrating classroom and whole school developments on the one hand .... classroom improvement is about enhancing teaching skills and strategies, curriculum development and classroom management." (Preedy, 1993, p.232)

To view this above quotation from the perspective of the function of school administration, it can be argued that both teaching and teacher development are important in understanding school effectiveness. The rationale behind this argument is that both teaching and school culture are what makes a school function; and are there in the schools on a day-to-day basis.

2.3.3 Implications of Section 2.3.1

The above research studies indicate that a wide range of variables can influence the effectiveness of a school in providing education for children. The learning process or schooling process consists of planned goals, flexibility, a good relationship among members and initiative of the staff. This climate is defined as properly related to the behavioural environment of the organisation of the school. It is often referred to as the product of interrelationships which occur between individuals in the school, including the effective dimension of teachers, efficient teaching, and strategies for the curriculum. The nature of the curriculum is important for low achievers or high achievers. It is very important that pupils should be provided with regular feedback on their performances. Pupils should also expect to receive professional standards from teachers at all times. When this happens, pupils reciprocate. In addition, the above review suggests that traditional core subjects should be emphasised by the school. Pupils are more likely to feel a part of the school if they are encouraged to participate in the organisation of a school. All these elements can contribute to making schools more efficient.

2.4 Styles of administration

Given the above complex functions of a school and the sensitivities in interpersonal relationships, clearly the style of administration within a school may have a crucial impact on a school's success or failure.

Paisey (1980) states that the management style of an individual may be defined as the characteristic way in which he performs his managerial tasks, assessed over the long term by those who work with him in a specific organisation. He analyses the style in education management as being based on concern for production, or concern for people.

Paisey (1980), who cited Halpin's work (1966), has provided a basis for extensive investigation into many areas of school organisation and management in the United States. The conclusion reached was that in school administration, relations between teacher and pupil are as important as those between teacher and teacher (Paisey, 1980, pp.95-125).

In contrast to the style of managers, there is also the style of leadership demonstrated by those who are acting strictly in the capacity of supervisory manager.

A study by Banks (1968) explores the concept of authoritarian or democratic school management. This, however, is only one aspect of administrative behaviour and a number of other investigations have attempted to develop more sophisticated theories of administrative style. Banks points out that one of the most interesting forms of administrative behaviour theory is that developed by Halpin and his associates. This was originally derived from research dealing with the behaviour of leaders and analysis of the factors comprising this behaviour. His studies led to the isolation of two principal dimensions of administrative behaviour: initiation of structure and consideration. According to Halpin, these are two empirical dimensions (Banks, 1968, p.164).

It is interesting to note that from these studies of the definitions and differences in administrative styles, a definitive description of administration cannot be given. Neither

can it be said that any one administrator follows a certain style totally. Instead, characteristics of style emerge from these studies.

From information gained from studies about the theory of the organisation of management in education, industry, the army, and the civil service, the important question was: *"could some of the theories developed in one organisation be of use or application in the school situation?"*

A study by Bush (1989, pp.3-8) concludes that there is no single theory of educational management, rather there are several competing perspectives which attempt to explain events and behaviour in schools. One of these competing perspectives is based on the work of Max Weber concerning the nature of bureaucracy.

In a study by Landers and Myers (1977) the three styles of organisation which were categorised by Max Weber are examined:

1.   Traditional organisations occupying positions of power and authority inherited or handed down from generation to generation.

2.   Charismatic organisation. According to Weber, this style of organisation is always headed by one (not more) leader to whom everyone owes loyalty and allegiance by virtue of the force of the leader's personality.

3.   Bureaucracy. Weber described this type of organisational structure as designed specifically to make the maximum use of administrative specialists who possess a high level of expertise. Positions in this system are created on a functional basis and officeholders are recruited to fill them on the basis of their technical competence to do the work required in those positions. Authority in this system is based on the supremacy of laws. This concept of legal authority is epitomised in the phrase, 'a government of laws not man' (p.378).

In a study on bureaucracy theory, Paula Silver (1983) examined the characteristics of 'pure' bureaucracy. This can be seen in Figure 2.1 and demonstrates the pyramidal structure of organisation, the linkage of efficiency and rationality, and the legal foundation of bureaucratic authority.

Figure 2.1:

Characteristics of bureaucracy as a pure type

Efficiency   Rationality
Cost-effectiveness   Goal direction

Hierarchy
of offices   B
                 U
Rules   R
                    E
Specialisation   A
                     U
Impersonality   C
                      R
Documentation   A
                        C
Salaried personnel   Y

Control of resources

Legal authority
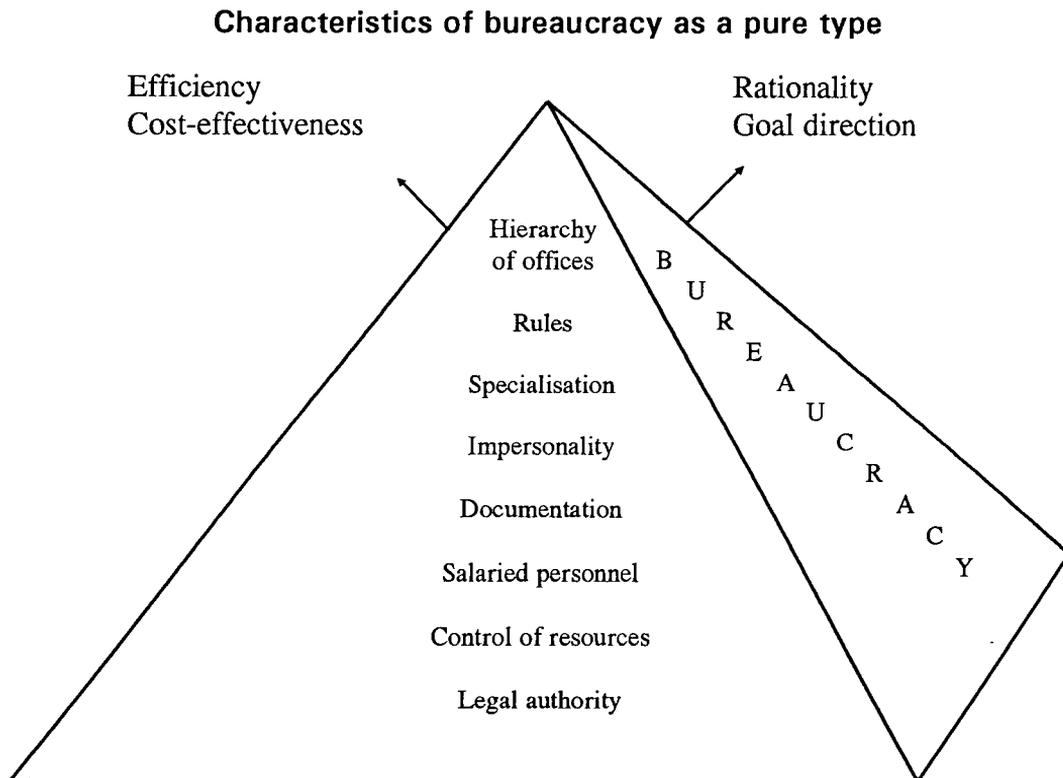
(Silver, 1983. p. 78)

The diagram reflects the classical pyramid of responsibility that we find in many organisations. It also recognises the existence of other forms of power.

Paula Silver (1983) identified nine types of power which she classified as either coercive, utilitarian or normative.

1. Coercive organisations are those in which the power used is coercive (physical) and the lower participants' involvement is predominantly alienative (hostile).

2. Utilitarian organisations are those in which the power used is mainly remunerative (material) and the lower participants are mainly calculative (materialistic).

3. Normative organisations are those in which the power base is mainly normative (symbolic) and the lower participants' involvement is mainly moral (committed) (p.78).

This classification of organisations on the basis of their compliance patterns can serve as a useful framework for the comparative analysis of organisations.

Figure 2.2:

Compliance patterns in organisation, 4 ideal types

Types of power			
Normative	Normative Alienative	Normative Calculative	Normative
Remunerative	Remunerative Alienative	Utilitarian	Renumerative Moral
Coercive	Coercive	Coercive Calculative	Coercive Moral
	Alienative	Calculative	Moral

(Silver, 1983, p101)

Silver states that compliance within all organisations falls within one of these nine categories with the coercive, utilitarian and normative providing the most stable organisations which she terms 'congruent' power involvement patterns.

Within the compliance theory we see an attempt to combine the effects of power with the nature of people within the organisation.

A similar conclusion may be reached concerning Max Weber's ideas about bureaucracy from Hughes et al (1985) (citing Anderson, 1968, and Jones, 1974), who stated:

"Over the years the terms 'bureaucracy' and 'bureaucratic', which are almost invariably used pejoratively by frustrated participants, have been found relevant in describing the functioning of educational systems and institutions, schools and colleges, particularly if they are large. Such institutions conform to a considerable degree to Weber's specification of bureaucracy, e.g. judged by their division of work, their hierarchical structures, their rules and regulations, their impersonal procedures and their employment practices based on technical criteria." (p.8)

Halpin (1966) attempted to examine the problematic nature of administrative style by identifying six distinct types of climate within schools - the open climate, the autonomous climate, the controlled climate, the familiar climate, the paternal climate and the closed climate (p.174)).

The critical factors of behaviour of principals and teachers are explained in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3:

School climate

	Principal's behaviour		Teacher's behaviour
1.	Aloofness: emotional and physical distance from the group.	1.	Disengagement
2.	Production emphasis, close supervision of tasks	2.	Hindrance, burdensome load of non-teaching tasks.
3.	Thrust: energy, vigour and drive as a role model; meeting both task and social needs simultaneously.	3.	Esprit, energy, vigour and drive as both task and social needs are met simultaneously.
4.	Consideration: concern for staff members as individuals	4.	Intimacy: concern for each other as individual people.

This table is from a study by Silver (1983), pp.183-184.

Other writers have stressed the importance of administration in creating intrinsic motivational factors.

Owen (1981, p.126) reviewed a large body of literature, mainly on theories in organisational behaviour with reference to education. Owen's (1981) main objective was to establish the concept of behaviour in educational organisation.

> "The lower order needs on Maslow's hierarchy tend to approximate closely the maintenance factors as outlined by Herzberg. Salary, working conditions, job security (school district) policy and administration and supervision are generally physiological and safety oriented needs. In contrast the intrinsic motivational factors of recognition, advancement, responsibility, growth, achievement, and the work itself tend to be closely related to the desire for esteem and self actualisation. The integrated model would also suggest that organisations have traditionally emphasised lower order needs if workers are to become motivated in their jobs; it will be necessary for administrators to make the alterations necessary to stimulate the motivational factors in the jobs themselves" (p.127).

Figure 2.4:

┌─────── Herzberg ───────┐		
──▶ Motivating factors ◀──		
In work itself achievement	Possibility of growth Responsibilities	advancement recognition status
	↓	
Maintenance Factors		
Interpersonal relations: supervisors colleagues subordinates	District policy and administration Working conditions salaries and benefits	Job security Technical competence of supervision
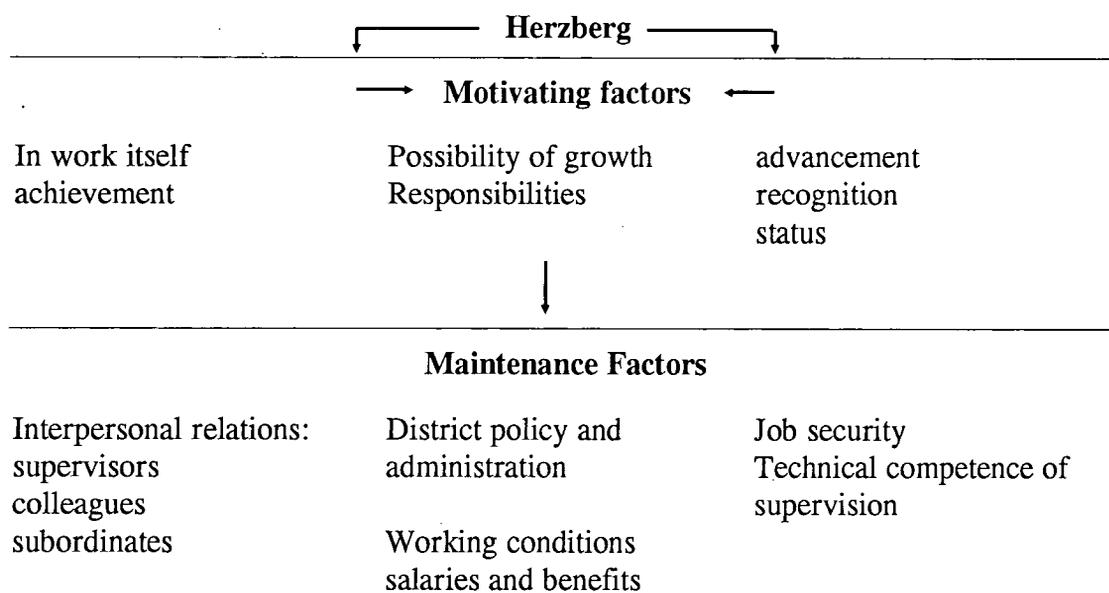
(Owens, 1981, p.127)

Similarly, Everard and Morris (1990) define motivation as 'getting results through people', or 'getting the best out of people'. In motivating people we should be concerned with the needs and potential of the following parties:

1. The group which we are managing or in which we manage.

2. The individuals who make up that group.

3. The clients (pupils, parents, etc.) of the school, college or other organisation in which we all work (p.20).

2.4.1 Implications of 2.4

As can be seen above, the style of administration in an organisation is an important contributory factor to its efficiency. This section, therefore, pulls together some of the findings on administrative style such as concern for production and concern for people; people who are acting strictly in the capacity of supervisory management; or from two kinds of dimension of administrative behaviour, initiation of structure and consideration. The style of administration comes from concepts of the characteristics of the administration, as reflected by the bureaucracy concept, traditional organisation with inherited authority, and the charismatic organisation always headed by one person. The organisation reflects responsibility exercised by such powers as coercive, utilitarian and normative. These compliance patterns in organisations are congruent power involvement patterns. The compliance theory attempts to combine the effects of power with the nature of people within the organisation. The organisations must also traditionally emphasise lower order needs, if workers are to become motivated in their jobs.

2.5 Effective communication and decision making in organisational behaviour

Fundamental to any organisation are the modes of communication and decision making.

2.5.1 Communication

Dennison and Shenton (1987), citing Roger and Agarowa (1976), contend that:

> *"communication is the life blood of an organisation; if we could somehow remove communication flows from an organisation we would not have an organisation."* (p.140)

Similarly, in his study, Walker (1965, p.35) has described communication as closely related to organisation. It can seem impossible to conceive of organisation, administration or of any of the major steps in administration which we are discussing without communication. It can seem important particularly for decision-making, planning and evaluation.

In another study by Bredeson (1987), the following questions were raised about the role of communication in an organisation:

1.   What is the major message communicated through the various modes and at different levels by the Principal?

2.   What do communication activities of individual principals tell us about how principals interpret their leadership role in school? How do they set administrative priorities? How do they put their beliefs and values into practice?

Bredeson found:

> *"that the communication activities of school principals are dominated by dyadic interpersonal contacts to maintenance messages which related to policies, procedures and regulations for organisations. "* (Bredeson, 1987, pp.50-60)

Another study by Campbell, Corbally and Nystrand (1983) describes the concepts of communication and specific acts. They see communication as important, both amongst the administration staff in an organisation and between the organisation and other organisations. They argue that encouragement should be given to group discussion, because

> *"communication is the transfer of information or of messages from a source to a receiver. It has little or nothing to do with the use to which a receiver puts the information or message received, although that factor is a measure of the effectiveness of communication. It can, however, involve rapid changes of status from source to receiver, in what is often described as a 'give and*

take' discussion between two individuals, each is alternately a source and a receiver". (Campbell et al., 1983, pp.146-152)

In summary, Campbell, Corbally and Nystrand's study breaks it down into two factors:

1. Communication has the advantages (verbal) of information exchange and quick response. Much of the communication of an administrator (both sending and receiving) is related to the assessment of attitudes, feelings or progress within school or school district.

2. A disadvantage of oral communication is that thoughts and ideas do not usually come in an organised and comprehensive way as they do in writing (Campbell et al., 1983, p.152).

2.5.2 Organisation and Decision-making

Simon (1966) states that the administration makes its decisions in the light of one or more of the following factors.

1. Legislational policies, which depend on the values and ethics of the higher administration.

2. Administrational policies, which are general and comprehensive and open to change and explanation.

3. Practical policies, most of which are laws and information for specifying the authority of employees (p.79).

Simon (1966) says decision-making is based on three activities which are:

1. Intellectual activity related to the definition of the problem.

2. Planning activity to solve the problem and find a suitable substitute.

3. External activity, selecting a substitute and making a decision.

In his study Simon (1966) argues that no administrative decision can be made in any organisation in a way which is isolated from the influence of any individuals, so that the administrative decision may not be the result of one person's thought but of many people's thoughts (p.98).

For Barnard (1938), decision-making is *"characteristic of organisation behaviour as contrasted with individual behaviour, and the description of the processes of decision are relatively more important to the understanding of organisation behaviour, than in the case of individuals"* (pp.186-187).

We note from these studies the importance of individual influence, and also that of understanding organisational behaviour.

Further, Everard and Morris (1990) identify four types of decision-taking:

1.   Autocratic: the decision is taken without consultation, then others are informed of what is to be done and what is expected of them.

2.   Persuasive: the decision is taken before consultation and then 'sold' to others.

3.   Consultative: the views of others are sought and taken into account before a decision is taken.

4.   Co-determinate: decisions are taken in either a consensus or a majority basis (pp.52-53).

The appropriate style will depend on people and circumstances. From the writers' point of view on decision-making, we can conclude that they endorse the importance of the individual worker being involved in making decisions, as they raise the idea of equality between authority and responsibility, and that of giving authority to the people who are accepting responsibility. But is this the case in all organisations?

2.5.3 Summary of 2.5

Communication and decision making are vital to the organisation and important skills to be engendered for a developing organisation, as decision making is one of the important factors in achieving the objectives of the organisation and a characteristic of organisation behaviour. Communication is defined as the transfer of messages from a source to a receiver (Dennison et al, 1987). The concept of communication is important both to an organisation, and between the organisation and other organisations, for sending and receiving messages are related to the assessment of attitudes and feelings or progress within a school or school district.

2.6 Theories of Leadership

Having examined some of the complexities and dimensions of schools as organisations, the purpose of this section is to summarise selected aspects of theories on leadership.

Many studies exist on theories of leadership and only those available will be cited. Winkley (1983) raises the question:

> "What theoretical guidance can we offer? Our new head will not be reassured to know that there are as many potential styles of leadership as there are different types of power and authority. Halsey (1971) distinguishes three basic forms of authority: charismatic, legalistic, and traditional. Barnard (1938) distinguished between authority of position, the kind of power which stems from a hierarchical position, and 'authority of leadership' or authority which derives from personal power or influence. French and Raven (1959) further classify power into reward and punishment (e.g. the giving or withholding of resources to influence behaviour, referent (i.e. the desire of members of organisations to identify with their leader), legitimate (which stems from formal position in an organisation) and expert (the possession of knowledge or control over information). It is certain that heads of schools may at one time or another make use of all these types of authority, a fact which gives them, overall, such substantive multiple strands of power in school. " (pp.15-26)

Perhaps three of the most widely cited theories of leadership are: first the trait theory, secondly the contingency theory, and thirdly the situational theory. Studies have been made about these three theories.

2.6.1 The trait theory of leadership

According to McPherson, Crowson and Pitner (1986):

> *"Traits which often and early were suggested as important to leadership include physical characteristics (such as height, appearance, energy level), personality (such as self esteem, dominance, emotional stability) and ability (such as general intelligence, verbal fluency)."*

They give a list of identified characteristics of traits which leaders tended to have to a degree not found in others:

> *"1. Vision: they had a strong vision of where the organisation needed to go. They also had strong outcome orientation.*
>
> *2. Communication and alignment: they were able to communicate their vision to their followers in special ways, perhaps through the use of metaphors.*
>
> *3. Persistence: they were able to 'stay the course'. They viewed failure as an opportunity to learn.*
>
> *4. Organisational learning: they found ways and means to change.*
>
> *5. Empowering others: they created a social system and environment that encouraged workers to do their best. They gave their workers the sense that they were at the heart of things; that they were an integral part of the organisation and its progress."* (p.250)

2.6.2 Contingency Model

Another theory of leadership, developed by Fielder (1976), is called the 'contingency model'. He divides leaders into two types: those who maintain good relations with subordinates, and those who are motivated by concern for performance (p.26). The theory suggests that the activities of a headteacher are determined both by the personal style of the headteacher, and by the circumstances of the school. The contingency theory

rejects the notion of leadership traits. It is not necessary to establish leadership by trait, but to know the situation and the people with whom you are working. Hemphill (1949), who supports this theory, insists that success as a leader is achieved by understanding the desire of groups and task performances. Hemphill believes that group needs differ with different situations (p.32).

2.6.3 Situational theory

Hanson (1979) has argued that three variables result in 'situational favourableness' in order of importance. The three major determinants of situational favourableness are:

> "1. *Leader-member relation: the relationship between the leader and his or her group members is based on trust and loyalty. The members like the leader and are willing to accept his or her guidance. Or the opposite condition prevails;*
>
> 2. *Task structure: the task is clearly spelled out and pro- grammed in terms of goals. Procedures for obtaining goals, and progress measurements are applied to success criteria. Conversely, the task is vaguely defined.*
>
> 3. *Power position: the formal organisational role lends to the leader certain powers of control, such as rewarding and punishing in varying degrees. The power of the formal role is tempered by such things as hierarchical level and length of appointment. "* (p.250)

Owens (1981) carried out a study to find "*the extent to which a situation may be classified as favourable or unfavourable to the leader*" (that is situational favourableness). He related this to three key factors, such as:

> "1. *quality of relations between leader and followers ... When relations are good (for example, leader is trusted, respected, liked), the leader finds it easier to exercise influence and authority than if relations are not good (for example if the leader is disliked and mistrusted). Owens cites Fielder , who said that 'research has shown that this is by far the most important single dimension in assessing the favourableness of a situation to a leader';*
>
> 2. *the degree to which the task is well structured;*

3. *power of the leader position. "* (p.162)

Hemphill (1949) argues that the successful leader was one who considered the needs of the group, as well as the need to get the work done. The implication was that needs of individuals and of the group differ across situations (p.33).

2.6.4 Critique of the theories of leadership

2.6.4.1 Trait theory of leadership

It can be argued that although the trait theory of leadership may be used with a relatively high degree of confidence in the selection and development of leaders, it covers only a small part of the picture and provides little to guide the day-to-day activities of leaders in the real setting. In other words, professional maturity (having characteristics of leader behaviour) does not necessarily make a person an effective leader; rather characteristics of the followers and organisations all have an influence on leader effectiveness (Kuper and Kuper, 1996, p.458). It seems that the effectiveness of leadership behaviour depends, as noted by Preedy (1993), upon the organisational setting. That is, a leader trait may be effective in one organisational setting but not in another (p.144).

Another point, as noted by Luthans (1992) is that the researchers accepted the fact that leadership traits are not completely inborn but can also be acquired through learning and experience (p.273).

Furthermore, one of the most common weaknesses noted in the trait theory of leadership is that summarised by Szilagyi and Wallace (1990),

> *"What may be important traits for one occupation may not be important for other roles in the same organisation. Uniformity of traits across all levels is thus questionable ... that , focusing on individual traits does not show what the individual actually does in a leadership situation. Traits identify who the leader is, not what behavioural patterns he or she will exhibit in attempting to influence subordinate actions. The trait approach has ignored the effect of subordinates on leaders: the influence of the relationship between two or more people; therefore, focusing on only one pair of the influence relationship provides an incomplete view."*
> (p.374)

2.6.4.2 Contingency theory

The contingency theory maintains that leadership effectiveness depends on not only the leader's characteristics, but also on situational characteristics. Further, it should be stressed here that although contingency theory of leadership has received support in the research literature, there are weaknesses in the theory. Robbins (1983) in Hanson (1985) summarises weaknesses in the models that have been identified by several researchers:

> *"First, the contingency variables are complex and difficult to assess. It is often difficult in practice to determine how good the leader-member relations are, how structured the task is, and how much position power the leader has. Second, the model gives little attention to the characteristics of the subordinates. Third, no attention is given to varying technical competencies of the leader or the subordinates. The model assumes that both the leader and subordinates have adequate technical competence. Fourth, the correlations Fiedler presents in defence of the model are often low and statistically nonsignificant."* (Hanson, 1985, pp.199-200)

One other point to note is that, according to contingency theory, leadership depends on the relative favourableness or unfavourableness of the situation. Favourableness of the situation is determined by the power of the leader, the clarity of the task structure, and the extent to which the leader is accepted by members (leader-members relations). In some ways this theory would consider that we should remove a relationship-oriented leader who is in a highly unfavourable situation and substitute a task-oriented leader. Wren and Voich (1968) argue that training leaders to match style and situation is possible and can avoid problems of "engineering the situation" to fit the leader, or changing leaders.

2.6.4.3 Situational theory

Some scholars in leadership study use contingency and situational theory as interconnected, while some scholars attempt to distinguish the theories and to refer to situational theory specifically (as noted above). All leadership styles have faults and/or limitations of course. The situation on its own cannot make a leader effective. Leadership

is not only shaped by organisational/environmental factors, or their interactions, but also by engaging in technical aspects of work; these, as well as leadership, involve an influence on the relationship between leaders. In particular, the concept of leadership in school may require a different theoretical approach. Similarly, Szilagyi et al (1990) commented on the weakness of situational theory: "The three situational factors that affect the leader's ability to influence subordinates – task structure, group atmosphere and position power determine the situation's favourableness to the leader." (p. 375)

In general, it can be said that there is a problem with each of these theories. The problem is that no one of the theories accounts for all issues covered by others. Perhaps what we need is to use them together in an institution, such as schools.

Furthermore, research on leadership has been undertaken over many years. Researchers have sought to explore the most effective leadership behaviour and styles. Efforts to identify the most suitable behaviours and styles of leaders have generated a number of issues associated with leadership.

Evidence indicates that leadership styles perceived as effective are in part those which are consonant with the nature of expectations of the group to be led. More recent consideration (Szilagy et al, 1990) in the study of leadership is the recognition of the significance of the particular situation in which the leadership occurs. Studies on organisational determinants of leadership (Szilagyi et al, 1990) reveal that among them are the nature of the environment, the nature of the tasks and the priority among goals. Effective leadership is the product of multiple conditions within organisations. To be effective, leadership must both be consistent with organisational expectations and beneficial to organisational goals.

2.6.5 Implications of 2.6

Theories of leadership

This section has identified three theories: first trait theory, secondly contingency theory and situational theory.

The traits reported as important to leadership include physical characteristics (such as height, appearance, energy level), personality (such as self esteem, dominance, emotional stability) and ability (such as general intelligence, verbal fluency) including vision communication.

Contingency theory identifies characteristics by the personal style of the leadership and the circumstances of the organisation.

The situational theory of leadership posits that no leadership style will prove effective in all contexts and that it is more important to know the situation in the organisation.

2.7 Expectations and styles of leadership

Another approach to defining leadership is to analyse the perceived expectations of leaders and the appropriate style of leadership to fulfil these expectations.

Leaders are those who take responsibility or 'role expectations'. This includes readiness to accept responsibility and the belief that others will assume that it is the assumption of responsibility that makes a person a leader.

Owens (1981) cites a definition of leadership which is in agreement with the above and central to many modern definitions of leadership from James MacGregor Burns, who points out that,

> "Some define leadership as leaders making followers do what followers would not otherwise do, or as leaders making followers do what the leaders want them to do; I define leadership as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivation - the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers - leadership, unlike the wielding of naked power, is thus inseparable from the needs and goals of the followers. The essence of the

> *leader-follower relation is the interaction of persons with different levels and motives, and of power potential, including skill, in pursuit of a common, or at least joint purpose.*" (Owens, 1981, p.148)

Paisey (1980) gives a more detailed definition:

> "*The management style of an individual may be defined as the characteristic way in which he goes about his managerial task assessed over the longer term, in a specific organisation by those who work with him.*" (p.95)

Sara (1981) cites definitions of leadership according to Hemphill (1960), for example, who defines leadership as, "*the initiating of new structure of procedures for accomplishing an organisation's goals and objectives*". This definition focuses on the initiating structure of leader behaviour. Sara (1981) also cites Knezevich (1975), who offers a more complete definition - leadership is "*a force that can initiate action among people, guide activities in a given direction, maintain such activities and unify efforts towards common goals.*"

Sara's (1981) definition is worth mentioning in order to give us a wider background. Sara (1981) carried out a comparative study of leader behaviour of school principals in four developing countries: Nigeria, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia and Sudan. Sara (1981) used an early version of the LBDQ instrument (Stogdil, 1963) to measure leadership behaviour. Subjects of Sara's (1981) study were 99 principals and 1,269 teachers of secondary schools in the four countries. Sara's (1981) main objective was to find out whether similarities exist between the way leaders behave in different cultures. Of particular importance to the present study is that Sara (1981) included Saudi Arabia in his study and can therefore throw light on the present discussion. Sara (1981) defined leadership:

> "*Leadership may be viewed as a process of influencing the thoughts and action of others. Operationally leadership may be defined as the behaviour of the individual when he is directing the activities of his group toward goal attainment and the maintenance of his group as a cohesive unit*" (pp.21-31).

Another definition worth mentioning is that by Stogdill (1974, p.301). In giving a definition, Stogdill (1974) reviewed theories and research literature on leadership issues. His main objective was to produce a handbook of leadership which can illustrate the commonly believed leadership characteristics (such as behaviour, effectiveness, administrative style, social relationship with followers). Also, he examined 'terms' which are most common and frequent in the literature on leadership in order to provide the more common definitions of the terms or coin a definition that reduces differences among researchers. Among other things (issues), he examined the literature on definition of leadership and the present researcher felt that his conclusion might throw light on the argument for definition of leadership in the present study.

Stogdill (1974) considers leadership in dynamic terms: *"The leader is viewed as a focus of a group change activity and process. "* Stogdill also addresses a number of existing definitions of leadership. For instance, he reports that Balckmar (1911) saw leadership as *"the centralisation of effort in one person as an expression of the power of all. "*. He also reports that, according to Bernard (1927), the leader is influenced by the needs and wishes of the group members.

Morphet et al (1959) give a list of definitions of the term 'leader' in terms of leader behaviour. Briefly, any person provides a group with leadership when s/he,

> *"1. helps a group to define tasks, goals and purposes.*
>
> *2. helps a group to achieve tasks, goals and purposes.*
>
> *3. helps to maintain the group by assisting in providing for group and individual needs. "* (p.86)

This definition illustrates the many-faceted quality of leadership, for example responsibility, role elements that make for a leader, that which makes followers pursue certain goals, the characteristic way in which a leader goes about his/her managerial tasks, the initiating of a new structure of procedures for accomplishing the goals and

objectives of his/her organisation, and the motivating of groups towards tasks and achievements.

It is interesting to note the definitions of these writers, but are they sufficient? If a person is elected or appointed to a position of leadership and is prepared to accept the role and responsibilities inherent in that position, can we then call him/her a leader? The quality or qualities of leadership are those attributes which enable the leader to influence the behaviour of others; some may involve overt styles of activity whilst others may be due to less obvious personality traits which are readily accepted by others at a subconscious level. These two aspects of 'action' and 'personality' have caused problems for investigators when they have tried to define the factors contributing to the quality of leadership in a person. This poses the questions: are there styles of leadership? And if so, what are they?

Isherwood (1985), however, makes the important point that it is not always easy to distinguish between (a) leadership style and (b) leadership behaviour:

> "It is interesting to view leadership style and leadership behaviour in two different situations - one co-operative, the other counteractive - to judge the level of effectiveness of both. A leader can be defined as a person in a group who is elected, appointed, or who steps forward in an attempt to move a group towards some desired end. By leadership style I mean a personally preferred way of acting, whereas by leadership behaviour I mean what a person does, or does not do, in a specific action. Leader style is more ethereal and abstract while behaviour is observable. I can make certain predictions of the behaviour of a group, based on the personalities of its members, their objectives, the history of the group, its successes, and its values, and by the context in which the group operates. The effect of these factors on leader behaviour is profound." (pp.209-217)

In my approach, I will look at both characteristics. However, perhaps the most widely used approach to leadership style by researchers has been based on the threefold categories of democratic, authoritarian and laissez-faire styles. As indicated in Chapter

One, those categories are based on a headteacher's relative concerns for human-orientated and task-orientated behaviour.

For example, a study (in Arabic) by Dr. Al-Hadhood (1989), regarding leadership styles of headteachers of public schools in Kuwait, found differences between male and female headteachers, relating to their concern for human-orientated versus task-orientated behaviour. Female headteachers were found to show a greater concern than their male counterparts for human-orientated behaviour, and both showed an equal level of concern for task-orientated behaviour (p.89).

Again, a study (in Arabic) by Theadory (1982), regarding student achievement at secondary schools in Lebanon (using a questionnaire method), found that the headteacher's concern for human relations was of significance, but that concern for the task was not.

A study (in Arabic) by Al-Soukar (1984) investigated the leadership style of the headmistress and its effect on girl students at the intermediate girls' schools in Riyadh. She found there was a positive relationship between the headmistress who practised a democratic style and the achievement of students. These headmistresses were concerned with both task and people (p.20).

These studies would seem to support the views of Likert (1967) who believed that variables such as morale affect school achievement: *"... morale and productivity were positively related,...that the higher the morale the higher the productivity."* (p.78)

Hoyle (1986), however, gives a cautionary warning on attempts to show that perhaps democratic styles of leadership are more effective than autocratic:

> *"Early work on leadership styles, centred on the democratic, authoritarian and laissez-faire styles, and the evidence purporting to demonstrate the greater effectiveness of the democratic style. However, these particular concepts were influenced by a prevailing ideology which, in the 1930s and 1940s*

> *when many of these studies were carried out, ensured a predilection for the democratic style of leadership.*
>
> *However, this particular set of concepts was challenged by development in leadership studies from 1950 onwards. It was not that authoritarian leadership turned out to be more effective than democratic leadership, but to conceptualise leadership in this way was to miss the point that although successful democratic leadership appeared to be more effective than successful authoritarian leadership, even the latter led to a higher level of effectiveness and satisfaction than unsuccessful leadership. Effective leadership in terms of achievement and group satisfaction was the outcome, not only of interpersonal relationships, but also of the sense of achievement arising from a task completed.* " (p.105).

Dennison and Shenton (1987) are even more scathing in their criticisms of the work of Lippett. They state:

> *"The first use of multiple leadership behaviour descriptions was by Lewin Lippett and White (1939) who, following an experimental study classified three styles: democratic, autocratic and 'laissez-faire'. Nearly forty years later it was possible for Landers and Myers (1980) to report that more than forty style models had been developed containing many different and sometimes conflicting features with styles per model varying from two to eight. The futility of searching for a single best style, for even one set of circumstances, was confirmed.* " (p.39)

Dennison and Shenton (1987) are prepared to accept that democratic and autocratic styles, like participatory and authoritarian ones, can be viewed as two contrasting styles, but which will be most effective will depend on situation and personality, as one style is not indisputably better than another (p.40).

Another study in Riyadh, on leadership, by Al-Karnea (1991, p.238) found there was a relationship between the democratic style of the headteacher and the working methods of the teacher in the classroom with pupils in secondary schools for boys in Riyadh, and that fewer headteachers employed an autocratic style. In recognition of the importance of the headteacher's leadership role in attaining the goals of education in school, a study was carried out in Saudi Arabia by Mohasan (1984) of secondary schools for girls in

Riyadh to determine the effectiveness of the leadership style on the satisfaction of teachers and on pupils' achievement. She found a positive relationship between the democratic style of the headteachers of secondary schools for girls and the feelings of security of the teachers (p.220).

We note from the above review that the authors have identified leadership styles under various headings: authoritarian, laissez-faire, democratic, autocratic, open and closed, considerate, remote and so on. Many of these names are self-evident, many describe similar attitudes of the leaders.

After we have studied leadership styles, we have to know what the difference is between management style and leadership style.

The meaning of management is used to indicate the task of the head. This study about management style has been described by Everard and Morris (1990) as follows:

1.   Concern to achieve results (task oriented)

2.   Concern for relationships (people oriented)

Everard and Morris also mentioned in their study types of style model as follows:

1.   Autocratic (tell)

2.   Paternalistic (sell)

3.   Consultative (involve)

4.   Democratic (co-determine) (p.14)

It was realised that management was not principally concerned either to get results or about relationships, but that it was possible to be concerned about both at the same time.

Another study by Robinson (1988) defined the following five management styles:

1. Charismatic

2. personal/individual

3. personal/department

4. professional/personal

5. organisational/formal. (p.20)

Paisey (1981) points out that the management style of an individual may be defined as:

1. The characteristic way in which he goes about his management tasks in a specific organisation

2. Assessed over the longer term by those who work with him since management is concerned in the final analysis with what organisation members are doing what, what they might be doing and what they should be doing. It is a set of general assumptions about people in organisations.

3. Other management concerns about job-centres and employment-centres.

Paisey (1981) also indicated that management has four types of assessment of behaviour in practice (Likert 1961-67):

1. Authoritarian and coercive

2. Concern for production and concern for people

3. Management style uses the terminology: task orientation and relationships orientation

4. The integrated category which is called 'executive' style.

This seems to be the cultural adaptation likely to develop still further in the year ahead (p.23).

Dean (1987) argued:

Leadership and management are part of the role of all head teachers. Leadership implies identifying direction, sharing goals and persuading other people to work towards them.

A leader is responsible for the overall direction and goals of the organisation but he may identify the direction himself and expect others to find the answers. Management is concerned with the process of achieving goals through the work of other people (p.1).

In the work cited above, the study about leadership style and management style is comparative: there are some differences, although not all are mentioned by the writers. Leadership and management styles may encourage co-operation or counteractive antagonism. It is appropriate to judge the level of effectiveness of both. To move a group towards some desired behaviour, a person does or does not engage in a specific action. Leadership tends to be an ethereal and abstract quality. Leadership requires that behaviour of the group be predicted in some way. Management style, on the other hand, is concerned with administration and general efficiency. The characteristics of a management style are shown in the way in which the manager goes about his or her management task in a specific organisation. Management is concerned with what organisation members are doing, and what they should be doing. Management is a set general assumptions about people in organisations.

The above writers maintain that leadership style is a personally preferred way of acting within the group; the effect of leadership behaviour in this situation is typically profound.

There are important differences in styles of authority, such as direction, rules, and the establishment of laws concerning matters of pupils and staff discipline, administration, and, finally, the relationship between teachers and students.

2.7.1 Critique of expectancy theory

Expectancy theory holds some possibilities; however research evidence so far has not supported expectancy theory. Wren and Voich (1968), for example, have reviewed a large body of the literature and list some of the doubts raised that:

(1) In many work situations, the individual does not have a clear choice of alternative paths or goals to choose from.

(2) It is difficult to measure how much value is placed on a particular goal or goals.

(3) It is hard to know how much difference in value is necessary before the individual will choose one alternative over another (p.220).

2.7.2 Implications of 2.7

Leadership is a force that can initiate action among people, guide activities in a given direction, maintain such activities and unify effort towards common goals. Leadership may be viewed as a process of influencing the thoughts of others. Some writers consider the concept of the leader as the centralisation of effort in one person.

The leader either has attributes which enable him to reflect on the behaviour of others or personality traits which are readily accepted by others at a subconscious level. The leaders are those who take responsibility and have a role expectation with a concern for people or task. Leadership style centring on the democratic is shown to be more effective than authoritarian. The difference between management style and leadership style is that management is not principally concerned with either getting results or about relationships, but that it is possible to be concerned about both at the same time.

A leader is responsible for the overall direction and goal of the organisation, but he may identify the direction himself and expect others to find the answers. Management is concerned with the process of achieving goals through the work of other people.

2.8 How does the leader acquire his power?

In considering the sources of power available to a leader in bureaucratic institutions, many writers take as their starting point Max Weber's three types of authority: charismatic, traditional and legal.

Silver (1983) studied educational administration, focusing on theoretical perspectives on practice and research. She carried out field work on leader behaviour (p.40), as well as sex of the leaders with especial reference to principals. The study covered 30 secondary schools, 15 of which were headed by females. The method used in the study for collecting data was a leader behaviour descriptive questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963). The section of Silver's (1983) study that has relevance to the present study is the comment on the leader's power. According to Silver (1983)

> "Charismatic authority is social dominance in which the leader's personal magnetism and exceptional attractiveness draws masses of followers.
>
> Traditional authority is a form of dominance inherent in a position that is passed to individuals from one generation to the next.
>
> Legal authority is a form of dominance created by legislation and upheld by the full legal machinery of the society. Legal authorities such as corporation officers and school administrators are obeyed because they have the legally mandated right and obligation to issue their directives. " (p.74)

A modified version of Weber's forms of authority is put forward by Hunt (1979) as follows:

> "1.   Coercive power. This depends on the application, or threat, of physical sanctions, such as pain, deformity, or death. Our education system was, until recently, based on coercive power, with all the reinforcements of pain (cane, strap, etc.). This power relies on a subordinate's concern for his or her self.
>
> 2.   Remunerative power. Conversely, recognising good performance in a job with rewards reinforces the performance, provided the reward is important to the

> *individual and he sees a relationship between the reward and his performance.*
>
> 3. *Legitimate power. This is authority as vested in a position and used by the holder of that position. Authority is a legal or institutionalised right to control resources (people, money, materials, information, equipment). Hence, the managing director has authority (or positional power). He has control over nearly all the resources of the organisation. He reinforces this power with remunerative power. "* (p.100)

2.8.1 Vision and School Effectiveness

Lezotte (1992) in his paper entitled *'Principal' Insights from Effective School*, expresses concern about the notion of vision in connection with school effectiveness. Although Lezotte's (1992) paper is not an empirical report, rather a report based on his own experience as a leader, to investigate headteacher leadership effectiveness, Lezotte's views are of some influence here. Mention should be made here that Lezotte (ibid) was once Director of the National Center for Effective Schools Research and Development and he published this paper when he was promoted to the position of Senior Vice-President of Effective School Production in Michigan. Lezotte (1992) to get his promotion must have been an effective leader. Lezotte's (1992) aim in this particular paper has been to give sufficient attention to the vision that learning in democracy must be inclusive in leadership style (p.14).

Lezotte (1992) contends that a key feature of an effective school is vision and commitment on the part of the headteacher. This must be communicated to and shared by the other members of the school community. However, a headteacher's vision cannot endure unless a critical mass of support is created for it among those helping to implement it. Lezotte argues that there is misunderstanding about leadership and how it works. He states that a common misunderstanding is that strong instructional leadership means the headteacher must run a school and teaches like a tyrannical slave driver. He suggests that, on the contrary, effective headteachers lead through commitment rather than authority, and that

the followers agree to follow because they share the headteacher's dream, not because they are afraid. Furthermore, publicly becoming a part of the headteacher's vision does not mean that teachers abdicate their professional autonomy and individual freedoms. Rather, it is an indication of teachers' basic needs to be a part of community of shared values (p.16).

Whilst it is generally acknowledged that effective schools have a strong common purpose widely accepted within the school community, not all writers endorse Lezotte's conception of the headteacher's vision.

Southworth (1993) carried out a study on leadership, headship and effective primary school, in the UK, with a view to improving effectiveness of schools. The objective of Southworth's study was to understand the role of headteacher (leader) in improving the effectiveness of schools. In other words, the study gave specific attention to school leadership. The study is based on literature review, rather than on its own empirical evidence. However, there is a very interesting point in Southworth's (1993) work on headteacher vision. Southworth (1993) argues that the idea that a headteacher is the owner of a school's vision has implications for the notion of collaboration which is also an important feature in contributing to school effectiveness. By tacitly or otherwise fostering collaboration with the teachers, Southworth contends that the headteacher may only be interested in developing interaction as a vehicle for the implication of his/her own wishes. Where the leader's vision is willingly shared by followers in the school, teachers who work earnestly and purposefully may do well, but only at that which the headteacher's vision wants them to do so. Southworth considers that this kind of leadership relegates teachers to followers, and treats them as workers and subordinates, not as professionals and colleagues. Consequently, this kind of headteacher may be less concerned with the human aspects of his staff, and rather more concerned with getting things done (Southworth, 1993, pp.73-85).

2.8.2 Administrative Behaviour and Effective Leadership

There are several studies that have examined administrative behaviours and descriptions of principals on the subject of effectiveness in educational leadership.

In a study on the role behaviour of school principals by Dreeben and Gross (1965), as a matter of concern they found age, values and years spent as a teacher important as having an influence on the principal's effectiveness. Older principals were seen as less likely to make innovative moves because they had little to gain in terms of prestige, advancement or responsibility. Younger principals were seen as more likely to make innovative moves for gains in educational accomplishment and personal advancement. On the other hand, they found age, values and years spent as a teacher impacted on the principal's effectiveness.

Principals with authoritarian values were found to be less effective because authoritarian principals are more likely to see issues in terms of black and white, to expect others to act in terms of command and obedience, and hence will have experienced more difficulties in staff relations than non- authoritarian principals.

The researchers also found that the longer the time the principal had spent as a teacher, the less effective he would be in terms of school-wide and system wide activities

> "the longer the time a principal has spent as a teacher, the more likely his perspectives will be limited to the kinds of problems that arise in classroom settings ... the principal ... with primarily a classroom perspective invites trouble in that mobilising a faculty requires sophistication in the use of political skills ... " (Dreeben & Gross, 1965, pp.7-17)

The initiation and work structure as planned by the principal are regarded as some of the necessities to the principal's effectiveness.

Another six administrative behaviours were identified by Sweeney (1982) as being crucial for effective educational leadership: 1. emphasis upon achievement within the school; 2. setting of instructional strategies; 3. providing for an orderly atmosphere in the school;

4. frequent evaluation of student progress; 5. coordinating the instructional program; 6. supporting the teachers.

Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) studied eight principals, from different environments at the elementary and secondary level, who were identified by their colleagues as being effective. Their study revealed the following administrative behaviours of effective leaders:

1.   Personal behaviour

    • sensitive to feelings of the group and listens attentively.

2.   Communication

    • communicates with group on a regular basis, making sure everyone understands what is needed and why.

3.   Equality

    • believes everyone is important and shares leadership functions.

4.   Organisation

    • develops long-range and short-range objectives.

5.   Self-Examination

    • assists group to be aware of their own forces, attitudes and values (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980, p.69).

Bass (1981) reported that effective leaders were excellent communicators:

> *"Strong positive linkages were found ... between such communication tendencies of superiors as careful transmission, many two-way communications, attentive listening, trustworthiness, and informativeness and their subordinates' role clarity, satisfaction with their supervision and the effectiveness of their work groups." (p.44)*

To consider the effectiveness of the headteacher in relation to his function as a pedagogical leader, Grace (1995) cited the work of Davies (1987) stating that:

> *"The traditional headteacher function of pedagogical leader and disciplinarian played an important part in the heads' role. The primary heads studied paid much attention to being in classrooms, either visiting or actually teaching. A quarter of contacts were made in visits to classrooms and nearly half their time was spent there".* (p.121)

He also cited Southworth (1988) in reporting the findings of the Primary School Staff Relationship Project carried out at the Cambridge Institute of Education, who produced a profile of primary school headship in these terms:

> *"Heads expected to set the school's guiding beliefs and saw it as their job to provide a sense of mission ... Heads taught classes and groups of pupils and used their school assemblies as opportunities to demonstrate their skills as teachers ... The heads spent a lot of time involving themselves with the staff. They saw staff individually and collectively. They were frequently in the staffroom and touring the school ... These aspects appear to combine to create the conditions for a particular kind of leadership. These heads were educative leaders."* (Grace, 1995, p.121)

According to Rosenblum and Jastrzab (1980), effective principals are proactive, quick to take initiative and to take charge and seek to make the school over in their own image (p.83).

Empirical studies conducted by Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p.96) tended to show there were no specific administrative behaviours of effective educational leaders which remained the same in all situations. They contended that effective principals adapt their administrative behaviour to the needs of the group and the dictates of a particular environment or situation. Effectiveness of leaders depends on how the leader's particular leadership style interrelates with the situation in which he operates. A leadership style is a "pattern of behaviour or behaviours that a person exhibits when attempting to

influence the activities of others as perceived by those others" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p.97). Leadership style is not only how leaders think in a particular situation, but also how they behave in that situation and how their followers perceive their behaviour. When the leadership style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when the style is inappropriate, it is termed ineffective. The same style therefore, cannot be effective in all situations but can only be effective in similar situations.

In their studies, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) also found that leaders develop leadership style over a period of time and factors which have an impact on leadership style include extent of education, administrative training, and experience as a leader. The leader may then, based on education, training and experience over a period of time, become more or less adept at selecting the appropriate leadership style in a given situation.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) also believed that because external environment continually influences organisations, it is possible for behaviours which are appropriate in a given situation in one organisation to be inappropriate in the same situation in another organisation. This would then explain why effective leadership is dependent on the person, the situation and the organisation.

Five administrative behaviours vital to effective educational leadership were identified by Hager and Scarr (1983):

> 1. *Planner - establishes priorities for how time is spent and involves staff in setting those priorities;*
>
> 2. *Director - sets goals and objectives based on information from all sources. Develops systems for monitoring and evaluating the progress toward goals;*
>
> 3. *Organiser - establishes systems to carry out plans;*
>
> 4. *Humanist - relates in a positive and motivating way to those who will carry out the school goals;*

5. *Controller and Monitor - accomplishes goals through other people.* Hager & Scarr, 1983, pp.38-40)

Based on an analysis of leadership theory related to the principalship, Lipham, Rankin and Hoeh (1985) identified several administrative behaviours of effective educational leaders. Principals, who are effective educational leaders, realise the importance of their role to the success of the school, are able to vary their leadership styles depending on the situation take a long-range view of leadership, understand the complexities of school situations and take a broad view of organisational relations instead of a narrow insider's view (p.70).

In a comparative study, which examined effective and ineffective schools, Jackson et al (1980) found:

> *"principals in effective schools were perceived as maintaining firm and centralised control with a strong task and academic orientation. In terms of maintenance, discipline, and academics, these administrators ran a 'tight ship'. They were emphatic about establishing the instructional program and monitoring achievement. The discipline codes of their schools were clear and strictly enforced. They were supportive of teachers and students and rewarded achievement. Principals in ineffective schools appeared more permissive and human relations oriented, allowing more flexibility about the instructional programme."* (pp.59- 70)

Although some research argues that effective educational leaders vary in their administrative behaviours based on situational factors and organisational needs, in a study of seventeen principals, who were nominated by fellow administrators as effective educational leaders, Dwyer (1984) discerned several common characteristics. The principals studied were viewed by teachers and students as being highly visible and easily accessible. The principals paid close attention to detail and were predictable (pp.32-38).

Sergiovanni (1984) differentiated among five types of school leaders, each with unique administrative behaviours. Technical leaders emphasise planning and time management

technologies, believing that people are supervised as objects in the system. Human leaders provide support and use participatory decision making. Educational leaders diagnose educational problems, counsel teachers, provide supervision and evaluation, provide inservice training and develop curriculum. Symbolic leaders have selective attention, tour the school, visit classrooms and preside over ceremonies and rituals. Cultural leaders articulate the school purpose and mission, socialise new members and reward those who reflect the culture (pp.11-13).

As we can see, the headteacher's (principal's) role as educational leader, is seen in effectiveness and student achievement.

The point is that the effectiveness of headteachers as educational leaders is seen in relation to outcome of the learning. Thomson (1992) stated that:

> "Effective educational leaders possess the capacity to articulate to various constituencies their vision of educational processes and outcomes. To do this, an educational leader must possess a sound and well-integrated set of beliefs about what constitutes effective teaching and learning. He or she must be able to express those beliefs by describing specific actions in which instructors and learners engage during the learning process. These beliefs must also be articulated as they relate to the outcomes of the learning process." (p.121)

Much research has been conducted on the different roles the principal can play, including the principal as: administrative decision-maker; organisational change-agent; conflict manager; instructional supervisor; and educational leader. The research shows that most principals incorporate some or all of the elements associated with these different roles in their actual job performance, however, in general, as the reviews above show, it can seem clear that the principal's role as an effective educational leader has been shown to be the major factor in school effectiveness and in particular students' achievement.

2.8.3 Learning Outcomes

As has been pointed out by Thomson (1992) above, the learning outcomes of pupils is an important indicator of the effectiveness of headteachers as educational leaders. But in what ways does the headteacher's leadership have an impact on children's learning?

Bossert et al (1982, pp.34-64) reviewed a large body of literature on the instructional role of the principals. Their main focus was to understand the role of the principal as an instructional manager and how this might influence pupils' learning. They proposed that better leadership produces better learning outcomes. Of particular importance to the present study is their argument that the main ways through which a head can influence children's achievements is through such channels as the social organisation, the climate and the instructional organisation of the school as set out in Figure 2.5 below.

Figure 2.5:
A Framework for Examining Instructional Management
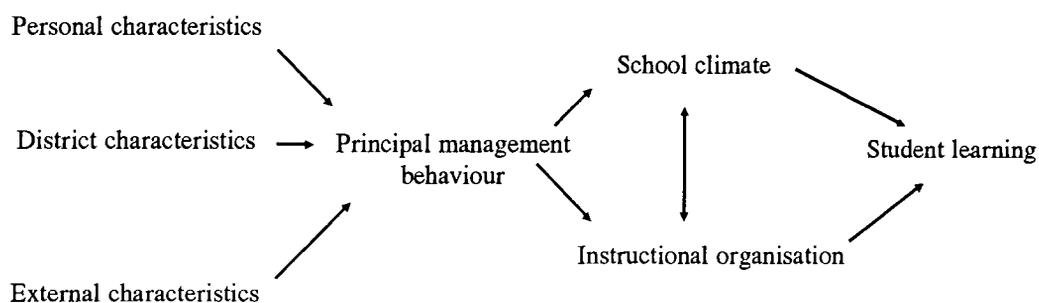
Bossert et al (1982), p.40.

In Figure 2.5, the authors set out their view of how pupil achievement is related to the personal characteristics of the headteacher and other factors such as district and external characteristics. These are the contexts in which social relationships are formed and which in turn shape teachers' behaviour and students' learning experiences.

A similar view is expressed by Heck, Larsen and Marcoulides (1990, pp.94-125) who argue:

> "In managing the work structure of the school, a principal does not affect the academic achievement of individual students in the same manner as teachers do, that is, through direct classroom instruction. Principals may, however, impact teaching and classroom practices through such decisions as formulating school goals, setting and communicating high achievement expectations, organising classrooms for instruction, allocating necessary resources, supervising teachers' performance, monitoring student progress, and promoting a positive, orderly environment for learning. As Bossert et al (1982) have emphasised, these activities suggest two domains of influence of principals at the school level in management of the work of the school: building a suitable climate for learning, and supervising the instructional organisation." (pp.94-125)

It should be noted here that Heck et al's (1990) comment quoted above is based on empirical evidence. Heck et al studied the leadership influence on school achievement. In particular, the purpose of this study was to test a theoretical causal model concerning how elementary and secondary school principals can influence school students' achievement through the frequency of implementation of certain instructional leadership behaviours. The hypothesis tested was that latent variables related to principal instructional leadership affect student achievement. A total of 332 teachers and 56 school principals participated in the study. Separate analyses of the proposed model were conducted at the individual and school level. In view of the approach of the study the present researcher felt that Heck et al's study reflects on real links between effective principal instructional leadership and students' achievements, and is helpful.

2.8.4   Headteacher/staff relationships

If building a suitable climate for learning and supervising the instructional organisation of a school are significant channels through which a headteacher can influence pupil achievement, then clearly headteacher/staff relationships are of crucial importance.

According to Hampton (1987)

> *"The leader's effectiveness is a function of how well his or her interactions with subordinates help them see what needs doing, feel motivated to do it, and actually do it. The leader succeeds by clarifying goals, increasing rewards for subordinates who accomplish them, and by making the path to these goals easier to travel."* (Hampton, 1987, p.972)

Hampton formulated a path goal perspective on leadership which is set out below.

Figure 2.6

A path goal perspective on leadership

Characteristic of the task

Leadership behaviour → Effect of leadership on motivation and satisfaction

Characteristics of the subordinates
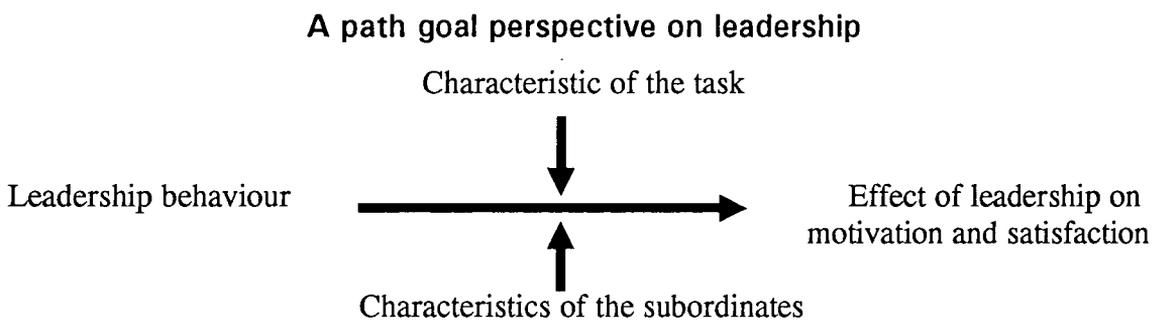
Hampton, p.473

Another study by Hollander (1978) expands on the path goal and reward elements of the above in the leader's function:

> *"the path goal theory was developed initially by Martin Evans who asserted that leaders will be effective by making rewards available to subordinates and by making these rewards contingent on the subordinate's accomplishment of specific goals. It is now identified closely with Robert House and is related to the ideal of the definition of the situation. The leader's function is to define a path along which the followers expend effort to achieve a group goal.*
>
> *Essentially, then, the path goal theory is built on the concept that followers can be guided to do things which they believe will produce satisfactory outcomes.*
>
> *Two propositions are central to the path goal theory.*
>
> *First is that the leader's behaviour is acceptable to subordinates. If they see such behaviour as either immediately satisfying to them or as likely to determine their further satisfaction. The second is*

*that the leader's behaviour increases subordinates' effort if such
behaviour makes the satisfaction of subordinate needs contingent
on effective performance.* " (p.36).

Related to the path goal theory are Hanson's (1979) characteristics of subordinates which

shape their attitudes to achieving goals:

> *"subordinates' characteristics which shape their perceptions
> towards achieving goals and environmental factors which serve
> to stimulate, constrain or reward the motivation of workers. The
> contingent variables of 'subordinate characteristics' are:*
>
> *1.   locus of control: the degree to which an individual sees
>   himself or herself in control of, or under the control of,
>   events surrounding his or her own situation;*
>
> *2.   ability: the perception of the subordinate of his or her own
>   ability to accomplish an assigned task;*
>
> *3.   authoritarianism: the degree of authoritarianism in the
>   subordinate influences his or her need for either a directive
>   or a non- directive type of leadership style ".* (p.256)

Hanson (1979) holds that the subordinate's ability to perform effectively depends on the

following:

> *"1.   The task: the level of task complexity and ambiguity;*
>
> *2.   The structure of formal authority: the degree to which the
>   formal authority structure facilitates or inhibits the work
>   behaviour of subordinates;*
>
> *3.   The primary work group: the degree to which the primary
>   work group norms are clear and supportive.* " (p.257)

Whilst the notions of the path goal theory and of Hanson have important applications in

the school situation, they do not appear to take fully into account such concepts as

collegiality and professional autonomy which are highly valued in some school settings.

2.8.5   Organisational culture and cultural phenomenon

Reitzug (1994, p.283) points out that the research on instructionally effective schools

has concentrated on the importance of the leader in influencing the pursuit of positive

organisational outcomes. A synthesis of this research consistently indicates the significance of the headteacher clearly communicating and frequently emphasising goals such as high standardised achievement test scores and an orderly school climate (see e.g. Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan and Lee, 1982; Clark, Lotto and McCarthy, 1980; Persell, Cookson and Lyons, 1982; Shoemaker and Fraser, 1982).

Reitzug (1994) argues that these traditional conceptions of leadership are grounded in assumptions that:

> *"(a) organisational goals can be prospectively specified, (b) the path leading to goals can be determined, and (c) organisational members can be influenced or controlled to pursue the direction proposed by organisational goals. Consequently, from this perspective, it is the responsibility of the organisation's designated leader to ensure that the direction outlined by organisational goals is pursued".* (p.307)

Reitzug (1994), however, points out that a more recent line of research attempts to understand the complexity of leadership and organisations by judging the culture of the organisations and the leader's role in its development. He states that:

> *The concept of organisational culture is described as the underlying assumptions, shared values, beliefs, and ideology that influence and guide organisational behaviour and action (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Pettigrew, 1979; Schien, 1986), or as Deal and Kennedy (1982) popularly describe it, "the way we do things around here" (p.4). Findings from this body of research indicate that organisations perceived to be effective have well defined, positively perceived cultures that are heavily influenced by the designated leader of the organisation (see e.g., Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Blumberg and Greenfield, 1981; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Sheive and Schoenheit, 1987).*

According to Reitzug (1994), Watkins (1989) has criticised both the traditional and cultural concepts on the grounds that they are concerned with achievement of organisational goals rather than with a valuing of the individual (Reitzug, 1994, p.285).

According to Busher et al (1994), the model which seems most pertinent is that of cultural phenomenon within a given organisational framework. Busher cites Hoy and Miskell (1987, pp.5-13) who argue that this framework is itself a cultural construct, not an administrative given, which is created through the interaction of heads with teachers and other stakeholders including pupils, in school organisations. Busher (1994) quoted researchers such as Murgatroyd (1986) who argue in favour of heads creating a supportive culture in schools, which encourages teachers to participate in teams to bring about organisational change. As school is a complex organisation, it is often referred to as the product of interrelationships which occur between individuals in an organisation, including the affective dimension of feelings and attitudes in the process of task achievement of the organisation. It implies the suitability of integrating task achievement with needs satisfaction of individuals in the organisation.

2.8.6 Externalities and School Effectiveness

So far this literature review has focussed on the relationship between a headteacher's leadership and the effectiveness of a school within the internal context of the school. Harber (1992, pp.161-169), however, contends that in some societies, factors external to a school may have a more powerful influence on its effectiveness than the leadership provided by the headteacher.

To support his contention, Harber cited two case studies, one from Ghana (Africa) and the other from Thailand. Both of these countries are dominated by highly bureaucratic systems of government which had led to corruption in the education system. Harber argued that education in these two countries was restricted by three variables – economic, political and cultural contexts which influenced values, attitudes and practices. These variables operated adversely in both the wider society and the educational system creating obstacles for the process of learning. In his study, Harber provides examples of how the dictates of the centralised and bureaucratic systems determined the administrative

behaviour of education leaders. For example, personal criteria were used by headteachers to evaluate staff in schools when deciding on promotion. Harber viewed such judgments as leading to unjust promotions, inevitably creating lower morale among teachers and thus discouraging them from devoting themselves to their jobs.

Harber (1992) indicates that among teachers there was a:

> "lack of enthusiasm for improving their teaching techniques to make lessons more interesting for students. Thus despite there being a variety of teaching equipment in the schools, no techniques other than lecturing and using the blackboard were implemented and little effort went into lesson planning or marking work done. Moreover, teachers were found to be often temperamental." (Harber, 1992, p.167)

Harber (1992) further states that the examination process was corrupted to ensure students appeared to succeeded. The exam system was based on four steps: (1) giving more weight to pupils' pre-examination performance; (2) giving extra marks when marking the final papers; (3) providing students with answers during the examination session; and, (4) raising the final examination score.

Thus, Harber's (1992) study is a salutary reminder that research on headteacher leadership and school effectiveness must be seen within the context of the wider economic, political and cultural values of a society and the manner in which they have an impact on schools.

2.9 Leadership training

It is sometimes said that leaders are born not made. This may well be true of certain individuals in certain situations. Nevertheless, it is widely accepted in educational circles that the headteachers need to be provided with training in leadership roles and management skills (cf. Hanson, 1979; Dreilinger et al, 1982, pp.69-71; and Hughes, 1987, pp.120-130). However, the provision and content of training programmes would appear to be problematic.

In Saudi Arabia training in leadership and administration has shown slow results. According to Dr Al-Manuie (1980), the main difficulties facing the training of administrators in education are:

> "*1.* *Headteachers do not participate in planning the*
> *programmes of training:*
>
> *2.* *there is no follow-up to the training;*
>
> *3.* *some teachers think training is a time-wasting exercise and*
> *the time allocated to it is mainly used as a resting time*
> *rather than for its true purpose; and*
>
> *4.* *the number of hours devoted to the training programme are*
> *insufficient and the course elements are too short.*"

Clearly, the perceived poor quality of leadership training for headteachers in Saudi Arabia may have important implications in the interpretation of research outcomes on the relationship between leadership styles and effective pupil learning in the schools." (Al-Manuie, 1980, pp.30-45)

2.10 Issues extracted from the literature review about what can be learnt from comparing theories of leadership, and their development, similarities and differences

Saudi Arabia is a wealthy but developing country. The purpose of this literature review has been to explore concepts relating to my research topic to provide a basis for refining research questions and interpretation of the research outcomes. In addition, however, it is felt that the research review will also be helpful in considering ideas and policies for improving the education system in Saudi Arabia. At present, Saudi Arabian society is dominated by a bureaucratic system which tends to be obstructive to new developments. The emphasis is often on quantity rather than quality. The bureaucratic system is too complex and too task-oriented and tends to discourage initiatives from individual members of the organisation. Consequently it would seem important to give consideration

to those theories which are concerned with human relations and the development of initiatives by members of the organisation.

This research is concerned with leadership styles and their impact on school effectiveness. A study of styles of leadership of organisations is very important to developing countries in their search to improve the quality of life in society, and to make the most effective use of resources. Research studies in Western Society, although by no means conclusive, tend to equate effective use of resources with a democratic style of leadership. Consequently, society in Saudi Arabia may have something to learn from the experience of democratic leadership, especially in the fields of concern for human resources, raising morale, rewarding and motivating people and providing training. The effective education of the younger generation is very important for the future of society.

It is questionable to what extent Max Weber's theory is directly applicable to modern society. Traditional patterns of organisation and authority, based on inherited power and handed down from generation to generation, are inappropriate to new societies which wish to develop the rights of individuals and collaborative decision-making. It would seem very important for individual workers to be involved in the decision-making process with proper respect given to their views. This research emphasises the importance of professional education leadership. Certainly an implication is that effective leadership is essential to social change within an institution. A person who is exercising leadership and sharing the leadership role with others increases the leadership activities of those with whom he shares. A person who shares decision-making functions with others is helping them to become leaders. It can be a social problem to have a person willing to initiate change and to exert leadership. Another problem that has to be overcome is the opposition to or ignorance of the value of shared leadership. As long as some people feel that the leadership function belongs only to certain favoured institutional positions, initiative and leadership within the wider society of Saudi Arabia will continue to be discouraged. The relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates should be

one of mutual respect. It is the leader's task to clarify goals, to raise the motivation level of subordinates by appropriate rewards and to make goals achievable. If headteachers are prepared to share decision-making where appropriate with their staff, teachers will work earnestly and purposefully to do well. As the review indicates, headteachers should treat their staff as professionals rather than as workers or subordinates. Consequently, headteachers should be concerned with both task and people. However, in addition to developing leadership skills, it is also important for headteachers to develop management and technical skills related to the work of the school. These are the kinds of leadership characteristic the present study will investigate.

2.10.1 Conclusion

The above review has covered different aspects of leadership styles in education in order to place the present research in its correct context. Different studies have yielded different results, differences apparently determined by the conditions under which they were carried out, including the methods of study.

It was found that the focus of emphasis in leadership varied from one piece of research to another in this field.

It is depressing to note how theory and practice sometimes appear divorced from each other. Schools appear to have a clear idea of the role of leadership which, in turn, affects the performance of the principal in his or her leadership of the school. The criteria for leadership can vary between studies which makes assessing the evidence difficult.

It appears from research studies that the leader is one who will, for the benefit of the organisation, promote aims and objectives, initiate new directions in a pragmatic way, show consideration for those engaged in the situation of the organisation, and promote an effective working environment (physical and social). He or she will be flexible in approach to situations and not rely on formulae or preconceived ideas of problem resolution. He or she will not confuse activity with action, remembering that mere

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administration is not leadership, indeed leadership can often bypass many of the structures of management.

2.10.2 How the literature will inform the study

The purpose of this chapter has been to review the relevant available literature/theories as a guide to the researcher in planning his own empirical work. The first point to be stressed here is that the literature review informed us about issues related to leadership study as an academic field, but the review did not answer the specific concerns of the present researcher. In other words, the researcher gained an overview of the field, but the central research question about the leadership styles of elementary school principals in Riyadh remained unanswered: which means that the researcher can proceed to plan an empirical investigation.

Another point to emphasise is that individual researchers have used different research methods in this field, such as interview, questionnaire, and observation. However, one approach to leadership study has been widely used is the Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Stogdill and Coons, 1968). The point here is that research instruments such as this may have different outcomes depending on where the study takes place. It is this that will, in part, be examined next and particularly the Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) version of it. In addition, it should be noted here that more about the Pfeiffer instrument will be said in the next chapter.

Further, the literature review informed the researcher of the variables most frequently used by scholars (Fiedler, 1976; Hemphill, 1949; Stogdill, 1974; Halpin, 1966; Pfeiffer, 1972; Sergiovanni et al, 1969; Likert, 1967) in analysis of leadership behaviour and organisational situations. Thus, it is these variables, for example principal's education and length of experience, which will be used to examine the headteachers' effect on pupil achievement in Riyadh City.

Finally, it should be said that more about the researcher's findings gained from the literature review will be dealt with in the next chapter, which is on research methods.

Chapter Three

Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to survey the design of research methodologies which will be used to conduct the empirical aspect of the study, and a brief note is given on matters arising from major themes identified in the literature review. In the chapter, the focus is on research methodology and the design and conduct of the fieldwork undertaken for this study, including the methodological approach, description of the research sample, selection of the sample, the data gathering processes, the preliminary study and the questionnaire for the study. It also considers the factors involved in the process of research design and circumstances under which fieldwork was conducted.

3.2 Aims of the study

This research aims to:

1.   indicate patterns in educational leadership style in Saudi Arabia;

2.   determine the theory and practice of educational leadership style in Saudi Arabia;

3.   test the styles of management and leadership at elementary schools in Riyadh and to discover the status of leadership style in the field of education in Saudi Arabia.

The study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1.   What kind of leadership styles are adopted by school headteachers? and what is effective in education in Saudi Arabia?

2.   What kind of association exists between professional education and student learning?

3.   What effect does the size of school, namely the number of students, have on student learning?

4.   What effect does the experience of headteachers have on student learning?

3.2.1 Summary of literature review

The literature reviewed seems to indicate the importance of studying the leadership style of headteachers. It is also important to note that the review also indicates several issues for investigation which are specific to Saudi Arabia. In addition, further research questions are of particular importance in serving as a guide to the present study in terms of empirical analysis. These are as follows:

1.   Headteachers would like to act as managers of the school's development and act as the focus for control of school activities and resources (Seller, 1993).

2.   Headteachers would like to see that the school staff are allowed complete freedom in their work, so as to achieve a balance between a strong leadership role for themselves and to have maximum autonomy for teachers (Southworth, 1990).

3.   Headteachers are often willing to encourage the use of uniform procedures in line with bureaucracy as concerns impersonal procedures and their employment practices based on technical criteria (Silver, 1983).

4.   Headteachers will permit the school staff to use their own initiative in solving problems; where the leader's vision is willingly shared by followers in schools, teachers will work earnestly and purposefully to do well. Yet good leaders can accept the followers' initiatives (Southworth, 1993).

5.   Headteachers stress to school staff the virtue of competing with other staff in such a way where the thinking of an organisation as a network of interrelated groups helps one to see that overall performance is a function not only of how well each group does its job, but also of how well the groups are interrelated (Hampton, 1987).

6. The headteacher urges school staff to greater effort by utilisation of staff development for maintaining the ethos of the school and attaining the goals of the school (Jones et al, 1985).

7. The leader's effectiveness is a function of how well his or her interactions with subordinates help them to see what needs doing (Hampton, 1985), and headteachers encourage school staff to do their work the way they think best.

8. The management style reflects concern both for task and for people (Paisey, 1980), and headteachers should be prepared to let the school staff take on tasks and let them get on with them without direct supervision.

9. Awareness of the need to avoid conflicts of personality and envy is important (Sulayman, 1976), requiring the headteacher to settle conflicts when they occur among school staff.

10. Headteachers are sometimes reluctant to allow school staff any freedom of action; this is misguided and does not do justice to teachers who have a basic need to be a part of a community of shared values (Lezotte, 1992).

11. Headteachers decide what needs to be done and how it should be done. In some ways autocratic, the decision is sometimes taken without consultation, but then others are informed of what is to be done and what is expected of them (Everard et al, 1990).

12. Emphasising close supervision of tasks (Silver, 1983), headteachers push school staff for increased production.

13. Leaders need to hold the attention of followers and the leader's behaviour often is taken as a positive or negative sign by followers. Similarly, the successful leader is alert to the positive or negative reaction of followers (Hollander, 1978), so that the headteacher can allow the school staff a large measure of initiative.

14. The headteacher would trust the school staff to exercise good judgment "when relations are good (for example, leader is trusted, respected, liked)" (Owens, 1981).

15. There is a willingness to inform others about the policies and regulations of the system in which the leader operates (Sulayman, 1978) so that the headteacher expects that school staff will follow standard rules and regulations.

Any investigation of leadership behaviour needs to bear these points in mind.

3.2.2 Matters arising from literature review

From the literature reviewed so far, the following issues have been noted:

- Previous studies were based on a variety of methods. They produce different results about leader behaviour/style (such as leader personality, communication, goal management). It is, thus, difficult to know which one would fit best in Saudi Arabia.

- The previous studies were carried out in different countries (e.g. America and the United Kingdom). Mention should be made here that countries vary economically, culturally and socially, in that what may be considered effective in one culture or country may have a different reflection on another country. Thus, the present researcher felt it was important to search for what is best for Saudi Arabia.

- We note three variables with which leadership style has been examined and the present analyses will use them, because they seem commonly used by previous researchers: a) educational level, b) experience, and c) school size.

- Most of the previous studies, as already noted above, draw conclusions based on theory, others review the work of other researchers and some use specific methods for research in leadership. Thus, in the present analysis, the Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Stogdill, 1963) will be considered the most appropriate choice and reasons will be given in a later section of this chapter.

- Another point is that none of the above studies were carried out in the schools which will be the subject of the present study. Also, a school is a complex social and educational organisation which changes as time goes by, and this suggests the need for repeated studies within an education system.

As can be seen, there is a gap in terms of the schools the present study will address, and there are methodological limitations which the present researcher has to bear in mind when deciding on which methods to use.

3.3 Types of educational research

Methodology refers to the approaches or style used by the researcher to collect data. Cohen and Manion (1989) indicated method as:

> *"that range of approaches used in education research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction."* (p.41)

Also, it remains the individual researcher's decision which methodology to employ, the major difference between educational research and other scientific research (e.g. social sciences) as mentioned by Van Dalen (1979) being:

> *"Natural scientists are concerned with phenomena on the gross physical level. Their studies involve a comparatively small number of variables (the set of conditions required for an event) that can be measured quite precisely. Because social scientists are concerned with people as individuals and as members of groups, they must disentangle much more complex systems of interaction. Social problems may involve such a large number of variables that they overwhelm investigators with the possibilities to consider."* (p.28)

Human beings are the most complex to deal with of all organisms. It can be much more difficult to explain, predict and control situations associated with human beings. The methodology in educational research, as in social science, is more broadly based, constantly changing and widening. There are diverse research methodologies, each being

especially useful for some specific area of research. It is up to the researcher, as noted above, to select the most suitable methods for the particular research project in hand to resolve the issues under scrutiny. In the main, these can be organised into quantitative and qualitative approaches. It may be as well to look at these approaches. As Cohen and Manion (1994) mentioned, one way of using a quantitative method is to structure a person's knowledge about teachers in reference to their age, colour of hair etc., while others are more a matter of the children's personal judgment such as their views on the teacher's enthusiasm or competence.

Quantitative methodologies describe a number of approaches to the study of social episodes in educational settings.

There are several styles of research which utilise quantitative and qualitative approaches. Historical research has been defined by Cohen and Manion (1989) as

> *"the systematic and objective location, evaluation and synthesis of evidence in order to establish facts and draw conclusions about past events."* (p.168)

Educational research is generally systematised into several research styles:

3.3.1 Action Research

Action research is used to find a solution for classroom problems. It is concerned with a local problem and is conducted in a local setting. Action research explores a solution to a given problem rather than attempting a contribution to science, whether the research is conducted within one classroom or in many classrooms. Action research has been described by Cohen and Manion (1994):

> *"action research is situational – it is concerned with diagnosing a problem in a specific context and attempting to solve it in that context."* (p.186)

Action research is not interested in generalising but is primarily concerned with a single school or classroom.

3.3.2 Correlational research

Correlational research determines the relationships which exist between two or more quantifiable variables. Gay (1976) stated that correlational research involves collecting data in order to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables (p.142).

This approach has several advantages. Cohen and Manion (1989) mentioned two advantages:

> "As regards its advantages, correlational research is particularly useful in tackling the problems of education and the social sciences because it allows for the measurement of a number of variables and their relationships simultaneously. The experimental approach, by contrast, is characterised by the manipulation of a single variable and is thus appropriate for dealing with problems where simple causal relationships exist. In educational and behavioural research, it is invariably the case that a number of variables contribute to a particular outcome. Experimental research thus introduces a note of unreality into research, whereas correlational approaches, while less rigorous, allow for the study of behaviour in more realistic settings. Where an element of control is required, however, partial correlation achieves this without changing the context in which the study takes place.
>
> A second advantage of correlational research we have already noted: it yields information concerning the degree of relationship between the variables being studied. It thus provides the researcher with insights into the way variables operate that cannot be gained by other means. We may itemise the remaining strengths of the method in a few words: as a basis for prediction studies, it enables researchers to make estimates of the probable accuracy of their predictions; it is especially useful for lower-level ground work where it serves as a powerful exploratory tool; and it does not require large samples." (p.166)

However, correlational research has significant limitations indicated by Cohen and Manion (1989):

"Among its limitations, correlational research only identifies what goes with what – it only implies concomitance and therefore does not necessarily establish cause-and-effect relationships; it is less rigorous than the experimental approach because it exercises less control over the independent variables; it is prone to identify spurious relation patterns; it adopts an atomistic approach; and the correlation index is relatively imprecise, being limited by the unreliability of the measurements of the variables. "
(p.126)

As we can see, the above review of the literature associates correlational studies with mainly two notions which may be classified as either relational studies or as prediction studies. If we, then, look at this from the viewpoint of a method, it can then be argued that correlation study is particularly useful in exploratory studies into specific fields where little or no previous research has been undertaken. Cohen and Manion (1989) stress that correlation study is particularly useful for understanding complex factors operating singly or in combination. Thus, the present researcher sees the relationship between variables in his project as complex and felt that a correlational approach may make it understandable/predictable. Also, it should be noted that the present analysis is the first of its kind to be carried out in Saudi Arabia - thus, it was felt that a correlational approach would be useful in the exploration of the issues in the topic in question. In addition, correlational research was used in this study as the researcher wished to examine degrees of relationship between identified variables, as follows: a) education level, b) experience and c) school size.

3.3.3 A case study

A case study looks at individual groups to determine the relationship among the elements that affect the current behaviour or state of subject. Case studies have a number of advantages that make them attractive to educational researchers. Cohen and Manion (1994), adapting Adelman et al (1980) point out:

"1. Case study data, paradoxically, is 'strong in reality' but difficult to organise. In contrast, other research data is often 'weak in reality' but susceptible to ready organisation. This strength in reality is because case studies are down-to-earth and attention holding, in harmony with the reader's own experience, and thus provide a 'natural' basis for generalisation.

2. Case studies allow generalisations either about an instance or from an instance to a class. Their peculiar strength lies in their attention to the subtlety and complexity of the case in its own right.

3. Case studies recognise the complexity and 'embeddedness' of social truths. By carefully attending to social situations, case studies can represent something of the discrepancies or conflicts between the viewpoints held by participants. The best case studies are capable of offering some support to alternative interpretations.

4. Case studies, considered as products, may form an archive of descriptive material sufficiently rich to admit subsequent reinterpretation. Given the variety and complexity of educational purposes and environments, there is an obvious value in having a data source for researchers and users whose purposes may be different from our own.

5. Case studies are a 'step to action'. They begin in a world of action and contribute to it. Their insights may be directly interpreted and put to use; for staff or individual self-development, for within- institutional feedback; for formative evaluation; and in educational policy making.

6. Case studies present research or evaluation data in a more publicly accessible form than other kinds of research report, although this virtue is to some extent bought at the expense of their length. The language and the form of the presentation is hopefully less esoteric and less dependent on specialised interpretation than conventional research reports. The case study is capable of serving multiple audiences. It reduces the dependence of the reader upon unstated implicit assumptions ... and makes the research process itself accessible. Case studies, therefore, may contribute towards the 'democratisation' of decision-making (and knowledge itself). At its best, they allow readers to judge the implications of a study for themselves." (p.123)

In the present researcher's view, Cohen and Manion (1994) have not made sufficiently clear that case study methods may only be most effective for understanding individual differences and these differences cannot be used to generalise. My point is that the sample of case studies is substantially less than that required for drawing statistical conclusions.

The researcher did not use the case study research because it is difficult to make generalisations from this approach.

3.3.4 Survey method

Surveys are one of the most commonly used methods in descriptive research in education, because surveys enable the gathering of limited information from a relatively large number of cases at a particular point of time to describe existing circumstances, to compare different conditions and to examine whether any relationship exists between specific events. This method is frequently used to delineate prevailing conditions or particular behavioural trends. Borg (1987) stated that the survey method in education can be used to explore a very wide range of topics (p.130).

Morrison (1993) stated that through survey research, the researcher can gather a large amount of data which will help to make a generalisation (p.186).

Some other advantages of this method have been identified by other writers. Oppenheim (1966) suggested that the survey is a form of data and information collection as a guide to action or for the purpose of analysing the relationships between certain variables. Verma and Beard (1981) argued that the survey method is more natural than the other methods. It investigates phenomena in their normal setting (p.70).

However, the survey method also has a number of limitations (Verma and Beard, 1981). The researcher's role is a minor one; he does not come into direct contact with people who provide the data. Furthermore, if the problem is politically or socially sensitive some respondents may not wish to divulge their feelings.

3.4 Questionnaire technique

As the term is generally used in educational research, the questionnaire comprises a series of questions or statements to which individuals are asked to respond.

The questionnaire technique is utilised to get information about existing conditions and practice. It tends to explore and ascertain attitudes, feelings and opinions about certain issues.

In general there are two types of questionnaire. The first one is called unrestricted or open-ended because the respondent is free to form his answer to each question as he chooses. The second type is called restricted or closed which consists of a series of questions or statements to which a respondent answers by selecting one or more choices. The respondent's choice is often forced between agree/disagree, yes/no. All the questions only require the participants to circle a number.

Each type of questionnaire has advantages and disadvantages; therefore the investigator has to determine what is most likely to obtain the particular data needed for his purposes. He needs to consider the structure of the questionnaire, the type of questions to ask, how to organise them, what types of answer patterns to use for closed-ended items.

Borg (1981) defines a questionnaire as follows:

> "A test usually contains a set of items related to a single variable, such as vocabulary or arithmetic achievement, that has correct and incorrect answers and produces a score that indicates the individual's level of performance on that variable. In contrast, the questionnaire usually contains questions aimed at getting specific information on a variety of topics. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions, and no total score is computed by combining the questionnaire responses. Questions may be of either the closed form, in which the question permits only certain responses (such as a multiple-choice question), or the open form, in which the subject makes any response he wishes in his own words (such as an essay question). Which form will be used is determined by the objective of the particular question. Generally, though, it is desirable to design the questions in closed form, so that quantification and analysis of the results may be carried out

> *efficiently. In many cases, the results for each item are analysed*
> *and reported separately by the investigator."* (pp.80- 85)

Guidance on the construction of questionnaires in order to make them easier to fill in is offered by various writers such as Best (1970), Keeves (1988) and Turney and Robb (1971). They stated that the task of designing a questionnaire is very complicated; it needs patience to construct every item with accuracy in order to avoid strange wording and unfortunate expressions. There may be a degree of vagueness about language which can confuse the respondents or even invalidate the data.

It is important to pre-test any questionnaire because it is impossible to know how the question will be interpreted by the respondents unless the researcher tries out his questionnaire and analysis in advance.

The above procedures are based on the approaches of Borg (1981). He indicated, "it is impossible to predict how questionnaire items will be interpreted by respondents unless the researcher tries out his questionnaire and analyses the responses in a small sample of subjects before starting his main study." (pp.84-85)

Borg (1981) indicated also that the questionnaire should be carefully checked by the reviewer for leading questions. If a question is framed in such a way that the subject is given hints as to the kind of response that is expected, there is some tendency to give the researcher what he wants. Also he mentioned that it is very important in the questionnaire to avoid items that are psychologically threatening to the person answering. For example, if a questionnaire concerning the morale of their teachers was sent to school principals, it would be threatening to some principals because low morale suggests that the principal is failing in part of his job (p.85).

The researcher may present questions in three ways. According to Van Dalen (1979):

> *"A researcher may cast questions in a closed, an open or a*
> *pictorial form, or any combination of these forms. The nature of*
> *the problem and the character of the respondents determine which*
> *form or forms will most likely supply the desired data."* (p.150)

3.4.1 A. Open questionnaire

This kind of questionnaire has advantages and disadvantages. The following advantages were identified by Van Dalen (1979):

1. Respondents choose between rigidly limited responses;

2. The open questionnaire permits them to answer freely and fully in their own words and their own frame of reference;

3. This method of collecting data gives the subjects an opportunity to reveal their motives or attitudes and to specify the background or provisional conditions upon which their answers are based.

The disadvantages are:

1. Subjects have no clues to guide their thinking.

2. They may unintentionally omit important information or fail to note sufficient details.

3. If subjects are not highly literate and willing to give considerable time and critical thought to questions, they cannot provide useful data.

3.4.2 B. Pictorial questionnaire

This sort of questionnaire presents respondents with drawings or photographs from which to choose answers and this is suitable for children or adults with limited reading ability (Van Dalen, 1979, p.154).

3.4.3 C. Closed questionnaire

A closed questionnaire has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages of using a closed questionnaire have been identified by Oppenheim (1966):

1. Closed questions are easier and quicker to answer as they require no writing.

2. More questions can be asked within a given length of time.

The disadvantages are:

1.   Closed questions lose spontaneity and expressiveness.

2.   The researcher never knows what the respondent said or thought.

A questionnaire can be presented in two ways:

1.   Direct contact.

2.   Mailed questionnaires (Oppenheim, 1966, p.43).

Van Dalen (1979) described the questionnaire of direct contact:

> *"Fewer partial responses and refusals to reply are obtained when the researcher personally presents the questionnaire, for the researcher can explain the purpose and significance of the study, clarify points, answer questions, and motivate respondents to answer questions carefully and truthfully. But bringing a group together to fill out a questionnaire is often difficult, and meeting members individually may be excessively costly and time-consuming: hence, questionnaires are usually sent through the mail."* (p.153)

As mentioned by Van Dalen (1979):

> *"Mailed questionnaires reach many people in widely scattered areas quickly and at relatively low cost. The returns, unfortunately, do not bound back with equal celerity, and partial returns may introduce a bias that will render the obtained data useless."* (p.135)

The disadvantages of using mailed questionnaires are also identified by Bailey (1987):

1.   Lack of flexibility with no interviewer present, and the response to the questions cannot be corrected.

2.   Low response rates. In an interview study, the vast majority of interviews are successfully completed and the reasons for non-responses are generally known. However, mailed studies sometimes receive response rates as low as 10 per cent.

3. Verbal behaviour. There is no interviewer present to observe non-verbal behaviour or to make personal assessment, concerning the respondent's ethnicity, social class and other pertinent characteristics.

4. No control over the order in which questions are answered.

5. Unsupervised respondents may leave some or many questions unanswered.

There are also some advantages to mailed questionnaires identified by Bailey (1987).

1. Considerable savings of money.

2. Time-saving mailed questionnaires can be sent to all respondents simultaneously and most of the replies will be received within a few weeks.

3. The questionnaire may be completed at the respondent's convenience when the respondent is free to answer questions.

4. Standardised wording: comparison of respondents' answers is facilitated by the fact that each respondent is exposed to exactly the same wording.

5. There is no interviewer bias, i.e. there is no opportunity for the respondent to be biased by an interviewer (pp.148-149).

3.5 Data collection procedures: with reference to questionnaires

This section provides a background to the construction of the questionnaire for the present study. It should be noted that the rationale behind choosing direct distributed questionnaires and not the others or not the interview method, for instance, is based on the following reasons:

1. By direct questionnaires, high responses are expected due to the availability of the researcher with the respondents. The researcher may encourage them to answer all the questions, for instance.

2. The availability of the researcher may also help respondents to understand every point in the questionnaire. In addition, they can check the finished questionnaires for completeness, and so on.

3. Because the number of respondents is large, this method seems more appropriate compared with the interview method which requires much time for collecting information from a large number of respondents.

4. Opposed to the mailed/postal questionnaire, the direct administered questionnaire may ensure and guarantee the collection of all the questionnaires. But in case of the postal questionnaire, this may not be guaranteed as no direct contact could be achieved between the researcher and the respondents.

In addition to the above mentioned merits of the questionnaire, its collected data may show a minimum bias, particularly if the researcher pays much attention to the wording of his questions (Oppenheim, 1966, p.36). Nevertheless, bias may also occur in direct distributed questionnaire if leading questions are included or constructed. According to Cohen and Manion (1980), leading questions are:

> "...questions which are worded (or their response categories presented) in such a way as to suggest to respondents that there is only one acceptable answer. For example: Do you prefer abstract, academic type-course, or down-to-earth, practical courses that have some pay-off in your day-to-day teaching ... " (p.105)

Moreover, the questionnaire may frustrate the respondents if it contains many open-ended questions and, as a result, these questions may be left unanswered because they are too demanding in terms of time and effort. Cohen and Manion (1980) stated that:

> "The open-ended question is a less satisfactory way of eliciting information. Open-ended questions, moreover, are too demanding of most respondents' time. " (p.107)

It is worth mentioning that in constructing the questionnaire for this study, these points have been taken into consideration to make the process of answering the questions as easy as possible and to guarantee a high degree of response. For example, in all the questions, the respondents are required only to circle one answer for each question. Furthermore, complex structures and abbreviations have been avoided to guarantee the smooth passage of the information. For example, the questions do not include any double negative structures which may be difficult to understand. Leading questions have also been avoided and the vast majority of the questions have scales, each scale contains five items rather than three items to provide the respondents with a wide range of choices. For example, in talking about the amount of help the respondents think or feel they require, they are given five choices (1. Always, 2. Frequently, 3. Occasionally, 4. Seldom, 5. Never.), and they have to tick only one answer out of five. This technique may help the respondents in answering the questions easily and may help the researcher too because it could be easily analysed by the computer which makes the task accurate and convenient.

To some extent, some of the problems of designing the questionnaire may be revealed after the respondents answer the questions because the questionnaire designer may not discover in advance what can be understood easily by the respondents until he examines their responses and relates them to the purposes of his questions. This point was also taken into consideration from the very beginning because most of the inherent problems in this technique have been kept in mind in every stage of construction and finalisation of the questionnaire. Accordingly, every effort was made to ensure appropriate design and wording of the questions.

The questionnaire for the present study was also provided with a brief cover letter which aimed at assuring the respondents about the confidentiality of their answers, motivating them to answer all the questions and briefing them about the purpose of the study and

its importance. In fact, the cover letter is important as confirmed by many educationalists. Mouly (1978) states:

> *"The cover letter is also of crucial importance to success, since the investigator must depend on the printed words to sell his study. A good letter can make a real contribution to both the rate and the quality ... The cover must be brief, courteous, and forceful in pointing out the significance of the study and the importance of the individual's participation."* (p.108)

In fact, the cover letter of the questionnaire used in this study includes all the necessary points implied in this quotation including the name of the researcher and the name and address of Durham University where the researcher studies.

The present study adopted a closed questionnaire to identify and analyse recurrent themes in the headteachers' behaviour and relationship with pupil achievement for reasons mentioned by many researchers (Lee, 1971; Bailey, 1978; Dillman, 1983). They indicated some of the advantages of using closed questionnaires:

1. they can be sent to a large group of participants;

2. they generate a large knowledge and experience base;

3. responses from participants can be returned in a relatively short period of time;

4. participants may spend as much time as necessary to answer each question allowing more time for difficult questions;

5. standardised wording allows for easier comparison of participants' responses;

6. they are more cost effective than other data gathering techniques (pp. 359-375).

The use of a closed questionnaire, noting that closed response items enable the researcher to control the areas of examination, requires almost no writing from the participants and can be tabulated and summarised quickly.

According to Verma and Beard (1981), the processing and analysis of questionnaire data is cheaper than that of data collected by other methods such as the interview or the

experimental method. It allows greater uniformity in the manner in which questions are asked, thus providing an opportunity for greater comparability.

The present study adopted direct contact to present the questionnaire rather than mailing questionnaires; the limitations on the respondents' answers are that they may not answer all the questions or if they do they may not answer them completely or correctly.

The quality of responses may be affected by carelessness, faulty memory, faulty perception or lack of interest. Furthermore, there can be no assurance that all the responses are truthful. In addition, if the questionnaire is mailed, the number of returns may be small; in this case it is very doubtful whether the data collected will be adequate for use in the study. Phillips (1987) found that some respondents deliberately distort their answers in order to present themselves in a better light or to provide the researcher with responses they think are expected.

3.6 Interview method

The definition of interview used in this study is adapted from Cohen and Manion (1994):

> *"A two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information."*
> (p.272)

I have adopted this definition because most writers have similar definitions.

Although the interview is widely used in social/educational research, it has some limitations; in short, these limitations relate to the time, money and energy required to conduct an interview compared to the use of questionnaire (Van Dalen, 1979). Interviews are expensive, especially if wide geographical areas are covered by research. It is also expensive in terms of time and effort as it often involves calling back, long waits and travel. In using interview data, the main problem is that interviews permit many possible answers to any given question. In addition, transcribing and analysing interviews can also be time-consuming. Analysis and presentation of interview information can create

more problems than the tabulation of data from questionnaires which may be presented with a minimum of explanation (Willis, 1977).

3.6.1 Cultural issues in method of interview

In this section of the study, the researcher argues against the method of interview from the perspective of culture as the reason for not employing it in this study.

Over recent years, there has been a good deal of writing on limitation of the method of interview for data collection in some cultures. The argument for this, as Awiria (1991) stresses, is that certain methods of research work are more successful in some cultures, but may prove less useful in addressing social problems in other cultures. In the case of the interview method, Bulmer and Warwick (1993) argue that in certain cultures respondents will not reveal information accurately in the interview situation. Bulmer and Warwick (1993) go on to point out that respondents may not be willing to give appropriate information, especially if the content of the interview is embarrassing in terms of their culture. A similar argument that the validity of interviews depends on cultural issues can be found in the work of Weinberg (1971) who suggested that nothing culturally that can be measured by a good test should be left to the 'interview method' (p.205).

In Saudi Arabia, the limitation of 'interview' method is even more than noted by the above writers. For example, in Saudi Arabian society, there is the common fear that interview results may put respondents' lives at risk. Also, Saudi Arabia has a very complex society which would not allow interviews to take place without authority for cultural reasons and to obtain permission may take quite some time or the researcher may receive no permission at all. The other thing is that people are so busy and do not tend to give their time to respond to interview questions. Further, it is not actually easy to find headteachers in Saudi Arabia who would willingly give their time to respond to interview questions. As such, to do something effective the present researcher felt it necessary to omit the method of interview.

Argyris (1969) stated some general factors related to the interview method as:

1. *Interviews are new psychological situations. As such they tend to place a subject in a situation where the purposes are unclear or unknown. Clearly, such situations tend to produce tension, anxiety, and conflict within individuals.*

2. *Some subjects know what an interview is like but dislike such a situation because it represents to them an authoritarian relationship where they are submitting to the researcher. This also arouses defences.*

3. *Still other subjects are closely attached to and identified with their leader or their work group. They view a research interview as an attempt to make them talk about their very personal relationships with their leader or group, and therefore resist.*

4. *Research people introduced as being somehow connected with a university often tend to be perceived as highly educated and rather sophisticated individuals. This connection with the "sacred halls of learning" tends to place some employees (especially for those with no college education) in a situation which calls for defence of their self."* (p.116)

The present study regards the use of interview as problematic, not only because it is time-consuming but also because it may not generate valid data. For these reasons, the present researcher chose a questionnaire approach as being quick and easy to administer.

There are many other measurement instruments developed for understanding leadership behaviour. The key point is that all instruments have their reasons behind their use. It is this that is examined in this section of the chapter.

To give examples of some of the instruments: 1) there is the "Supervisory Behaviour Questionnaire" (SBQ) and 2) the "Leadership Orientation Questionnaire" (LOQ) (Silver, 1983, p. 133). The former is used to assess subordinates' descriptions of their supervisors' structuring and "consideration", while the latter is used to quantify the leader's own attitudes regarding structuring and "consideration leadership behaviour. The conclusion of the present researcher is that these two instruments are concerned with leaders' structuring behaviour (Silver, 1983, p. 133) – elements that are not a necessary

part of leadership styles. As the present analysis is concerned with leadership style, therefore these two methods were not used in the study. It was decided to use the Leader Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) and this is considered separately in this section as below. It should be noted here that LBDQ was the most recently developed method when compared with the other two (SBQ and LOQ) mentioned above.

3.7 The Leader Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) Instrument

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that reasons for using LBDQ will be given. Thus, this section explains why the LBDQ (Brown, 1967; Sergiovanni et al., 1969) was employed in the present analysis. The term LBDQ is meant to convey that the instrument is for the study of leader behaviour; and particularly leader behaviours which have an effect on the given group and outcome of work accomplished (Stogdill and Coons, 1957; Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Pfeiffer and Jones, 1972; Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden, 1969). This instrument is of direct relevance to the present study, in that the present study is concerned with leader behaviour/style. The Leader Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed at the Bureau of Business Research of Ohio University. The instrument is one of a series of successful research instruments developed at Ohio State University in the past 40 years. Burns (1978) and Luthans (1992) argued the instrument to be the best of Ohio state leadership scales since it provides a multi-faceted measure of leader behaviour trials.

Finally, a note on reasons for the use of LBDQ here. Leadership behaviour, as a subject in its own right, has acquired conceptual tools for its measurement and investigation. The present researcher wished to draw on this scientific experience. One further reason for the use of LBDQ in the present study is that it has been used by many scholars (such as Stogdill and Coons, 1957; Hemphill, 1957; Winer and Halpin, 1957; Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Brown, 1967). It has proved itself a successful tool in terms of what it was designed to measure, and this influenced the present researcher's thinking.

It has been stressed by Pfeiffer and Jones (1972), in their work on structured experiences for human relations training, that LBDQ is the most helpful instrument for investigating leader behaviour. Pfeiffer and Jones go on to suggest that researchers in the field of leadership style/behaviour should make full use of this instrument. Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden (1969) used the LBDQ instrument to study 'leadership style'. They were able to distinguish the effect of leadership style on the group and job performance; and then, further, concluded that they found LBDQ very effective for analysing leadership concepts. Brown (1967, pp.62-73) states that LBDQ alone can be used to analyse the domain of perceived leader behaviour. Further, researchers in the field of 'leadership style' (in America) such as Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) consider that LBDQ is useful particularly for posing clearer questions when studying leadership style; and this is an important point to the present study. In fact, it was decided to employ this instrument in the present study so as to make sure that all questions were relevant, related to one another and were important to the respondents and such that all respondents interpreted the questions the same way.

Using LBDQ, Bass (1957) (in Stogdill and Coons, 1957) analysed 'leadership opinions and related characteristics of salesmen and sales managers'. He administered LBDQ to 265 salesmen and sales supervisors of a goods distribution company. For the purposes of cross-validation, Bass organised six samples. As noted in their final report, the number of salesmen and supervisors in each sample and the parts of the country in which they were working were as follows:

"1)   62 salesmen from the North, Midwest or West.

2)   66 salesmen from the North, Midwest or West.

3)   33 salesmen from the south including Texas and Oklahoma.

4)   42 salesmen from the south including Texas and Oklahoma.

5)   34 national distributed sales supervisors.

6) *28 national distributed sales supervisors"* (Stogdill and
   Coons, 1957, p.134).

Bass was able to determine the degree of consideration/initiation between supervisors

and salesmen, as well as degree of consideration/initiation between supervisors who were

older/had been longer with the company and those who were younger/had not long been

in the company. This particular analysis supported the effectiveness of LBDQ for

understanding leadership behaviour/style.

Another study which supported the use of LBDQ was by Fleishman (1957) (in Stogdill

and Coons, 1957). He determined the reliability/validity of LBDQ for use in the field of

supervisor behaviour in industry research. He used LBDQ to examine "consideration

and initiating structure." Reliability was judged in terms of internal consistency,

agreement on assessment, and stability of repeated measurements over time. Validity

was assessed through correlations with independent leadership measures, such as

objective group indices (absenteeism, turnover), productivity ratings, peer ratings, and

leadership group situation tests. Fleishman then concluded, by way of suggestion, that

LBDQ was the most useful method for leadership research and field work in particular.

Seeman (1957) (in Stogdill and Coon, 1957) also used LBDQ in his study entitled *A*

Comparison of General and Specific Leader Behaviour Descriptions. The aim of

Seeman's study was to examine leadership style among school executives. The study

reviewed the performance of some 75 school leaders in 26 Ohio communities; and its

purpose was to show how leadership style within the schools is a function of community

and cultural pressures surrounding the organisation. As a result of the success of this

study, Seeman (1957) commented that he found LBDQ useful for describing leadership

style.

A similar study, which uses the LBDQ method for field work, was by Hemphill (1957)

(in Stogdill and Coon, 1957). Hemphill's study was concerned with *Leader Behaviour*

Associated with the Administrative Reputations of College Departments. He administered LBDQ to 22 department chairmen, and to the faculty members of 22 departments. The following steps were taken at the time of the study:

a)   a letter of introduction was sent to the departments;

b)   the researcher had personal meetings with each department's faculty;

c)   written instructions for completing a packet of anonymous questionnaires were then sent out.

It should be noted here that Hemphill administered the questionnaire to 322 subjects and 234 returned their questionnaires. No reason is given in the official report about the questionnaires not returned. Also, it should be mentioned here that the 234 questionnaires were returned after two follow- up letters. It seems there were certain limitations associated with Hemphill's (1957) study. However, of special importance to the present study is the point that the number of returned questionnaires was enough to describe the leader behaviour he set to analyse. This is further evidence that LBDQ is useful for leadership research.

It is worth mentioning Halpin (1956) who used LBDQ to determine the relationship between a leader's ideal (how he/she thinks she/he should behave as a leader) and his/her actual leadership behaviour as observed by his subordinates. Halpin's study consisted of two groups of subjects: that is, 64 educational administrators and 132 aircraft commanders, to whom he administered LBDQ. The "real" behaviour of each subject was also described by several subordinates on a separate form of the LBDQ: a) of the aircraft commanders described by 1,099 crew members and b) of the educational administrators by 428 members of their staff. The scores were obtained for each subject, representing his consideration behaviour, "real" and "ideal", as well as his initiating structure behaviour, "real" and "ideal" (Halpin, 1956, p.9). Halpin reported that the

findings were interesting and that he was able to detect a tendency among aircraft commanders for those who exhibit consideration also to exhibit structuring behaviour. On the side of educational administrators, Halpin states that he was able to detect correlation between the "real" and "ideal" structuring behaviour. On the basis of Halpin's study, we can conclude LBDQ is of value in leadership research. The LBDQ provided him with specific data suitable to his proposed area of study.

Another reason for use of LBDQ in the present study, as noted by Andrews (1965), is that with the help of LBDQ, it is possible to obtain information on:

- the leader's acts as representative of the group;

- the leader's conflicting behaviour with regard to the organisational objectives such as of school policy;

- the definition of the leader's role, such as the headteacher's role in school administration;

- definition of the kinds of relationship between the leader and his/her followers.

In short, as can clearly be seen, the above review strongly suggests and supports LBDQ as an effective instrument of leader behaviour/style.

As defined by Chapter 2 concerned with the review of literature, different researchers appear to have used different tools of measurement in the study of leadership. For example, some researches are based on theory, some based on the empirical works of others, and others posed their own techniques of questionnaire design. Consequently, different researchers come up with different conclusions; and it becomes difficult to define one as particularly evaluating the claim of others. Also, such techniques tend to address specific situations and are highly difficult to use for understanding leadership issues in other areas. In the present study LBDQ was considered as being a possibly better technique. The advantage of LBDQ is that many of the principles are common to

all scientific investigation in the area of leadership style in any institution or setting. LBDQ questions enable the researcher to obtain detailed data and compile information from subjects about leadership that may not be reflected in responses to the empirical work of others or theory. In LBDQ situations, the researcher's position will be very clear to the subjects and this may have a positive effect on the responses in terms of quality of data. The point is that LBDQ has much more potential (strength) in collecting data on leader behaviour, as it is understood to be specifically developed for leader characteristics in general.

3.7.1 Choice of Instrument

Pfeiffer and Jones' (1972) version of the LBDQ was adapted from Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden's (1969) 'Revision of the leadership behaviour description questionnaire towards a particularistic approach to leadership style, some findings'.

Pfeiffer and Jones' questionnaire is described in his book *A Handbook of Structured Experience for Human Relations Training*. It describes aspects of leadership behaviour (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1972), and was adapted for use in the present study.

However, while the LBDQ had 150 items, Pfeiffer and Jones reduced it to 35, selected to investigate the principal aspects of leadership which had been identified in previous research. The present study, therefore, adopted Pfeiffer and Jones' questionnaire for several reasons, as follows:

- Other studies in Saudi Arabia such as Al-Souker (1984) used it and found it helpful for collecting data in the Saudi Arabian culture.

- The questions directly address leadership issues noted in the literature review such as direction of leader's authority, communication, relationship with followers.

- The questionnaire describes specific behaviour, not just general traits or characteristics.

- The items clearly apply to various kinds of school organisational structure and situations in Saudi Arabia.

- Items are worded clearly in terms of meaningfulness to the respondents. In fact, the way Pfeiffer and Jones designed the questionnaire made it easier for the present researcher to translate into Arabic.

- The items in the questionnaire address specific variables for understanding leader behaviour links.

- In the questionnaire the items are phrased in the present tense. It was thought this would help to collect information that is in practice.

- The items in the questionnaire all start with a pronoun such as "He", which was felt by the researcher would help to obtain information on the leader's activities in specific terms, as all respondents would be male.

- The items in the questionnaire are not ambiguous. Thus, it was felt they would elicit as accurate an account as possible of what this project proposed.

- Items are addressed in such a way to investigate the frequency with which the leader behaviour occurs (for example: always, never).

- It was felt that if the researcher designed a new questionnaire this would take a longer time as the questionnaire was again to be translated into Arabic.

- Pfeiffer and Jones is a scholar in the area of leadership concept and thus it was felt by the present researcher that his questionnaire would be appropriate for collecting information on headteacher behaviour/style is Saudi Arabia.

3.7.2 The similarities between LBDQ and Pfeiffer and Jones' version

Both instruments (LBDQ and Pfeiffer and Jones' version) were developed at the Bureau of Business Research at the University of Ohio in the USA. Burns (1979) and Luthans (1992) argue that these instruments are to be regarded as the best of the Ohio state leadership scales since they provide a multi-faceted measure of leader behaviour traits. Further, the instruments clarify initiative structure and consideration of scales used in earlier questionnaires. Both the original LBDQ instrument and Pfeiffer and Jones' version of it are used to measure aspects of leadership behaviour. But the present researcher chose to use the Pfeiffer and Jones version because it was developed from the LBDQ; and because it has fewer items to administer in a survey (Stogdill et al, 1957), and this was likely to make it more acceptable to teachers in Saudi Arabia.

3.7.3 The distinction between LBDQ and Pfeiffer and Jones instruments

The distinction between the original LBDQ instrument and Pfeiffer and Jones' version are:

1. Pfeiffer and Jones' version, as we have noted above, consists of 35 statements describing leader behaviour as described by Pfeiffer and Jones (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1972) themselves, but the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) consists of 150 statements describing leader behaviour and was produced by Stogdill and Coons (1968). The point I would like to make here is that the length of the full LBDQ is a disadvantage when subjects may have little time in which to respond.

2. The Pfeiffer and Jones version is very helpful for collecting data in the Saudi Arabian culture, as measured by those who used it before the present study (Al-Hadhood, 1984; Al-Soukar, 1984).

3. Pfeiffer himself is a scholar in the area of leadership concept and thus it was felt by the present researcher that his questionnaire would be appropriate in collecting information on headteacher behavioural style in Saudi Arabia.

4. Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) work is more recent when compared to other scholars such as Halpin (1956), Hemphill (1957), Sergiovanni et al (1969).

3.7.4 Validation of Pfeiffer and Jones' (1972) version

This section of the study briefly reviews the validation of Pfeiffer and Jones' version by previous users. Before going further, it should be noted here that by validation I mean whether the data are, in fact, what they are believed or purported to be (Charles, 1995).

Al-Hadhood (1984) used Pfeiffer and Jones' version to analyse leadership behaviour of elementary public school principals in the state of Kuwait. To answer the question of validation, she examined whether the contents of Pfeiffer and Jones' instrument are the same as those included in the textbooks on leadership behaviour, particularly with reference to theories of leadership. Al-Hadhood (1984) then noted that Pfeiffer and Jones' version adopts a view of leadership behaviour which has commonly been expressed by scholars, and describes it as valid for understanding leadership behaviour. A similar approach to validation of Pfeiffer and Jones' version was used by Al-Soukar (1984); he, also, was satisfied with its validity.

Validation of Pfeiffer and Jones' version of the LBDQ in Arabian environment:

Al-Hadhood (1984) validated Pfeiffer and Jones' version of the LBDQ by pilot study. She tested the questionnaire and in fact administered it to 10 teachers and one principal in one elementary school in Kuwait. Al-Hadhood's (1984) study discussed the questionnaire with teachers and the principal. Based on the discussion, Al-Hadhood decided that the version of the questionnaire to be used during the study was applicable to the sample population.

Al-Soukar (1984) validated Pfeiffer and Jones' version in a similar way by pilot study. She tested the questionnaire: that is administered it to 10 headmistresses from intermediate girls' schools in Riyadh. Al-Soukar's study discussed the questionnaire with headmistresses. Based on this discussion, Al- Soukar (1984) decided that the version of the questionnaire to be used during the study was applicable to the sample population. In view of these two examples, it can be seen that the Pfeiffer and Jones' version has been validated in Arabian culture and has been deemed valid.

Batah's (1979) study used Pfeiffer and Jones' version of the LBDQ and he validated the instrument using the "current validity approach". By the current validity approach I mean comparing data yielded by the full LBDQ (Stogdill and Coons, 1968) with those produced by Pfeiffer and Jones' (1972) adaptation: that is if the results are closely related this is taken as evidence of validity. This, in essence, is the approach adopted in intelligence test theory when the validity of a new instrument is inferred from its high positive correlation with a well-established test such as the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (Stogdill and Coons, 1968). Batah (1979) found a high correlation between the full LBDQ and Pfeiffer and Jones' adaptation, and interpreted this as evidence of the validity of the latter.

As we can see, there are several methods that are used to validate Pfeiffer and Jones' version of the LBDQ. In the present study, content validity approach will be used. This ensures that the items in Pfeiffer and Jones' instrument are derived from evidence in the textbooks on leadership behaviour. Further, as we shall see in a later chapter, a pilot study was also employed in the present study to ensure that the instrument was fit to be used in an Arab culture.

In addition, it should be noted here that 'concurrent validity approach' (Charles, 1995) was not used in the present study because it would have been too time-consuming, and the present researcher had a limited time to conduct the field study.

Some examples of variables

It may be as well to give some examples of variables in the LBDQ instrument and Pfeiffer and Jones' version.

1. Both use evaluation of the leader behaviour generally.

2. The LBDQ and Pfeiffer and Jones' version require choices on a Likert scale consisting of Always, Frequently, Occasionally, Seldom and Never.

According to Stogdill and Coons (1968) the LBDQ items investigate 12 variables. The present author has identified 6 variables which are investigated in the Pfeiffer (Pfeiffer and Jones, 1972) scale (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1:
LBDQ and Pfeiffer variables

LBDQ variables	Pfeiffer variables
1. Representation of group	1. Encourage overtime work
2. Demand reconciliation	2. Encourage freedom of action among staff
3. Tolerance of uncertainty	3. Relinquish some authority
4. Persuasiveness	4. Act as the spokesman
5. Initiation of structure	5. Represent the group
6. Tolerance of freedom	6. Production emphasis
7. Role assumption	
8. Considerate	
9. Predictive accuracy	
10. Production emphasis	
11. Integration	
12. Superior orientation	

As can be seen from the above, each variable refers to a descriptive statement of leader behaviour and both instruments can be employed in various kinds of organisation structure.

3.8 Instrumentation design

Verma and Beard (1981) indicated

> *"At some stage in the design of a research programme consideration must be given to the collection of data. He goes on to argue that this stage is an important part of the research process and that many data gathering tools or techniques have been developed to aid the researcher in this task."*

As we noted above, it is necessary for the researcher to become familiar enough with research tools and techniques and their strengths and weaknesses to select one or more which serves his purpose, or he may modify them to do so. In support of this view, Slavin (1984) stated that the most common instruments used in educational fieldwork were achievement and/or aptitude tests.

Also, Ross et al (1990) suggested the use of these instruments to assist in gathering relevant data and improve ways of their collection, preparation and analysis. Turney and Robb (1971) indicated that some research projects may demand the use of some form of questioning to obtain the information needed.

These are arguments about instruments which have appeared in other studies similar to the present study. Al-Hadhood (1984) collected data by the use of questionnaires developed by Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) in their version of the 'Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire' (LBDQ), which in turn was developed from Stogdill and Coons (1957) in the Ohio State University. Ahmed (1981) investigated the relationship between and among leadership style, school climate and student achievement in the elementary school principalships in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

There is also a study about the effective "method" of headteachers for promoting student achievement in secondary schools in Lebanon by Theodory (1981). He used Fiedler's (1967) questionnaire for measuring the headteachers' behaviour and students' scores as Theodory believed what Stogdill (1974) indicated that the interaction between the

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headteacher and teachers might determine the effectiveness of a school as reflected in the achievements of students.

As we can see from the above review, the questionnaire method is a common instrument used to study leadership effects. It was in part for this reason that the questionnaire method was used in the present study.

In their study, Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden (1969) used Pfeiffer and Jones' version of the LBDQ to determine the relationship between perceived "ideal" leadership style and need orientation of teachers. They were able to conclude that teachers with different need orientations responded similarly in describing ideal behaviour of principals. It may be argued here that if Pfeiffer and Jones' version was not valid it would have been impossible for them to draw this conclusion (pp.63-69).

Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) also used the questionnaire to examine structured experiences for human relations training. That is, the researchers asked subjects to fill out the task-people leadership questionnaire. The researchers concluded that they found the Pfeiffer and Jones' version appropriate for identifying training difficulties that might arise in the structured experience used in human relationship training programmes. They, thus, suggested that those researchers interested in understanding leadership style should regard Pfeiffer and Jones' version as a suitable research tool.

A pilot study by the present researcher confirmed the view of Pfeiffer and Jones' version as a high quality measurement (see Section 3.12).

The present researcher's questionnaire, as Pfeiffer and Jones' version of the LBDQ, consists of 35 items and is comprised as follows:

The cover

At the top right hand corner of the cover page there is the title questionnaire (see Appendix 1). This is followed by a paragraph stating the purpose of the questionnaire and requesting

the headteachers to provide the following information: qualifications, years of experience and the school's size.

Part One

3.8.1 Introduction and instructions

On page one (after the cover) of the questionnaire, the researcher introduced the scope and objectives of the study to the headteachers and provides instructions as to how to respond to the different items of the questionnaire. The headteachers were told that their views were extremely important since they were based on their direct contact with teachers and tasks in the school, and their responses to the measure scale would be extremely important.

Part Two

This part consisted of 35 items that explored the role of the headteacher as leader of school, and their leadership styles. The headteachers were asked to indicate whether they agreed to each statement or disagreed. The questionnaire items investigated different aspects of leadership and leadership style. For example, questions 3, 6, 8, 10, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 28, 30, 23, 34 and 35 were to elicit the headteachers' attitudes concerning their relationship with staff in the school. From the responses, it was hoped to elicit the headteachers' perception about their work and the difficulties that they faced.

The other items in the headteachers' questionnaire aimed to elicit the headteachers' attitude, perception, motivation regarding the relationships between the staff and headteachers as follows: low relationship with group, high concern with the attainment of its goals. These attitudes were elicited in questions 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 21, 23, 25, 26, 27, 29 and 31. Among them shared leadership was an aspect for analysis.

In the design of the questionnaire for this study, care was taken to make the process of answering the questions as easy as possible and to guarantee a high degree of response from the participants of this study. All the questions only required the participants to circle a number. There were no open ended questions nor questions which included any double negatives, structures which might have been difficult to understand. The instrument utilised a five point Lickert scale, rather than a three point scale, to provide the respondents with a wider range of choice.

The questionnaire consisted of the 35 items in the original Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) version. These were then translated from English into Arabic. They measured the headteachers' behaviours on two dimensions, namely:

1.   concern for people, which consisted of 15 items;

2.   concern for task, which consisted of 20 items.

The subject responded on a 5 Lickert point scale, indicating whether they exhibited the attitude described by the statement. They were cautioned not to give any judgments on the merits of behaviour, but merely to describe whether the headteacher exhibited such behaviour. Scores on the items for each dimension were totalled to obtain the composite score for each dimension of behaviour of each headteacher.

3.9 The population and sample

> *"The principal use of statistical inference in empirical research is to obtain knowledge about a large class of persons or other statistical units from a relatively small number of the same elements."* (Glass et al, 1984, p.174)

Researchers cannot always observe and examine each section of the target study under controlled circumstances, and therefore resort to sampling. Before going into details it is best to define the meaning of the terms 'population' and 'sample'.

'Population' may refer to the complete set of observations (measures) about which we would like to draw conclusions. There are two interesting features about this definition. The first is that, in this usage, the word does not refer to people but rather to some observed characteristics. Secondly, this definition clearly indicates that the set of observations which constitutes the population is determined by the specific interests of the investigator (Minium, 1970, p.15).

Sampling is defined as *"the process of selecting a number of individuals to represent the larger group from which they were selected. The individuals selected comprise a sample and the large group is referred to as the population"* (Gay, 1976, p.66).

Borg and Gail (1983) defined the sample and population as follows:

> "Sampling *means selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative of that population. One type of population distinguished by educational researchers is called the* **target population.** *By target population, also called* **universe,** *we mean all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events, or objects to which we wish to generalise the results of our research. The advantage of drawing a small sample from a large target population is that it saves the researcher the time and expense of studying the entire population. If the sampling is done properly, the researcher can reach conclusions about an entire target population that are likely to be correct within a small margin of error by studying a relatively small sample. "* (p.240)

Sampling, then, involves choosing a part of the population, in this case headteachers as leaders of the school and pupils of the school. It is therefore important to select the correct sample.

There are two methods of sampling. In probability samples, the probability of selection of a respondent is known. In non-probability samples, the probability of selection is unknown. The differentiation can be made between probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling implies that each of the groups has the same probability

of being involved in the sample. In non-probability sampling, there is no declaration that every unit has the same chance of being included.

It means that if the characteristics of this unit are unknown, then the precise definition of the population is also unknown. A probability sample design makes it possible for the researcher to predict the range within which findings based on one sample are likely to differ from what he or she would have found by studying the whole population. A probability sample is very useful for making generalisations about the whole population.

Moser and Kalton (1971) commented on non-probability samples thus:

> *"In spite of the great advantage of probability samples, social scientists do sometimes employ non-probability samples. The major advantages of non-probability samples are convenience and economy under certain circumstances. When a population cannot be defined because of factors such as the availability of a list of the population, the researcher may be forced to use a non-probability sample."* (p.127)

3.9.1 Types of probability sample

There are four major types of probability samples: (1) simple random sampling; (2) systematic sampling; (3) stratified sampling; (4) cluster sampling.

1. Simple random sampling: In simple random sampling each member of the population has an equal chance of being chosen for a sample without bias. This method involves selecting at random from a list of the population. A problem associated with this sampling method is that a complete list of the population is needed and this is not always readily available. Further, simple random sampling is expensive to administer in isolated areas (Gay, 1976, p.66).

2. Systematic sampling: As Gay (1976) states, systematic sampling is sampling in which individuals are selected from a list. This method is a modified form of simple random sampling. It involves selecting subjects from a population list in a

systematic rather than random fashion. In this method the researcher can be biased in choosing a sample from the population.

3. Stratified sampling: Gay (1976) defined stratified sampling as the process of selecting a sample in such a way that identified subgroups in the population are represented in the sample. Stratified sampling involves dividing the population into more homogeneous groups. It is not limited to stratification on only one variable and it is possible to stratify on two. For example, group A might contain males and group B females, in order to obtain a sample representative of the whole population in terms of gender (p.25).

4. Cluster sampling: Cluster sampling is sampling in which groups, not individuals, are randomly selected. This method is used with large and wide populations where gathering a simple random sample poses administrative problems. For example, if we want to study the average ability of pupils in Riyadh schools in Saudi Arabia by multiple cluster sampling, the investigator can first randomly sample the census from the country, then, in the second stage, randomly sample city blocks, and in the third stage, sample school districts in the city, and in the fourth stage, choose from the schools in Riyadh city. By cluster sampling we can randomly select a specific number of schools and test all the pupils in those selected schools (Gay, 1976, p.71).

3.9.2 Non-probability work

There are three major types of non-probability samples which have been used by social scientists: (1) quota sampling; (2) purposive sampling; (3) dimensional sampling.

1. Quota sampling: This method is the non-probability equivalent of stratified sampling, with the added requirement that each stratum is generally represented in the sample in the same proportion as in the entire population. In a quota sample, one first decides which strata may be relevant for the study to be conducted (e.g.

the Conservative Party and the Labour Party in the UK to study voting. If lists of registered voters in a city show that 60 per cent are Conservative and 40 per cent are Labour, one would not wish to conduct a study of voting preferences using all Conservative or all Labour. Rather the researcher would want a sample finding persons with the requisite characteristics. In the voters' study a total of 200 respondents would mean 80 Labour and 120 Conservative. It means neither the Conservative Party nor the Labour Party represent a random selection of the population) (Cohen, 1989, pp.101-102).

2. Purposive sampling: In this method, the researcher hand picks the cases to be included in his sample on the basis of his judgment of how typical they are. The usefulness of purposive sampling is that the researcher can use his or her experience or knowledge to select the sample (Bailey, 1987).

Dimensional sampling: This method involves identifying various factors of interest in a population and obtaining at least one respondent for every combination of those factors (Cohen et al., 1989, p.103).

3.10 The present study sampling size

The present study was designed to study issues relating to headteachers of primary school in Saudi Arabia. It sought to gather data on behaviour and style of management of headteachers. These were behaviours and styles of the headteachers for the educational and managerial aspects of their job. It was hoped that the investigation would provide useful information in terms of its findings and lead to a series of recommendations for all those involved with a view to make a contribution to the development of education and its management behaviour.

The study used descriptive methods to describe what was going on and what had happened in the past in Saudi Arabia, particularly in the field of education. In general, the present work could be described in terms of a survey, one of the most widely used methods in

descriptive education research. This inquiry aimed to focus on primary school headteachers in Saudi Arabia; therefore data collection was concerned with the characteristics of individuals in terms of issues related to management in Saudi Arabia. Since the purpose of the study was to display and survey the characteristics of the headteachers through the achievement of pupils in Saudi schools, it was considered that suitable sampling could be adequate for the task intended. However, it was recognised that such sampling would make it difficult from the point of view of making generalisations about Saudi Arabian schools and its headteachers' positions in general since it would be impossible to demonstrate that the individuals were representative of all Saudi primary headteachers in the Kingdom. In the present study data collection was made using a combination of appropriately devised questionnaires. The questionnaire structure of the study was mostly closed-ended. The issues raised in the questionnaire were based on the aims of the study.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is divided into five administrative regions, Central Province, Western Province, Eastern Province, Northern Province and Southern Province. Fieldwork for the study was carried out in Riyadh City, which is located in the region of the Central Province. Headteachers from schools only in Riyadh City were sampled. The decision to confine the fieldwork to Riyadh City was based on pragmatic considerations. The researcher had access to the schools and could guarantee a good response rate. This was thought to outweigh the advantages of a more widely distributed sample, in which the response rate would have been lower. The number of schools selected was 92, which is 50 per cent of boys, primary schools in Riyadh (184). The selected schools all agreed to take part in the study. Sampling was based on a random process in which all schools were placed in alphabetical order and every alternate school selected for the sample.

The participants of the study consisted of 92 males from 184 Saudi Arabian primary schools and the response rate was that all questionnaires were completed and returned.

An all male population was used because the Islamic tradition demands separate schooling for boys and girls. The participants were randomly selected from five education districts in Riyadh City. Education districts are responsible for implementing locally the policies and programmes of the Education Ministry and for administering and supervising education in Riyadh. The number of pupils who passed in the first and second term were 6,168 male pupils, as shown in Appendix 2.

3.11   Selection of biographical and demographic variables

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the leadership style of the headteacher and pupils' achievement and identified educational level, and the possible relevance of the experience of the headteacher and school size at the primary school in Riyadh.

Education level in this study means the academic level of participants in the study sample. The study limits itself to those certificates which are required for most headteachers' jobs available in Saudi Arabia. These include high school certificates or college degrees for those with experience, and further education or college degrees for those newly employed since the qualifications which are required for the job of heads of school in primary schools in Riyadh City were introduced.

Experience in years spent by the headteacher as leader of a primary school in Riyadh and their personal characteristics in performing job task and achieving organisational goals were considered.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977), in their study, found that leaders develop leadership style over a period of time and factors which have an impact on leadership style include extent of education, administrative training and experience as a leader.

In terms of the experience of educational management in school, those with longer experience may be better able to assess organisational effectiveness and produce improvement than those with less experience.

3.11.1 School size

This was defined as the population of pupils in the school from first level until sixth level in the year 1991-1992 in primary schools in Riyadh City.

Some headteachers could be faced with a range of problems in their school, making it particularly difficult to make good use of resources at their disposal. Such problems might well be caused by increases in student enrolment. There was a study to explore the relationship between the size of the student body and the effect of leadership of school by Gross et al (1965). They found:

> "... it was shown that the smaller the school enrolment, the greater the principal's EPL. School superintendents may find it worthwhile to explore what steps can be taken to limit the size of elementary schools and to increase the EPL of principals in large ones. In addition, the results of studies designed to uncover the characteristics of principals who offer the greatest and least EPL in schools with large enrolments might be of great assistance in the selection of principals for such schools." (Note: by the term EPL is meant Education Professional Leadership.)

There was a study in America which showed that smaller class size leads to better results in terms of making individuals active and creative. As O'Connor (1994) states:

> "A large Canadian study found that teachers spent no more time talking to individuals or groups of children, nor changed their teaching methods. This was in spite of evidence that factors such as greater individualisation of work, creativity and group activity were easier and more likely to be productive in smaller classes."
> (p.5)

The headteachers' effectiveness was reflected in the contribution of schooling to work, earning or occupational status or personality variables. There are correlations contributing to the values which consider work conditions to be a determining factor for values and behaviour of headteachers. On the one hand, in terms of education, emphasis is placed on certain characteristics which are valued by headteachers such as educational level, the degrees which he gained out of experience and school size with reference to

authority which maintains the power relationship between employers and employees and determines who controls the means of production.

3.11.2 Pupils' academic achievement in primary schools in Saudi Arabia

Measurement was taken of the pupils' academic achievement from fifth level to sixth level of primary school with the present study is concerned, as a standard level reflecting the pupils' abilities on courses and this was done during the academic year 1991-1992.

It should be noted here that there are generally two patterns of examination process in Saudi Arabia: 1) examination at every stage and 2) examination at the end of the secondary school. There are 3 stages, namely:

(a)   stage one Primary – 6 years

(b)   stage two Intermediate – 3 years

(c)   stage three Secondary School – 3 years.

The examination at each of these stages is set by the individual schools. The examination is constructed and marked by teachers who are specially selected by the individual schools. These teachers are always specialists in different subject areas, such as maths, geography, history, religion, etc. The regulations for giving marks are set by the schools and all the teachers must follow the criterion. However the examination at the end of secondary school is set by the Ministry of Education.

The examination of each year's level, for example stage one from first grade to sixth grade, is set by individual schools. Nevertheless, the regulations are set by the Ministry of Education. There is a single examination covering each subject, and the number of questions and the marking scheme is presented. In other words, all the schools follow the same syllabus for teaching which is produced by the Ministry of Education, and all schools are to follow this syllabus when constructing tests for the pupils. The marking is also strictly based on this syllabus. In addition, the examination is controlled by the headteacher. He (the headteacher) is the one who selects teachers within his school

to construct and mark tests. He is also responsible for reporting the outcome to the Ministry for Education (for more details see Appendix 3). It is this primary grade examination which the present study is concerned with, and only the fifth grade.

We need to explain here how achievement of the pupils was evaluated, so as to understand the headteacher's leadership style. The percentage of pupils in each school was taken based on three categories of achievement. The first category was a mark of less than 80% on the exam, the second category was 80% to 90%, and the third was from 90% above. More about this will be shown in the chapter on analysis (Chapter 6).

The primary curriculum represents the base of the education pyramid and consists of six grades. It equips the children with a foundation in Islamic culture and values, reading, writing, mathematics and sciences. Table 3.2 sets out the elementary stage study plan. All elementary schools, whatever their controlling authorities, follow the same curriculum; normally, children enrol in elementary school at the age of six and leave at the age of twelve. Pupils are promoted from one grade to the next upon successfully passing the end of grade examination.

Table 3.2:
The elementary stage study plan
(number of periods per week)

Subjects	Grades					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Islamic Studies	9	9	9	9	9	9
Arabic Studies	9	9	9	8	8	8
Social Studies	0	0	0	2	2	2
Science	2	2	2	2	3	3
Mathematics	4	4	4	5	5	5
Artistic Education	2	2	2	1	1	1
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total hours per week	28	28	28	30	30	30

The relevant authorities take an interest in other testing methods that measure the capacity, talents, aptitudes, and capabilities of students in order to direct them toward the education and work that better suits their nature. The education operation in all its aspects - programmes, books, teachers, methods of teaching, methods of vocational orientation, etc. - is based on the analysis of exam results (Ministry of Education, Riyadh, 1974, p.20).

3.11.3 Selection of standard assessment exam results

This section of the study discusses, in some ways critically, assessment of examination results in the formal education system of Saudi Arabia, and primary schools in particular.

Assessment by examinations of pupils' achievement in Saudi Arabian schools varies from one academic level to another. There are, of course, other means of assessing pupils' achievement, but they do not follow the same approach.

It should be noted here that examinations play a crucial role in Saudi Arabia's education system. According to the *International Encyclopaedia of Education* (1994), 2nd Edition, Volume 9:

> "In Grades 1 through 12, the school year is divided into two semesters. The required instructional material for a year is divided into two halves. At the end of each semester, there is an examination that covers one half. The students' marks in two semesters are added up to make up his or her mark for the whole year. If the final mark is below a certain percentage, usually 50 percent, the student fails in that subject and sits another examination in the subject at the end of the summer recess. If the student fails again to attain the required minimum mark, he or she has then to repeat the whole year, retaking all subjects of that year, including those already passed. Success in passing examinations thus constitutes the only criterion for promotion from one year or grade to a higher one." (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994, p.5149)

The headteachers and the teachers in each school work together for the correction and control of examinations, and parents accept the criteria as reasonable. However, teachers

are responsible for the pupils' learning as well as performance on examinations; it is the headteacher's responsibility to work together with teachers towards enriching the teaching processes in the classroom in order to ensure that pupils learn as well as perform well in the examinations, which are approved by the Ministry of Education. Exams are used to measure what is being taught and learned in school (see Appendix).

As mentioned above, the examination system was divided between two semesters, that is, there are two final examinations given to the pupils per year. There are also scores for homework, pupils' activities and participation in the classroom. But the interpretation of examination scores is hampered, for example, by the pupil remaining in his level if he or she fails the second final examination. The pupils may undergo repetitive failures over several examinations before reaching the age of 12 years, when primary school pupils must leave the school. Other factors which affect the interpretation of the examination results are that the traditional questions may not always be suitable for the pupils' different abilities.

Yet in spite of these limitations, the examination results remain the only available measure of pupil achievement at each level in the schools of Saudi Arabia. Moreover the possibility of differences between schools in setting and marking the exams is limited by the tight central control of the curriculum and by the possibility of inspection by the Ministry inspector. The results are widely trusted, both within the education system and also by parents. Hence, in spite of potential problems about reliability, they were adopted for the present study.

3.12   Pilot Study

First, in order to gain a solid grasp of the objectives of the study and also of the nature of the data needed, a pilot study was carried out for this purpose.

Sudman and Bradbury (1982) indicated the objective of using the pilot study and said:

"The pilot study can be used to indicate questions that need revision because they are difficult to understand, and it can also indicate questions that may be eliminated." (p.76)

After constructing the questionnaire it was tested and revised before it was distributed. The pilot project was carried out in Saudi Arabia in Riyadh during December 1991.

The pilot study procedure was that first in the three months July, August and September 1991, the questionnaires were translated from English to Arabic by the researcher and then reviewed by ten Junior College staff in Saudi Arabia. Before the questionnaire was administered, the sampling procedure was considered and thus the sample for the pilot project was selected using a 'cluster sampling' approach (Gay, 1976). Fifteen schools were selected for the project. A random sample approach was used to select respondents in the pilot study. That is, the researcher looked at the whole list of primary schools in Riyadh city and took one school and dropped the one which immediately followed. Mention should be made here that only 15 schools were selected because this was just to test the validity of the questionnaire. The data collected were all to do with headteacher leadership style and pupil achievement relations (which is the main subject under study). Fifteen headteachers participated in the project and that is one headteacher from each of the fifteen sample schools. These headteachers were chosen (selected) randomly. It should be noted here that the pilot project results were analysed by the use of Pearson correlation statistics (Cohen and Manion, 1989); and the results will be shown in Chapter 5 of this study. After reviewing and analysing the pilot project questionnaires, the author found that some, though not many, of the questions were not clear enough. Accordingly, the author revised the questionnaire. During the four months July-November 1992 the questionnaires were administered.

The point to stress here is that no major problems were identified in the pilot project. There was a slight problem to do with the correct way of phrasing questions in Arabic. This problem arose because the researcher translated the questionnaire from English to

Arabic; as noted above, this problem was resolved before the main study was carried out.

Second Judges

The questionnaire was reviewed by independent judges. Mouly (1978) highlighted this point and said:

> *"The help of outside consultants is essential; outsiders, being generally more objective, can recognise flaws that the investigator is invariably too close to see. "* (p.76)

In the pilot study, the questionnaire was given to ten experts from teachers in Junior College of Education in Riyadh for discussion about the nature of the questions, the kind of questionnaire most likely to reveal the information sought, and the effect of leadership style on student learning. As a result of a preliminary trial, all the items of the questionnaire were shown to be appropriate. The final version of the questionnaire was reviewed by the statisticians of the Research Centre in the College of Education at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

3.13   The data collection

The researcher travelled to Riyadh during the period from July to September 1991. A preliminary investigation was undertaken of all school districts and primary schools in Riyadh to obtain information on the problems experienced by inspectors at the school districts and the headteachers of the schools in Riyadh who were involved in the education system; the aim was also to establish a relationship with them so as to avoid being a stranger, in that it was felt that visiting them for the first time and asking questions might make it very difficult or uncomfortable for them to give accurate answers, particularly to an unknown person.

During the first two months, the researcher also examined further the available literature on management in general terms and leadership in Saudi Arabia. The reason was to

investigate if there were any previous studies that had been done in the area of management on leadership.

In order to ensure comprehensiveness of the study, the researcher contacted several of the educational agencies and centres, particularly:

1.   Riyadh University Library and Research Education Centre.

2.   The Ministry of Education.

3.   King Abdul Al-Aziz University in Jeddah.

It may be as well to mention here that during visits to all of the above places, there were several useful meetings with important officials, especially those concerned with education and management and leadership of school in the educational college in Riyadh and Teachers Training College in Riyadh, and with 'experts' such as school inspectors, teachers and headteachers; these are the people in positions of authority in the field of education in Saudi Arabia.

The pilot procedure was that in the July, August and September, the questionnaires were translated and reviewed by Junior College staff. Then sampling procedures were conducted. That is to say, 15 headteachers participated in this pilot exercise – the researcher made visits to all five school districts and 92 schools in Riyadh, and explained the objective of the study and the importance of their answers to the researcher.

3.13.1   Difficulties that the researcher encountered when collecting data and information

The researcher should be certain about collecting the data from the person who has registered the pupils' grades. It was not easy for the researcher to translate the questionnaire from English to Arabic, selecting the appropriate expression for the Arab environment. This process of double translation is familiar to people working in the field of education (Bloomfield et al, 1975). Among such people are the teaching staff of the Junior College in Riyadh. A sample of school headteachers were selected for a pilot study, 15 schools, in order to test the suitability of the questionnaire within the Arabic

context. The researcher visited schools and supervised the questionnaire, and was thus certain that the school headteacher was the respondent. The researcher booked a day with each headteacher in order to discuss each question in private. Whilst the data collection would have been quicker by post, meeting each headteacher in person emphasised the importance of the study. It is interesting to speculate on whether a postal survey would have been more objective due to the absence of distortion from the researcher or whether the method adopted was more accurate because the researcher was on hand to explain anything that was unclear to the headteacher. After finishing the data collection, the researcher reviewed the data forms many times to be quite certain of the data. Furthermore, correction of applications and grade registrations in other records had been made. Details of the headteacher were also included, such as experience, and educational level as well as school size.

Other difficulties faced in the pilot study worth noting are as follows:

1. As Riyadh City is very large, I had transport difficulties. The researcher was told the number of schools and their distribution across Riyadh City; he then had to select the 15 schools for the study.

2. The school headteachers came from different backgrounds (e.g. some of them were inflexible with the researcher apparently because they felt threatened by questions about their leadership style.

3. It seemed to be that some headteachers were not interested in participating in giving information because in their own experience educational research had not been used effectively by the authorities.

4. Some headteachers felt this kind of data collection to be a threat to their position, and were not willing to give information.

5. In this study, the sample was relatively large; therefore there was a lack of time and resources to deal sufficiently with 15 schools (e.g. the researcher had only one

working day at each school). In addition, meeting the headteachers while working was very disturbing to their schedules.

6. Some headteachers denied the researcher access to the pupils' records in order to examine their scores, however, after a long struggle, the researcher was able to gain access. They felt able to agree only in their presence for confidential reasons (which were not made clear). The steps to get the pupils' scores took substantial time.

One point needs to be made here – similar problems to those presented above were also faced during the main study.

The researcher considered designing another questionnaire in order to specify the sort of educational leadership at the school by collecting teachers' points of view about the headteachers' behaviour. The researcher consulted his supervisor and some education specialists (teaching staff) who thought that the questionnaire should be strictly for the headteacher. The headteacher is not simply a person who sits behind his desk signing papers, but is a teaching expert and guide to the teaching staff, taking notes and making observations about the teachers. Alongside this, he has to know the relations established between the teacher and pupils inside and outside of school. So the headteacher has a close relationship with teachers and pupils. He also has other duties including teaching in his school.

Students' achievement varied with the leadership style of the headteachers and may be seen as a result of interaction between the headteacher and teachers. Students' scores are measured through the examination system. The reasons according to Owens (1970) are:

1. To promote staff morale;

2. to promote the professional performance of the teacher;

3. and to promote pupil learning (p.130).

In view of this above discussion, it can seem that the effectiveness of teachers and achievement of pupils is strongly influenced by the headteachers' ways of directing power or administration.

3.13.2 Self-Perception Techniques

This section briefly focuses on use of self-perception technique in research. An interesting study providing supporting evidence for "self-perception techniques" has been reported by Apkarian (1976) who investigated the degree of congruence between teacher perceptions of the North See District High School principals and the principals themselves. He found that teacher perceptions of leader behaviour characteristics of principals tended to be consistent with the principal's own perception of their leader behaviour characteristics.

Also, after reviewing a large body of literature on research methods, Lovell and Lawson (1970) argue that the techniques of self-perception (sometimes known as self-support techniques) are the most appropriate methods of eliciting information from individuals. Similarly, Bynner and Stribley (1978, p.85) studied two-, three-, and four-year old children. They were interested in collecting data on the children's self-concept. Using self- reporting techniques they were able to conclude that the technique is highly effective for measuring self-perception.

It has to be said here that in accordance with the literature search we found that most studies analysed only teachers' perceptions of the relationship between pupils achievement and headteacher leadership style. There is very little research that collects information directly from the headteachers themselves. It is this that has made the present researcher consider only the headteachers as respondents.

Most studies, according to the literature, are concerned only about teachers' effects on children's achievement. There is little research on headteacher effect upon children's achievement. So, the present study aimed only to understand the position of headteachers

in terms of pupil achievement, the reason being that it may be the interaction between headteacher and teachers that determines pupil achievement. Mention should be made here about other limitations in the main study, which are that:

1. The teachers' perceptions of their headteacher's management style was not analysed, for the reasons given above. If these had been analysed, this would have provided a useful source of data for understanding issues which teachers feel are significant for the role of headteacher in pupil achievement matters.

2. The actual behaviour of the headteacher was not examined. If this had been done the researcher would have gained, for example, more information on the headteacher's management style. The point here is that when used to describe management style, the term 'behaviour' is usually operational (*The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 1991, Vol. 2, p. 50 and Vol. 3, p. 522).

3. The questionnaire did not address class teachers' views of the headteacher's management style. If it had, the researcher would have gained understanding of class teachers's views on the headteacher's management styles and negotiated the link between headteacher management styles and pupil achievement. In the context of Saudi Arabia, however, it could have led some headteachers to refuse to co-operate with the research.

4. We did not interview headteachers face to face. Interviewing the headteachers face to face would have helped to confirm or disconfirm the findings from the questionnaire. Subject to validity and reliability checks, interview data may be generalised from the sample studied to a more general population (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p. 271). For example, from the headteachers in Riyadh to those in Saudi Arabia as a whole. Also, this kind of interview approach would have supplied insightful and valuable accounts of the headteachers' own actions.

5. We did not observe the headteachers in each of their schools. Observing the headteachers on a day-to-day basis in their schools would have captured different management styles and situations in which a particular management style is used. Also observation data would have helped to understand "current affairs" (at the time of the study). As Gall et al. (1996) noted:

> "It is a valuable supplement to self-report methods, or it can serve as the main data source when self-report is not possible or of questionable value." (p. 329)

Unfortunately this would have been too time-consuming to be realistic.

3.14 Ethical research

There are ethical considerations in every piece of research. The researcher should follow the criteria for practice which a researcher needs to take into account to conform to accepted ethical research standards. The author addressed the question of ethical research standards.

In the following, Pring (1984), quoted in Morrison (1993), sets out five criteria which can be used to protect participants in an evaluation:

1. The evaluator establishes the kinds of knowledge being sought.

2. The evaluator provides interim reports and is open to cross-examination on these by participants.

3. The evaluator is open to questioning by those involved as the evaluation is being planned.

4. Information is treated as confidential until clearance has been obtained from the respondent for its release.

5. Any interpretation of the data should be transparent to respondents (p.187).

The subject's right to privacy is also important. They should be aware that researchers are collecting information from them or observing them. Collecting information without their knowledge or without appropriate permission, or deception of participants in research, can be unethical because the researchers should treat people as human beings rather than solely as a source of data.

Some researchers use deception for the purpose of the research. Bailey (1987) has identified deception of participants in research:

> *"Deception is much more common in psychological and social psychological experiments but its use varies greatly with subject matters of the experiment."* (pp.414-415)

Bailey (1987) indicated that deception is more necessary for research in some subjects than in others.

Similarly, P.S. Kelman (1967), as quoted in Bailey (1987), says:

> *"In our other interhuman relationships, most of us would never think of doing the kinds of things that we do to our subjects - exposing others to lies and tricks, deliberately misleading them about the purpose of the interaction or withholding pertinent information, making promises or giving information that we intend to disregard."* (p.26)

Discussion of ethics in social research is important in order to study social problems in an attempt to eliminate any harmful effects to humans (and animals), and any deception of the subject resulting in danger or harm to human relationships.

This research deals with headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The researcher used descriptive questionnaires which were distributed to the headteachers and the researcher made promises to them that the information would be confidential, in order to make them feel more secure that the information revealed would not normally be made public.

In accordance with ethical principles, in carrying out the research:

1. The researcher sought and obtained participants' permission.

2. The researcher provided participants with a clear idea of what is involved.

3. The researcher assured participants that they would not be harmed as a result of participating in the research.

4. The researcher and questionnaire administrator behaved towards participants in a careful and mature manner.

5. The researcher did not deceive participants.

These measures were observed in the present analysis.

3.15   The Research Procedure

To summarise, the sample consisted of the headteachers of 92 primary schools with 6,168 pupils.

The researcher carried out the following procedures:

(1) Selected Pfeiffer and Jones' (1972) version of the LBDQ to assess the relationship between leadership styles and pupils' achievement in Riyadh primary schools for the academic year 1991-92.

(2) Translated the questionnaire from English to Arabic (see Appendix 1). It was submitted to Arabic language experts to review and anticipate any problems in ensuring that the level of language was appropriate.

(3) Obtained an official letter from the districts' superintendents asking the schools for their co-operation in answering the questionnaire (see Appendix 4).

(4) Visited the individual schools and met headteachers who were randomly selected to participate in the study and who were each given a copy of the questionnaire.

(5)   Developed a key in English to be used in the coding and tabulation of the results of the completed questionnaire.

(6)   Delivered the questionnaire and explained the contents to the participants. The questionnaire consisted of 35 items concerning two main variables: task-oriented behaviour and people-oriented behaviour.

(7)   Questionnaires were delivered to individual headteachers, directly, at different times. In fact, the researcher arranged one day for each school, to collect data. It took 92 days to collect the data; that is about 3 months. Pupils' achievement test scores were collected at the same time that the questionnaire was given to the headteachers.

3.16   Statistical treatment of the data

The data having been collected and put into a computer, analysis was obtained by means of the SPSS programme (Statistical Programme for Social Sciences) in use at the University of Durham (Kinnear et al., 1994). In analysing the data, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Descriptive statistics including frequency and percentage counts were used to analyse the data. According to Gay (1976):

> *"The first step in data analysis is to describe or summarise the data using descriptive statistics. In some studies, such as certain questionnaire surveys, the entire analysis procedure may consist solely of calculating and interpreting descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics permit the researcher to describe meaningfully many scores with a small number of indices. If such indices are calculated for a sample drawn from a population, the resulting values are referred to as statistics: if they are calculated for an entire population they are referred to as parameters."*
> (p.40)

For this reason, frequency and percentage tables were used to describe the data, which is central to the study.

The data was treated by using parametric and non-parametric tests such as chi-square, and principal components analysis, to determine whether there were any significant relationship between groups.

According to Siegel (1956):

> *"Parametric statistical tests, which use means and standard deviations (i.e., which require the operations of arithmetics on the original scores), ought not to be used with data in an ordinal scale. The properties of an ordinal scale are not isomorphic to the numerical system known as arithmetics. "* (p.33)

Mention should be made here that parametric statistical tests do not take into account the value of individual variables. They are mainly used to draw probability conclusions. Thus, Siegel is correct in stressing this fact.

Bryman (1990) states: *"The term parameter refers to a measure which describes the distribution of the population such as the mean or variance."* (p.116) It would help to define what we mean by inferential statistics. Popham (1967) defines inferential statistics:

> *"With inferential statistics the researcher wants to talk about data that he does not have. Inferential techniques are customarily more complex than descriptive models and in most instances make use of descriptive statistics such as the mean median and standard deviation. "* (p.40)

Inferential statistical techniques allow us to draw from sample data inferences from which wider generalisations can be made.

The techniques of descriptive statistics could serve efficiently to achieve the objectives of this study in terms of identifying the leadership style of the headteacher on pupils' achievement in primary schools in Riyadh. It was also decided to apply inferential techniques to test if there were relationships among the variables of this study which might significantly alter the relationship between the leadership style of the headteacher

and pupils' achievement. The variables dealt with were the skills of headteachers and their experience and qualifications.

Both parametric statistics and non-parametric statistics were applied in this study. Siegel (1956) stated:

> *"If data are inherently in ranks, or even if they can only be categorised as plus or minus (more or less, better or worse) they can be treated by non-parametric methods unless precarious and perhaps unrealistic assumptions are made about the underlying distributions."* (p.26)

The statistical analysis aimed to obtain information about the headteacher's leadership style and its relationship with pupil achievement. It was hoped that the data results would be useful for administrators in the Ministry of Education and Educational Districts in Saudi Arabia, who are responsible for the selection of headteachers of schools in Saudi Arabia. The next chapter deals with the presentation and analysis.

3.17 Summary

This chapter has mainly addressed methodological issues, such that it could lead the researcher to the stage of data collection. In the chapter the following issues have been critically debated:

1. Brief aims of the study are presented.

2. Questions arising from the review of the literature are highlighted.

3. Evidence of types of educational research is given. In this section, special attention was given to a general view of methodology. Reasons for using the questionnaire method and correlation study are given.

4. An account of instrumental design is given. Under this subheading, special attention was given to a review of questionnaire method.

5. Attention was given to the issues concerning questionnaire construction.

6. The issues relating to population and sample were also discussed in some detail.

7. Selected biographic and demographic variables were reflected on to determine the level of education and headteachers' experience, as well as school size and assessment of exams.

8. Steps taken during data collection are presented.

9. Finally, ethical research issues were addressed, as well as difficulties faced during the study, including statistical treatment.

Chapter Four

Data Presentation and Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The major purpose of the current work is to investigate the components of leadership style, their relationship with several demographic and biographical variables, and their effect on pupils' achievement. The demographic and biographical variables were: educational level (qualification of headteacher), number of years of experience, school size and the leadership style of the headteacher. All of the headteachers approached completed and returned their questionnaires. The pupils' scores from each school were recorded. This chapter reports the first stage of the statistical analysis of the data collected in this study. The results of the data analysis are presented in both narrative and tabular form. Discussion of the data describes the behaviour of each of 92 primary school headteachers in Riyadh City, Saudi Arabia.

4.1.1 Research questions

The research questions are to be examined in this chapter and chapter 6. The following specific questions were examined:

1. Is there a relationship between the number of years of experience of the headteacher and his educational level (qualification of the headteacher)?

2. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification of the headteacher) and school size (number of pupils in school)?

3. Is there a relationship between school size and experience of the headteacher?

4. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and the achievement of pupils?

5. Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and the achievement of the pupils?

6. Is there a relationship between school size (number of pupils in school) and pupil achievement?

7. Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

8. Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and his style in leading the school?

9. Is there a relationship between the school size and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

10. Is there a relationship between the achievement of the pupils and the style of the headteacher in leading the school?

It should be mentioned that each question can be re-stated as a null hypothesis.

Data for the study were mainly collected through a questionnaire measuring the leadership styles of headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh City, the capital of Saudi Arabia. A leadership behaviour description questionnaire assessed his concern for task (productivity at school) and his concern for people (staff at school).

This chapter provides an analysis of the data obtained through questionnaires administered to headteachers at primary schools in Riyadh.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics
4.2.1 Educational level of headteacher (qualification)
Table 4.1 shows that 78.3% of the sample had achieved diploma level, and 15.2% had achieved university level. The remaining 6.5% have only primary education level. The greatest percentage of headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh held a Diploma in

Education from the Institution of Teachers and the Junior College. These are monotechnic institutions whose role is confined to teacher training. Headteachers in Saudi Arabia are not required to have any administrative credentials before their appointment. The only professional qualification they are normally expected to possess is a teaching qualification (Diploma).

Table 4.1: *Frequency distribution for education level of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh City.*

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
Primary	6	6.5
Diploma	72	78.3
University	14	15.2
Total	92	100.0
Missing cases = 0		

4.2.2 Experience as headteacher

Table 4.2 shows the length of experience of headteachers. 43 (46.7%) had less than 10 years experience, 35 (38%) had 10-19 years experience, and 14 (15.2%) had 20 years or more experience.

Table 4.2: *Frequency distribution for the experience of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh*

Years of experience	Frequency	Percent
0-9	43	46.7
10-19	35	38.0
20 +	14	15.2
Total	92	100.0
Missing cases = 0		

4.2.3 School size

Table 4.3 shows that 23 (25%) of the sample schools have a population of 0-300 pupils, 61 (66.3%) attend a school with a population of 301-600 pupils, and 8 (8.7%) schools have a population of 601 or more pupils.

Table 4.3: Frequency distribution for size of primary schools in Riyadh City

No of students (school size)	Frequency	Percent
0-300	23	25.0
301-600	61	66.3
601 +	8	8.7
Total	92	100.0
Missing cases = 0		

4.3 Inferential statistics

4.3.1 Question 1: Is there any relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and his experience in education?

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H_0: there is no relationship between the experience level and the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher.

H_1: there is a relationship between the experience level and the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher.

In Table 4.4 the data are ordinal, therefore a chi-square analysis is appropriate. However, the small number of observations in the primary category indicates that any significant conclusion should be treated with utmost caution.

The value of 9.16 for x^2, with 4 degrees of freedom, is not statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$. This tells us that there is not a statistically significant relationship between the experience of the headteachers of Riyadh primary schools and their qualifications. This means that the length of experience does not have a significant relationship with the level of qualification; in particular, one could however conclude that more recently qualified headteachers are more likely to be graduate qualified.

Table 4.5 shows another way of considering teachers' education level. It separates those teachers with no formal teacher training (those with graduate and primary education) from those who received teacher training degree courses (those with a diploma). This

was to help in determining whether or not differences could be found (for details see Table 4.5).

Headteachers who hold a diploma are graduates from teacher training colleges while those who hold University degrees and those who have had primary education only receive an in-service training. In Table 4.5 the latter two are combined.

H_0: there is no relationship between the headteachers' experience and their qualifications.

H_1: There is a relationship between the experience level and professional qualification and non-professional qualification.

The relationships between teacher training and the experience of headteachers is significant at the $p < 0.04$ level. One could conclude that people who have had more years of experience as heads, i.e. the 10-19 or the 20+ categories, are more likely to be diploma qualified, i.e. have had teacher training, than those who have had less than 10 years who tend to be better qualified in terms of being graduates (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.4: *Chi-square analysis of relationship between educational level (qualification) and the experience level of the headteacher at the primary school in Riyadh*

Educational level	Years of experience			
	0-9	10-19	20 +	Total
Primary	3	01	02	6 6.5
Diploma	29	32	11	72 78.3
University	11	02	1	14 15.2
	43 46.7	35 38.0	14 15.2	92 100.00
Degrees of freedom = 4 x^2 = 9.16 (p >0.06) N.S.				

Table 4.5: Chi-square analysis of relationship between teacher training and the experience of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh

Professional qualification	The number of years experience of the headteacher			
	0-9	10-19	20 +	Total
No teacher training qualification (primary and university)	14	3	3	20
With teacher training qualification (diploma)	29	32	11	72 78.3
	43 46.7	35 38.1	14 15.2	92 100.00
Degrees of freedom = 2 x^2 = 6.52618 (p < 0.04) Sig.				

4.3.2 Question 2: Is there any relationship between the school size and educational level (qualification) of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh?

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H_0: there is no relationship between the size of school and the education level (qualification) of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh.

H_1: There is a relationship between the size of the school and the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher.

Applying chi-square to this question, no significant relationship was found (p < 0.74) between the size of primary schools and headteachers' qualifications, as presented in Table 4.6.

We therefore conclude that there is no relationship between the size of primary schools in Riyadh and the education level (qualification) of the headteachers.

Table 4.6: *Chi-square analysis of relationship between the school size and the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher*

Education level	School size			
	0-300	301-600	601 +	Total
Primary	1	5	0	6 6.5
Diploma	17	48	7	72 78.3
University	5	8	1	14 15.2
	23	61	8	82 100.0
Degree of freedom $=4$ $x^2 = 1.95$ (p $\leqslant$ 0.74) N.S.				

Table 4.7 below separated those teachers with no formal teacher training from those who received teacher training degree courses. This was to help in determining whether or not any differences could be found between training and the school size (for details see the table below).

The chi-square analysis results shown in table 4.7, do not reflect any relationship between school size and professional training.

For this test, $p < 0.72$. This exceeded the critical value and therefore H_0 could not be rejected. We therefore conclude that there is no significant relationship between the size of the school in Riyadh and the professional training of the headteacher.

Table 4.7: *Chi-square analysis of relationship between the school size and teacher training*

Professional qualification	School size			
	0-300	301-600	601 +	Total
No teacher training	6	13	1	20 21.7
With teacher training	17	48	7	72 78.3
Total	23	61	8	92 100.0
Degree of freedom = 2 $x^2 = 0.066350$ (p $\lessgtr$ 0.72) N.S.				

4.3.3 Question 3: Is there a relationship between school size and the experience of the headteacher?

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H_0: there is no relationship between the size of school and the experience level of the headteacher at the primary school in Riyadh.

H_1: there is a relationship between the size of school and the experience level of the headteacher at the primary school in Riyadh.

The experience of headteachers was analysed by the chi-square test. For the test $x^2 = 2.672$ ($p < 0.61$). This exceeded the critical value and therefore H_0 could not be rejected. We therefore conclude that there is no significant relationship between the experience level of the headteacher and school size of primary schools in Riyadh (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: *Chi-square analysis of relationship between the experience level of the headteacher and school size*

Experience level (years)	School size			
	0-300	301-600	601 +	Total
0-9	10	31	2	43 46.7
10-19	9	21	5	35 38.1
20 +	4	9	1	14 15.2
Total	23	61	8	92 100.0
Degree of freedom = 4 $x^2 = 2.6721$ ($p < 0.61$) N.S.				

4.3.4 Question 4: Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and the achievement of the students?

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H_0: there is no relationship between the education level (qualification) of the headteacher and pupil achievement.

H_1: There is a relationship between the educational level of the headteacher and pupil achievement.

Table 4.9 shows that headteachers who received teacher training are much more likely to achieve a high rate of success in their pupils' achievements than those with no teacher training.

For 92 pairs of data value of r was found to be 0.2075 ($p < 0.01$). H_0 is therefore to be rejected.

This significant relationship may imply that in order to improve pupils' achievement (passing percentage), more qualified teachers are required (see Table 4.9), although other underlying relationships may be involved, e.g. experience.

Table 4.9: Kendall correlation coefficients analysis of the relationship between the professional qualification of headteacher and pupil achievement (passing percentage)

Achievement of pupil (passing %)	Educational level of headteacher			
	Primary	Diploma	University	Total
< 80%	1	8	3	12 13.0
80-90%	0	19	5	24 26.1
90% +	5	45	6	56 60.1
Column total	6 6.5	72 78.3	14 15.2	92 100.0
r = 0.2075 (p < 0.01)				

4.3.5 Question 5: Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and the achievement of the students?

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H_0: there is no relationship between the experience level of the headteacher and passing percentage.

H_1: There is a relationship between the experience level of the headteacher and passing percentage.

In Table 4.10 the data are ordinal. The relationship between experience level of the headteacher and passing percentage is tested using Kendall correlation coefficient. However the small number of observations in the level of grade category indicates that any significant conclusion should be treated with utmost caution. The years of experience of the headteachers and the distribution interval of the level of achievement of pupils at the primary schools in Riyadh were analysed as far as possible.

For 92 pairs of data, the critical value of r is 0.1610 and the significant level was found to be < 0.01. As H_0 is to be rejected, we therefore conclude that there is a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and passing percentage at the primary schools in Riyadh.

Both qualification and experience are significantly related to students' achievements: it is not possible from the data precisely to identify the causal relationship: ability (e.g. reflected in qualification) and/or energy, ambition (often assumed to be associated with youthfulness and lack of experience).

Table 4.10:Kendall correlation coefficient analysis of the relationship between experience of headteachers and pupil achievement (passing percentage)

Achievement of pupils (passing %)	Experience level			
	0-9	10-19	20+	Total
< 80%	7	3	2	12 13.0
80-90%	13	9	2	24 26.1
90%+	23	24	9	56 60.9
Column Total	43 46.7	36 39.1	13 14.1	92 100.0
r = 0.1610 (p <0.01)				

4.3.6 Question 6: Is there a relationship between school size (number of students in school) and the achievement of the students?

The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

H_0: There is no relationship between the school size and pupil achievement.

H_1: There is a relationship between the school size and pupil achievement.

In Table 4.11 the data are ordinal. The small number of observations in the level of good grade category indicates that any significant conclusion should be treated with utmost caution. The school size and distribution of the level of grade of pupils in primary schools in Riyadh were analysed, as far as possible.

In this case, Kendall correlation coefficient (r) is to be used. The calculated value of r is 0.1246 and p = 0.216. As H_0 could not be rejected, we therefore conclude that there is no significant relationship between the size of the primary school in Riyadh and passing percentage, although Table 4.11 shows that schools with between 301-600 pupils are likely to achieve high passing percentages.

Table 4.11:Kendall correlation coefficient analysis of the relationship between the school size and pupil achievement (passing percentage)

Pupil achievement (passing %)	School size			
	0-300	301-600	601 +	Total
< 80%	4	8	-	12 13.0
80-90%	4	16	4	24 26.1
90% +	17	35	4	56 60.9
Column total	25 27.2	59 64.1	8 8.7	92 100.0
r = 0.1246 (p = 0.216) N.S.				

$p > 0.05$

4.4 Analysis of descriptive data from Pfeiffer and Jone's (1972) version of the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) in Riyadh schools

Based on the results presented in table 4.12, the mean will be applied to carry out a more detailed analysis of the results.

Descriptive statistics of the 35 questionnaire items ranked by the mean are shown in table 4.12

According to that, the following conclusions could be drawn about the behaviour or leadership style of the headteachers in Riyadh city primary schools:

Q.1. *Acting as the spokesman for school staff.* The majority of the headteachers (52.17%) occasionally like to act as the spokesmen for their school staff.

Q.2. *Encouraging overtime work.* The majority of the headteachers encourage overtime work either seldom (41.3%) or occasionally (36.96%).

Q.3. *Allowing complete freedom in work.* A very low percentage of headteachers (5.43%) allow complete freedom at work.

Q.4. *Encouragement of uniform procedures.* Low encouragement to uniform procedures: never (33.7%), seldom (39.13%). This also supports the argument

presented about the low application as this concept requires clear regulations and standards.

Q.5. *Using judgment in solving problems.* Low levels of flexibility and maybe subjectivity in problem solving: never (28.26%, seldom (44.57%). This phenomenon has positive and negative implications. Avoiding subjective judgments is a positive sign, but not providing flexibility is a negative one. To gain the benefits of this, headteachers should not lean to centralisation after training their staff on participatory planning and management through teamwork.

Q.6. *Stressing for being ahead of competing groups.* There is a tendency to avoid competition (55.43%). This also implies centralisation and maybe lack of awareness of the need for change and improvement.

Q.7. *Representing the group.* There is a clear avoidance of group representation: seldom (33.7%), occasionally (38.04%). Taking into consideration the previous statements, this conclusion and the first one cannot be understood as tending towards decentralisation, but might be a sign of a disbalance between authority and responsibility.

Q.8. *Requesting greater effort.* There are low to medium levels of asking for greater effort: frequently (15.22%), always (10.87%).

Q.9. *Trying new ideas in the group.* There is a low tendency for trying ideas in the group: 52.17% would never try new ideas. This result supports the previous ones related to lack of teamwork and avoidance of competition and responsibility.

Q.10.*Freedom at work.* There are low levels of freedom and flexibility: 7% of the headteachers, frequently (6%) and always (1%) let the members do their work the way they think best.

Q.11. *Working for promotion.* There are low levels of working for promotion: frequently (21.74%), always (13.04%). This result has positive and negative implications: positive if the headteachers were committed to work regardless of promotion, and negative as it might reflect low incentives, bureaucracy of the educational system, rigidity of regulations and rules, and absence of objective standards. This result cannot be related to completion of promotion ladder as (46.7%) of headteachers who have less than 9 years of experience, as shown in table 4.2.

Q.12. *Tolerating postponement and uncertainty.* Most of the headteachers (55.43%) always tolerate postponements and uncertainties. This is another sign of low incentives, absence of standards, and vagueness due to not having databased decisions.

Q.13. *Speaking for the group.* The results and implications of the first and seventh questions are supported by the result of this question as only (2.17%) always would speak for the group when visitors were present. In the light of the previous results, this cannot be viewed as authority delegation as much as responsibility avoidance.

Q.14. *Keeping the work moving at a rapid pace.* The absence of motivations and standards appears again, as only 6.52% of headteachers frequently (5.43%) and always (1.09%) would keep the work moving at a rapid rate.

Q.15. *Turning the members loose on a job and letting them get to it.* The 48.92% of headteachers who frequently (22.83%) and always (26.09%) would turn the members of staff loose on a job and let them get on with it, is very high due to the risk resulting from low efficiency and effectiveness. This implies that the rules and regulations related to rewarding and punishment are not applied if existing. This implication might be standing behind the fact that only (13.04%) of headteachers work for promotion as presented in the eleventh question.

Q.16.*Settling conflicts.* Involvement of headteachers in conflict resolution almost does not exist as 76.09% of them would never try to settle conflicts.

Q.17.*Getting swamped by details.* As 33.7% of headteachers frequently and 9.78% always get swamped down in details, we can conclude that the educational system at schools is characterised by bureaucracy and centralisation. This result cannot be viewed as strict control, because it contradicts the results obtained in the eighth, tenth and fourteenth questions.

Q.18.*Representing the group at outside meetings.* Not only internal representation, as mentioned in the seventh and thirteenth questions, is low, but also external representation is low, as only 11.96% of headteachers represent the group at outside meetings. This might lead us to conclude that the right of representation is pivoted at the top of the educational system hierarchy, or conclude the absence of structuring in terms of job description and distribution of authorities and responsibilities.

Q.19.*Allowing freedom of action.* The existence of low freedom levels is again supported by the results of this question as 69.57% of headteachers would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action (43.48% frequently and 26.09% always).

Q.20.*Deciding on what and how shall be done.* Although centralisation is obvious, the responsibility for making decisions is almost absent, as only 15.22% of headteachers would decide what and how things shall be done (14.13% frequently and 1.09% always). This reflects the vagueness of the planning mechanism as previously mentioned.

Q.21.*Pushing for increased productivity.* A high percentage (78.26%) of headteachers would never push for increasing production. Since this result complies with that of the fourteenth question, as only 1.09% would always keep the work moving at

a rapid rate, we cannot conclude delegation, but rather lack of standardisation and motivation.

Q.22.*Authority delegation.* The low levels of authority delegation previously concluded are supported by the finding here as only 13.04% of headteachers (9.87% frequently and 3.26% always) would allow some members to have authority which they could keep.

Q.23.*Turning things out as predicted.* Only 4.34% of headteachers stated that things turn out as they predict (2.17% frequently and 2.17% always). This reflects the vagueness of the planning mechanism and the absence of databased decisions.

Q.24.*Allowing initiative.* Weak encouragement for creativity and innovativeness is apparent as 4.35% of headteachers would frequently allow a high degree of initiative. This complies with the previous results and conclusions.

Q.25.*Assigning group members to particular tasks.* The absence or weak levels of delegation and participation are confirmed by the result of this question, as only 5.43% of headteachers would frequently assign group members to particular tasks. This cannot be viewed as a type of commitment as it coincides with the result of the twenty second question which reflects centralisation.

Q.26.*Willingness to make changes.* The results of the eighth, fourteenth, twenty first and twenty fourth questions, which indicated low levels of competition, creativity and improvement endeavouring are confirmed here as only 9.78% of headteachers (6.52% frequently and 3.26% always) would be willing to make changes.

Q.27.*Asking staff to work harder.* The result of this question supports the findings and conclusions of the eighth, fourteenth and twenty first questions, as 78.26% of headteachers never ask the staff to work harder.

Q.28.*Trusting the staff to exercise good judgement.* The judgment of group members is highly mistrusted as 72.83% of headteachers never trusted it. This is consistent with the results of the fifth question as only 7.6% of headteachers (5.43% frequently and 2.17% always) would permit the staff to use their own judgment in solving problems. The implications here are not different from those stated under the fifth question.

Q.29.*Scheduling the work to be done.* The results of this question reflect very low levels of planning and organisation. Only 2.18% of headteachers (1.09% frequently and 1.09% always) would schedule the work to be done. This result supports all related previous findings, especially those of the twelfth and twenty third questions.

Q.30.*Refusing to explain actions.* The high percentage (80.43%) of headteachers who would frequently (38.04%) and always (42.39%) refuse to explain their actions, is another indicator of weak structuring.

Q.31.*Convincing others of ideas.* The results showed that only 11.96% of headteachers (8.7% frequently and 3.26% always) would persuade others with the advantage of their ideas. This might imply centralisation and low participation.

Q.32.*Permitting the group to set its own pace.* Low levels of freedom and trust appear again as only 16.31% of headteachers (15.22% frequently and 1.09% always) would permit groups to set their own paces.

Q.33.*Urging for beating previous records.* Low levels of encouragement, participation, and standardisation are highly apparent as only 3.26% of headteachers would frequently or always urge groups to beat their previous records.

Q.34.*Acting without consulting the group.* The result of this question supports the previous arguments of centralisation and lack of participation. 67.39% of headteachers (36.96% frequently and 30.43% always) act without consulting the group.

Q.35.*Asking the staff to follow standard rules and regulations.* The result of this question complies with those of the third, seventeenth and nineteenth questions, which showed low levels of granting freedom and high levels of bureaucracy by headteachers. Despite that, the findings related to weak planning and standardisation cannot support the finding that 44.56% of headteachers frequently or always ask group members to follow standard rules and regulations.

Based on these findings, we can conclude the following:

- weak or vague planning and organisation mechanisms;

- centralisation and low levels of participation;

- ambiguous and maybe confusing structuring, especially in the aspects of job description, authority and responsibility;

- absence of standards and databased decisions;

- unwillingness for improvement;

- absence of incentive systems.

Table 4.12: Analysis of descriptive data of Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) in Riyadh schools

Item No.	Dimension	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Always (5)		Mean
		freq	perc	freq	perc	freq	perc	freq	perc	freq	perc	
1	Acting as the spokesman for school staff	14	15.22	18	19.57	48	52.17	4	4.35	8	8.70	2.717
2	Encouraging overtime work	11	11.96	38	41.30	34	36.96	7	7.61	2	2.17	2.467
3	Allowing complete freedom in work	14	15.22	26	28.26	34	36.96	13	14.13	5	5.43	2.663
4	Encouragement of uniform procedures	31	33.70	36	39.13	17	18.48	5	5.43	3	3.26	2.054
5	Using judgment in solving problems	26	28.26	41	44.57	18	19.57	5	5.43	2	2.17	2.087
6	Stressing for being a head of competing groups	51	55.43	30	32.61	8	8.70	3	3.26	0	0.00	1.598
7	Representing the group	19	20.65	31	33.70	35	38.04	5	5.43	2	2.17	2.348
8	Requesting greater effort	13	14.13	26	28.26	29	31.52	14	15.22	10	10.87	2.804
9	Trying new ideas in the group	48	52.17	14	15.22	2	2.17	4	4.35	24	26.09	2.370
10	Freedom at work	16	17.39	30	32.61	39	42.39	6	6.52	1	1.09	2.413
11	Working for promotion	26	28.26	18	19.57	16	17.39	20	21.74	12	13.04	2.717
12	Tolerating postponement and uncertainty	3	3.26	4	4.35	9	9.78	25	27.17	51	55.43	4.272
13	Speaking for the group	16	17.39	26	28.26	41	44.57	7	7.61	2	2.17	2.489
14	Keeping the work moving at a rapid pace	24	26.09	28	41.30	24	26.09	5	5.43	1	1.09	2.141
15	Turning the members loose on a job and letting them get to it	17	18.48	14	15.22	16	17.39	21	22.83	24	26.09	3.228
16	Settling conflicts	70	76.09	11	11.96	5	5.43	5	5.43	1	1.09	1.435
17	Getting swamped by details	13	14.13	16	17.39	23	25.00	31	33.70	9	9.78	3.076
18	Representing the group at outside meetings	30	32.61	18	19.57	16	17.39	17	18.48	11	11.96	2.576
19	Allowing freedom of action	4	4.35	6	6.52	18	19.57	40	43.48	24	26.09	3.804
20	Deciding on what and how shall things shall be done	28	30.43	23	25.00	27	29.35	13	14.13	1	1.09	2.304
21	Pushing for increased productivity	72	78.26	13	14.13	4	4.35	3	3.26	0	0.00	1.326

Item No.	Dimension	Never (1)		Seldom (2)		Occasionally (3)		Frequently (4)		Always (5)		Mean
		freq	perc	freq	perc	freq	perc	freq	perc	freq	perc	
22	Authority delegation	10	10.87	24	26.09	46	50.00	9	9.78	3	3.26	2.685
23	Turning things out as predicted	9	9.78	54	58.70	25	27.17	2	2.17	2	2.17	2.283
24	Allowing initiative	24	26.09	41	44.57	23	25.00	4	4.35	0	0.00	2.076
25	Assigning group members to particular tasks	37	40.22	35	38.04	15	16.30	5	5.43	0	0.00	1.870
26	Willingness to make changes	24	26.09	32	34.78	27	29.35	6	6.52	3	3.26	2.261
27	Asking staff to work harder	72	78.26	17	18.48	2	2.17	0	0.00	1	1.09	1.272
28	Trusting the staff to exercise good judgment	67	72.83	19	20.65	5	5.43	1	1.09	0	0.00	1.348
29	Scheduling the work to be done	37	40.22	37	50.22	16	17.39	1	1.09	1	1.09	1.826
30	Refusing to explain actions	0	0.00	4	4.35	14	15.22	35	38.04	39	42.39	4.185
31	Convincing others of ideas	16	17.39	31	33.70	34	36.96	8	8.70	3	3.26	2.467
32	Permitting the group to set its own pace	11	11.96	28	30.43	38	41.30	14	15.22	1	1.09	2.630
33	Urging for beating previous records	44	47.83	36	39.13	9	9.78	3	3.26	0	0.00	1.685
34	Acting without consulting the group	1	1.09	2	2.17	27	29.35	34	36.96	28	30.43	3.935
35	Asking the staff to follow standard rules and regulations	8	8.70	23	25.00	20	21.74	16	17.39	25	27.17	3.293

4.5 Overall conclusions

From the analysis of the biographic data of the 92 headteachers, it can be concluded that generally, Riyadh primary school headteachers predominantly hold diplomas (78.3%) and have between 10-19 years experience with a school population of 301-600 pupils (78.3%). From the results of analysis, it was found that there is a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and teacher training. It is also interesting to note that there was a relationship between the qualification of the headteacher and the passing percentage in primary schools in Riyadh. It seems that the headteacher who has more professional qualifications in teaching is expected to have a high passing percentage. Finally, there was a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and the

achievement of pupils (passing percentage). It seems that experience is very important to the headteacher for understanding the teachers and pupils, and in order for the headteacher to have an influence on their pupils in school. No relationship appeared between school size and passing percentage.

In addition, and based on the previously stated conclusions, headteachers are mainly autocratic and do not encourage creativity at Riyadh primary schools (Table 4.12).

Chapter Five

Validation of the Questionnaire in Saudi Arabia and some more methodological issues

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the findings of the headteacher responses to the questionnaire investigating the types of leadership style adopted by primary school headteachers in Riyadh City in Saudi Arabia. It also considers validation and reliability of the questionnaire.

5.2 Validity and reliability of Leadership Behaviour Description questionnaire in Saudi Arabia

5.2.1 Validity of the questionnaire

Before applying any research instrument, as Mouly (1978) states, it is necessary to ensure that it is a valid tool. Mouly (1978) defines a valid measurement as "it must measure what it purports to measure." (p.206)

The researcher carried out the following procedures to investigate the validity for the questionnaire.

The first explanation is that the validity of a survey instrument, stressed above, refers to what the instrument measures and how well it does so.

Secondly, as Anastasi (1988) questioned, "is this instrument measuring what it is supposed to measure?" or "how well is the instrument meeting its purpose?" If the instrument measures what it purports to measure, then we can say it is valid (p.103).

The third method which was used to ensure the validity of the questionnaire is the translation of the questionnaire from English to the main language of the sample which is Arabic. The issue of translation in a cross-cultural methodology is crucial. Iyengar

(1993) has discussed this problem in developing countries in relation to the validity of the questionnaire and said:

> "Validity thus requires that questions in one language be translated into another language in such a way as to retain their meaning .... Validity would be determined simply by the accuracy of translation." (p.60)

The researcher, together with an expert English Language teacher, worked to translate the questionnaire from Arabic to English, and then matched the translation with the original form of the questionnaire to demonstrate the most accurate translation of the of the questionnaire. Following that, the questionnaire was piloted using 15 headteachers from 15 schools in Riyadh out of the sample population. The aim was to examine the clarity of the items which might be considered as 'face validity' procedure. The respondents' comments were then examined and some alterations and rewording of some items were accomplished. The above procedures would help to give indications about the face validity of the questionnaire. However, other types of validity such as construct validity as not applicable at this stage, and will be explained later in this chapter.

5.3 Principal components analysis as validation of Leaderhip Behaviour Description Questionnaire instrument

The other step in examining the validity of the questionnaire in the new culture after the translation was to conduct a principal components analysis in order to identify the main factors, and then compare the outcome of this analysis with the factors produced by the original version of Pfeiffer's instrument (LBDQ). By way of definition, principal components analysis is a statistical procedure which involves complex correlation between items, and it is a method of reducing a large set of variables to a much smaller representative set of underlying variables referred to as factors (De Vaus, 1990, p.257). The technique identifies a relatively small number of factors. Each factor is relatively independent of the others, but there is a strong relationship between items within each factor. The object of principal components analysis is to discover essential underlying

dimensions which could help explain complex phenomena summarising information from the original large number of variables to a simple and more comprehensible form.

5.3.1 Procedure of principal components analysis

A sample of 92 headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh was examined in the present study. A questionnaire was presented to these subjects and they were required to respond to a 35 item Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Fortunately, all headteachers provided complete answers to our questionnaire.

Principal components analysis was employed to examine the headteachers' responses and to identify factors that are substantively meaningful, in the sense that they summarise sets of closely related variables (Diekuff, 1992). In conducting principal components analysis, the Varimax rotation method (the most common) was used (Kinnear, 1994, p.216).

Previous studies have proposed three headteacher styles (Pffeiffer, 1972). Therefore, the 35 item questionnaire was subjected to principal components analysis, with the purpose of testing the appropriateness of the three leadership styles between headteachers of Riyadh city schools.

Based on the above, three factors were extracted. Based on the results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling (0.5249) and Bartlett test of sphericity (952.60), with $p < 0.0001$, we can conclude that principal components analysis is an appropriate test (Noursis, 1988, pp.380-381).

Based on the results presented in table 5.1, the three factors accounted for 26.4 percent of the total variance.

The questions loaded on the first factor are 1, 7, 12, 13, 17, 19, 20 and 25. This factor accounted for 11.1 percent of the variance and reflected the following aspects:

- Acting as the spokesman for school staff;

- Representing the school staff;

- Tolerating postponement;

- Speaking for the school;

- Getting swamped by details;

- Reluctancy of allowing freedom;

- Deciding what and how things should be done;

- Assigning particular tasks to school staff.

Based on the meanings and implications of those questions, this factor could be classified as "spokesman and manager" style.

The questions loaded on the second factor which accounted for 8.1 percent of the variance are 2, 5, 8, 10, 21, 27, 29 and 33. These questions reflect the following:

- Encouragement of overtime work;

- Using initiative in solving problems;

- Urging for greater effort;

- Freedom of action/choice;

- Pushing for increased production;

- Asking for harder work;

- Exercising good judgment; and

- Continuous improvement.

Based on the meanings and implications of those aspects, the second factor could be classified as a "striving for achievement and professionalism" style.

The questions loaded on the third factor, which accounted for 7.2% of the variance are 15, 22, 34 and 35. These questions referred to the following:

- Allowing work without direct supervision;

- Relinquishing responsibility;

- Acting without consulting group; and

- Expecting adherence to rules and regulations.

This factor could be classified to represent "Autocratic style" as it seems to give maximum concern to the task and minimum concern to the people (Luthans, 1992).

The questions that did not appear on any of the three factors are 3, 4, 6, 9, 11, 14, 18, 23, 24, 26, 28, 30, 31 and 32.

As a result of employing the principal components analysis Table 5.1 shows the loading and communalities of items in each factor.

Table 5.1: Principal components analysis results

Question	Factor (1) spokesman and manager	Loading	Communality
1.	I would most likely act as the spokesman for school staff in my school	0.6593	0.4396
7.	I would speak as a representative of the school staff.	0.6232	0.3953
12.	I would be able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.	0.4842	0.3217
13.	I would speak for the school staff when visitors were present.	0.6272	0.3997
17.	I would get swamped by details.	0.5456	0.3143
19.	I would be reluctant to allow school staff any freedom of action	0.4025	0.2776
20.	I would decide what needed to be done and how it should be done.	0.6743	0.5152
25.	I would assign particular tasks to school staff.	0.4253	0.3099

Question	Factor (2) striving for achievement and professionalism	Loading	Communality
2.	I would encourage overtime work.	0.5217	0.3835
5.	I would permit the school staff to use their own initiative in solving problems.	0.4265	0.1833
8.	I would urge school staff to greater effort.	0.4425	0.3008
10.	I would let the school staff do their work the way they think best.	0.4594	0.3897
21.	I would push school staff for increased production.	0.6471	0.4947
27.	I would ask the school staff to work harder.	0.5383	0.3994
29.	I would trust the school staff to exercise good judgment.	0.4755	0.2361
33.	I would urge school staff to beat their previous record.	0.4269	0.2246
Question	Factor (3) autocratic leadership	Loading	Communality
15.	I would be prepared to let the school staff take on tasks and let them get on with it without my direct supervision.	-0.5916	0.3550
22.	I would relinquish some authority to those members on the school staff whom I could trust.	-0.4663	0.2241
34.	I would act without consulting group.	0.4952	0.2724
35.	I would expect that school staff follow standard rules and regulations.	0.6163	0.3819

By using principal components analysis, items forming the three factors were identified and could then be used as a sub-scale.

5.4   Reliability of the questionnaire

A reliable instrument is that which yields results consistently. De Vaus (1990) defined the reliability of an instrument and said:

> "A reliable measurement is one where we obtain the same result
> on repeated occasions. If people answer a question the same way
> on repeated occasions, then it is reliable."

A valid test is one that has demonstrated its power to detect some real ability, attitude or common situation that the test user can identify and characterise. Gay (1987) highlights this and says:

> "A valid test is always reliable but a reliable test is not necessarily valid, in other words, if a test is measuring what it is supposed to be measuring, it will be reliable and do so every time, but a reliable test can consistently measure the wrong thing and be invalid."

Reliability is enhanced when the wording and sequence of the questions are designed in a way to stimulate the respondent and to facilitate recall. Kerlinger (1986) stated that there are several methods for measuring the reliability of an instrument.

Anastasi (1988) reported that one of these methods is the test-retest method. Here, the method is to ask respondents a question several times, with some lapse of time, and then to calculate the correlation between the two responses. The Pearson correlation coefficient "r" indicates the extent of this relationship. Thus if "r" is high, then the measurement is consistent and the instrument is considered reliable. The problem here is to choose the appropriate interval between these two tests. Moser and Kalton (1985) highlighted such a problem and even suggested the solution for that problem by saying:

> "The longer the interval between test and retest, the less is the risk of the memory effect but the greater is the risk of intervening events causing respondents to change their views. The problem is to choose an interval long enough to deal adequately with the first risk and yet short enough to deal adequately with the second." (p.250)

To cope with this dilemma, the researcher applied the test-retest method on fifteen headteachers, different from those used for validation, with a time lag of six weeks. The Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for these headteachers' responses. It was found by using the Pearson correlation coefficient, $r = 0.9282$ ($p < 0.001$). Accordingly, it was concluded that this value indicates a high reliability.

5.5 Summary

In summary, this chapter describes the analysis of the questionnaire and discusses some issues with reference to validation of the Pfeiffer instrument. It covers issues relating to the factorial structure with reference to educational leadership style.

The chapter shows the procedure followed in carrying out principal components analysis for assessing style of educational leadership. Thus, the questionnaire was administered to 92 headteachers. The objective of the questionnaire was to understand types of leadership style. The result of the questionnaire indicated three different leadership styles, namely: a) spokesman and manager, b) striving for achievement and professionalism, and c) autocratic.

The principal components analysis showed items with a loading of 0.4 or greater. On varimax rotation factors were selected for inclusion in the communality matrix and the principal components analysis in this perspective is suitable for use in further analysis.

As shown by the present study's findings in table 5.1, these three leadership styles, particularly the questions, were meaningful to respondents. It is also worth mentioning that the present researcher's validation and evaluation of reliability support the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Pfeiffer, 1972) as useful for collecting information in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter Six

Examination of the relationship between the biographical data, the headteacher's leadership style and pupil achievement

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter we will examine the relationship between the headteachers' leadership style and pupil achievement in Riyadh primary schools. The analysis will be based on one way ANOVA test and t-test. The researcher will also examine the relationship between the leadership style and four biographical elements under the following:

- Qualification of headteacher (with teacher training and non-teacher training).

- The experience of headteacher.

- School size (number of pupils in school).

- Achievement of pupils (in terms of knowledge and ability of pupils).

The analysis uses the factors extracted from principal components analysis as subscales (see chapter 5). Given the sample size, any conclusions must be treated with caution, but as an exploratory study the analyses were considered to be justified. We identified three factors and these have been described as spokesman and manager, striving for achievement and professionalism, and autocratic headteacher's style.

The t-test was used in this study to find any significant differences between the means of two variables, and the one-way ANOVA test was used to determine any significant differences between the means of more than two variables.

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6.2 The relationship between the qualifications of the headteacher and the leadership subscale of headteacher in primary schools in Riyadh

Table 6.1 shows that the majority (72.26%) of headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh held a diploma, whereas only 14 (15.21%) held a university degree and 6 (6.52%) held a primary certificate.

A one way ANOVA test suggests that there was no significant difference among the qualifications of headteachers in the mean score of the spokesmen and managers subscale in primary schools in Riyadh ($p < 0.77$), which was not significant on the conventional criterion of $p < 0.05$. Although a large number of headteachers have a high qualification, it was noted that their qualification had no relationship with the spokesman and manager subscale. The table also shows that there was no significant link between the qualification of the headteachers and the striving for achievement and professionalism subscale ($p < 0.50$).

The table also shows that there was no significant relationship between the qualification of the headteacher and the autocratic subscale as $p < 0.83$. It is interesting to note, however, that irrespective of their qualification, headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh tend to have a higher mean score on the autocratic subscale than on other two subscales, and this is particularly true of diploma holders.

We would conclude, therefore, that the headteacher's qualification did not influence how he responded to items on each of the three subscales.

Table 6.1: One way ANOVA of the relationship between the headteacher's qualification and LBDQ subscales of headteachers of Riyadh primary schools

| | Qualification of the Headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh | | | ANOVA | |
| | Primary (No. 6) | Diploma (No. 72) | University (No. 14) | | |
	Mean	Mean	Mean	F. Ratio	p
Spokesman and manager	2.688	2.822	2.875	0.2609	0.77
Striving for achievement and professionalism	2.164	1.960	2.036	0.6905	0.50
Autocratic	3.167	3.302	3.250	0.1911	0.83

6.3 The relationship between professional qualification (teacher training/non teacher training) and the leadership subscale of headteachers in Riyadh primary schools

Table 6.2 gives details about headteachers who had received teacher training and those who had not received it. Despite the fact that the majority of headteachers of Riyadh primary schools received teacher training (72, 78.26%), the t-test results represented in the table suggests that no significant relationship exists between the two groups with the spokesman and manager subscale ($p < 0.75$). The table also indicates that there was no significant relationship with the variables of teacher training and non teacher training with the striving for achievement and professionalism subscale ($p < 0.304$).

The t-test suggests a very weak and non-significant link between the professional qualification of the headteachers and their scoring on the autocratic subscale ($p < 0.602$).

We would conclude that there were no significant differences between headteachers who received teacher training and those who did not in their mean scores on the spokesman and manager, striving for achievement and professionalism, and autocratic subscales.

Table 6.2: T-test of the relationship between professional qualification (teacher training/non teacher training) and LBDQ subscale for the headteachers of Riyadh primary schools

Leadership subscale of headteacher	Professional Qualification of the Headteachers		t-test	
	Teacher training (No. 72)	Non teacher training (No. 20)		
	Mean	Mean	T	p
Spokesman and manager	2.872	2.814	-0.32	0.75
Striving for achievement and professionalism	1.960	2.075	1.05	0.304
Autocratic	3.302	3.225	-0.53	0.602

6.4 The relationship between the experience of headteachers and their leadership subscale

Table 6.3 gives details about the variables of headteacher experience as divided into three categories. It was found that most of the headteachers had managed their school from 0-9 years, followed by those who had managed school from 10 to 19 years and finally by headteachers who had managed school for over 19 years. This table also compares responses on the three subscales.

One way ANOVA was used to find the relationship between the experience of the headteacher and leadership subscales. It was found that there was no significant relationship between the experience of headteachers and their scoring on the spokesman and manager subscale ($p < 0.94$), which was not significant on the conventional criterion of $p < 0.05$. The table also indicates that no relationship existed between the experience of headteachers and their scoring on the striving for achievement and professionalism subscale ($p < 0.84$), and finally that there was no relationship between the experience of headteachers and their scoring on the autocratic subscale ($p < 0.68$). Neither of these were significant on the conventional criterion of $p < 0.05$.

However Table 6.3 confirmed that all headteachers tended to have a higher mean score on the autocratic subscale.

We would therefore conclude that there was no relationship between the headteachers' experience and their leading style at Riyadh primary schools.

Table 6.3: ANOVA one way test analysis of the relationship between experience of the headteachers and their leadership subscale

Leadership subscale of headteacher	Experience of the headteacher			ANOVA	
	< 9 years (No. 43)	10-19 years (No. 35)	> 19 years (No. 14)		
	Mean	Mean	Mean	F. Ratio	p
Spokesman and manager	2.846 1.956	2.857	2.911	0.061	0.94
Striving for achievement and professionalism	1.956	2.000	2.027	0.176	0.84
Autocratic	3.291	3.326	3.393	0.392	0.68

6.5 The relationship between the school size and the headteachers' leadership subscales in Riyadh primary schools

Table 6.4 shows that the majority (61 or 66%) of the schools have a population of pupils between 300-600 pupils, 23 (25%) have a size less than 300 pupils and only 8 (9%) of schools have more than 601 pupils.

One way ANOVA suggests that there is no significant relationship between the various school sizes in the headteachers' mean scores on the spokesman and manager leadership subscale ($p < 0.29$), nor the striving for achievement and professionalism subscale ($p < 0.28$).

However Table 6.4 shows that there was a significant relationship between school size and the headteachers' mean scores on the autocratic leadership subscale ($F = 3.2687$; $p < 0.043$), therefore a Scheffe test with a significant level of 0.05 was used to determine the groups between which the significant relationship exists. The Scheffe test revealed that a significant relationship exists between heads of schools with 300-600 pupils and over 600 pupils on this subscale.

Table 6.4: One way ANOVA test of the relationship between the school size and the headteachers' leadership subscales

Leadership subscale of headteacher	School Size			ANOVA	
	< 300 (No. 23)	300-600 (No. 61)	> 600 (No. 8)		
	Mean	Mean	Mean	F. Ratio	p
Spokesman and manager	2.732	2.881	3.094	1.250	0.29
Striving for achievement and professionalism	2.060	1.934	2.156	1.3036	0.28
Autocratic	3.234	3.3611	2.844	3.2687	0.043

6.6 The relationship between the headteachers' leadership subscales and achievement of pupils

In Table 6.5 the number of the pupils who passed the examinations was used to determine every school's passing percentage (achievements). Examining the school statements it is clear that schools with < 70% passing pupils are very few, and did not exceed two schools out of 92. Therefore the classification of marks will be as follows:

1.   < 80%

2.   80%-90%

3.   90%-100%

The achievement of the primary school pupils in Riyadh were divided into three categories: schools with a grade of <80%, 80- 90% and 90-100%.

The one way ANOVA test was used to find any relationship between the scores of the spokesman and manager, striving for achievement and professionalism and autocratic subscales with pupils' achievement.

The one way ANOVA suggests that no significant relationship exists between the headteachers' mean ratings on the spokesman and manager subscale and achievement of pupils ($p < 0.863$), and also that no significant relationship exists between the mean ratings on striving for achievement and professionalism ($p < 0.339$), and autocratic subscales ($p < 0.747$).

We would conclude that no significant relationship exists between these three styles of headteachers at Riyadh primary schools and the achievement of pupils.

Table 6.5: One way ANOVA test analysis of the relationship between the headteacher's leadership subscales and pupils' achievement (passing %)

Leadership subscale of headteacher	Pupil Achievement			ANOVA	
	< 80% (No. 12)	80-90% (No. 24)	90-100% (No. 56)		
	Mean	Mean	Mean	F. Ratio	p
Spokesman and manager	2.906	2.901	2.833	0.1472	0.863
Striving for achievement and professionalism	1.885	1.906	2.040	1.0954	0.339
Autocratic	3.396	3.292	3.254	0.2924	0.747

6.7 Overall conclusion

From the analysis of mean scores for the three leadership styles of headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh and their relationship with pupil achievement, it can be concluded that the predominant leadership style was autocratic, followed by spokesman and manager, with the striving for achievement and professionalism style coming last. Most of the headteachers in Riyadh primary schools hold Diplomas, followed by those with university degrees, and finally a small number with the primary school certificate. A school population of 301-600 pupils was predominant among primary schools in Riyadh. From the results of analysis, it was found that no significant relationship existed between all three leadership styles and the variables of the qualification and experience of the headteacher, passing percentages, and school size except among the variables of school size and the autocratic leadership scores, where a significant relationship existed with school sizes of 300-600 and over 600 pupils.

Chapter 7

Discussion and Interpretation of the Findings

7.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to analyse the association between the headteacher's leadership style and pupil achievement in primary schools in Saudi Arabia, particularly in Riyadh. This chapter discusses the findings of the field analysis in the light of the literature review, presented mainly in chapter two. Further, as the relationship in question was examined through the questions, thus the discussion will follow the questions. In other words, the research questions are used as subheadings to lead the discussion, and the points which are not close enough to the questions are discussed under the heading of other issues. Furthermore, one additional point to make clear in terms of the field work analysis is that the association between pupils' achievement and school size was also examined – and will be included in this discussion.

It may be as well to note here that the findings of the present study to be discussed below were based on pupils' scores. As already discussed in Chapter 3 of this study, pupils' scores were used to determine the relationship between pupil achievement and headteacher leadership styles on account that the examinations at the end of each year are set by the individual schools, while the examinations at the end of the secondary schools are set by the Ministry of Education. Firstly, however, we need to place the study in its broader context.

7.2 The findings of the present study in comparison with conclusions of other Arab studies

It may be as well to compare the strengths and weaknesses of the present data with that of other Arab studies. In particular, the researcher will consider the following Arab studies:

1.   Al-Hadhood (1984), in Kuwait.

2.   Al-Soukar (1984), in Riyadh.

3.   Batah (1979), in Jordan.

All these researchers used LBDQ, as well as Pfeiffer's instrument. Also, all of them studied headteacher leadership styles. The studies will be compared in the form of a table as below.

Table 7.1: Comparison of the present data with that of other Arab studies

Items	Batah	Al-Hadhood	Al-Soukar	Present data
1. Year of data collection	1977	1984	1984	1991
2. No. of subjects of the study, general	36	396	32	92
3. Sex of subjects of the study	All male	Male and female	All female	All male
4. Method of analysis	1) t-test 2) correlation coefficient	1) t-test 2) STD	1) correlation coefficient 2) mean	1) factor analysis 2 chi-square
5. Validation of the instrument	Yes – with ten subjects	Yes – with 10 teachers	Yes – with 10 headmistresses	Yes – with 15 headteachers
6. Categories of study subjects	Headteachers	1) 36 headteachers 2) 360 teachers	Headteachers	Headteachers
7. Specific focus	Link between leadership style and morale of the teachers	Leadership style in general	Leadership style in general	Pupils' achievement and leadership style
8. Conclusion	Leadership styles have effect on leader	Headteachers not effective according to teachers' perceptions but that the headteacher claims to be effective	Leadership style has effect on the leader	No relationship between leadership style and pupil achievement
9. Type of school	Secondary school	Primary public school	Intermediate school	Primary school
10. Area of study (a) urban; (b) rural	urban	(a) urban (b) rural	urban	urban
11. Questionnaire distribution	by mail	by mail	by mail	direct by the researcher
12. Language translation	One direction translation English to Arabic	Two direction translation English to Arabic and vice versa	One direction translation English to Arabic	Two direction translation English to Arabic and vice versa

We now turn to comment on this table (Table 7.1). If we take item one we note that these studies, and including the present study, differ in terms of when the data was collected. In fact, the present study when compared with the others in the table is the most recent (data collected from July to September 1991), and is therefore more relevant to the current situation in Saudi Arabia than the earlier studies.

Also, item number two indicates that these studies had different sample sizes. Batah (1979) and Al-Soukar (1984) based their sample on old institutions. Al-Hadhood (1984) based his sample size on 20% of the population of schools in Kuwait (see Al- Hadhood, 1984: p.81) while the present study based its sample size on half of the number of primary schools in Riyadh city. Because of these differences in selection of sample, it is difficult to judge which of these studies is weak or strong. It can only be said that all the sample sizes were sufficient to draw conclusions from the data.

In the case of gender inclusion in the analysis, it is clear that the present study is weak because female subjects were not included and this could have an impact on the findings.

In all the studies, statistical methods were employed in data analysis, which helped to draw conclusions. So it seems unreasonable to draw comparative conclusions between the studies.

In the case of validation of the research instrument, all the studies did validate their instrument. In fact, it was the validation carried out by the previous studies that influenced the present researcher to use the same instrument.

With regard to categories of the sample study subjects, there is a difference between the present analysis and particularly Al- Hadhood's (1984) study. The present study only analysed the headteachers' perceptions while Al-Hadhood's (1984) study looked into both teachers and headteachers. In this case the present study has some limitation: that is because if teacher perception was considered the findings may be different.

In so far as "specific focus" of the studies are concerned: each of these studies had different aims (see the table item number 7). Given this, it seems impossible to draw comparative conclusions.

The conclusions of all these previous studies are that the leadership styles of headteachers have an effect on the pupils. But the present study shows no relationship particularly

between pupils' achievement and headteacher leadership style. There are two posibilities here, namely: (1) leadership styles of headteachers have an effect and (2) leadership styles of headteachers have no effect. This difference between the present findings and previous studies may be because we live in a changing world. Those other studies are not recent and cannot be used to explain what is going on now. Thus, the present study may be correct.

In terms of type of sample schools, it seems important to analyse primary because this stage is the principal level of education. Other levels are based on primary education. Other studies should surely be carried out after a study just like the present analysis. In other words, this present analysis has opened the way for studies in higher levels of education.

With regard to area of study we could have identified two areas: urban or rural. The present researcher carried out the analysis in an urban area. This is important because the urban area is the main reflection of society, as well as containing pupils and parents with different professions/qualifications/social status/aspects of character. So rural areas are different from urban areas because they are small. The present researcher felt that it was not sensible to study urban and rural areas together. This could only be done to compare conditions of education in the two areas, with reference to family relations and qualifications. All these can be seen to have a reflection in behaviour.

To comment on the method of questionnaire distribution, as can be seen in the table, two styles emerge: namely (1) mailed questionnaire and (2) direct questionnaire distribution. All the studies shown in the table apart from the present study used mailed questionnaires. The present study uses the direct questionnaire distribution method. Comparatively speaking, the present researcher felt this approach to be more reliable than the mailed questionnaire for the following reasons:

1.   To avoid missing questionnaire responses.

2.   To ensure that the questionnaire did not get lost.

3.   To clarify the difficulties that might arise in completing the questionnaire.

4.   To seek the co-operation of participants with the researcher.

5.   To encourage participants to respond honestly, and feel comfortable when completing the questionnaire.

6.   To ensure that the questionnaire is completed by the right participants.

In other words, direct questionnaire distribution was used to ensure quality data.

Finally, we turn to language translation. All the studies used translation from English to Arabic at some stage. The present study was similar. However, some of the studies used only one direction. The present study, as Al-Hadhood (1984), translated the responses (answers) back into English. In this translation, as noted elsewhere in this study, experts were used. The present researcher felt this was important because the results would be open to other cultures. Having placed the study into its wider context, we must now turn to the specific research questions under investigation.

7.3 Research Questions

To begin with, this study was designed to investigate the relationship between and among four research variables, namely: 1) qualification, 2) experience, 3) school size and 4) pupils' achievement, with the leadership management style of the headteachers in Riyadh primary schools. In this study, we proposed a theoretical model as to what are the kinds of leadership style/management style of headteachers in Riyadh primary schools and its relationship with pupils' achievement.

Data was obtained through questionnaires administered to the headteachers in Riyadh schools and also from pupils' achievement scores during the final examination term. This information was used to provide a clear picture of the target of the leadership management style of the headteacher and its relationship with pupils' achievement in Riyadh primary

schools. The analysis of the data was expected to provide a clear and more comprehensive picture of the investigated connection, as well as showing the statistical significance of the relationship existing between the independent variables. It included statistically testing the relationship between leadership style and the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher, his teaching experience, and school size (number of pupils in the school). These variables were explored by use of questions and will be discussed in the same order in which they were presented earlier.

7.3.1 Question 1: Is there any relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and his experience in education?

The findings of the present field study are twofold: that is, some headteacher qualifications have no link with the headteacher's experience, such as primary and university, while other qualifications have a statistically significant relationship with the headteacher's experience, especially a diploma (see Tables 4.4 and 4.5). The findings indicated that the headteachers who had a diploma stayed longer in the schools than those with primary and university qualifications. It may be because the diploma is the professional qualification for teachers. As Dean (1987) states:

> *"When you make an appointment you are looking for someone with particular qualities and skills."* (ibid., p. 161)

Similarly, Hayon (1990, p. 18), had this to say about professionals:

> *"The following are some examples that illustrate this classification: professional/cognition: knowledgeable, rational planners, mastery of teaching skills; professional/affective: dedicated to teaching, accountable, good peer relationships, co-operative."*

7.3.2 Question 2: Is there any relationship between the school size and educational level (qualification) of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh?

As is shown in Tables 4.6 and 4.7, it was found that no relationship exists between school size and headteacher qualification. It should be noted that this question was analysed to

understand which qualification was associated with which school size. According to the findings, headteachers with any of the three qualifications can function in any school size. This analysis has no contribution to make in the improvement of schools.

We should add that no previous researcher has analysed this relationship. It may be that other studies will show a relationship.

7.3.3 Question 3: Is there a relationship between school size and the experience of the headteacher?

The analysis was carried out through the chi-square test. It was found that no relationship existed between school size and the experience of the headteacher in Riyadh primary schools, as is shown in Table 4.8. Al-Soukar's (1984) findings support the results of the present study. It seems that experience of the headteacher cannot promote better progress, but we propose that long experience has the potential for giving more individual attention, and we consider that headteachers with more experience do better in larger schools. We suggested this because of the familiarity of the headteacher with the school environment.

7.3.4 Question 4: Is there a relationship between the qualification of the headteacher (education level) and pupil achievement?

The result of the field study supported this question, as the result was positive. As presented in Table 4.9, the findings on the qualification of the headteachers in Riyadh primary schools indicate that most headteachers have teaching certificates and Bachelor's degrees. Of particular importance to the present study is the finding which shows a strong relationship between headteachers who hold a degree, particularly in teacher training, and pupil achievement. Table 4.9 shows a significant relationship (educational level: primary qualification, 6.5%; diploma, 78.3%; and university, 15.2%) and is supported by the work of Grace (1995), who cited the work of Davies (1987), stating that:

> "The traditional headteacher function of pedagogical leader and disciplinarian played an important part in the head's role. The primary heads studied paid much attention to being in classrooms, either visiting or actually teaching. A quarter of

> *contacts were made in visits to classrooms and nearly half of their time spent there.* " (p.121)

Grace (1995) further cited Southworth's (1988) work on the Primary School Staff Relationship Project carried out at the Cambridge Institute of Education; he produced a profile of primary school headship in these terms:

> *"Heads expected to set the school's guiding beliefs and saw it was their job to provide a sense of mission. Heads taught classes and groups of pupils and used their school assemblies as opportunities to demonstrate their skills as teachers ... The heads spent a lot of time involving themselves with the staff. They saw staff individually and collectively. They were frequently in the staff-room and touring the school ... These aspects appear to combine to create the conditions for a particular kind of leadership. These heads were educative leaders.* " (p.121)

The findings also show that school headteachers in Riyadh City do not have any administrative credentials before being appointed into their position. The only professional qualification all of them have is their teaching certificates (Al-Saloom, 1994). Similarly, Hughes et al (1985) reported that leadership with professional qualifications has a positive effect on achievement. Thus, it may be the professional aspect of the qualification that might have provided the potential for the pupils' achievement in Riyadh City. There were no formal training programmes, at the time of this study, for school administrators. This particular finding is supported by Al-Manuie (1980) who indicated that most of the positions in the educational system of Saudi Arabia were filled by people with limited backgrounds in educational administration. Earlier, as mentioned in the literature review, it was noted by Al-Manuie (1980, pp. 30-45) that many administrators in the Saudi Arabian Education Ministry have not taken any courses in administration. In so far as a special course for leadership is concerned, there is debate as to whether headteachers should be provided with basic training for effective leadership of schools. This view has been put forward by Johnson et al (1986) who found that many leadership courses were inadequate.

"Knowledge and skills necessary for effective leadership are either fragmented and piecemeal or lacking altogether in in-service training programmes. Also, staff development programmes for principals tend to respond only briefly to current topics, ignoring emerging basic skills and knowledge. "

They argue that:

"What is needed is a combination of certification and in- service programmes for principals that provide 'hot' topic overviews and in addition the basic skills for effective school leadership. "
(p.238)

The present findings seem to suggest that because headteacher qualifications are important, all headteachers should have this qualification.

It may be as well to raise some points here concerning headteachers with administrative skills: that is, they may have a variety of administrative behaviours such as high expectations for effective administration, of self confidence, openness, such that they can set clear goals; and also these skills can help as a source of motivation in terms of pupils' achievement and management organisation system (Sulayman, 1978, p.50).

According to the present findings, these elements are important for the headteacher's role (Table 4.9). This may help the headteacher to be effective. Similarly, according to Bossert et al (1982), principals may have a positive effect if they have the following characteristics: friendly communication, careful observation of the classroom activities, careful resource management, good relationship with staff which encourage the staff to work toward the desired goals (pp.34-64).

There is a similar finding in the study by Sulayman (1978) who stresses the importance of personal qualities which meet the requirements of school management and which seem to be the element of effectiveness in terms of leadership. In fact, according to Sulayman (1978), effective headteachers

1.   must be sensitive to the feelings of others, helpful, friendly and have a sense of responsibility;

2.   should respect the opinions, rights and dignity of others;

3.   have self-confidence and the ability to identify easily with co-workers, including those who supervise them;

4.   must be consistent, generous, humble, fair and honest in their dealings with others;

5.   must be aware of the need to avoid conflicts of personality, and envy;

6.   must be sincere. As well as being easy and straightforward to talk to, they must have the ability to get the best out of people without having to resort to aggressive behaviour such as shouting (Sulayman, 1978, p.46).

The findings of the present study are similar (see tables 4.9, $P < 0.01$). In fact, in the present study, Kendall correlation coefficients of the relationship between the professional qualification of headteachers and pupil achievement were analysed. As can be seen in Table 4.9, schools with heads who were diploma holders tended to have higher rates of successful pupils (48.6%) in their schools as compared to the other two variables which are (a) university qualification (6.48% of schools) and (b) primary qualification (5.4% of schools).

Table 4.9 also shows the professional qualification of the headteachers. In other words, the present study shows that even headteachers who received teacher training and were most effective in terms of pupil achievement still had limited qualifications in administration in Saudi Arabia. School administrators were formerly teachers who may only hold the required Diploma or Bachelor degree to teach primary school and still the training is very limited for continuing education to headteachers (Al- Manuie, 1980).

Further supporting evidence is in *Al-Yamamah* magazine (1994); the Minister of Education in Saudi Arabia stated:

> *"The Ministry of Education has informal part-time training programmes which are given to teachers, supervisors (inspectors) and headteachers every year and over 7,478 graduated in the academic year 1993-94. This training is provided in the field of instruction/guidance related areas. "* (p.13)

The short training programmes for the school headteachers in Saudi Arabia might help to develop and improve their job skills.

In general, it can thus be said that both the previous studies and present findings agree that there is an association between headteachers' academic qualifications and pupil achievement. This means any improvement on the headteacher academic qualification will make it possible for all pupils to perform more effectively.

7.3.5 Question 5: Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and pupil achievement?

As presented in chapter 4 the result of the analysis using Kendall correlation shows that headteachers with longer experience in school are more likely to have a positive relationship on pupil achievement ($p < 0.01$). This finding is supported by a study on the role behaviour of school headteachers by Dreeben and Gross (1965) who state that:

> *"the longer the time a principal has spent as a teacher, the more likely his perspectives will be limited to kinds of problems that arise in classroom settings .... the principal ... with primarily a classroom perspective invites trouble in that mobilising a faculty requires sophistication in the use of political skills ... "* (pp.7-17)

The point to stress is that the headteacher's experience can increase the headteacher's ability to manage school more effectively. Experience will encourage the teachers and pupils and their interactions. According to Al-Dayel (1988, p. 75) experienced headteachers will be able to select the means which fit their schools' needs, and they

could conveniently delegate their authority to oversee most of these aspects to other members of the school.

This experience may be supported by a good pre-service and in-service training and it would be likely to lead to better pupil achievement. This argument is also supported by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) who found that leaders develop leadership style over a period of time and factors which have an impact on leadership style include extent of education, administrative training and experience as a leader. The point is that the leader, drawing on his education, training and experience, may become more able at selecting the appropriate leadership style in a given situation.

More support for this finding that experienced headteachers manage school more effectively has been noted by Jackson et al (1980), who stated:

> *"principals in effective schools were perceived as maintaining firm and centralised control with a strong task and academic orientation. In terms of maintenance, discipline, and academics, these administrators ran a 'tight ship'. They were emphatic about establishing the instructional program and monitoring achievement. The discipline codes of their schools were clear and strictly enforced. They were supportive of teachers and students and rewarded achievement. "* (pp.59-70)

Further the result of the present study is similar to the study by Sergiovanni (1984) who differentiated between five types of school leaders, each with unique administrative behaviours (pp.11-13).

As indicated in the present study (table 4.10) it was evident that 56 (60.9%) of the headteachers with experience in this study got higher scores in terms of achievement of their pupils in primary school. This result also links with studies by Mortimore et al (1988) and Rogers et al (1992) which showed that professional activity is positively related to career longevity (experience), because the longer the time since initial certification, the more opportunity the headteacher has had (pp.148-158).

It would appear in this case that headteachers develop their personalities and management skills in part through experience. Headteachers who had had long careers in school appeared to have positive results according to Green (1992):

> *"Most people would agree that experience is the best teacher of judgement, although it does not always follow that people actually learn from their experience. Effective leaders make good judgment ... about when to act and when to delay, which issues are ripe for initiative and which ones must percolate a while longer."* (p.64)

(It should be noted here that the two particular references cited above were not used in the literature review section, because they were not available to the researcher at the time.) However, this does not mean that headteachers, and especially new headteachers, do not need management training. At present, administrative training and experience is not taken into account in the selection of headteachers in Saudi Arabia (Al-Manuie, 1980, p.30).

According to many researchers on education (Dreilinger, McElheny, Rick and Robinson, 1982, pp.69-71), training in management is one of the variables which seems to affect the efficiency of the headteacher. Consequently, not only should new headteachers receive management training, but there should be an updating of headteachers' management skills throughout their career. Training and length of experience of the headteacher will contribute to the educational development of pupils and schools. According to Fiedler (1974), headteachers need:

> *"Training which emphasises procedures and technical expertise, thus making the leader less dependent on his subordinates, likewise provides guidelines on how to handle the technical difficulties which may arise on the job."* (p.120)

Two important factors in relation to the work of headteachers have emerged from this study: training and experience, although some writers in this field, such as those noted by Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982), found no relationship between effective

headteacher leadership and training/experience. The findings of this study suggest some shortcomings with respect to headteacher training, particularly in regard to pupils' achievement. The findings also indicate that headteachers lack the training to deal with both pupils and teachers, as well as the running of the schools. It should also be noted that headteachers lack courses in communication skills. Therefore, in all, the findings seem to suggest that headteachers in Saudi Arabia either receive inadequate preparation in the area of leadership or do not receive training at all (p.52).

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It seems to me, in view of the findings, that experience enriches the knowledge of headteachers in educational matters and particularly in school and its management. This could be because length of experience might give rise to strong leadership and a certain style of managing with a clear vision, and strategic planning for the school, and this became clear in the present findings.

7.3.6 Question 6: Is there a relationship between school size and pupil achievement?

The effect of school size, which was one of the main questions of this study, appears to be quite complicated both in the present findings and in the literature.

The present study's findings (see table 4.11) on the size of school and pupil achievement relations showed that the result was statistically non-significant ($p = 0.216$). It was found that there was no significant relationship between the size of school and pupil achievement. Size of school also does not appear to affect a headteacher's ability to manage a school in Saudi Arabia (see table 4.11). At present, there is no limit to the size of school and the size in the sample ranged from 300-more than 600 pupils. A further point regarding the size of a school, is that the Ministry of Education is only prepared to appoint one headteacher and one deputy headteacher per school. As noted earlier in the literature review, increasing school size makes more demand on the headteachers in terms of administration, providing guidance for teachers and pupils and ensuring that all

children are progressing effectively in their study; this would especially seem to be the case in Saudi Arabia, since, regardless of the size of the school, all headteachers are required to fulfil the same duties by the Ministry of Education.

In fact, the literature reviewed shows that school size was among the factors which create a satisfactory school environment for effective learning (for example Halpin, 1966). Also, according to the literature, there is an association between school size and bureaucratic structure of management such as management of relations within school.

According to Goldstein (1984, p.69), it is difficult to relate the size of a school to pupil achievement since it would be difficult to isolate it from other variables. However, it may well be possible to isolate class size from other variables. Pyke (1994) stated that:

> *"It is hard to believe the smaller teaching units cannot promote*
> *better progress. But they say any reductions must be accompanied*
> *by a change in teaching practice so that staff can exploit the*
> *potential for giving more individual attention. "* (p.22)

This refers to the other variables, such as climate of school which include the school size. Halpin (1966) goes on to say that size has a relationship with close supervision of task and management of relationships in terms of behaviour, both by the headteacher and in the school at large. Despite a lack of support from the present findings, it can thus be said (and this is in view of the evidence in the literature) that the link between school size and pupil achievement should be examined in more detail, as well as to review the research literature that it has generated.

7.3.7 Question 7: Is there a relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and his style of leading school?

The one way ANOVA test was used to interpret the data of the question. Like the above analysis, we found no relationship between the headteacher's qualification and the style of leading the school. However, some studies, such as Bossert *et al.* (1982, p. 58) show that the leader's background have an effect on their activities. It may, thus, be argued

that our findings did not support this view because of environmental differences, that is, headteachers, whatever their qualification, have different effects in different school environments.

7.3.8 Question 8: Is there a relationship between the experience of the headteacher and his style in leading the school?

Like the question above, one way ANOVA test was employed to determine this relationship. It was found that no relationship exists between these two elements, although studies such as that by Rogers *et al.* (1992, p. 153) found that the leader's years of experience can contribute a great deal to effectiveness of the leadership style of management. However, as the researcher has already indicated above, such effectiveness would depend upon the environment. If the environment is good, the leader's experience may work effectively and if the environment is poor, the experience may never contribute effectively. Thus, this may be the case with the present findings.

7.3.9 Question 9: Is there a relationship between the school- size and the leadership style of the headteacher in school?

Similarly, this data was analysed using one way ANOVA test. Once again, we found no relationship. In other words, there was no significant relationship between the two variables. However, activities in school need joint co-operation between teachers and their headteacher. Even those activities of leadership cannot be performed even in a small school by one person – the designated leader (Dennison and Shenton, 1987, p. 51). It may be because of this that we did not find a relationship between the school size and headteacher management style in Riyadh. What is interesting about the role of headteacher in Riyadh is that the headteacher controls everything within the school, but is himself controlled by the Ministry – it is a centralised system.

7.3.10 Question 10: Is there a relationship between the leadership style of the headteacher and pupil achievement?

The analysis relating to question 10 was based on three leadership styles, and is shown in Table 5.1:

1.   Spokesman and manager style

2.   Striving for achievement and professionalism style

3.   Autocratic style.

Let us define just briefly these three types of leadership style. First, the 'spokesman and manager style': this is attributed, as noted by Wren and Voich Jr (1984), to leaders (a) providing information to outside groups such as the Board of Directors in Education, suppliers of learning materials, stockholders of learning materials (spokesman); and (b) training, appraising, motivating and leading people such as teachers/pupils (p.218). A similar definition of 'spokesman and manager' style is offered by Szilagyi and Wallace (1990). The second of the leadership styles – 'Striving for achievement and professionalism' – refers to, as Bush et al (1980) noted:

> "... a person who carries out a specialised activity based on systematic knowledge and who is committed to his calling."
> (p.240)

In a similar view, Holmes (1993) points out that an example of professional dialogue would be:

> "(Headteacher in staff meeting): 'I would like us all to be more vigilant about students arriving late for classes'."

> "(Hospital administrator to porters): 'Please start moving patients from ward to theatre five minutes earlier than published times as of this week'." (p.64)

Finally, the autocratic style: This, in the judgment of most writers in the area of leadership studies (Bush et al, 1980; Luthans, 1992), refers to: a leader who cares little for the

feelings of subordinates, personally oversees administration, and excludes subordinates from decision-making.

In addition, the word "style" is used here as equivalent to the 'way in which the leader influences subordinates' (Luthans, 1992: p.299; Burns, 1978).

Turning now back to the analysis, the present findings summarised in Table 6.5 show no significant relationship between spokesman/manager style of headteachers in primary schools in Riyadh and pupil achievement. The results indicate that in 12 of the sample schools the average mark of pupils who passed was < 80%, in 24 schools the average mark of pupils who passed was between 80-90%, and in 56 schools the average mark of pupils who passed was more than 90%. The result was further analysed by one way ANOVA test which showed no relationship between the headteacher who practises a spokesman/manager style and pupils' achievement; and see also Table 6.5 which presents the mean tendency.

This is interesting. The results showed that the spokesman and manager style had a lower mean score than the other two subscales in our sample of headteachers of Riyadh primary schools. From these results, several questions arise. Why do so many headteachers not use the spokesman and manager style? Why has the spokesman and manager style no relationship with achievement of pupils? The results of the present study identified one of the reasons why headteachers are most likely not to use the spokesman and manager style. This is because the education system in Saudi Arabia, as noted by Al-Heji (1979), has adopted the authoritarian system of high centralisation. The line of authority flows down from the education districts through the administrative head of the Ministry - to the Directorate of General Education then - to Directors of education development - to the director of the educational district and finally to the headteacher of the school, a possible reason why the spokesman and manager style remains less used in the primary school in Riyadh. There was a feeling of concern among many headteachers about

freedom to carry out the teaching and learning processes within the school and participation in decision-making about what to teach. This could be because the headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools were in, as noted above, a bureaucratic system and initiation of structure was regarded as one of the steps in teaching position. However, headteachers and staff have some freedom to determine teaching approaches; mainly programmes of study are determined by the Ministry of Education and School Districts. Headteachers and their staff can thus work together to achieve the curriculum requirements set out by the Ministry (Al-Heji, 1979).

In Paisey's (1980, pp.95-125) attempt to define the spokesman and manager style of leadership, the leader is accountable to the ministry and responsible for day to day running of the school. The leader has got a negative relationship with his group without having any human relations. In spite of the fact that this sort of leadership leads to control of organising jobs, increasing production, fear of termination, it is considered effective (only by some headteachers) and the continuity of work is dependent on the leader's existence; but in the long-run the group members feel dissatisfied and this decreases production and weakens their morale. In addition, Likert (1967) stated that the authoritarian knows exactly what needs to be done. His subordinates are hired solely to do what he orders. He neither needs nor wants information from his employees. All communications come downward, and the system has immediate punishment for anyone who does anything beyond the leader's orders. It is a coercive fear of the leader model of operation.

Also the results of this study show no significant relationship between the striving for achievement and professionalism style of headteachers in Riyadh schools and pupil achievement (table 6.5). This style is also used by a few primary school headteachers in Riyadh. The results in table 6.5 suggest that headteachers who practise the striving for achievement and professionalism style are poor managers in terms of achievement. It

can be seen that the pressures of the authority from above affect the headteachers (Luthans, 1992). Table 6.5 shows 12 schools have an average pupil pass of < 80%, 24 schools have an average pupil pass of 80-90% and 56 schools have an average pupil pass at 90% +.

In general, the headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools or in the Arabian Gulf, according to Qambar (1992), are ambitious to occupy the post of a headteacher or a deputy and do not usually make a great effort to be noticed in order that they may not be considered as a trouble maker. The headteacher is a person who makes no trial and error decisions in his work, and takes no responsibility for initiatives which may expose him to accountability. The ambitious headteacher adheres literally to the instructions and directions of the authority, the Ministry of Education.

According to Al-Heji (1979, p.40) the school administration and the headteachers in Saudi Arabia devote their efforts to managing the internal affairs of the schools. This has become administration for control: controlling of attendance and non-attendance, controlling the starting and the ending of classes, controlling discipline in classes and preventing noise and chatter, and controlling the allocation of curricula according to the plan of the Ministry of Education and the Directorate of Education (Principality) on the objectives of pupil achievement.

It may be as well to mention the researcher's experience here. The researcher, through his work as a teacher, notes that the authority of school administration was concentrated in the headteacher, and the authority of class was in the hands of the teacher. It was an authority which did not allow class participation, and it observed the formal (or official) structure of relations which ensured the position of the teacher. As a result, the climate in classes was of a closed type which caused boredom, indifference, and depression for students. In such a climate, students did not find interesting issues which could fulfil

their psychological and social needs and they did not find anything interesting which may attract their attention as individuals towards academic achievement.

Finally the third style which is the autocratic style. The present study found no significant relationship with the achievement of pupils at the primary schools in Riyadh (see table 6.5). The results for the three styles are shown in Table 6.5, indicating the mean. Interestingly, the analysis of the mean dominate the other two styles discussed above. All related to pupil achievement.

To give a brief account of the style, Luthans (1992), as stated above, indicated that an autocratic style gives maximum concern to the task and minimum concern to people. Headteachers using this style know exactly what they want and how to get it. This style can be effective.

He goes on to say that this sort of leadership is characterised by family and great morality where the family leader forces his group members to rely upon him (Luthans, 1992).

To get this sort of leadership to succeed in school, the headteacher should be rational, strong, firm, and have a respectful personality. All members may be waiting for him to achieve good goals. In spite of the fact that this leader is ready to provide services to others, he is making decisions without the others' participation (Luthans, 1992, p.384).

Likert (1967) mentioned, in accordance with the special talents of the followers, normally the leader makes all decisions about what is to be done and passes orders. In selected cases (but not with all his subordinates) he finds it useful to obtain information or reactions from a subordinate before he takes action. To conserve time, such contacts are generally on a one to one basis. He motivates his people through a reward system of incentives based on individual competition or isolation. Since the leader is held responsible for a given function, he sees to it that his functional boundaries are respected by other

managers, because competitive recognition is based on individual performance (Likert, 1967). But this is not the case according to the present findings.

The present study found this sort of leadership among most of the headteachers in Saudi Arabian primary schools. The style can also be seen to have a relation with culture, for example, according to Al-Heji (1979), who indicated that in Saudi Arabia, headteachers are constrained by rules and regulations in carrying out duties. Opportunities for headteachers to act independently and take responsibility for their own work are limited. Regulations and statutes reduce the scope for flexible administration. There is a very high degree of bureaucratic control throughout the system which is administered by the centralised administrative authority within the Ministry of Education to the regional offices.

In general, the three styles of headteachers, spokesman/manager, striving for achievement/professionalism and autocratic, were found by the present study (table 6.5) as having no relationship with pupil achievement. Yet the education system encourages headteachers to adopt these styles.

It may be as well to link the results with the study by Bossert et al (1982) who noted that:

> *"No single style of management seems appropriate for all schools. For example, a review of the successful schools' literature intimates the principals must find the style and structures most suited to their own local situation."* (p.38)

Bossert et al (1982) mentioned that headteachers are constrained in exercising their duties, by such factors as district policy in the area of personnel and budgeting. They have little direct control and little supervision over their work.

Also, the 1962 Bulletin, issued by the Ministry of Education, illustrates the relationships within the educational hierarchy in Saudi Arabia and links with the findings of the present study. The bulletin stated that:

1. The educationalists are considered as the direct point of reference for schools and provide schools with bulletins and instructions relating to all aspects of the provision of education. These even include the allocation of time to subjects and teaching periods.

2. The school is obliged to carry out everything which comes to it from the Ministry of Education through the regional education office directly without delay.

3. The school must follow directly any instruction which comes from the Ministry of Education.

4. The school has no right whatsoever to go beyond the regulations issued by the Ministry. In cases where a school does not feel able to cope with regulations, an official letter must be sent to the regional officer and the matter investigated.

5. Even outside activities, such as holding seminars, organising tours, visiting exhibitions and inter-school games, require the permission of the educational region (Bulletin, 1962, p.18).

The highly centralised system and the policies of the Ministry of Education can adversely affect the efficiency of headteachers in providing an adequate education for children.

In general, the Bulletin (1962) stated that the headteacher makes an important contribution to the school for its ongoing functions and it is important that headteachers fulfil their responsibilities (p.28). However, headteachers are often overburdened with administrative tasks arising from the policies of the Ministry of Education and so are often unable to provide leadership in the wider activities of the school. Thus, there can be a tendency for many headteachers to restrict their role in order to concentrate on the implementation of the policies of the Ministry of Education and the school district which are set out in rules, laws and regulations (Al-Heji, 1979, p.30). The headteacher has certain roles and tasks which are determined by the Ministry of Education. Bossert et al

(1982) argue, in view of this, that the principal can influence factors such as decision-making, curriculum, evaluation, and task characteristics. However, within the hierarchical structure of the education system in Saudi Arabia, the main functions of headteachers, as set out in the Bulletin on the Internal System of Primary Schools (1962), are as follows:

1.   He is required to submit a monthly report which must include details about the day-to-day running of the school.

2.   He is responsible for the teaching staff and their attendance and absence.

3.   He must ensure stability in the relationship between teachers and children.

4.   He must keep records of all correspondence to the school.

5.   He must keep an audit of the attendance of all pupils (Bulletin, 1962, p.18).

The above review seems to show that the situation is that the education system is ruled by a hierarchical system from the Ministry of Education down to the school district. Any problems arising in the running of the school are dealt with at the school district level. Consequently, the highly centralised bureaucratic system discourages headteachers from using their initiative and making creative innovations. It also encourages authoritarian leadership and an autocratic rather than a democratic style of leadership.

The headteacher's role could also have wider responsibilities. Blumberg (1980) cites Dean (1960) who has conceptualised the headteacher's office as providing ten important services for the school:

1.   A communications centre for the school.

2.   A clearing centre for the transaction of school business.

3.   A counselling centre for teachers and students.

4.   A counselling centre for school patrons.

5.   A research division of the school, for the collection, analysis and evaluation of information regarding activities and results.

6.   A repository of school records.

7.   The planning centre for solving school problems and initiating school improvements.

8.   A resource centre for encouraging creative work.

9.   A co-ordinating agency centre cultivating wholesome school and community relations.

10.   The co-ordinating centre of the school enterprise (Blumberg et al, 1980, p.69).

In view of the above discussion it seems that the headteacher has immediate responsibility for the ongoing functions of a school. This leading role obliges him to supervise all administrative duties, to organise daily functions, plan school courses/class schedules, sort out class students, in addition to dealing with technical and professional tasks, developing the school's means to assess performance, developing children's basic skills and taking responsibility for educational outcomes, as well as ensuring the provision of modern equipment and technology to facilitate teaching and learning. Headteachers must also provide professional guidance and support to colleagues in their approaches to teaching, assessing children's ability and ensuring the continuous progress of children. Headteachers have overall responsibility for diagnosing student weakness and helping to strengthen them. Other important functions of a headteacher include the induction of new members of staff, establishing satisfactory working relationships between personnel and between personnel and children, being prepared to consider personal problems of staff and pupils; and fostering a high level of morale in the school.

As shown above, the headteacher has the immediate responsibility for all the environment of the school. That is, the headteacher has a direct influence on the pupils, but the present study does not show the headteacher's influence because the headteachers in Saudi schools do not have such executive function. Also, many headteachers believe that the more closely they follow rules and regulations, the more favourably they will be regarded by those in authority within the hierarchical structure. Thus there is little competition between schools in terms of achieving results (Al-Saloom, 1994, p.40).

One point needing to be made clear here concerns consideration of pupils' scores as an indicator of the effectiveness of the of the headteacher's style. The result appears to suggest that there is no significant relationship between headteacher leadership style and pupils' achievement. This relationship was measured here because all the schools accept examination results as passed down by the Ministry of Education. The real question is in specifying precisely how progressively improved pupil achievement can be examined outside the headteacher leadership style(s). A further point is that headteachers practise authority and pupils then experience it; and thus this should await further research.

7.4 Other issues

There are a number of issues which do not only arise in the present findings, but also from previous studies which this section will address.

7.4.1 Pupils' outcomes in Saudi schools

The headteacher and teacher work together towards achievement of school objectives as prescribed by the curriculum. The main objective, especially of the primary school where the foundation for education is laid, is to teach pupils to learn and to encourage development. However, in Saudi Arabia tests and examinations are important aspects of the educational system. The authorities of education in Saudi Arabia regard them as necessary evils, and parents and teachers alike accept the criteria as reasonable. Parents tend to push their children to perform well in examinations, and teachers are responsible

for pupils' learning as well as performance on examinations. It is the headteacher's responsibility to work together with teachers towards enriching the teaching/learning process in the classroom in order to ensure that pupils learn as well as perform in the examinations. The latter would be a measure of what is being taught and learned in schools (Al-Saloom, 1994, p.36).

The examination is a predominant concern among teachers, parents and pupils. The major function of the examination is to measure the ability of pupils to attain the learning process goals. In fact, this sort of assessment merely examines how much information and knowledge the children have retained from their studies during the academic year. There are two kinds of tests: oral and written. The aims of the examination are to determine which pupils are competent to move to the next level of education and whether schools are meeting the objectives of the education system in Saudi Arabia. But unfortunately, the kind of examination which is used in Saudi Arabia does not attain the goals of a modern education system curriculum or education planning. It does not diagnose weakness in the learning process. Nor does it measure the wider abilities, mental development or creativity of children. The examination merely measures children's ability to memorise and recall, and neglects the wider abilities, interests, aptitudes and knowledge of the children.

This view is consistent with the view of Al-Saloom (1994). In a critique of the examination system in Saudi Arabia, Al-Saloom argues that:

1. There is an over-concern for measuring the achievement of pupils which is solely based on children remembering facts. Consequently, children's interests, aptitudes and creativity are neglected. Schools should give more attention to the application of skills and knowledge and to the needs of children within the wider community.

2. Teachers have an inadequate knowledge of scientific methods in designing, analysing and interpreting tests.

3. Teachers do not use the results of the final examination for diagnostic purposes and for giving guidance to pupils.

4. The examination does not cover all aspects of the curriculum and is consequently unjust for some children.

5. The examination does not use modern tests which are concerned with the innate abilities of pupils.

6. The examination does not take into account teachers' observation of children, continuous assessment, case studies or interviews with children.

7. Examination results are not used for curriculum development purposes nor for reflection and analysis of teaching methods.

8. Many teachers are inadequately qualified to mark the pupils' examination papers.

9. Teachers do not use modern technology in marking, interpreting and analysing pupils' examination answers.

10. The examination does not adequately diagnose the weaknesses of children because of the high chance element (Al-Saloom, 1994, p.37).

Thus, Al-Saloom is arguing that examinations are too orientated to factual knowledge and detrimental to a wider concept of education. He found that teachers, pupils and parents were obsessed with subjects and examinations. Most of the teaching was directed towards children memorising information required by the examinations. Many parents pay for home-tuition by teachers at the school to prepare children for the examination and there is often cheating by children during the test. Therefore, educationists regard the current examination system as not serving the best interests of the children. The best way is to look for other methods of assessing the pupils. Al-Saloom suggests that instead of depending solely on the assessment of the pupils by examinations in each term,

continuous assessment of the day-to-day work of the children should be introduced. However, continuous assessment will only be successful if supported by the teachers. Continuous assessment would help to mitigate children's fear of examinations which at present parents, teachers and administrators regard as a necessary evil. It would also lead to decentralisation in the assessment system and enable schools to link education with the environment, society and culture. Decentralisation should also facilitate greater consideration being given to the different abilities of children. Al-Saloom indicated that the examination criteria have been unchanged since 1945 and are still used in the three stages of primary, intermediate and secondary school.

Al-Saloom's (1994) study concludes that the evaluation of the pupils' achievement in Saudi Arabian schools uses the inappropriate methods of traditional standardised achievement tests, which have had negative effects on school and children. The function of the school is to teach children and is only successful if children learn what is taught. We must question, however, whether children are learning what is taught and also the goal of education.

In view of the present study's findings, it seems that one of the obstacles to headteachers being able to affect pupil achievement is the use of traditional standardised achievement tests, together with the bureaucracy and consequent inconsistency in the hierarchical chain of command. Pupil achievement in school is used as the basis for judging headteachers. But the question may be raised of whether the school administration is being successful in the Kingdom in achieving the educational policies and existing curriculum? To answer this question, we suggest that the education output of the pupils is unsatisfactory, and we need to pay this a lot more attention. The reason is quite clear when we obtain and see the results. We do not mean the examination results only, because they show one aspect only, but what we do mean is the pupils' behaviour being altered by the school so that they can take full responsibility for their learning. We do not see

any effect on these aspects which means that Saudi Arabian schools do not succeed completely and fully. It is said that the teacher is responsible for the weakness of the educational output of the pupils in Saudi Arabian schools. Also, we cannot deny the constraints on the role of the headteacher who cannot run the school in more imaginative ways (Al-Heji, 1979, p.30).

This assumption suggests another question, why does the school administration not produce more suitable educational leadership of teachers? This shortcoming can be construed by many factors:

7.4.2 Appointment of school headteachers in Saudi Arabia

According to Al-Manuie (1980, pp.30-45), school headteachers in Saudi Arabia are appointed without taking into consideration all the qualities and experience suggested by research. Among these specifications are ethics, intelligence, belief in human relations, taking responsibility, competence in educational, ethical and cultural sciences. Such appointments may be subject to adequate training, practically and theoretically. The appointment of school headteachers in the Kingdom depends on the length of experience of one teacher compared with others who are successfully teaching, holding the position of school deputy. The new headteachers may start their job without training or preparation for the position they have. In other words, it can be argued that the appointment of a headteacher also seems not to take into account pupil achievement; this is plain in the present analyses.

It is noted that the opening of new schools in Saudi Arabia means new headteachers are needed. In this case, headteachers who are appointed may not meet the required standard, but they are obliged to fill such vacant positions in order that the school is not left without a headteacher. Without a doubt, appointing headteachers in Saudi Arabian schools in such a way creates poor administration, because the foundation of the appointment is weak. Someone who has been successful in teaching may not do well in administration,

which needs experience and a personality capable of leading; a successful teaching background is not enough to ensure that the headteacher is able to run the school administratively and professionally.

7.4.3 Method used by headteachers to run schools in Saudi Arabia

The appointment of school headteachers in Saudi Arabia, using the method mentioned earlier, means that schools are run in a traditional style with concentration on administrative aspects without further attention to professional aspects. The relationships within school are different from one school to another depending on the headteacher's personality. As noted above, some headteachers follow the spokesman and manager style, as was found by the present study (Table 5.1). According to Luthans (1992), headteachers using this style want to do everything for themselves, leading by enhancing the fear and anxiety of staff and pupils. They think that by doing so, every member of the school will do their job efficiently. In fact, such a style has been rejected by much recent research because it damages the personality of both teachers and pupils. Some headteachers in Saudi Arabia follow the striving for achievement and professionalism style (Table 6.5). These headteachers have poor decision-making capabilities and pressures affect them too much. This seems to be a valid picture of the situation in Riyadh. Other headteachers in Saudi Arabia practise the autocratic style (Table 6.5). Headteachers practising this style seem to give maximum concern to tasks in the school and minimum concern to the teachers (Luthans, 1992, p.302).

7.4.4 School administration and administrative relationships in education

According to Al-Heji (1979) the application of the decentralised system giving more power to the districts in the educational region in Saudi Arabian education with all authority and specialities given by the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom, forces the education administration to stick to their tasks of the management and financial aspects of the school without delegating any authority to the school. The complex procedures

make the school administrators feel uncomfortable, which may have a negative effect on how they carry out their functions, and does not give them the chance to develop (Al-Heji, 1979, p.30).

7.4.5 Does the current curriculum in Saudi Arabian schools achieve the goals of the educational policy?

To answer the question, the educational output of pupils in Saudi Arabian schools is not satisfactory. The schools do achieve some of their objectives but what has been achieved in the other educational aspects in terms of behaviour, experience, direction and ability etc. is still limited. This means that the curriculum does not achieve the objective of education policy in Saudi Arabia. This does not only include the curriculum itself in terms of courses, books and resources, but there may also be some shortcomings in processing the subject or deficiency in the scientific materials available. This, of course, will result in the fact that the curriculum still needs to be developed in accordance with the Saudi Arabian environment (Al-Heji, 1979, p.31).

7.5 Summary

The discussion on the question shows that:

a) The fieldwork analysis did support question 1. As noted above, headteachers with diplomas and certificates in teaching had a significant positive relationship with pupil achievement in Riyadh primary schools.

b) The findings also indicate that most of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh have diplomas and certificates in teaching.

c) The findings further show that headteachers have not received adequate training, in terms of educational administration.

d) To the present researcher, these findings are very interesting in that early studies show that headteachers who receive special training in administration may also have a positive effect upon pupil achievement – thus it can be seen that if the

headteacher has both a standard qualification in teaching and special training in education in teaching and special training in educational administration, the pupils in Riyadh primary schools might achieve more than their current level of achievement.

The fieldwork analysis did not support question 2, as noted above. Headteachers with longer experience have a significant positive effect upon pupil achievement in Riyadh primary schools. The findings also indicate that most of the headteachers of Riyadh primary schools have long experience in teaching.

The fieldwork analysis did not supports question 4. As noted above, the school's size had no significant effect upon pupil achievement.

The fieldwork analysis also supports question 10. As noted above, the headteacher styles had no significant relationship with pupil achievement.

Chapter Eight

Conclusion and Implications of this Study

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to understand the leadership style of the headteachers and its relationship with pupils' achievement in Riyadh primary schools. Riyadh is the capital city of Saudi Arabia and thus the study was carried out in an urban environment. It should be stated at this stage that although this is only one study, limited in its nature, some tentative conclusions may be drawn from it. The conclusions are based on a review of both the literature and the research findings.

8.2 Conclusion of the study

One argument in this thesis has been that any study relating to leadership style must be located in a specific cultural context with a problematic range of variables. Saudi Arabia has a unique culture with its own education system. In the literature, we found that in Saudi Arabia there is a highly centralised education system characterised by a hierarchical structure. Our findings revealed that there is a lack of precise specification of the functions and scope of various offices; and a lack of communication between the levels of a hierarchy within the system. Our finding from the literature also revealed that policy is formulated through six bodies in the Council of Ministers responsible for education. Accordingly, the findings indicate the basic educational problem in Saudi Arabia for the last 23 years is that education policy in the Kingdom has remained unchanged and the education system has remained traditional. The centralised administration has, we noted, limited reciprocal contact with the forty education districts and this is as a result of unclearly defined areas of responsibility; a lack of informal managerial communication, insufficient specialisation of personnel, and lack of frank discussions and administrative flexibility. Whilst there has been a rapid development in the quantity of education provided, we argued in Chapter 1 that this has not been matched by development in quality.

The literature review in this study indicates that there has been extensive research into the effects of leadership style. Some researchers have isolated variables such as teachers, whilst other studies have considered the impact of a combination of variables such as materials. Some studies have concluded that leadership style has a predominant influence in determining the structure of an organisation as well as the attainment of its goals. However, there is disagreement about the characteristics of good leaders and the manner in which they influence people to achieve a set of goals (Isherwood, 1985).

Analysis of the literature shows that the schools appear to have a clear idea of the role of leadership. The analysis suggests that the leader is one who will, for the benefit of the organisation, promote aims and objectives, initiate new directions in a pragmatic way, show consideration for those engaged in the organisation and promote an effective working environment (physical and social). The results of some previous studies on leadership style and their impact on effective learning of pupils, have been considered by scholars which lead to the belief that such relationships are still poorly understood. Consequently, it was felt that an evaluation of the relationship between leadership style and its effect on children's achievement in primary schools in Saudi Arabia was needed. A sample of 92 headteachers of primary schools with a total enrolment of 6,168 pupils was randomly selected from all the schools in Riyadh.

The research methodologies which were used to conduct the empirical aspect of the study, and the matters arising from viewpoints identified in the literature review, provide a framework for the conduct of the fieldwork undertaken for this study as well as sample selection. The chosen instrument was Pfeiffer's version of the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) which was designed for analysis of leadership concepts. The advantage of the LBDQ is defined as that many of the principles are common to all scientific investigations in the area of leadership style in any institution or setting. The LBDQ questionnaire enables the researcher to obtain detailed data and compile information from subjects about leadership that may not be reflected in response to the empirical or theoretical work of others. For this study it was decided to use LBDQ to accomplish the aims of describing the behaviour of the headteachers in Saudi Arabian

schools. The study takes the units of analysis as the pupils and headteachers. Thirty five questions were identified (Pfieffer and Jones adaptation, 1972) for the study and these were designed to give specific emphasis to the examination of the relationship between the three research variables: 1) education level (qualification) of the headteacher, 2) experience of the headteacher in leading the school, 3) school size (i.e. population of the pupils in the school), and 4) pupils' achievement. Statistical treatment of the data used were principle components analysis and parametric and non-parametric tests including simple frequency counts, correlation coefficient, Kendall and Chi-square, one way ANOVA and t-test. These tests were selected on the basis of their strength and appropriateness.

8.3 Conclusion specifically addressing the ten questions

In the analysis of previous studies we noted evidence that the leader does have an influence on those he leads. The present study then examined this assumption in terms of the relationship upon pupils' achievement of the headteacher's leadership style in Riyadh city. We examined this through questions; and so, it is worth following those questions, also, in drawing the conclusion as below:

Our first question examined the relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and his experience in education. The result of our field analysis revealed that this relationship does not exist in some primary schools in Riyadh, while in some others it does exist. The obvious reason for this two-fold finding, it is suggested, is that only those headteachers with a diploma in the teaching profession had this connection. Thus, those concerned with the appointment of headteachers in Saudi Arabia should bear in mind that headteachers with a diploma in the teaching profession are probably more likely to stay longer in the school (Haydn, 1990: p.18).

The second question examined the relationship between the school size and educational level (qualification) of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh. The result of our field analysis revealed that a non-significant relationship exists. This question was

analysed to understand which level of professional qualification is associated with different school sizes.

The third question examined the relationship between the school size and experience of the headteacher. The results of our field study found that no relationship exists in Riyadh primary schools. It seems that the experience of the headteacher does not promote better progress in Riyadh primary schools for boys and this finding is supported by Al-Soukar's (1984) findings among the female headteachers.

The fourth question examined the relationship between educational qualification of headteachers and pupils' achievement. The result of our field analysis revealed a significant relationship between these two variables in primary schools in Riyadh. The importance of the headteacher's qualification might be that during their school years (time they spent as a degree or diploma student) they may have learned a great deal about management of problems faced by schools; and act rationally. This seems an obvious place to start trying to improve the pupils' achievement. Thus, those concerned with the appointment of headteachers in Saudi Arabia should bear in mind that headteachers with high educational qualifications, particularly professional qualifications, are probably more able to improve pupils' academic performance and achievement.

The fifth question examines the relationship between experience of the headteachers and pupils' achievement. As Everard and Morris (1995) state:

> "In dealing with subordinates the appropriate leadership style
> may vary according to how long they have been in the job." (p.17)

Everard and Morris's (1995) comment characterises leaders who have experience as having a positive effect on their subordinates. The present field analysis at Riyadh city revealed a positive relationship between headteachers' experience and pupils attaining different levels of achievement. One must recognise, therefore, that experience may be at work in influencing pupils' achievement. Also, experience can shape headteacher effectiveness. This is a very important finding in that it can assist in throwing light on pupils' achievement in Riyadh City.

Our sixth question dealt with the relationship between school size and the pupils' achievement in the primary schools in Riyadh City. The term "school size" is used in this study to show the number of pupils enrolled in the schools. Our argument with regard to this question was that school size would have no impact on the pupils' achievement in Riyadh. The participants agreed that school size has no significant impact on pupils' achievement. In other words, school size is not related to the pupils' achievement in Riyadh. There is still, of course, room for research to understand this issue; as Goldstein (1984) argued, it is difficult to relate the size of a school to pupils' achievement since it would be difficult to isolate this factor from other variables. This particular line of argument does acknowledge that pupils' achievements are affected by school-wide factors; and there may be difficulties in identifying this relationship, but this can only be understood with the help of further research.

The seventh question examined the relationship between the educational level (qualification) of the headteacher and his style of leading school. Like the above, no relationship was found between the headteacher's qualification and the style of leading school. Some studies, such as Bossert et al. (1982) showed that the leader's background experience in leading may have an effect on their performance but in this study did not show a positive result. This could be due to the environmental difference. That is, headteachers, whatever their qualification, have different effects in different school environments.

The eighth question examined the relationship between the experience of the headteacher and his style of leading school. Like the above, it was found that no relationship exists between those elements but other studies such as that by Rogers et al. (1992) found that the leader's years of experience can contribute a great deal to the effectiveness of their leadership style of management and this seems to reveal the difference in environments.

The ninth question examined the relationship between the school size and the leadership style of the headteacher in Riyadh primary schools. As mentioned previously, no relationship was found between the two variables. It could be that the negative result was

because the headteacher's management style in Riyadh does not involve co-operation with the teachers. Also, the headteachers in Riyadh control every aspect of running the school (Dennison and Shenton, 1987).

The tenth and final question dealt with the relationship between the headteacher leadership styles and pupils' achievement. The participants in the field study agreed that leadership styles of the headteacher have no relationship with pupils' achievement. Other studies relevant to this study show that there is a relationship between leadership style of the headteacher and pupils' achievement. An example of this in terms of Riyadh city is by Al-Soukar (1984). However, Al-Soukar's (1984) participants were female headteachers and the study was carried out in intermediate schools for girls while the participants of the present study were male headteachers. Hence it is likely that gender and type of institution can make it complex to understand the effect of headteacher leadership style on pupils' achievement, and because of this the gender of the institution seems likely to affect the link between headteacher leadership style and pupils' achievement; and this should be confirmed by future studies. In addition, it is true, of course, that headteachers have got to use some styles of leadership in the day-to-day running of the school. But as this study shows, especially the section on the literature review, headteachers in Saudi Arabia follow the regulations passed to them from the Ministry of Education. In other words, the headteachers do not have the right to use their own authority, rather they have got to follow the regulations issued by the Ministry of Education. If they do not follow the regulations they may be dismissed.

8.4 Principal components analysis

Principal components analysis was one of the methods used to analyse data in this study. The basic aim of principal components analysis was to examine whether factors or groups of items existed to which headteachers replied in a similar way. Three factors explained 26.4 per cent of the total variance. The three factors included 20 of the variables. The procedure identified these factors, represented by 8 variables described as spokesman and manager, 8 variables described as striving for achievement and professionalism, and

4 variables described as autocratic. These factors seemed generally appropriate for the present study.

8.5 The main findings from the analysis of data

Statistically, qualifications of the headteacher and also initial teacher training and non teacher training had a significant relationship with pupils' achievement, and also the headteacher's experience with pupils' achievement (see Tables 4.9 and 4.10), but we found no significant relationship between biographical variables and any of the three headteacher leadership styles, namely spokesman and manager, striving for achievement and professionalism, and autocratic (see Tables 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5).

8.6 Selected Conclusion

In general, the results obtained have led to the following conclusions. The leadership style of headteachers of Riyadh primary schools was characterised by three styles which were spokesman and manager, striving for achievement and professionalism, and autocratic styles. The freedom of headteachers to act was constrained by the administrative system. Most of the headteachers held a teaching diploma qualification. Most of the headteachers had considerable experience in teaching and as a headteacher, but few had training in leadership and management. The leadership style of the headteachers of primary schools in Riyadh had no observable significance in its impact on pupil achievement. This may be due to bureaucratic factors in the wider education system, which have also a predominant influence on the work and running of school.

8.7 Comments on strengths and limitations of the study

One criticism from earlier studies reviewed above place the quality of leadership central to the effectiveness of school education. But in the present study this aspect of leadership receives less attention because the Pfeiffer and Jones (1972) version of the LBDQ did not focus on it. It would be valuable, in formal terms, to provide a clear sense of direction in this area in the whole of Saudi Arabian education so as to emphasise the importance of headteacher effectiveness.

A second criticism is that this study focuses mainly on the effectiveness of leadership style in school education, rather than on educational governors' attitudes towards the headteachers' leadership qualities. The leadership style, particularly of headteachers, is vitally important in understanding the effectiveness of individual schools, because of individual differences among headteachers.

A third criticism which could be made is that the outcome of the present analysis is 'good' in the sense that it showed no evidence of a relationship between pupils' achievement and the headteacher's leadership style in Saudi Arabia. However, this study was brief, due to time limitations. It would be valuable to examine this in all Saudi Arabian schools in more detail.

More specifically, this study did not analyse in detail questions concerning the school climate, what the theories say about this, and practical issues in terms of Saudi Arabian educational administration methods. Leadership involves providing a good school climate. This has to be analysed as a whole.

Although this study analyses the relationship between pupils' achievement and the headteacher's leadership style, the available details about pupils' achievement were limited. Further research in this area would be valuable in order to shed more light upon this situation.

The data were collected by using questionnaires on a sample of 92 primary school headteachers in Riyadh City, the capital city of Saudi Arabia. It revealed interesting evidence on leadership in primary schools in Riyadh, but inevitably there were gaps (e.g. the interaction between the individual and situational variables). Further research in this area, at a national level, might improve our understanding of the situation.

For example, there is the question of who becomes a school headteacher? It is apparent from the project's findings that administrative behaviour in the Saudi Arabian educational system is a problem. The current practice of the appointment of autocratic headteachers is quite inappropriate, as it leads to poor personal relationships with staff and colleagues in the Ministry. For a teacher to become a headteacher, he/she must have a personal

relationship with persons in a position of high educational authority. In so far as this study's respondents are concerned, purposeful headteachers who encourage learning and the continuing development of the school need to be appointed democratically on the basis of merit.

Although this study did not set out to determine the link between governors/local education authorities and headteachers, the organisational structure shows that there is a practical link between them, particularly as educational governors such as the Ministry of Education, play an important role in determining school policy. This connection should be taken into account when considering pupils' achievement.

For similar reasons, those concerned with management training should provide training for administrators, such as headteachers. A detailed analysis should be undertaken of the conditions of work, both in the Ministry and in schools, which encourage the possibility of learning.

8.7.1   Some unavoidable limitations

Our measurement of children's achievement is subject to criticism because children are actually pushed to pass examinations. Children study to pass examinations, as examinations are the most important reason for children being sent to school in Saudi Arabia. Future research, however, should use a wider range of measures of achievement.

Finally, translation from Arabic to English was a problem, since the researcher was educated mainly in Saudi Arabia. This difficulty was most apparent when reviewing circulations, bulletins and articles which were in Arabic. Some Arabic phrases were difficult to translate into English. Also, the Saudi Arabian people who prepare these documents are not educated enough in Arabic. This might have caused some weakness in the study.

8.8   Implications for educational leadership

The implications for educational leadership are based on the perceptions of male Saudi Arabian primary school headteachers regarding the relationship with pupil achievement. The implications are proposed and they relate to the findings of the study.

8.8.1 Priority implications

Implication (1)

The present study showed a relationship between pupils' achievement and headteachers holding a Diploma in education. So, this gives a possible direction for appointment. From this perspective the present researcher would advocate that the administration of schools should be in the hands of those people who hold a Diploma in education because they have often received comprehensive training in education administration. In addition it is important to consider the traits and characteristics of effective leaders such as energy level, personal self esteem, dominance, emotional stability; and in terms of intelligence, friendly verbal interaction in different situations and the ability effectively to manage the school environment. It may however be recognised that other factors such as a more privileged pupil intake could influence the results and further research is needed on this issue. It is important for the person who is appointed as headteacher of the school to have had experience in teaching. The educational experience of the persons who are appointed headteachers of schools should be considered.

Justification: Few of the headteachers have diplomas or have followed any systematic or comprehensive programme of study or experiential learning in the field of administrative behaviour such as communication skills and people-orientation, prior to taking up the post of headteacher. These are vital for effective educational administrative leadership.

Implication (2)

The present study considers that in-service training should take place periodically during the school year. Headteachers should be granted time to attend in- service training. In-service training should serve two purposes: leadership role and other issues of concern expressed by headteachers should be addressed; and headteachers should have the opportunity for in-service training to meet and discuss topics such as educational/administrative issues and areas of concern with other headteachers. In-service training should include sessions on communication skills, supervisory practice,

instruction and curriculum development, goal setting, monitoring and evaluation and new trends in innovations in education. In- service training should, also, emphasise discussion of experiences rather than lecture situations and encourage dialogue between headteachers through the use of small group or workshop formats.

Justification: Because of remote geographic locations, time constraints and other responsibilities, participants favoured in-service training. In-service training enables consistent and timely refresher and retraining opportunities in administrative behaviour which addresses communication skills, proactive behaviour, non-authoritarian organisational skills, people oriented collaboration, innovation, high visibility, goal setting, monitoring and evaluation, regarding teachers as professionals and offering instruction and curriculum development. In Chapter 1 we argued that many headteachers lacked administrative skills and needed training in that area, however good they might have been as teachers.

Implication (3)

As the result of the present research, consideration should be given to the impact of the headteacher, the teacher and the school on pupils' achievement in general. This should be evaluated with reference to experience in teaching and social relations. The examination results should also be evaluated frequently. The evaluation system should use defined standards and principles that can be utilised as agreed by those who are in charge of education to set goals for pupil achievement and to identify the problems which may be facing the children during their schooling.

Justification: This implication is based on the participants' identified need for closer relations and greater effectiveness with pupils in school. The LBDQ stressed the importance of morale among the teaching staff and the beneficial effect upon pupils' learning with teachers who had high morale.

Implication (4)

This study considers that guidelines and criteria should be established to determine headteacher training. Co-operation with universities should be established and maintained to advise the Ministry of Education in developing programmes such as management training and staff development.

Justification: This implication is based on the participants' identified need from the administration of LBDQ for closer relations and better communication with experts in administrative behaviour addressing communication skills, proactive organisational skills, collaboration and innovation. It is no longer sufficient in the modern world to rely upon a teacher's character to allow him to become a truly effective headteacher without specific training.

Implication (5)

The present study considers that for effective leadership, guidelines and criteria should be established for the selection of headteachers by the Ministry of Education. In considering appointments, school headteachers should be required to produce administrative credentials before appointment. Other evidence which should be required as important criteria in the selection process are teaching qualifications and other training in administrative skills.

Justification: Administrative credentials are essential to the appointment of headteachers, addressing communication skills, people orientation, collaboration, innovation, high visibility, goal setting, monitoring and evaluation and strengthening of decision-making skills.

8.8.2 Non priority implications

Implication (6)

The present study impressed the researcher with concern for how important human relations and task performance are in schools. Further research should be undertaken by the universities in Saudi Arabia relating to concern for task (productivity in school) and

people (relationships between staff in school). The findings should be disseminated to headteachers in schools.

Justification: This would provide an opportunity to address administrative behaviours associated with effective educational leadership which the headteachers have identified as important (task and relationship performance in school).

8.9 Implications for further research

8.9.1 Justification of the implications for further research

The author delimited the study in the following ways.

1. The study was limited to 92 primary schools within Riyadh City in Saudi Arabia with enrollment totalling 6,168 pupils. The results of the study are generalisable only to such schools in an urban setting in Saudi Arabia.

2. The study was limited to investigation of leadership style and pupil achievement. There was no opportunity to measure teachers' perceptions of the leadership style of their headteacher. It is also important to understand the school climate as well as to look at the relationship between pupils' home background and achievement. It is on the basis of this, that research should be a continuous process including the following implications for further research:

8.9.2 First implication for further research

Further research is required on the relationship between leadership style, school climate and pupil achievement. The purpose of this would be to explore in detail the interrelationship between leadership style and aspects of the climate in a school and the consequent impact on children's achievement.

The methodology would include:

1. A questionnaire to measure teachers' perceptions of the leadership style of the headteachers and the impact of school climate on teaching and learning.

2. Pupil achievement should be measured by using scores obtained from the final examination.

3. Personal interviews with the headteachers should be conducted by the researcher.

8.9.3 Second implication for further research

Further research needs to be undertaken on teachers' perceptions of the general impact of different kinds of leadership style in primary schools. The objective of the study would be to explore which leadership styles of headteachers are acceptable to teachers and are effective for helping in running the school.

The methodology of the study should also be based on questionnaires with a sample of teachers.

8.9.4 Third implication for further research.

Further research needs to be conducted for understanding the relationship between pupils' home background and their achievement in schools. The objective of the research could be to ascertain which factors in the home environment and parental relationships with schools have a positive or negative effect on children's achievement.

This study would be based on a sample of successful and unsuccessful children at school. A comparison would be made of factors in the home environment and parental relationship with the school between the two sample groups.

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Appendix 1

Pfeiffer and Jones' adaptation of the LBDQ Questionnaire used in this Study

Letter of Consent

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between leadership styles and student achievement. Focusing upon the perceptions and opinions of the relationship between leadership styles and student achievement at the elementary school in Riyadh, capital of Saudi Arabia.

In order to accomplish this, you are requested to complete a questionnaire on leadership styles in education.

There is no risk of identification from your participation in the study; you will not be identified by name and any data obtained will be strictly confidential.

Thank you deeply,

your colleague

M. Al-Fozan

Doctoral student

University of Durham

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

A variety of administrators' educational behaviours has been identified as affecting educational leadership styles.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to explore the leadership styles of headteachers. Below are a series of statements regarding educational leadership styles.

This questionnaire is designed to provide an assessment of headteacher styles in their role as leaders of their respective schools.

We believe the headteacher has a very important effect on learning as a whole and we want to know what relationship the head has with student achievement.

The information garnered from this questionnaire will be used to contribute to the theory on educational leadership styles.

Answers will remain strictly confidential.

The complete co-operation of all those who participate is essential to this study and for this I give my grateful thanks to all contributors.

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

The following items describe aspects of leadership behaviour. Respond to each item according to the way you would be most likely to act if you were headteacher of a school. Circle whether you would be likely to behave in the described ways:

A	Always
F	Frequently
O	Occasionally
S	Seldom
N	Never

	As the headteacher of a school:	A F O S N
1	I would most likely act as the spokesman for school staff in my school.	1 2 3 4 5
2	I would encourage overtime work.	1 2 3 4 5
3	I would allow the school staff complete freedom in their work.	1 2 3 4 5
4	I would encourage the use of uniform procedures.	1 2 3 4 5
5	I would permit the school staff to use their own initiative in solving problems.	1 2 3 4 5
6	In my role as headteacher I would stress to my school staff the virtue of competing with other staff.	1 2 3 4 5
7	I would speak as a representative of the school staff.	1 2 3 4 5
8	I would urge school staff to greater effort.	1 2 3 4 5
9	I would try out my ideas on the school staff.	1 2 3 4 5
10	I would let the school staff do their work the way they think best.	1 2 3 4 5
11	I would be working hard for promotion.	1 2 3 4 5
12	I would be able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.	1 2 3 4 5
13	I would speak for the school staff when visitors were present.	1 2 3 4 5
14	I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace.	1 2 3 4 5
15	I would be prepared to let the school staff take on tasks and let them get on with it without my direct supervision.	1 2 3 4 5
16	I would settle conflicts when they occurred among school staff.	1 2 3 4 5
17	I would get swamped by details.	1 2 3 4 5
18	I would represent the school staff at outside meetings.	1 2 3 4 5
19	I would be reluctant to allow school staff any freedom of action.	1 2 3 4 5
20	I would decide what needed to be done and how it should be done.	1 2 3 4 5
21	I would push school staff for increased production.	1 2 3 4 5
22	I would relinquish some authority to those members of the school staff whom I could trust.	1 2 3 4 5

	As the headteacher of a school:	A F O S N
23	Results of implementations put into force would usually turn out as I predict.	1 2 3 4 5
24	I would allow the school staff a large measure of initiative.	1 2 3 4 5
25	I would assign particular tasks to school staff.	1 2 3 4 5
26	I would be willing to make changes.	1 2 3 4 5
27	I would ask the school staff to work harder.	1 2 3 4 5
28	I would schedule the work to be done.	1 2 3 4 5
29	I would trust the school staff to exercise good judgment.	1 2 3 4 5
30	I would refuse to explain my actions.	1 2 3 4 5
31	I would persuade others that my ideas were to their advantage.	1 2 3 4 5
32	I would permit the school staff to set its own pace.	1 2 3 4 5
33	I would urge school staff to beat their previous record.	1 2 3 4 5
34	I would act without consulting the school staff.	1 2 3 4 5
35	I would expect that school staff follow standard rules and regulations.	1 2 3 4 5

Demographic Information: Part Two

Questions 36-38 as variables on demographic information about the participants in this study.

36. Highest level of education of the headteacher of primary school in Riyadh

    a.   Diploma

    b.   Batchelor's degree

    c.   Other

37. Years of experience of the headteacher

    a.   0-9

    b.   10-19

    c.   20+

38. Size of school (population of students in school)

    a.   0-300

    b.   301-600

    c.   601+

Appendix 1

Arabic Version

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أبي الزميل العزيز

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركته وبعد:

أن أحد زملائكم أعد للحصول على درجة الدكتوراة في مجال الادارة التربوية بعنوان: "أنماط القيادة الادارية وأثرها في التحصيل الدراسي لطلاب المرحلة الابتدائية".

وبهذا لابد من توضيح حقيقتين هامتين:

أولاهما: انه لدى افتراض مؤده: ان النمط الاداري لمدير المدرسة باعتباره قائدا تربويا يتحكم في مجاله في معطيات العملية التربوية التي يتصدى لها ضمن حدود حرية ممارسته لمسئولياته الوظيفية؛ وبعيدا عن الذهاب الى الظن الذى سأحاول جاهدا اثباته جزما يتعدى حدود الظن وان بعض الظن اثم وعليه فانه لامندوحة من تسليط الضوء وتكثيف على القائد التربوي باعتباره رأس العملية التربوية جريا على الحكمة القائله اذا اصلح الاساس شمخ البناء وطالما اننا بصدد هذا الموضوع تطرح اذهاننا الحكمة التربوية الاكثر صيتا وذيوعا وانتشارا بين اوساط التربويين تؤكد على انه اذا كانت اخطاء الاطباء توري في التراب فان أخطاء المدرسين تسعى على الارض ولاغرو أن الحق سبحانه وتعالى ارسل خاتم الانبياء والمرسلين معلما.

ولأن من أهم خصائص دعوة الاسلام الذى هو صالح لكل زمان ومكان انه دين العلم والايمان، لذا فهو يؤهلنا للتعامل من الخبرة الانسانية نأخذ منها مايفيدنا ويتلائم مع ديننا الاسلامي.

وبناء على ماتقدم فانه يصبح من الضروري النظر بتمعن والبحث بعين فاحصة ونافذة في هذا المجال الخيري الا وهو مجال القيادة الادارية التربوية.

زميلك
محمد بن أحمد الفوزان

"بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم"

الموضوع استبانة عن أنماط القيادة التربوية وأثرها في أنماط القيادة الادارية وأثرها في التحصيل الدراسي لطلاب المرحلة الابتدائية بمدينة الرياض

أخي وزميلي مدير المدرسة:

السلام عليكم ورحمه الله وبركاته

وبعد

ان الغرض من هـذة الدراسـة هـى تحديـد تأثير أنماط القيـادة الادارية التربوية وأثرها في التحصيـل الدراسـي للطلاب. والمطلوب منك أيها الزميل العزيز هو المشاركة واعطاء الرأى حول تأثير أنماط القيادة الادارية التربوية في التحصيل الدراسي لطلاب المرحلة الابتدائية بمدارس الرياض كنموذج لمدارس المملكة.

ومن أجل اكمال هذه الدراسة المطلوب منك أخي هو الاجابة عن هذه الأستبانة، وكذلك تزويد الباحث عـن عدد طلاب الصف الخـامس الابتدائي ونتـائجهم في امتحـان الـدور الأول والثـاني مـن حيـث عـدد النـاجحين والراسبين للعام الدراسي ١٤١١هجرية.

ومن حيث اجابتك عن الأستبانة فلا داعي لذكر الأسم وسوف تكون اجابتك بـسرية تامة.

ومع شكري وتقديري لك

زميلك/ محمد بن أحمد الفوزان

طالب، درجة الدكتوراة

جامعة درم/بريطانيا

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

هذه الرسالة مترجمة من الانجليزي الى العربي بواسطة الباحث

أخي مدير المدرسة:

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته..وبعد

آمل تعبئة الاستبانة بوضع علامة (   ) أمام الخانة التي تناسبك راجيا قراءته بدقة وأناة بكـل صـراحـة وصدق مع عدم ذكر الاسم علما بأنه سيستخدم لاغراض البحث فقط.

شاكرا ومقدرا تعاونكم.

كما آمل تعبئة البيانات التالية قبل الاجابة:

١- المؤهل الدراسي   بكالوريوس

دبلوم

ثانوي

معهد معلمين

أخرى

٢- التخصص   تربوي   غير تربوي

٣- عدد سنوات الخبرة في التعليم

٤- عدد سنوات الخبرة كمدير مدرسة

٥- عدد الطلاب

أخي الزميل مدير المدرسة. أرجو التفضل بالاجابة عن كل عبارة من العبارات التالية مستخدما المعيار الآتي:

١- دائما (د)

٢- كثيرا (ك)

٣- أحيانا (أ)

٤- نادرا (ن)

٥- مطلقا (م)

وواضعا دائرة حول الرقم فى كل اجابة عن كل فقرة تمثل رأيك.

<u>بأعتبارى مدير للمدرسة فانني:</u>

د.ك.أ.ن.م

٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١- أصر على أن أكون المتحدث بأسم المدرسين فى مدرستى
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢- فانني سأشجع العمل الاضافي للمحافظة على مستوى الانتاج
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣- فانني سأعطي حرية كبيرة لأعضاء هيئة التدريس عند ممارسة اعمالهم.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٤- فانني سأشجع باستخدام اجراءات موحدة في أداء الاعمال.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٥- فانني سأسمح للمدرسين بأن يحكموا عقولهم في حل المشكلات الزبويـة الـتي يواجهونها.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٦- فانني سأركز على ان تكون هيئتنا التدريسيه في مقدمة الهيئات التدريسية.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٧- فانني سأصر على تمثيل الهيئة التدريسية.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٨- فانني سأستحث المدرسين على بذل جهد اكبر.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٩- فانني سأجعل من الهيئة التدريسية مجالا لاختيار افكاري.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٠- فانني سأترك للمدرسين الحريـة في ان يقومـوا بأعمالهم بالطريقـة الـتي يـرون أنها أحسن الطرق للانجاز.

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

هذه الاسئلة مترجمة من الانجليزي الى العربي بواسطة الباحث

٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١١- فإني سأبذل قصارى جهدي لأحصل على ترقية.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٢- فإني سأسمح ببعض التأجيل والغموض في أداء الأعمال.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٣- فإني سأتحدث باسم المدرسين عندما يزور المدرسة أحد.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٤- فإني سأجعل العمل يسير بخطوات سريعة.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٥- فإني سأسمح للمدرسين الحرية الكاملة في أداء عمل ما.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٦- فإني سأسوي الخلافات عندما تظهر بين المدرسين.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٧- فإني سأقضي معظم وقتي في دراسة التفصيلات الدقيقة.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٨- فإني سأمثل المدرسين في المؤتمرات والاجتماعات الخارجية.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	١٩- فإني سأتردد في اعطاء المدرسين أية حرية في العمل.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٠- فإني سأقرر الأعمال التي يقوم بها المدرسون وكيف.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢١- فإني سأحث المدرسين لمزيد من الانتاج.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٢- فإني سأفوض للمدرسين بعضا من صلاحياتي.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٣- فإن الأمور ستنتهي الى حيث توقعت لها أن تنتهي.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٤- فإني سأسمح للمدرسين بقدر أكبر من المبادأة.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٥- فإني سأحدد لكل مدرس من المدرسين عملا محددا يقوم به.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٦- فإني سأرغب لأحداث تغييرات.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٧- فإني سأطلب الى المدرسين بذل المزيد من الجهد.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٨- فإني سأضع ثقتي في المدرسين لأن يمارسوا حقهم في التفكير.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٢٩- فإني سأضع جدولا زمنيا لانهاء الأعمال.

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

هذه الاسئلة مترجمة من الانجليزي الى العربي بواسطة الباحث

د. لا. أ. ن. م

٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣٠- فإني سأرفض تفسير ومناقشة أعمالي.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣١- فإني سأقنع الآخرين ان افكاري هي لصالحهم.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣٢- فإني سأسمح للمدرسين ان تسير أعمالهم بالسرعة.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣٣- فإني سأحث المدرسين على أن يتفوقوا على ماكانوا قد سجلوه من انجازات من قبل.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣٤- فإني سأتصرف دون أن استثير المدرسين.
٥،٤،٣،٢،١	٣٥- فإني سأطلب من المدرسين أن يتبعوا قواعد وتنظيمات محددة ومقننه.

(1`) Wiliam Pfeir & Jones Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relation Training, Vol. 1, Iowa City University Associations Press 1969.

الترجمة الى العربي/ترجمة الباحث

Educational Leadership Styles Questionnaire

هذه الاسئلة مترجمة من الانجليزي الى العربي بواسطة الباحث

Appendix 2

Summary of Data from Questionnaires

School	Headteacher Experience	School Size	Qualification Cert. Level	Pupil Pass First	Pupil Pass Second	Pass Percentage	Pupil Fail	Pupil Numbers
1.	27	377	P	56	4	98.36	1	61
2.	17	445	P	92	14	97.25	3	109
3.	29	267	D	47	5	100.00	0	52
4.	8	545	D	60	24	93.33	6	90
5.	9	306	D	51	0	100.00	0	51
6.	13	395	D	33	24	79.17	15	72
7.	14	235	D	15	4	79.17	5	24
8.	13	203	B	15	0	100.00	0	15
9.	14	420	D	50	4	94.74	3	57
10.	17	580	D	52	21	93.59	5	78
11.	15	180	B	15	3	100.00	0	18
12.	10	500	D	53	22	98.68	1	76
13.	17	1350	D	191	52	99.18	2	245
14.	17	780	D	122	2	82.12	27	151
15.	28	222	D	16	7	100.00	0	23
16.	12	532	D	87	4	100.00	0	91
17.	17	322	D	43	10	96.36	2	55
18.	12	222	D	44	10	100.00	0	54
19.	26	350	P	51	2	100.00	0	53
20.	7	328	P	28	9	94.87	2	39
21.	9	215	D	11	7	66.67	9	27
22.	14	426	D	23	15	74.51	13	51
23.	5	486	D	76	20	86.49	15	111
24.	17	720	D	68	33	87.07	15	116
25.	6	453	D	44	15	92.19	5	64
26.	14	347	D	27	15	95.45	2	44
27.	5	491	P	37	25	71.26	25	87
28.	14	400	D	31	20	85.00	9	60
29.	11	250	D	22	9	100.00	0	31
30.	5	476	D	49	11	86.96	9	69
31.	6	516	D	46	12	93.55	4	62
32.	26	463	D	45	10	91.67	5	60
33.	28	351	D	43	4	85.45	8	55
34.	30	500	D	41	19	78.95	16	76
35.	10	392	D	47	17	88.89	8	72
36.	8	408	D	65	14	97.53	2	81
37.	18	333	D	46	4	94.34	3	53
38.	14	530	D	90	4	97.92	2	96
39.	17	300	D	33	8	85.42	7	48
40.	14	383	D	45	11	90.32	6	62
41.	14	460	D	36	17	89.83	6	59
42.	3	352	B	16	3	70.37	8	27
43.	13	230	D	27	7	94.44	2	36
44.	7	496	D	19	17	45.57	43	79
45.	6	600	D	67	15	94.25	5	87
46.	4	520	D	44	20	71.91	25	89

School	Headteacher Experience	School Size	Qualification Cert. Level	Pupil Pass First	Pupil Pass Second	Pass Percentage	Pupil Fail	Pupil Numbers
47.	12	291	D	37	10	97.92	1	48
48.	12	227	D	35	3	100.00	0	38
49.	3	530	D	61	13	92.50	6	80
50.	17	434	D	47	6	94.64	3	56
51.	16	730	D	71	11	91.11	8	90
52.	14	605	D	78	7	86.73	13	98
53.	22	540	D	78	5	100.00	0	83
54.	23	512	D	62	12	78.72	20	94
55.	8	582	D	49	16	89.04	8	73
56.	5	280	D	25	8	84.62	6	39
57.	15	545	D	67	16	93.26	6	89
58.	10	715	D	40	25	92.86	5	70
59.	28	600	B	48	20	87.18	10	78
60.	12	554	D	70	13	91.21	8	91
61.	7	387	D	48	17	90.28	7	72
62.	10	356	D	28	16	97.78	1	45
63.	4	401	B	37	22	83.10	12	71
64.	10	580	D	47	33	82.47	17	97
65.	14	108	D	9	4	92.86	1	14
66.	10	430	D	60	2	100.00	0	62
67.	7	466	B	20	22	72.41	16	58
68.	7	275	B	14	9	74.19	8	31
69.	10	137	P	13	1	100.00	0	14
70.	10	362	D	43	7	100.00	0	50
71.	8	615	D	72	14	86.00	14	100
72.	10	450	D	68	17	96.59	3	88
73.	5	316	B	49	7	96.55	2	58
74.	2	350	B	25	12	86.05	6	43
75.	4	210	B	12	10	88.00	3	25
76.	7	528	D	51	21	84.71	13	85
77.	5	403	B	45	9	98.18	1	55
78.	2	537	B	61	13	93.67	5	79
79.	12	372	D	30	14	86.27	7	51
80.	12	500	D	50	21	84.52	13	84
81.	10	457	D	41	16	93.44	4	61
82.	8	260	D	32	9	93.18	3	44
83.	18	350	D	36	12	100.00	0	48
84.	21	672	D	67	21	91.67	8	96
85.	6	292	D	27	20	100.00	0	47
86.	6	240	D	19	6	80.65	6	31
87.	22	556	D	48	30	95.12	4	82
88.	22	300	D	45	19	94.12	4	68
89.	21	198	D	22	10	91.43	3	35
90.	2	290	B	32	10	89.36	5	47
91.	17	327	D	31	7	86.36	6	44
92.	20	320	D	47	10	91.94	5	62

Appendix 3

Sample Examination of the
Primary School Pupils in Riyadh

Jurisprudence Subject Examination

First Question: (8 Marks)

-       What does the prayer say in the following cases?

a.   After exclaiming God is great: the opening call: "_____

b.   In the setting between the two prostrations: "_____

c.   After rising from kneeling: "God listen to who praised Him, Praise be to God _____

d.   If he went out of his house even if for not prayers, "By the name of God, I trust in God, no power but of God _____

Second Question: (9 Marks)

a.   Count the Sand ablution resolutories:

1.   2.   3.

b.   Define clean water, mention an example:

Clean water is _____

Example: _____

c.   When does the period of slippers wiping start and when does it end?

It starts: _____

and ends: _____

d.   Complete the following:

1.   The Prophet, peace be upon him, says concerning the looking around during the prayers: It is a peeping at made by: _____

2.   God Say:

Third Question: (9 Marks)

a. Why has inattention prostration been legislated? In attention prostration has been legislated _____

b. When does imam raise his voice when reading? He raises his voice when reading

_____

c. Put a circle around the correct answer of the following:

1. Passing between the prayer and his veil.

(Forbidden – repugnant – Tradition)

2. To put a line in case of not finding any veil.

(repugnant – tradition – obligatory)

3. The prayer's looking at the position of his prostration.

(Forbidden – repugnant – Tradition)

4. The group prayer

(obligatory – tradition)

5. The person who denies the obligation of the prayer, and he knows the verdict is

(Muslim – unbeliever)

Question Four: (9 Marks)

a. What are the prayer misfortunes?

1.   2.   3.

b. Tick (/) for true or cross (X) for false after every phrase.

1. Group prayer is less than three on Friday and Eid time. (   )

2. Sand Ablution is made before the time due of next prayer. (   )

3. One who prays with a group, done bow, does it mean that he cannot catch the group prayer. (   )

4. Inattention prostration means two, one pre and one post the finish. (   )

5. The prayer can continue with Immam if he missed one bow. (   )

6. It is allowed to clean yourself with a little distry water. (   )

Mathematics Subject Examination

First Question:

a.   Complete the following by using the multiplication features:

34 x 102 = 34 (+   ) =   +   =

b.   Complete this table:

In letters	In figures
Forty million, five hundred and three thousand and two hundred and thirty	
	94002002

c.   The number which immediately precedes 5361000 is _____

d.   Write down the prime numbers enclosed between 1 and 10.

e.   Underline the prime numbers among the following:

11 – 12 – 13 – 15 – 27 – 29 – 31 – 33

f.   Complete analyzing the number 330 to its prime factors:
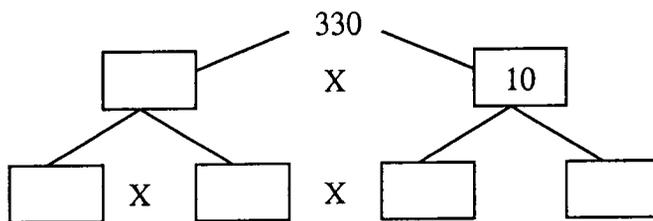
Second Question: (6 Marks)

a.   Count the result of the division and the rest, if there is, pointing out all the steps:

$\overline{322}|\underline{14}$ $\overline{9601}|\underline{102}$

b.   WHat is the number that if we divide it to 9, the result is 7 and the rest is 8.

c.   A teacher has bought 6 pens and 14 books for Najd Magazine editor family with the amount SR 312. If the price of one pen is SR17, calculate the price of one book.

Third Question:

a. Complete the drawing of the triangle, a b c in which the length of [ac] = 4 cm, BC = 3 cm.

<div align="center">

_____

b   a

</div>

b. Complete the drawing of the triangle a b c in which

$\hat{a} = 100°$ $\hat{c} = 60°$.

<div align="center">

_____

b   a

</div>

c. In the above triangle, draw the bisector of the angle $\hat{a}$ and call it as:

Fourth Question: (9 Marks)

a. A rhombus has two symmetry axes, what are they?

b. The square has a symmetry centre which is _____

c. Calculate the side length of the square which perimeter is 36cm.

d. Draw the symmetry axis for this rectangle.

e. Draw the rhombus which lengths of its two diagonals are: 6 cm and 4 cm.

f. A farm was like a rectangle surrounded by a wire of 5 times. The price of every metre of this wire is 6 riyals. The total cost has reached SR 4500, then find:

     a. the rectangle perimeter;

     b. the rectangle width if its length is 56 cm.

Fifth Question:

a. Complete the following equal fractions:

$$\frac{}{4} = \frac{3}{12} = \frac{5}{}$$

b. Change (19/6) into a fraction number.

c. Find the outcome of the following, showing all processes required:

1. $\frac{5}{6} + \frac{1}{12} =$

2. $\frac{3}{4} - \frac{5}{8} =$

3. $7\frac{1}{5} + 2\frac{3}{10} =$

4. $\frac{7}{2} \times (\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{5}) =$

d. Ahmad has 21 riyals. He gave his brother Khalid three seventh of what he has. How many riyals do remain with him?

History Subject Examination

First Question: (10 Marks)

Complete the following:

1. Sa'eed Bin Abi Waqqas had defeated the Persians at _____ battle.

2. In the era of Caliph Othman Bin Affan, the Islamic Fleet opened the two islands of _____, and _____, and the Muslim fleet also defeated the Byzantian fleet in the _____ battle near Alexandria.

3. Egypt was opened in the time of the caliph _____ by the hero leader _____.

4. The coastal and interior cities of Palestine were opened by _____ and _____, then Muslims could enter Jerusalem in _____H.

5. Al-Walid Bin Abdul Malik was born in _____. He is the sixth caliph in the times of the Ommaiads. He ruled for twenty years.

Second Question: (5 Marks)

Put a tick (/) for true and a cross (X) for false next to the following statements:

1. The Orthodox caliphate era lasted for 30 years.   (   )

2. Abu Bakr Al-Siddiq had recommended the Caliphate to Ali Bin Abi Taleb. (   )

3. The Persian King Yazd Jerd was killed at Marro town.   (   )

4. The number of the Ommiad Caliphs had reached 91.   (   )

5. Abu Bakr Al-Siddiq bless him, was born in Mekkah.   (   )

6. Othman Bin Affan had donated all his property for Al-Asra army.   (   )

7. Qutaiba Bin Muslim Al-Bahili had reached the Chinese Border.   (   )

8. Mu'awia Bin Abi Sufian was born in the Medina.   (   )

9. Oqba Bin Nafe' had established Al-Qairawan city in Tunis.　(　)

10. The first action carried out by Abu Bakr Al-Siddiq when he became a Caliph, was to prepare Osama Bin Zaid army for fighting Rome.　(　)

Third Question: (6 Marks)

Choose the correct answer:

1. When Khalid Bin Al-Walid left Iraq to Syria, He made (Sharhabil Bin Hasnah – Al-Muthanna Bin Haritha – Amro Bin Al-Ass) as his deputy there.

2. The leader who opened Khaibar was: (Khalid Bin Al-Walid – Abu Obaidah – Ali Bin Abi Taleb).

3. The Ommiad state founder is: (Abdul Malik Bin Marwan – Al Walid Bin Abdul Malik – Muawia Bin Abi Suffian).

4. Ali Bin Abi Taleb had shifted the centre of the Caliphate from Medina to Kufa: (for its plentiful rain – for the large number of his advocates – for its good atmosphere).

5. The leader of the victors of Ajnadeen Battle with Rome was (Osama Bin Zaid – Saed Bin Abi Waqqas – Khalid Bin Al- Walid).

6. Abdullah Bin Sabba, a Jew who embraced Islam cheating, had made a sedition causing at the death of (Omar Bin Al-Khattab – Othman Bin Affan – Ali Bin Ali Taleb).

Fourth Question: (14 Marks)

Interpret the following (give the reason):

1. Omar Bin Al-Khattab was known as Al-Farouq.

2. Othman Bin Affan was known as Thi-Al-Nourain.

3. Omar Bin Al-Khattab had adopted Hijra Calendering.

4. Al-Hasan Bin Ali had renounced the caliphate for Muawia Bin Abi Sufian.

5. Muawia Bin Abi Sufain's making Damascus the capity of the Ommad state.

6. The discontinuity of the Islamic openings is the ear of Ali Bin Abi Taleb.

7. Muslims could not open qustantine in the era of Mu'awia Bin Abi Sufian.

Appendix 4

Letter of Consent from Ministry of Education

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة المعارف
المديرية العامة للتعليم بمنطقة الرياض
الشئون التعليمية / مكتب التوجيه

الرقـم : ١٨٧ ....
التاريخ : ....
المشفوعات: ....

الموضوع : ....

المكرم / مدير مدرسة .... الابتدائيه .... المحترم .

السلام عليكم ورحمه الله وبركاته ، وبعـــــد .

بناءً على خطاب مدير عام البحوث التربوية والتقويم رقم ١٤٠ /١٧/٤ فى ١١ /٥ /١٤١٢هـ حول
الباحث الاستاذ / محمد أحمد الفوزان أحد المبتعثين الى بريطانيا اجراء بحث بعنوان (أنماط ال......
الادارية التربوية وأثرها فى التحصيل الدراسي لطلاب المرحله الابتدائيه بالرياض .

وحيث أن مدرستكم ضمن المدارس المختاره للبحث ، آملى تسهيل مهمته عند زيارته المدرسه .

ولكم تحياتـــــــى .... ،

المشرف على الادارة العامة للتعليم بمنطقه الرياض

(م. الجرنين) ١٤ /٥ /١٤١٢هـ .   د / عبدالعزيز بن عبد الرحمن الثنيـان
صوره . لمكتب التوجيه
صوره . للملـف

الرقم : ....

التاريخ : ١٤١١/١/....

المشفوعات : ....

الموضوع : بشأن السماح باجراء بحث

سعادة / مدير عام التعليم بمنطقة الرياض .... المحترم

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، وبعد ،

تقدم لنا : الباحث محمد احمد الفوزان ـ أحد الطلبــة المبتعثين الى بريطانيا .

بطلـب : السماح باجراء بحث بعنوان " أنماط القيادة الادارية التربوية وأثرها في التحصيل الدراسي لطلاب المرحلة الابتدائيــة بالريــاض " .

نأمـل الســماح لـ باجراء البحث مع ملاحظة أن الباحث (أو الباحثين) يتحمل كامل المسئولية المتعلقة بمختلف جوانب البحث ، ولا يعني سماح الادارة العامة للبحوث التربوية بالوزارة موافقتها بالضرورة على مشكلة البحث أو على الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراستها ومعالجتها .

وتقبلوا تحياتي .

مدير عـام
البحوث التربوية والتقويم

د. عبد الخالق صالح خلف

صورة لسعادة وكيل الوزارة المساعد للتطوير التربوي .
صورة للبحوث التربوية والتقويم .
صورة للباحث ـ ص ب ٨٩٣١١ ـ الرياض ١١٦٨٢

يسرى ..

هاتف : ٤٠٤٢٨٨٨ ـ ٤٠٤٢٨٢٤ ـ ٤٠٣١٤٠٠ سنترال

تلكس { ٤٠١٤٥٧ عربي
      { ٤٠١٦٧٣ انجليزي } مادن

Appendix 5

Resistance and Overcoming the Resistance

Introduction

The changes proposed by this study mainly concern human relationships and the status of individuals, groups and institutions in Saudi society. They are intended for the benefit of society and respond to the needs of Saudi society as well as pupils' learning. However, it is likely that the proposed changes will be resisted by vested interests in the status quo, dogmatism, misunderstandings and people who are simply resistant to innovation.

Resistance and overcoming resistance

The educational authorities may resist the study's recommendations for two reasons: a) financial costs in implementing the innovations; and b) the possible threat to those in position of authority and power which they exercise in the existing bureaucratic system. As Morrish (1976) indicates:

> *"Most systems are large and centralised, and in consequence power is concentrated in the hands of a few senior officials. This must inevitably slow down the rate of change, and it will also result in a filtering of all attempts at innovation through a bureaucratic rather than a professional agency.''*[1]

Thus, and as we noted earlier, the authority of education in Saudi Arabia is concentrated at the very top (e.g. ministers, heads of agencies, deputies, directors-general and the like). Everything has to be submitted to the man at the top. With this kind of centralisation and the vast growth in size and complexity of various organisations, it is more likely that administrative authority could inevitably slow down the rate of change.

It is also more likely that proposals for change will be acceptable if they come from professional people with expertise in the field of education. However, Fullan (1991) warns that:

"Most attempts at collective change in education seem to fail, and failure means frustration, wasted time, feelings of incompetence and lack of support and disillusionment."[2]

However, change is inherent in the need for improvement in education, as pointed out by Fullan (1982). He advocates:

"(1) the possible use of new or revised materials (direct instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies); (2) the possible use of new teaching approaches (i.e. new teaching strategies or activities); and (3) the possible alteration of beliefs (e.g. pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programmes). All three aspects of change are necessary because together they represent the means of achieving a particular educational goal or set of goals."[3]

Fullan (1991) also points out that resistance may not only come from top level educational authorities but also from headteachers in school:

"It has always been said that the superintendent and the principal are critical to educational change."[4]

The authorities of education in Saudi Arabia are critical to educational change because they do not have much enthusiasm for improving their administrative techniques to make schools more interesting for the pupils, and they are unwilling to open their minds to new concepts for promoting teaching and new techniques. They do not have a desire to change their behavioural role.

References

1.   Morrish, Ivor (1976) *Aspects of Educational Change*, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London, p.57.

2.   Fullan, Michael G. (1991) *The New Meaning of Educational Change*, Second Edition, Cassell Educational Limited, London, p.73.

3.   Fullan, Michael G. (1982), *The Meaning of Educational Change*, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, p.30.

4.   Fullan, Michael G. (1991), op. cit., p.74.

Appendix 6

Analyses of Variance

Table 1: Using analysis of variance one way ANOVA between the qualifications of the headteachers and their leading school

Variable spokesman & manager by variable headteacher level of education

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.1913	0.0956	0.2609	0.7709
Within Groups	89	32.6163	0.3665		
Total	91	32.8076			

Variable striving for achievement and professionalism by variable headteacher level of education education

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.2788	0.1394	0.6905	0.5040
Within Groups	89	17.9663	0.2019		
Total	91	18.2451			

Variable autocratic by variable headteacher level of education

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.1222	0.0611	0.1911	0.8264
Within Groups	89	28.4505	0.3197		
Total	91	28.5727			

Table 2: Using analysis of variance one way ANOVA between the experience of the headteachers and their leading school

Variable spokesman & manager by variable headteacher experience

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.0448	0.0224	0.0609	0.9410
Within Groups	89	32.7628	0.3681		
Total	91	32.8076			

Variable striving for achievement and professionalism by variable headteacher experience

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.0717	0.0358	0.1756	0.8393
Within Groups	89	18.1734	0.2042		
Total	91	18.2451			

Variable autocratic by variable headteacher experience

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.2493	0.1246	0.3916	0.6771
Within Groups	89	28.3234	0.3182		
Total	91	28.5727			

Table 3: Using analysis of variance one way ANOVA between the school size (population of pupils) and the headteacher leading school

Variable spokesman & manager by variable school size

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.8972	0.4486	1.2511	0.2912
Within Groups	89	31.9104	0.3585		
Total	91				

Variable striving for achievement and professionalism by variable school size

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.5193	0.2596	1.3036	0.2767
Within Groups	89	17.7258	0.1992		
Total	91	18.2451			

Variable autocratic by variable school size

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	1.9551	0.9776	3.2687	0.0427
Within Groups	89	26.6175	0.2991		
Total	91	28.5727			

Table 4: Using analysis of variance one way ANOVA between the headteacher leadership subscales and achievement of pupils

Variable spokesman & manager by variable passing percentage

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.1082	0.0541	0.1472	0.8633
Within Groups	89	32.6994	0.3674		
Total	91	32.8076			

Variable striving for achievement and professionalism by variable passing percentage

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.4383	0.2192	1.0954	0.3389
Within Groups	89	17.8067	0.2001		
Total	91	18.2451			

Variable autocratic by variable passing percentage

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Between Groups	2	0.1865	0.0933	0.2924	0.7472
Within Groups	89	28.3862	0.3189		
Total	91	28.5752			