Training needs analysis for women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia

Faten Alsari

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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
IN SAUDI ARABIA

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership
by
Faten Alsari
November, 2015

This dissertation, written by

Faten Alsari

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to
and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

Ronald Stephens, Ed.D., Chairperson
Kent Rhodes, Ed.D.
John Tobin, Ph.D.
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DEDICATION

In the name of Allah, most gracious, most merciful

This dissertation is dedicated to the people who filled my life with love and joy. To the memory of my father, who would be proud and happy to see me accomplishing what I have. Also, I dedicate this work to my mother for her constant, unconditional love and support through her prayers.

To my best friend and life partner, my husband Mohammed, who believes in me, and loves me unconditionally. To my wonderful boys who always inspire me and push me to be the person who am I now. I cannot picture my life without you. I truly thank Allah for blessing me with a great husband and wonderful boys.

To my brother in law, Ali, who supported us and for the help he provided. I want to sincerely express my thanks and gratitude.
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In the name of Allah, most gracious, most merciful

To the soul of King Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz Al-Saud and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education for allowing me the opportunity to pursue my education.

To my dissertation committee chair, Dr. Ronald Stephens, for believing in me and allowing me to progress through this process while always helping me and supporting me. To my amazing committee members Judge John Tobin and Dr. Kent Rhodes for guiding me to write this dissertation that would add to the body of knowledge on this subject. I do not believe that I could have picked a better committee to guide me through the doctoral process. The guidance I received from all members was exceptional.

Lastly, but definitely not least, I would like to thank my all of brothers and sisters, especially my brother Mohammed for all the encouragement and support he offered, as well as for being my role model through my journey in this life.

To all of my friends who helped me and supported me throughout time; if there is a will there is a way. Thank you.
VITA

EDUCATION:

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership Candidate 2015
Pepperdine University, Los Angeles, CA, GPA 3.91

Master of Science in Leadership & Management 2010
University of La Verne, La Verne, CA, GPA 3.84

Bachelor of Science in Accounting 2006
King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, GPA 4.08 of 5.00

Diploma in Teaching Math & Science 2001
Two years of studying teaching methods for elementary schools

CERTIFICATIONS:

Training the Trainer Certificate 2015
Association for Talent Development

Certified Professional Coach 2014

Certificate Program in Supply Chain Management 2011
University of La Verne, La Verne, CA

Educationally Eligible to Purchase and Use CPP Assessments (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator)

CONSULTANCY PROJECT:
Jarir Bookstore, Saudi Arabia 2012
- Consulted with upper management to increase understanding of employee disengagement.
- Assessed employee engagement levels and provided feedback for future trainings

WORK EXPERIENCE

Accounting Assistance
Advance Solutions Consultation Office, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia
- Prepared and processed purchase orders, invoices, and checks requests
- Provided reports as required by other departments

Director for Women Training Center 2000- 2001
Chamber of Commerce, Najran, Saudi Arabia
- Screened and hired trainers for Center classes, including teachers and school principals
- Coordinated computer and English classes and special events
- Performed accounting functions, including revenue management and purchasing
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT:
Women in Leadership: Work-Life Balance Conference  
Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology
ABSTRACT

Education is finally embracing school leadership as an important component in reform schools. School leaders have become central for building schools that promote powerful teaching and learning for all students. Therefore, well-prepared principals help to change schools and improve instruction. In contrast, the shortage of qualified school leaders has intensified interest in leadership development as a major strategy for developing schools and education.

The purpose of this research was to conduct a training needs analysis for women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia by identifying the gap, if any, between the current skills and the desired skills for female school principals. Two different online instruments surveyed 65 school principals and 155 teachers to identify the current skills and the desired skills for school leaders. An important limitation of the survey was the translation of both surveys from English to Arabic and then the translation of the responses from Arabic to English. Furthermore, another limitation is that the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education’s culture may lack an understanding of the importance of obtaining the right skills for being in a leadership position, so the researcher may have been unable to determine the participants’ views on specific leadership skills and qualities as a result. After obtaining approval from this study’s committee and the Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University, findings from 225 participants who took the online surveys were analyzed. Based on these findings the researcher derived implications and the recommendations. Some of the findings showed a gap between the current and desired skills for principals from the teachers’ point of view. In addition, there was a gap between the teachers’ and the principals’ perception of current and the desired skills or principals. Therefore, female school leaders in Saudi Arabia should be trained in leadership development courses to help them to create learning cultures and supporting environment to improve students’ learning.
Moreover, the researcher found that the desired leadership skills that were collected from the participants were aligned with leadership skills found in the literature.
Chapter 1: Introduction and Background

Educational Leadership

Leadership has become one of the most discussed topics in the field of education (Northouse, 2010). Researchers, practitioners, and policymakers increasingly acknowledge the role of schools’ leaders in improving schools (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). Raising students’ achievement has caused growing attention to be paid to the significant role of school leaders in improving the quality of education. A study conducted by Wallace (2001) found three major roles of school leaders: setting directions, developing people, and redesigning the school’s system to achieve its mission. Rhodes and Brundrett (2005) stated that school leaders are now regarded as central for building schools that promote powerful teaching and learning for all students.

This recognition, as well as the shortages of qualified school leaders, has intensified the interest in leadership development as a major strategy for developing schools and education (Rhodes, 2006). Several researchers have identified the important role of school leaders in developing and retaining teachers, creating learning cultures, and supporting improvement in students’ learning (Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Rhodes, 2006; Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). Developing educational leadership qualities requires systematic support (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). According to the Education Policy and Leadership Center (2006), schools must rethink their boards’ roles so they were responsible for creating mission statements and holding the schools’ leaders accountable for achieving results.

Additionally, studying women in educational leadership and the roles they take in education has been recognized as a new subject in leadership. However, insufficient research regarding the qualities of women in leadership geared toward student learning and the ethical
issues involved in leadership and education are preventing it from achieving further growth in this subject (Chemers, 2000). Chemers (2000) and Rhodes and Brundrett (2005) have stated that many women leaders do not develop to their full potential. Developing tomorrow’s school leaders to fulfill their positions should be a key task for leadership (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). This dissertation proposal considers the importance of developing female school leaders to enhance their careers, as well as become more effective leaders, change agents, and effective decision makers by exploring and analyzing the training needs of women in leadership. Studying women leaders’ strengths may open the doors for them to access additional, more powerful, and higher-level leadership positions (Sealy, Vinnicombe, & Singh, 2003).

The field of educational leadership has developed substantially in recent years (Leithwood et al., 2004). The Education Policy and Leadership Center (2006) has investigated the importance of leadership in contributing to school improvement and implementing education reform. Other educators have argued that academic leadership is a central component in striving toward academic excellence (Sentočnik & Rupar, 2009). Academic leaders help to develop creative thinking and self-regulatory skills among others. Rowley (1997) explained that leaders at all levels of education should be equipped to develop the successful performance of schools. Thus, training and development have played a crucial role in school leaders’ effectiveness and teachers’ productivity (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Terry, & Cohen, 2007).

**Women in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia**

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is investing in its own education system to prepare its citizens for modern global life. Its education reforms have gone beyond textbooks, encompassing teacher and principal training (Al-Faisal, 2006). According to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education (2006), these reforms are a part of the King Abdullah Project for
Educational Development, which is intended to improve Saudi Arabia’s education standards. Since the 1980s, budgetary funds have been allocated for improving the educational environment, training, and development of schools teachers and leaders (Hamdan, 2005). In order to achieve educational reform, reformists need to understand the leadership role of Saudi female principals (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). Educators need to examine the leadership role and skills needed for the individuals that were responsible for leading change: namely, school principals (Hamdan, 2005).

**Conducting a Training Needs Analysis**

Leigh, Watkins, Platt, and Kaufman (2000) stated that in past decades, many needs assessment and analysis models have existed, yet they all vary in terms of their level of concentration and the use of context such as organizational analysis, personal analysis, tasks analysis, performance analysis, and content analysis. Nevertheless, the training needs analysis models have not changed much in terms of theories and practice over the past 40 years. Several models have been presented in the literature, but McGehee and Thayers’ (as cited in Darling-Hammond et al., 2007) three level concept of needs analysis is considered the core framework of training needs analysis. The three levels are organizational analysis, task analysis, and person analysis. Workforce BluePrint (2013) conducted a study on training needs analysis, finding that it helps to identify skills gaps impacting the organizational performance at different levels such as the company’s need to accomplish market share and individuals’ need to increase productivity. They stated that a result of well-designed comprehensive training programs would include the outcomes of the training needs analysis by including the identified skills needs in the program objective.
Statement of the Problem

Leading schools has become more complex than ever before due to increasing pressure to perform and the growing diversity of students. School principals, administrators, and superintendents are held accountable for achieving results in educating students. The need for better student performance required additional training for school leaders (Reddekopp, 2008). According to a report in The Economist, Saudi Arabia spends more on education compared to most wealthy countries. However, education in Saudi Arabia fails to improve student learning in many subjects, especially science and mathematics. It also has been found that the Saudi education system is not producing a poor quality of education, but rather that it is failing to encourage students to learn. Since the development of education, Saudi Arabia has been facing shortages of highly qualified school leaders. Lack of encouragement and support for learning in schools occurs due to the absence of schools leaders to lead and empower teachers to improve student learning (Hamdan, 2005). Moreover, a lack of systematic training needs analysis has been a tremendous problem in the Saudi Arabian education system, especially for women in educational leadership (Sentočnik & Rupar, 2009). Facing challenges to have all students meet high standards depend on having well prepared principals who changed schools and improve instruction, not just manage school buildings (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

Failure to identify the gap between skills required and current performance causes major problems in terms of time, resources, and money, which have been wasted on unnecessary and ineffective training for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education. Therefore, this study focused on analyzing the skills that women in educational leadership need to possess by conducting a training needs analysis.
Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine what differences, if any, exist between female leaders in the Saudi Arabia primary, secondary, and tertiary education sectors with regard to the leadership skills they report as being required of their positions, as well as their perceived abilities regarding these skills. In addition, this study examined a representative sample of these leaders to identify areas in which they feel their skills should be enhanced. It is necessary for Saudi Arabia education leaders to understand the importance of leadership in developing and reforming schools to develop successful students.

In order to achieve a better understanding of the differences between desired and actual leadership qualities in Saudi Arabian women educational leaders, a quantitative methodology was employed in order to incorporate various data streams from the sample population (Kumar, 2011). The purpose of using a quantitative design was to obtain an expanded understanding of the research problem and enhance the overall evaluation (Creswell, 2009). The cross-sectional quantitative portion of this study involved the administration of a researcher-developed questionnaire to school principals, administrators, and directors.

Research Questions

Using the results of the surveys this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers?
2. What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals as perceived by principals?
3. What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers?
4. What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by principals?

5. What are the gaps, if any exists, between the current self-reported leadership skills with the desired skills as perceived by principals?

6. What are the gaps, if any exist, between the current leadership skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by teachers?

**Importance of the Study**

This study aims to explore the differences between perceived and desired leadership skills of women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia. Sentočnik and Rupar (2009) reported that developing and training schools leaders are substantial factors for school success. Therefore, identifying the skills school leaders need to obtain in order to improve schools’ effectiveness is a crucial factor in training and development (Reddekopp, 2008; Sentočnik & Rupar, 2009). This dissertation focuses on women in educational leadership and the qualities and skills that educational leaders need in order to be effective (Chemers, 2000; Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). This study’s objective is to investigate a sample population of women in educational leadership positions such as school principals, superintendents, and administrators who are considered academics and decision makers.

**Theoretical Framework**

Multiple relevant theoretical frameworks can be used to understand the subject of leadership. The first was the *Great Man Theory*, which became popular during the 19th century. This theory contributed to the notion that great leaders are born with leadership talents, gifted with the right characteristics and divine inspiration. The second theory, *Contingency Leadership Theory*, which was developed by Fiedler in the 1960s, claimed that effective leaders apply their
own leadership style to the situation. This theory guided practitioners in asserting that true leadership effectiveness is the result of the interaction between the leader’s style and the demands of the situation (Northouse, 2010).

A discussion of educational leadership theory is also included in this dissertation to help identify the important role of leadership in education (Bush, 2007). Bush (2007) has classified the main theories of educational management into six major models: managerial, transformational, transactional, contingency, post-modern, and instructional. Reddekopp (2008) suggested that leadership is a crucial part of schools because it supports the vision and the value of schools and enables learning to take place. This study examined the leadership models considered to be most relevant to the education system: namely, transformational leadership, contingency leadership, and instructional leadership.

The third section of this dissertation discusses training needs analysis, focusing on training and development as a crucial part of advancing people in order to maintain successful organizations (Bush, 2007; Goldstein & Ford, 2002). It identifies the importance of training and barriers that might intervene with implementation (Goldstein & Ford, 2002).

**Limitations of the Study**

Several limitations to this study’s validity and reliability exist:

1. The study is reliant upon access to women in leadership in different school level, phases, and cities in Saudi Arabia. If approval have not been obtained to access these populations, the researcher would not be able to determine the current and desired skills for those women in leadership positions which would not help to assess with the advancement of the participants.
2. The Saudi Arabian Ministry of Higher Education’s culture may lack an understanding of the importance of obtaining the right skills for being in a leadership position, so the researcher may not be able to determine the participants’ views on specific leadership skills and qualities as a result.

3. Due to the cultural and religious norms as well as restrictions concerning the interaction of men and women in Saudi Arabia, and since the current researcher is female, this study focused on Saudi female principals to ensure access to the participants.

4. All surveys were conducted in Arabic and all the responses were collected in Arabic. The researcher translated the survey questionnaires from English to Arabic, and then translated responses from Arabic to English. Because of the differences in languages, some meaning might be lost in translation.

Assumptions of the Study

The researcher has made several assumptions in designing this study:

1. It was assumed that the participants have a general awareness and knowledge of the subject of leadership and the skills that must be obtained in order to be an effective leader.

2. It was assumed that the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia is supportive of the importance of educational leadership as a new subject because it provides information about what leadership is and why it is important.

3. It was assumed that differences exist between the leaders’ current and desired leadership skills.
4. It was assumed that participants were honest in reporting their current and desired skills in their surveys, which were administered anonymously.

Key Terms and Definitions

*Leadership*: a process of how person can influence a group of people to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010). It involves transactional events happening between the leaders and the followers and how the leaders influence those followers and direct their energies toward collective goals.

*Educational leadership*: the process of guiding teachers and parents to achieve common goals that are educational aims. It also focuses on supporting schools’ values to develop visions that enhance learning (Bush, 2007).

*Training*: focuses on identifying, developing, and improving employees’ performance through acquisition of new skills. Training and development refer to planning individuals’ learning and the key competencies that enable them to perform their jobs well (Wiggenhorn, 2008).

*Training needs analysis*: the process of identifying the gap between current qualities and training needs (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Training needs analysis represents the starting point of the training process in which the organization’s needs are identified. This process helps to identify the gap between employees’ current skills and their desired skills and competences.

*Transformational leadership*: when leaders transform and motivate their followers to advance to a higher level of morality and emotions and change their perceptions to work toward a common goal (Northouse, 2010). Transformational leaders are also concerned with satisfying followers’ needs.
*Empathy:* the competence to understand others’ state of mind or emotion (Ioannidou & Konstantikaki, 2008). Rahman and Castelli (2013) also defined empathy as recognizing others’ feelings and the causes of those feelings, which is a sign of humanity. Langford et al. (2006) explained that empathy is not the result of previous experience; rather, it is the moment of non-verbal contact occurring between people. Ioannidou and Konstantikaki (2008) reported that psychologists distinguish between two types of empathy: situational and dispositional empathy. Situational empathy is an empathic reaction in specific situation. In contrast, dispositional empathy is understood as a person’s stable character trait; it is the ability to understand and to have a sense of objectivity by disconnecting from one’s own personal feelings (Rahman & Castelli, 2013). The Balanced Emotional Empathy Scale (BEES) scale can measure empathy. Published in 1996, the BEES were designed to measure the tendency of how an individual feels and experiences the emotional experiences of others. The BEES consists of 30 items that are used to rate the degree to which they identify with the feeling of others in variety of situations. The BEES appears to be independent of one’s tendency to make socially desirable answers (Mehrabian, n.d.).

*Assertiveness:* the quality of being self-assured and expressing one’s own opinion, needs, and feelings while also respecting others’ opinions, needs, and feelings (Ames, 2009). Furthermore, assertiveness is the characterization of how an individual responds in a situation in which his/her interests are in conflict with others’ interests. Lorr and More (1980) created a Personal Relations Inventory (PRI) to measure assertiveness. The PRI was developed by means of items yielded four correlated factors of assertiveness, which are: (a) social assertiveness, “the ability to initiate, maintain or to terminate social interactions easily and comfortably in situations involving friends, acquaintances, strangers, authority figures” (p. 9); (b) defense of rights, the
ability to stand up for one’s rights; (c) directiveness, meaning to lead or influence others in challenging interpersonal relations calling for actions; and (d) independence, or the ability to resist group or individual pressure and to resist one’s own opinion to comply.

Communication: a process through which individuals interact in order to attain their goals. It is an activity of sharing ideas, viewpoints, and other types of information with the help of speeches, presentations, and behavior. Communication can be facilitated through application of effective social and interpersonal skills and such characteristics as assertiveness that allow leaders to share their attitudes without oppressing or offending others (Ames & Flynn, 2007). Proper functioning of the individual in the area of communication requires specific skills that can include social, interpersonal, and leadership skills. For instance, an effective leader should be able to convey ideas clearly in the process of communication by choosing the appropriate setting, words, tone, and gestures, as well as pauses, vocal pitch, and transitions within his/her speech. As stated by Stevens, Lehmann, Cooper, and Whitehouse (2008), female leaders apply listening skills, tone of voice, and body language to communicate effectively.

Social skills: individuals’ abilities related to the process of communication. Social skills define the way people interact with each other using communication techniques. Additionally, the extent to which individuals implement various communication tools defines the effectiveness of the outcomes. Such supplemental skills as assertiveness help effective leaders to interact successfully with other people (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011).

Interpersonal skills: skills needed for social communication. Hargie and Dickson (2004) reported that although interpersonal skills are often used interchangeably or mixed with social skills, they define a person’s ability to stay in society and interact with individuals without focusing on communication strategies. For instance, behaviors, the ability to act in a proper and
polite manner, emotional intelligence, and other components help individuals reach a high level of interpersonal skills. As stated by Garvin, Edmondson, and Gino (2008), employees’ successful learning can also be attributed to their effective communication using proper interpersonal skills.

**Organization of the Study**

Chapter 1 presented a background of leadership and training needs analysis. It stated the problem regarding a lack of systematic training needs analysis in hiring women in educational leadership positions. The purpose of the study was introduced. The research questions are a critical part of this research paper because they guide the argument and inquiry. Additionally, the limitations and importance of the study, as well as definitions of key terms, were presented.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the relevant literature on certain topics essential to the research that provided a historical background and context of the issues. This historical, theoretical, and empirical literature concerns leadership theories, leadership and gender, educational leadership, training needs analysis, and the education system in Saudi Arabia. These were synthesized to suggest the implications of leadership qualities for women in leadership and to analyze the training needs for Saudi Arabian women in leadership.

Chapter 3 describes the methods used to address the research questions. This mixed methods study includes quantitative techniques to measure variables and examine leadership characteristics. The chapter described the sample, data collection plan, and proposed statistical analysis techniques. Human subjects considerations and Institutional Review Board (IRB) procedures were also included in this chapter.

Chapter 4 presents the results and the findings of the study, which include analyses of the quantitative methodology. The results are presented as tables, figures, participant demographics, and quotations.
Chapter 5 discusses the findings and general themes collected from the study as well as the implications thereof. Recommendations for the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia were presented to support women’s in leadership advancement. Finally, recommendations for further research on this topic are made.

Summary

This study intended to provide data to understand the differences between the current and desired skills for women in leadership in Saudi Arabia. Women in Saudi Arabia make up more than half of the students in Saudi Arabian schools (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). They also hold educational leadership and managerial positions in equal numbers with men. Yet, few of those women leaders are perceived as effective because of the insufficient training they receive (Sentočnik & Rupar, 2009). Conducting training needs analysis for women in leadership in all education sectors allowed them to improve their skills, be better prepared for leadership positions, and be better leaders to serve others. This study examined if differences exist among women educational leaders’ perceived and required skills in order to be effective leaders (Hamdan, 2005).
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Over the 30 years, women in leadership have increasingly moved toward greater positions in the workplace (Fisher, 2005). Studying the impact of leadership roles that women take in schools is important in the development of schools and student learning (Mathis, 2007). School principals are administrative officials who can influence students’ quality of education (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). According to Mitgang (2009), the importance of school principals’ roles cannot be denied or diminished. According to Hallinger and Heck (1996), there has been increased demand for effective school leaders. School principals can help students learn more in the classroom by promoting collaborative problem solving and open communication (Wallace, 2001). This position of formal leadership provides students, teachers, and staff members the opportunity to be motivated to improve their performance (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005).

Principals can stimulate educational experiences, maximize teachers’ skills and competences, and offer valuable advice in dealing with problems (Hallinger, & Heck, 1996). According to Wallace (2001), some of the education studies support the notion that principals’ leadership can make a difference in students’ learning and behaviors. School leaders’ leadership skills and behaviors can be advanced through training and development programs (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005).

Pfau (2000) explained that conducting training needs analysis of school principals and superintendents is a helpful tool to identify the gap between their current skills and skills needed to be effective leaders. Training needs analysis is crucial in that it can lead to improvements in the knowledge, skills, or behaviors of school principals and staff (Pfau, 2000; Taylor, O’Driscoll, & Binning, 1998).
Preparation for school leadership has become one of the most prominent educational goals in Saudi Arabia (Al-Faisal, 2006; Mathis, 2007). Over the past 40 years, the educational system in Saudi Arabia has undergone a rapid expansion (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). According to the Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission (n.d.), the allocation for education is more than 20% of the country’s total budget. In 2013 budget, According to Jiffry (2013), there is a 204 billion Riyall allocation to the education sector, which indicates the importance of improving Saudi Arabia’s education system.

Although the education system in Saudi Arabia is modern, one of its substantial features is the separation of females and males in schools and universities (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). Females and males in Saudi Arabia study the same curriculum, yet female teachers teach only female students and male teachers teach only male students (Arebi, 1994). Therefore, conducting a training needs analysis to identify the gap between the current skills and the desired skills of female school leaders in Saudi Arabia is crucial for the development of student learning in Saudi school.

This literature review is divided into four sections. First, the subject of leadership is discussed, which includes the primary theories of leadership and the empirical research on leadership. The second subject discussed is educational leadership, which includes theories, empirical research on educational leadership, gender differences in leadership, women in educational leadership, and qualities of women in leadership. The third section reviews training needs analysis theories, empirical research on training needs analysis, and the methods used to identify the gap between the current leadership qualities and the desired qualities. The fourth section provides a background of Saudi Arabia’s education system and women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia. The literature review for this study explores training needs analysis
for female school principals in Saudi Arabia to determine the gap between their current skills and the desired in order for them to be effective school leaders.

Leadership

Evolution of leadership theories. The study of leadership has become the focus of the contemporary scholars in the past century, especially since 1990s (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). During this time, leadership scholars have suggested definitions, theories, styles, competencies, and historical examples of successful leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 1997; Northouse, 2010).

Leadership also has captivated the attention of practitioners and researchers worldwide (Northouse, 2010). In the early 20th century, many scholars subscribed to the Great Man Theory of leadership, which asserts that effective leaders have personality traits and characteristics that set them apart from ordinary people (Chemers, 2000). The development of the contingency theory that examined leaders’ behaviors and characteristics was a result of the complex nature of the leadership phenomenon (Northouse, 2010). However, the 1970s brought awareness that the way followers perceive their leaders is influenced by cognitive biases that are developed based on their prior expectations (Kouzes & Posner, 1997).

Recent researchers have reflected on the role of cultural differences in leadership processes, which influenced research regarding outstanding leaders with globally effective qualities and characteristics (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). Reviewing the scholarly studies on leadership reveals a wide variety of different theoretical methods to explain the complications of leadership, as it is a controversial topic about which much is known and yet much remains to be learned (Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2010). Although numerous books and journals have been devoted to the topic of leadership, some questions remain unresolved, such as whether leaders are made or born, and if leadership be can taught in organizations (Kouzes &
Posner, 1997). A brief history of leadership and a discussion of leadership theories that have been presented are provided subsequently.

Recently, leadership has been constructed in social science as an important subject in term of its role of maximizing efficiency to achieve organizational goals (Chemers, 2000). Also understanding the progression of leadership theories, which is the foundation of the current thinking and research in leadership, provides some necessary perspective to appreciate the increasing interest in leadership (Northouse, 2010). Leadership scholars agree that leadership can be defined as the nature of influencing individuals to achieve a common goal (Antonakis et al., 2004). The definition of leadership is important in understanding the dominant theories of leadership. Northouse (2010) defined the term as “the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 3). Chemers (2000) offered another definition of leadership: “a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task” (p. 27). Leadership has been divided into many schools and theories; however, this literature review focuses on the major theories that have emerged in the literature in recent decades (Antonakis et al., 2004). According to Mitgang (2012), “Leadership only succeeds if the leader brings other people along into the same vision, and they are all able to work together and trust one another” (p. 4). Accordingly, leaders shape vision, cultivate leadership in others, and create a successful organizational climate (Kouzes & Posner, 1997).

**Theories of leadership.** Early behavioral approaches attempted to reveal and identify leadership behaviors that were effective globally (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). The most important studied behaviors can be described in terms of two dimensions: task-focused and people focused leadership behaviors (Barling et al., 2010). Task-focused leadership behaviors encourage
maintaining performance by using uniform procedures such as performance appraisal (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). People-focused leadership is concerned with the followers to work in groups in order to develop trust and respect (Chemers, 2000). Various leadership scholars have assumed that the ideal leadership style is one that would most influence followers’ attitudes and performance (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Under a behavioral approach, leaders were thought to be able to guide followers to achieve organizational goals and provide followers with support necessary to perform at the highest level (Barling et al., 2010).

Although early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished leaders and followers, subsequent theories investigated situational factors and skill levels (Chemers, 2000). As many different leadership theories have emerged, leadership scholars have identified the following leadership theories as the major types (Kouzes & Posner, 1997).

**Trait theory of leadership.** Some scholars have taken a trait perspective toward leadership, which suggests that certain individuals have inborn qualities that make them leaders (Antonakis et al., 2004). Trait theory has created interest among researchers in terms of how traits influence leadership (Northouse, 2010). Kouzes and Posner (1997) concluded that personality traits were associated with individuals’ perceptions of leadership. Some of the characteristics that are used to identify leaders and distinguish them from non-leaders include personality features such as extraversion, intelligence, adjustment, and masculinity (Barling et al., 2010). Even though this theory is concerned with what traits leaders exhibit, it does not lay out a set of principles about what types of traits are needed in certain situations (Northouse, 2010).

**Contingency theory of leadership.** Contingency theory was developed in the mid-1960s by F. Fiedler who studied the characteristics and personality of leaders (Northouse, 2010). This
theory presented a new approach to understanding the effectiveness of leadership (Antonakis et al., 2004). As stated by Northouse (2010), this theory attempts to match leaders to situations, recognizing that leaders’ effectiveness depends on the how well their styles fit the context. This theory contends that leadership traits depend on the characteristics of the situation, which include the leader-follower relationship, task structure, and position power (Barling et al., 2010).

Another well-known contingency approach was that of House (1971), who focused on the leader’s role in clarifying the paths that lead the followers to their goals (Antonakis et al., 2004). This theory suggests that leaders are not effective in all situations. If the leader’s style matches the situation, he/she succeeds, but if the style does not match the situation, he/she will probably fail as a leader (Chemers, 2000). Contingency theory has broadened the understanding of leadership by considering the situation’s impact on the leader (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). It emphasizes the importance of focusing on the relationship between the leader’s style and the requirements of various situations (Antonakis et al., 2004).

**Transformational leadership.** Transformational leadership is currently one of the most popular theories of leadership; it gives more attention to the charismatic and effective factors of leadership (Barling et al., 2010). Transformational leadership theory implies a process that changes and transforms people (Northouse, 2010). It is concerned with motivating followers and satisfying their needs to achieve long-term goals. As stated by Antonakis et al. (2004), the previous paradigms of leadership theories were focused on the mutual satisfaction of a transactional obligation. In contrast, transformational leadership theory provides a foundation of visionary, and inspiring leader behaviors that are believed to encourage followers to transcend and release their full potential toward the organizational goals and vision.
Transformational leaders inspire followers in order to better accomplish the organizational goals (Chemers, 2000). These leaders exhibit a strong set of internal values and ideals, motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Northouse (2010) explained that it is common for transformational leaders to create a vision that emerges from the collective interests of the organization. This approach requires leaders to establish clear values and norms in the organization and become involved in the culture of the organization to shape its meaning (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Transformational leaders build trust, foster collaboration, and encourage others in order to lead in a way that creates cooperative organizational environment (Barling et al., 2010).

**Leadership categorization theory.** Theories of leadership have focused on the leaders, so the primary goal of leadership research has been to identify the characteristics that enable someone to be a great leader (Northouse, 2010), in addition to attempting to understand leader-follower processes by examining leaders’ behaviors that specify the interaction between leaders and their followers (Barling et al., 2010). Leadership categorization theory, however, examines followers’ perceptions of leadership (Chemers, 2000).

Leadership categorization theory asserts that followers have different ideals for male and female leaders. In survey conducted by Nye and Forsyth (1991), that some subordinates described female leaders as more transformational than male leaders. According to Kent, Blair, and Rudd (2010), many studies have attempted to define the behaviors that make up transformational leadership. They found that five sets of *visualizing performance* behaviors describe transformational leadership: empowering, trustworthy, confidence builder, dynamic and positive (Michalowicz, 2013). In some studies subordinates have used these behavioral descriptions to describe their leaders (Chemers, 2000). However, in male dominated industries
such as engineering, women alter their leadership behaviors to conform to their male counterparts’ leadership style (Kent et al., 2010).

**The importance of leadership.** Many recent studies have shown that leaders’ behaviors have a strong effect on organizations (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Behaviors that stimulate communication within the organization promote employees’ successful learning and improvement in the organizations (Garvin et al., 2008). For example, identifying problems, listening effectively, and promoting dialogue between leaders and their employees can motivate employees to contribute to the accomplishment of organizational goals (Chemers, 2000). Moreover, Garvin et al. (2008) stated that leaders should be exhibiting a willingness to engage with others’ points of view and ideas could make subordinates feel empowered to learn.

According to Bennis (2009), leadership is the primary element in any organization that works toward organizational success. Building positive organizational learning guides employees toward obtaining a better understanding of the organization’s goals and vision (Chemers, 2000). Furthermore, leadership is the main determining factor in how people in the organization will function, influencing how the organization will operate both in the present and in the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1997).

Leaders can have different roles in the organization; they can be decision makers, team builders, delegators, and or coaches (Barling et al., 2010). Despite the official roles leaders occupy in the organization, they should acknowledge how people in the organization learn and develop (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Helping employees to understand the importance of learning is essential in order to inspire them to operate in the way leaders desire (Bennis, 2009). Other methods that leaders may adopt include managing team learning, building trust, and managing conflict, which are all ways of valuing learning and applying it (Chemers, 2000).
According to Stone and Patterson (2005), “when there are phenomena not explained by an existing theory, a new theory emerges” (p. 13). The literature on leadership provides various theoretical perspectives regarding the current understanding of leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). Collectively, future leadership research will continue to consider the role of the follower as a crucial part of leadership (Chemers, 2000). Leadership research has contributed to a paradigm shift to a new theory of leadership in which people are seen as gaining power by enhancing their skills (Kouzes & Posner, 1997). It also changes how leaders view and treat their followers (Stone & Patterson, 2005). In this approach, leaders treat employees as the most valuable organizational assets (Bennis, 2009).

**Educational Leadership**

**History of educational leadership.** In recent decades, educational scholars have focused on the study of leadership concepts, practices, and models. In the early part of the 21st century, the widespread belief that the quality of leadership makes a difference in student outcomes and schools created an interest in studying educational leadership (Rhodes, 2006; Young & Rorrer, 2012). The way that schools require effective leaders and managers to provide the best education for students has become an important subject (Bush, 2007). Although many researchers acknowledge the need for highly effective principals, there is less certainty about which leadership behaviors will produce favorable outcomes (Leithwood et al., 2004; Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005; Rowley, 1997). The field of educational leadership is concerned with the purpose of education, which provides a crucial sense of direction to support schools’ values and purpose (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2005). Education leaders seek to develop a vision that supports and allows learning to take place (Bush, 2007): a vision that all school members recognize as a common direction of growth.
Various educational leadership theories have been presented, such as transformational leadership, instructional leadership, and distributed leadership (Hallinger, 2013). Educational scholars have investigated the methodology and quality of training programs that prepare principals (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). They have also explored different educational leadership practices and behaviors such as empathy, moral values, respect, and personal responsibility that influence students’ accomplishments (Bush, 2007).

Scholars in the educational leadership literature have presented important evidence of the impact of school leadership on students’ learning (Witziers, Bosker, & Kruger, 2003) and, more importantly, how leadership strategies contribute to students’ outcomes (Levačić, 2005; Rhodes, 2006). Based on a meta-analysis, Hallinger (2013) concluded that there was strong evidence of the direct effect of leadership on students’ attainment. Educational researchers and practitioners have found many causal models that demonstrate the positive effect of leadership on student learning (Young & Rorrer, 2012), stating that school culture and teachers’ norms and practices in the classroom influence students’ achievement (Levačić, 2005). According to Hallinger and Heck (1998), although indirect effects were found between leadership and students’ outcomes, they were statistically significant and meaningful. Educational leadership influences students by affecting their motivations, opportunities, attitudes, and beliefs (Rhodes, 2006). Scholars have noted that educational leadership exerts direct effects on student behaviors and attitudes and indirect effects on teacher values and classroom practices (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Rhodes, 2006). More recent research has stated that effective leadership can affect schools and student achievement positively (Witziers et al., 2003).

**Distributed leadership.** In 1990s, the idea of distributed leadership has received growing popularity in the field of education (Spillane & Sherer, 2004). Distributed leadership recognizes
that there are multiple leaders in an organization, or that leadership activities are shared widely between organizations. Distributed leadership is more concerned with leadership practice and interactions than leadership actions in isolation. Rather than viewing leadership practice as a product of leaders’ skills and knowledge, the distributed leadership perspective views leadership as an interaction between people and their situations. According to Spillane and Sherer (2004), distributed leadership can serve as an acknowledgment that various individuals take responsibility of leadership in schools. Other scholars have agreed that responsibility for leadership routines involves multiple leaders. For instance, monitoring and evaluating teachers would involve multiple leaders, such as the principals and assistant principals. Educational practitioners and researchers have identified three major reasons for the popularity of distributed leadership (Spillane, 2005). First, it has representational power; it represents alternative approaches to leadership that have been developed due to increasing demand and pressure on schools (Harris & Spillane, 2008). The second reason is that distributed leadership has empirical power by making positive differences in students’ learning. Third, distributive leadership has normative power; it reflects the current changes in leadership practice in schools (Spillane, 2005). It occurs as a result of an open culture that is a way of enabling actions to be critiqued, challenged, and developed through planning, action, and reflection. Harris and Spillane (2008) argued that the distributed perspective could serve as a tool for school leaders by offering a set of concepts that can be harnessed to inform the designed process for schools and learning. As such, it offers schools the opportunity to think about how leadership is distributed (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004).

**Changing roles of school principals.** Educational researchers and practitioners have explained that, until recently, the role of principals was similar to that of managers who
implement decisions made by the state (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Young & Rorrer, 2012). Thus, school principals were chosen for their positions without any training requirements. In the late 1970s, a principal’s role was defined by making him/her responsible for managerial and financial tasks (Reddekopp, 2008). Educational scholars have added that school principals acted according to the best of their abilities to facilitate operation in their schools (Reddekopp, 2008; Young & Rorrer, 2012). According to Mitgang (2009), principals were expected to act based on collective decision-making and remain the center of their schools. Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) noted that school principals were also expected to perform pedagogical functions by supervising teachers, supporting them, and evaluating their work. However, educational scholars stated that due to lacking the necessary knowledge and skills, most principals avoided pedagogical tasks (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Reddekopp, 2008).

Recently, the role of principals has become more complex (Davis, Darling-Hammond, & Meyerson, 2005; Reddekopp, 2008). Principals have become responsible for defining schools’ missions and visions, implementing curriculum, and creating a high quality teaching and learning environment (Mitgang, 2009). Young and Rorrer (2012) stated that although principals aspired to fulfill these responsibilities, research has shown that they face difficulties in reaching these goals in their day-to-day tasks. According to Darling-Hammond et al. (2007), some principals admit that they do not have the sufficient knowledge and skills to oversee teachers’ teaching and students’ learning.

**Instructional leaders.** School leaders should be willing to collaborate and empower others by developing a mission and a vision with the staff (Blase & Blase, 2000; Hallinger, 2005). In terms of instruction, school leaders should be involved in developing a school improvement plan and collaborating to set the course for the school (Horng & Loeb, 2010).
Since the 1980s, the concept of instructional leadership has been discussed in the literature regarding its relative effectiveness in improving students’ performance (Hallinger, 2005). Instructional leadership, as cited in Zepeda (2007) “Those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning”, is one of the most useful techniques in creating a positive school environment. Instructional leaders work with teachers to define educational objectives and set school-wide goals. Hallinger (2005) and Horng and Loeb (2010) reported that instructional leaders provide the necessary resources for learning and creating new learning opportunities for the students.

Instructional leaders differ from school administrators in various ways (Jenkins, 2009). Blase and Blase (2000) stated that principals who are instructional leaders set clear goals, evaluate teachers’ performance, allocate resources for teachers, and monitor lesson plans. A recent study conducted by the National Association of Elementary School Principals described instructional leadership as leading learning communities. The study declared that principals should know about different models of teaching and the theoretical reasons for adopting such models (Jenkins, 2009). Blase and Blase added that instructional leaders should have sufficient knowledge in three main areas of education: assessment, curriculum, and instructions. They suggested that school leaders should understand the major ideas that should be taught in the core curriculum to determine whether students are being taught the requisite body of knowledge. Hallinger (2005) concluded that principals who are instructional leaders should focus their efforts on improving teaching and learning.

**School leadership and student learning.** Educational leaders help to create a difference in schools by improving student learning outcomes. According to Leithwood et al. (2004), although schools aim to improve learning and teaching, there are tremendous differences in how
they deal with it. For example, some schools attempt to innovate curricula, whereas others work on changing teachers’ practices by using cooperative learning (Bush, 2007). All these approaches depend on leaders’ motivation and capacities. Witziers et al. (2003) added that improving student learning is challenging unless school leaders agree with its purpose to make it work. Leadership draws attention to a broader array than controlling of school conditions that might need to be changed to improve learning. According to Leithwood et al., leadership consists of three dimensions in terms of improving schools: defining the school mission, promoting a positive learning environment, and managing instructional programs. School leaders cannot do the whole leadership task by themselves (Levačić, 2005; Witziers et al., 2003); thus, they use external assistance wisely in order to enhance their influence. Effective school leaders count on contributions from others such as teachers and administration (Bush, 2007; Hallinger & Heck, 1998).

Many scholars have indicated that leadership influences school and student achievement (Bush, 2007; Hallinger & Heck, 1998). According to Rhodes (2006), leaders contribute to student learning indirectly through their influence on other people in the schools. Through their instructional practices, teachers are central to student success (Witziers et al., 2003). District conditions are another factor in improving students’ learning, including identifying schools’ missions and cultures, decision-making processes, and goals (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). Furthermore, school districts ensure that goals, policies, and programs are aligned with professional development (Levačić, 2005). As a result, leaders need to know which elements of the school should be a priority in order to influence students’ learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1998).

Hallinger and Heck (1996, 1998) identified three dimensions of educational leadership: defining the school mission, promoting a positive school learning environment, and managing
instructional programs. As results of their findings, other researchers defined what they called instructional leadership functions: framing goals, setting expectations, and coordinating curricula (Levačić, 2005; Witziers et al., 2003). According to Hallinger and Heck (1998), these functions in turn translate into behaviors that motive students and teachers to perform tasks in a way that enhances students’ performance.

Witziers et al. (2003) stated that school principals worldwide are held accountable for educational qualities, in the belief that students’ success or failure is determined by the way the school operates. Other educational scholars have found that principals are better able to manage schools’ educational structure by providing principals with the necessary training (Reddekopp, 2008; Young & Rorrer, 2012). According to Levačić (2005), school principals should have high expectations of teachers, emphasize basic skills, and monitor student progress. In other studies that examined principal development programs, researchers have argued that school leaders and principals’ behaviors create features of the school instructional environment, which affect students’ outcomes (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Young & Rorrer, 2012). In many social science studies, leadership scholars and practitioners have addressed the topic of leadership styles, behaviors, and gender (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). These researchers have argued that there are two models of leadership: a masculine one and a feminine one (Ely et al., 2011).

**Leadership and gender differences.** Studies show that, in many countries, stereotypically feminine qualities are not the qualities that come to mind when people think of successful leaders (Broweder, 2013). Typical feminine stereotypes represent women as being relatively unsuited to leadership. In their comprehensive meta-analysis Prime, Carter, and Welbourne (2009) found that female leaders tend to be evaluated less favorably than male leaders.
Because the notion of gender differences is prominent, so gender inequalities are attributed to the differences in skills and traits of women and men (Prime et al., 2009). Ely et al. (2011) noted that many researchers dismiss the general absence of women in leadership as a natural outcome of gender differences in leadership skills. This notion of gender inequality is simple to express but much more difficult to support with empirical evidence. Previous research has repeatedly documented evidence of global generalized perceptions of differences between women and men leaders (Broweder, 2013). This perception includes the belief that women possess fewer leadership traits than men. In exploring some specific behaviors portrayed by women versus men. These studies found that although the leadership styles of women and men are different, the results they achieve are similar (Prime et al., 2009).

Sealy et al. (2003) described some substantial differences between male and female problem solving styles. They found that women managers tend to be more intuitive; they enjoy ambiguous problems and search for creative approaches. Women found to take a broad perspective and view elements in a problem as interrelated. Prime et al. (2009) added that women tend to communicate more and discuss problems with others. In contrast, Sealy et al. found that men managers were sensing which prefer practical problems and search for standard problem-solving approaches. Therefore, men tend to focus on one problem at a time and view elements of a problem as independent from other tasks. Ely et al. (2011) stated that men approach problem solving with less communication. Men tend to dominate the problem solving process by using their skills and knowledge (Sealy et al., 2003).

Another difference between women and men in the workplace includes how they define success; women tend to identify success as how well life is going in an emotional and interpersonal sense (Llopis, 2014). Women also define success in terms of meeting a relentless
stream of demands, maintaining everyone’s approval, and trying to *do it all*, at a substantial cost to their emotional and physical wellbeing (Michalowicz, 2013). In contrast, men tend to define success in terms of quantifiable measures of achievement, money, and status (Sealy et al., 2003).

Patel and Buiting (2013) conducted a study of differences in leadership styles between women and men; women showed a more democratic and participative leadership style and a less directive style than their male counterparts. Giving rewards and being role models were associated with women’s behaviors whereas men were more likely to use punishment (Michalowicz, 2013). Chin (2011) added that women are more cooperative and collaborative than men and enhance the self-esteem of others.

Women are generally not considered to be risk takers, and men are more likely to make riskier decisions than women (Michalowicz, 2013). Prime et al. (2009) attributed this contrast to differences in emotional intensity. Also, when confronted with uncertainty, women report feeling fear whereas men report feeling anger (Michalowicz, 2013). In addition, when confronted with stress, for women, the speed of decision-making decreases and less risk taking occurs, but men do the opposite (Chin, 2011).

In general, women react to situations with greater emotional intensity than men do, especially when the situation is negative (Ely et al., 2011). Researchers have argued that men and women differ in their impulsive base reactions. Where men are most likely to respond through actions, women are most likely to respond through feelings (Michalowicz, 2013). Research comparing the leadership styles of women and men has shown that women leaders have different personality qualities and motivational factors that constitute the core of gender differences (Ely et al., 2011; Llopis, 2014).
**Women in educational leadership.** According to Thornhill (2011) and Pashiardis (2002), the underrepresentation of women in leadership is a matter of concern because women have historically dominated the teaching profession. Various factors have influenced the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership, such as male researchers being uninterested in the topic (Northouse, 2010). Other scholars have claimed that in public school education, advancement to leadership positions is laden with many obstacles for female leaders (Pashiardis, 2002; Thornhill, 2011). Other statistics have shown that women occupy a much lower percentage of elite positions than men (Thornhill, 2011). The invisible barriers preventing women from moving into top positions are called *the glass ceiling*, a metaphor for the limitations women leaders face (Michalowicz, 2013). The gap of women in leadership is a global phenomenon; women tend to be concentrated in lower levels of organizations and lower authority leadership positions (Chin, 2011). Reasons for women’s underrepresentation in high-level leadership positions can be categorized into three main groups: the differences in women and men’s investment in human capital, gender differences between women and men, and prejudices against females (Chemers, 2000).

Prime et al. (2009) found few articles and studies regarding to women in leadership, limited numbers of women in educational leadership. However, other scholars found that most of the empirical research work of feminist scholars is concerned with the barriers that women confront (Chemers, 2000; Thornhill, 2011). Future research in the areas of leadership practice, leadership preparation, and professional development will help women progress in achieving leadership positions (Chin, 2011).

According to Chin (2011), since the 1970s, the number of women in leadership positions has increased, bringing dynamic change in the study of female leaders. As more women occupy
leadership positions, questions arise regarding whether they lead in a different manner than men. Also, whether women or men are more effective as leaders, many researchers have found that there are differences between women’s and men’s leadership styles and qualities (Broweder, 2013; Ely et al., 2011). Leadership scholars have stated that women’s styles tend to be more transformational than men’s. There are crucial differences between women’s and men’s leadership effectiveness (Thornhill, 2011). Researchers have reported that women are more effective than men in education and social services, yet are less effective in military positions (Michalowicz, 2013).

Chin (2011) stated that in examining the experiences of women leaders in higher education, scholars explained that the pathway for women to leadership positions would not be longer a glass ceiling where there is no access. However, Prime et al. (2009) describe the barriers as a labyrinth that women must navigate to find their way. They suggested the need for multiple leadership models, noting that women leaders might lead differently than men. Other researchers added that women should examine their strengths and the advantages they bring to leadership (Ely et al., 2011). Broweder (2013) reported that women should articulate their vision by aligning their personal values with the values of the organizations.

Qualities of women in leadership. Prime et al. (2009) found that supporting others and rewarding subordinates are likely to be linked in people’s minds to stereotypically feminine traits and should be classified as feminine behaviors. Consistent with these findings, corporate and government employees were reported to view behaviors such as providing encouragement, offering support, and rewarding subordinates for effective performance as part of a relationship-oriented dimension of leadership (Michalowicz, 2013; Thornhill, 2011). This attribution of relationship-oriented traits was given specifically to women in leadership positions (Turknett,
Additional examples of stereotypically feminine leadership behaviors are team building and consulting, because they are highly correlated with the relationship-oriented factors of leadership (Llopis, 2014). Further, specific behaviors related to mentoring such as providing advice and coaching to help subordinates develop new skills were found to be significantly correlated with relationship-oriented factors (Broweder, 2013). Moreover, a number of studies found that inspiring others and networking were deemed feminine behaviors and characteristics (Caliper, n.d.). For example, women tend to emphasize relationships, sharing, and process, but men focus on completing tasks, achieving goals, and hoarding information (Growe & Montgomery, 1999).

**Assertiveness and confidence.** Confidence and assertiveness are necessary qualities of leadership; they are a way of responding to situations and knowing that one has the right to negotiate strongly while respecting and accommodating others’ interests and desires (Ames & Flynn, 2007). Assertiveness and self-confidence are linked; both allow the leaders to exert control over the situation (Santora, 2007). Assertiveness is also a way of thinking that allows leaders to express their views and stand up for their rights while respecting others’ rights (Ames & Flynn, 2007). It means being able to express one’s thoughts, feelings, and needs in an appropriate way. Being assertive may make communication more effective, so it can lead to constructive behaviors (Ames, 2009). Many scholars have pointed out that leadership requires assertiveness and confidence (Ames & Flynn, 2007; Santora, 2007). According to Patel and Buiting (2013), the best leaders are those who include their followers in their decisions and seek consensus, but are also able to assert their authority through the quality of assertiveness. Santora (2007) stated that assertiveness is a learned quality that can be improved through self-awareness.
**Interpersonal skills.** Studies show that women leaders have less resilience than men, but they possess stronger interpersonal skills such as empathy, flexibility, and sociability (Llopis, 2014; Walter, 2013). Women in leadership understand that personal and professional growth are crucial aspects of success and improvement (Walter, 2013). Women continuously strive for perfection, balancing their minds, bodies, and sprits (Levitt, 2010). Women in leadership embrace challenges knowing that greater fulfillment and success is obtained when they can adapt to any situation (Llopis, 2014). Llopis (2014) stated that women leaders are motivated to assess their own achievement positively. They distinguish between their personal achievements and the achievements of the organization. The latter do not tend to inspire them with a feeling of satisfaction (Broweder, 2013).

According to Fisher (2005), women also gather details faster than men and arrange these data into more complex patterns. Women leaders tend to weigh more variables, consider more options, and assemble more holistic perspective of any issue in comparison to men (Levitt, 2010).

**Communication and social skills.** Several studies have supported the finding that effective female leaders are good communicators because women tend to be better organized for communication (Stevens et al., 2008). According to Stevens et al. (2008), effective female leaders communicate clearly through focused listening skills, body language, and tone. Women leaders excel at networking and connecting to others (Patel & Buiting, 2013). They are willing to share and communicate their ideas and feelings freely (Walter, 2013). Other scholars have indicated that female leaders tend to ask questions and encourage feedback from team members (Stevens et al., 2008). The best qualities of women leaders are their communication and listening skills (Walter, 2013). Researchers have added that women leaders are able to bring
others around their point of view because they genuinely care about and understand others (Otero, 2004).

According to Walter (2013), women are more likely to have the ability to develop and maintain relationships with others than men. Furthermore, women leaders also have the ability to cultivate personal contact, conscientiousness, and responsibility. The characteristics that have been traditionally attributed to women are caring and collaborative practices and shared decision-making (Llopis, 2014). According to Bennis (2009), leadership requires concern for people, empowerment, and the ability to create a vision. As a result of their innate skills, women are able to move into leadership roles. Women are better than men at recognizing subtle facial expressions, even when those expressions are shown very quickly (Broweder, 2013). This skill is crucial to understanding others and building a positive atmosphere (Prime et al., 2009).

**Vision.** Successful leaders have great vision, which is the ability to choose where they want to be in the future and formulate the important steps to achieve the organization’s goals (Bennis, 2009). Book (2001) described a focused female leader who can inspire her team to reach the organizational goal as a *visionary leader*. Bennis (2009) defined the quality of leaders by their capacity to realize a vision. Scholars have found that women in leadership have the capacity to be visionary as they have a clear sense of moral purpose (Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009). Bennis (2009) stated that visionary leaders should have an understanding of their team, which will enable them to know what motivates their members. A study conducted by Ibarra and Obodaru (2009) found that women leaders were visionary in different ways than male leaders. This study indicates that women leaders inspire trust and convey messages to others. Visionary female leaders recognize talent and recruit individuals with skills that contribute to organizational growth.
Ibarra and Obodaru (2009) pointed out that it is important for women in leadership to balance vision and action; although the organization’s vision is the destination it seeks to reach, actions are the steps taken to get there. Bennis (2009) agreed that emphasis should be put into both vision and action. Other authors have added that positive actions make the leader’s vision more realistic for team members (Schyns, Kiefer, Kerschreiter, & Tymon, 2011). To turn any action into reality, discipline is necessary. Thus, Levitt (2010) stated that women are disciplinary, which is a skill that is required to follow through with their purpose and direction. Discipline requires the leader to take responsibility for the team’s action and decisions.

A visionary leader turns vision into reality by creating vivid image of the organization’s goals and by developing a specific strategic plan. According to Book (2001), this is one of the qualities that female leaders possess: the ability to manage details of the organization’s goals and also determine the responsibilities for each key team member.

**Empowering others.** Broweder (2013) declared that women leaders enjoy inspiring others to accomplish their goals. They also understand the value of working hard in order to avoid disappointing themselves and others (Walter, 2013). According to Merchant (2012), women are naturally good listeners and excellent connecters, which allow them to create a support collaborative environment that melds others’ thinking and ideas. These abilities create multiple opportunities that generate a larger sphere of influence and overall impact (Turknett, 2005). Women leaders also look for opportunities when they are confronted with a challenge (Michalowicz, 2013). Their mindset is optimistic because they see opportunity in everything (Walter, 2013). Additionally, women know how to be ambitious through challenges that make them effective leaders (Broweder, 2013). Thus, when they are not satisfied with the status quo,
they become explorers in pursuit of excellence (Fisher, 2005). Women’s passionate pursuits allow them to become powerful pioneers of new possibilities (Llopis, 2014).

**Persuasiveness.** According to Walter (2013), women leaders have higher persuasive motivation than men. They have the ability to motivate others to accomplish their goals. This strong skill enables women to see all sides of a situation, which enhances their persuasive ability. As a result, women leaders are able to influence others to adopt their point of view (Caliper, n.d.). Although men leaders tend to force their perspective and convince through the strength of their position, women are flexible and able to interact with others, and are more interested in hearing all points of view (Broweder, 2013). Talking with conviction about one’s values and ideals seemed strongly related to inspiring others (Patel & Buiting, 2013). Turknett (2005) added that women leaders have the ability to persuade people to get things done.

Due to these differences in leadership qualities between female and male leaders, leadership scholars have argued that it is critical for women in leadership to maintain the important skills that allow them to fulfill their goals (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). Developmental training programs can be effective in helping leaders obtain necessary skills and knowledge (Fairbairns, 1991).

**Training for women in leadership.** Women leaders’ talents and capabilities are latent in all organizations (Broweder, 2013). Their innovative actions depend on their receiving appropriate incentives, which can be generated through training (Sealy et al., 2003). Training women in leadership should be one of the most important factors for accelerating growth (Chiu, Thompson, Mak, & Lo, 1999). Although efforts are being made along these lines, they are limited only to bringing changes quantitatively, not qualitatively (Llopis, 2014). Nevertheless,
interventions and appropriate training are needed to bring qualitative changes in leadersituations (Brown, 2002).

One of the issues faced by women in leadership positions is a lack of focus on learning (Sealy et al., 2003). Chiu et al. (1999) found that to move towards developing effective women leaders and building a competency approach to management and leadership positions, women managers should receive more opportunities for leadership development (Walter, 2013).

Women in leadership have reported a wide gap between their own experience and what they have to learn, so designing leadership courses for women who are moving into senior and leadership positions is crucial (Llopis, 2014). Doing so will offer opportunities for women to build effectiveness in their present positions, have a better understanding of their own skills, and prepare to take on leadership roles with confidence and enthusiasm (Walter, 2013). Courses for women leaders can give them insight into their interactions with the dynamics of top management teams and enable them to succeed at the highest level to maintain their authenticity (Sealy et al., 2003).

**Training Needs Analysis**

O’Driscoll and Taylor (1992) indicated that with the expanding demand for superior productivity and services in organizations, enhancing the work performance of personnel has become important. The need to develop managerial expertise is a major concern for organizational effectiveness and productivity (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Although there are various mechanisms by which managerial learning occurs in the organization, formal training programs in particular are used to provide individuals with the knowledge required for better performance (Workforce BluePrint, 2013). In the training and development field, advancements have been made to foster greater understanding of the design of training in organizations.
(O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). Studies have been conducted on factors that impact training effectiveness, searching for better ways to translate the results of training research into practice. However, organizational leaders have yet to identify whether training is the solution for better performance (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

Training needs analysis is “a gap needs analysis-identifies skills/competences gaps by isolating the differences in and between current and future skills/ competences” (Workforce BluePrint, 2013, p. 9). Drummond (2008) explained that training needs analysis is an important step in identifying and determining the skills needed to be obtained. Other authors concluded that training needs analysis involves collecting information to determine if a training need exists (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

Many scholars have highlighted the importance of analyzing training prior to conducting training programs (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). They reported that organizations must rely on workplace learning and continuous development in order to remain competitive. Organizations have shifted their perspective on training from separate events to incorporated strategic elements (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Training and development authors have suggested that training needs analysis involves three categories: organization, task, and personal analysis (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). Organization analysis has typically focused on where in the organization training is necessary, which is based on the organization’s goals (Brown, 2002). Recently, it has been expanded to integrate the climate of the training within the organization, availability of training resources within the organization, and external pressures, such as political, social, and economic factors (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). Task analysis involves setting performance standards and specifying the requisite knowledge and skills for operation performance (Brown, 2002). Lastly,
individual analysis involves identifying personnel who need training via performance appraisals, self-assessment of training needs, and other methods (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

The expanding of theoretical frameworks and concepts focusing on training and development has become deeper, more focused, and more comprehensive (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Some of these concepts and frameworks are broad and general, such as variable influence design and delivery of training (Workforce BluePrint, 2013). These frameworks outline in detail the training conditions that may influence training and skills transfer after training. Scholars have studied and outlined the barriers organizations face while implementing training (Brown, 2002). Other theoretical developments are more focused and specific (Jonassen, Tessmer, & Hannum, 1999), such as studying performance measurement in training, training motivation, and training outcomes (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992).

These theoretical advancements have offered and outlined concepts to discuss, analyze, and debate when identifying the design and delivery of training and development in organizations (Jonassen et al., 1999). Furthermore, they have provided organized frameworks that facilitate an understanding of the systematic research (Brown, 2002). These theoretical approaches have been followed by empirical work that allows additional advancement and development (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992).

**Empirical research into training needs analysis.** Chiu et al. (1999) reported that training needs analysis is the most important step in training and development. It focuses on the process of who and what should be trained (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). According to Workforce BluePrint (2013), analyzing training has various outcomes that will shape the design and delivery of training, such as specification of learning objectives. The literature suggests three
components of training: organizational analysis, task analysis, and person analysis (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

Organizational, operational, and personnel analysis have been recommended in the training literature (Jonassen et al., 1999). However, many researchers have found infrequent application of these methods by training practitioners (Brown, 2002; Chiu et al., 1999). Various surveys have shown that a high degree of informal training is involved in needs analysis methods, as it is requested from managers or employees (Workforce BluePrint, 2013). O’Driscoll and Taylor (1992) indicated that a lack of training needs analysis might lead to the skills and knowledge gained from the training programs not being transferred to the work environment. Another important point is that improved training comes at a cost (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Recent research has estimated that the investment in training activities, such as learning technologies and performance improvement, costs organizations more than $55 billion annually (Workforce BluePrint, 2013). However, Leigh (2003) noted that comparing the cost of a solution to the value of the results returned is an important point organizations should consider to evaluate the worth of the training.

Training needs analysis is also a vital part of the training design process that strives to reduce the gap between the current skills and the desired skills for employees (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). Chiu et al. (1999) suggested that for training to be holistic, three training needs analysis processes must be followed: (a) identifying the range of training needs from business needs, (b) specifying the needs precisely, and (c) analyzing how training needs will be observed. Survey questionnaires, interviews, or observations are the most common methods for conducting training needs analysis (Workforce BluePrint, 2013).
Various approaches to a training needs analysis must be articulated to facilitate the process of training (Chiu et al., 1999). The first approach is a trainer-driven approach or what is called “supply-led” (p. 77). According to Chiu et al. (1999), trainers are responsible for identifying training needs, noting that trainers should have the necessary skills as a framework to help compile job tasks with information that indicates the training needs analysis for every task. Chiu et al. pointed out that this method might lead to inaccuracies because the trainers could have insufficient knowledge or management experience. The second approach is called “demand-led” (p. 78), wherein chief executives and higher managers invest in training due to its importance to the success of the business, which is a business planning process. However, Chiu et al. reported that this approach is a business-oriented approach, which could neglect the employees’ needs. The third method is the process-led approach, which mainly focuses on a department or division in the organization. Scholars indicated that the process-oriented approach ensures the work process can be introduced in an effective manner. The fourth type is a “trainee-centered” (p. 80) approach, which relies on self-assessment and development. However, this approach has been criticized because it may reflect what the trainee wants, rather than his/her actual training needs. A combination of these methods helps mitigate weakness experienced when utilizing only one approach.

**Organizational analysis.** The primary goal of training in the workplace is to respond to the organization’s mission and purposes (Jonassen et al., 1999). Training needs analysis is important to the organization’s strategies and goals to maximize the benefit from the results of training (Chiu et al., 1999). The purpose of this section is to outline the system factors of the organization that might impact the delivery of the training. It focuses on aligning the training objectives with the organizational goals, resources, and support (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).
O’Driscoll and Taylor (1992) and Workforce BluePrint (2013) stated that the organizational environment is a powerful predictor of whether the trainee has transferred the learned skills.

One type of training needs analysis, organizational analysis, would help determine and identify the knowledge and skills employees’ need for the future (Brown, 2002). According to Brown (2002), some common techniques can be utilized during the organizational level analysis, which is also called organizational scanning. One example of a technique is the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (SWOT) analysis, which may include social, economic, political, and technological analysis. Other scholars have called this type of analysis an environmental analysis for the organization, which is a process of obtaining and utilizing information about the organization’s internal and external environment (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). According to Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001), this analysis helps the organizational leaders plan for their future course of action.

Task analysis. The second type of training needs analysis is task analysis, which is utilized to create learning objectives (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Task analysis compares employees’ knowledge and skills to the job requirements, which will determine training needs (Brown, 2002). According to Robbins, Doyle, Orandi, and Prokop (1996), task analysis typically follows a needs assessment and narrows the focus to the specific task. It is also important to understand what employees need in order to accomplish in their jobs (Workforce BluePrint, 2013). Task analysis results in detailed descriptions of responsibilities, work conditions, and functions that must be performed on the job. In the past decade, scholars sought to develop approaches and knowledge elicitation methods to determine training needs requirements (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). In addition, authors studied the impact of task experience on task rating of training emphasis. They found that workers with more experience have better training

Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) also considered task analysis to be a type of needs assessment, but Jonassen et al. (1999) disagreed, stating that although task analysis and needs assessment utilize the same tools and produce similar results, but the purpose is different. Task analysis solves an instructional problem, which means training has already been identified as the solution. In contrast, needs assessment identifies needs for analysis.

Rossett (1999) identified task analysis as what a performer does, knows, and thinks about during the performance. Other scholars separated task analysis producers by the type of task (Chiu et al., 1999), such as knowledge task analysis, system task analysis, and procedural task analysis. These types of tasks are utilized to document expertise in order to develop instructions (Jonassen et al., 1999). Another kind of analysis that can be utilized when considering training needs analysis is an individual or person analysis.

**Person analysis.** Person analysis, the next approach to training needs analysis, determines whether performance deficiencies result from lack of knowledge, lack of skills, or a work design problem. It helps to identify who needs the training (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). Person analysis ensures that the trainee has the prerequisite skills and motivation to be trained (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). It targets employees and how they perform in their jobs via surveys, interviews, or data from employees’ performance reviews (Brown, 2002).

According to Workforce BluePrint (2013), training needs analysis provides organizations with information for developing training programs to fill the knowledge and skills gap among their workers by focusing on areas in which employees have the greatest need (Salas & Cannon-
Bowers, 2001). Utilizing systemic approaches to design an effective and efficient skills and knowledge analysis is crucial for successful training programs (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 1992). By conducting training needs analysis, trainers can make more effective decisions that will yield the desired results (Jonassen et al., 1999). Without knowing the requirements of the organization and the employees, trainers cannot design effective training programs (Chiu et al., 1999). Person analysis works as a preventive method by developing an understanding of current and potential problems to save time and money (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

**Designing training needs analysis.** Reasons for conducting training needs analysis include identifying goals, obtaining support, and gathering data (Jonassen et al., 1999). Training needs analysis is the first step in the planning process to discover what is important to the organization. It has been suggested that training needs analysis also creates a sense of ownership and supports the leaders in making decisions (Clarke, 2003; Rossett, 1999).

Planning training needs analyses is crucial because it makes it possible to set parameters for each required operation and establish an order for the implementation stage (Rossett, 1999). Clarke (2003) added that preparation of a plan provides an overview of the utilized methods and tools. Other scholars have argued that designing a training needs analysis plan includes a description of the goals of the training and schedule to attain those goals (Jonassen et al., 1999). The model of the training needs analysis plan is similar to a study design (Clarke, 2003). After completing the training plan, its exhaustiveness must be determined, which will include the goals, type of training, and populations that will be the subject of the analysis (Rossett, 1999).

According to Chiu et al. (1999), a comprehensive training needs analysis plan involves thoroughly reviewing the tasks and skills required to perform the job by conducting interviews and distributing questionnaires at all levels of the population being studied. Observation of the
participants in the workplace and drawing connections with other organizations of the same type can be another method of collecting information about training needs (Jonassen et al., 1999). Rossett (1999) agreed that the goals of the training needs analysis include the desired outcomes of the training. The goals should be expressed in direct language and stated clearly (Jonassen et al., 1999).

Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) identified a few criteria for selecting data collection techniques. Brown (2002) reviewed criteria considered by organization, regardless of size or industry, in selecting gathering data methods: time, money, and personal. Other scholars suggested that considering the nature of the problem, budget, perceptions toward training, and staff availability are other resources for organizational leaders to consider when conducting a training needs analysis (Jonassen et al., 1999). However, they all agreed that the relevance and the importance of each criterion depend on the organization and the purpose of the training needs analysis (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001).

**Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia**

Education is one of the most important benefits accompanying the development of Saudi Arabia (Al-Faisal, 2006). In the 1925, the first directorate of the Saudi education system was established (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2006). In the 1950s, an additional development of modern education emerged via the establishment of the Ministry of Education, which led to an unprecedented expansion of educational resources. In the 1958, the kingdom of Saudi Arabia collaborated with other countries in the Arab League to create a uniform educational system that provides 6 years of elementary school, 3 years of middle school, and 3 years of high school (Al-Faisal, 2006). In 1975, a segment of the Ministry of Education became a separate entity, called the Ministry of Higher Education. Its purpose is to deal with
higher education such as universities, college, and institutes. Furthermore, education in Saudi Arabia is administered by various governmental agencies:

- The Ministry of Education, which oversees general education for male students and more than 18 teacher training colleges.
- The General Presidency for Girls’ Education, which supervises female education and more than 70 colleges. It was established in the 1960s independently from the Ministry of Education, but has been under the administration since 2002.
- The Ministry of Higher Education, which administers higher education institutes, such as 52 universities that are funded by both government and private sectors.
- The General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training (established in the 1980s), which coordinates and implements development plans (Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, n.d.).

The Ministry of Higher Education was responsible for increasing the level of communication and coordination between the universities and other governmental ministries (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2006). Since 1980s, Saudi Arabian higher education has undergone tremendous growth (Al-Faisal, 2006). Since the 1960s, Saudi universities have been collaborating with U.S. academic institutions and companies to develop undergraduate programs, conduct research, and offer scholarships so students will be able to complete studies abroad (Hamdan, 2005). In 2007, Saudi Arabia was ranked the first Middle Eastern country and the 12th globally in the number of students studying in the U.S (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2014).

Saudi Arabia has been in the lead of many countries in providing an equal education for both males and females (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). The
educational system in the Kingdom has led to the unification of polices, procedures, and regulation without changing the nature of girls’ education (Arebi, 1994; Hamdan, 2005). The establishment of women’s universities in Riyadh was the first step towards opening other women’s universities in all cities in Saudi Arabia (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). Although most female students specialize in education, men tend to enroll in medicine, pharmacy, business administration, and computer science (Al-Faisal, 2006). Currently, there are more than 300 colleges and universities for women in Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, n.d.). As part of the Kingdom’s development plans, women today are vigorously pursuing higher education to become active members of society (Al-Faisal, 2006).

The government of Saudi Arabia has started instituting and enhancing access to higher education for women, including establishing the Princess Nora bint Abdul Rahman University for women, which is destined to become the world’s largest center of higher education for women worldwide (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education, 2010).

**Women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia.** Women in Saudi Arabia are more represented in the workforce now than at any time in history (Hamdan, 2005). Women who have made significant contributions in several educational levels hold leadership positions. Al-Faisal (2006) indicated that there is an increase in the percentage of female leaders in Saudi Arabia. For example, in 2013, members of the Saudi Shura Council, including 20% women were appointed to Saudi council for the first time (Al-Faisal, 2006).

Since the 1960s, the study of women in education has gone through a dramatic change in Saudi Arabia. Women’s education has taken social and political events into account (Al-Mohsen, 2000). Over the past 5 decades, women in Saudi Arabia were forbidden to participate in the development of the nation (Hamdan, 2005). Although women encountered limitations and
restrictions in educational and professional spheres, they have helped increase their freedom and mobility through education and work (Al-Faisal, 2006). The education of girls is increasingly becoming accepted by society, albeit with certain conditions and constraints (Hamdan, 2005). For example, girls have separate schools with high walls, buses that have strict rules and protection, and male guards to safeguard them while in school (Arebi, 1994). Moreover, in the 1960s, girls were only allowed to study subjects that related to religion because non-religious education was considered useless. At that time, the purpose of girls’ education was to prepare girls to be successful housewives and good mothers (Hamdan, 2005).

In the 1970s, the education of girls was administrated by the Directorate General of Girls’ Education, an organization that was operated by religious scholars (Al-Faisal, 2006; Arebi, 1994). All the social controversies of educating women have not inhibited women from pursuing education. According to Hamdan (2005), by the 1980s the number of girls who attended schools was equal to the number of boys. At that time, many families did not wait for Saudi universities to be opened, and instead sent their daughters to private schools in different Arab countries (Arebi, 1994). Since then, females’ education was initiated formally, and higher education levels increased rapidly among women. The number of institutes for females increased from 15 in the 1960s to 160 in the 1970s, which was also the year that the first girls’ college was established (Al-Mohsen, 2000). In 1979, the first university with an all-female campus, King Saud University, was opened in Riyadh (Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, n.d.). Since then, many universities have opened in different regions and cities in the Kingdom. In all of these universities women must attend separate campuses. All primary, secondary, and tertiary female schools have female staff members, female principals, and female teachers that are hired from various countries (Al-Faisal, 2006).
Recent statistics show that 60% of university students in the Kingdom are female and the gross enrolment is 36.1%, compared to 24.7% of Saudi males (Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, n.d.). Since 2006, the King Abdulla Scholarship Programs have provided female Saudi students with the largest scholarship programs compare to other Middle Eastern countries. This program allows female students to earn higher education degrees from western universities (Hamdan, 2005). This rising education level is a major factor in the growth of female participation in the Kingdom’s labor force, especially in education (Al-Faisal, 2006). Although most female graduates are highly qualified, the national system of education in Saudi Arabia is failing to prepare Saudi women for leadership positions (Hamdan, 2005).

**Training female school leaders in Saudi Arabia.** The growing acceptance of training school leadership has raised the challenge of ensuring the training that principals receive is in line with the new leadership models and standards (NewSchools Venture Fund, 2008). According to Mitgang (2012), since 2000, school districts have adopted new learning-centered leadership standards. Some were created by entering into partnerships with universities, whereas others formed their own leadership academies to create training programs tied to students’ needs (Davis et al., 2005). Educational leadership schools have suggested that aspiring principals require training that prepares them to lead improved instruction and navigate school changes (Chapman, 2005). Hale and Moorman (2003) agreed that training programs should be more focused on improvement of instruction and changing the school culture, so high standards of learning are everyone’s priority. School leadership should develop norms and structures that enhance the capacity of the faculty to meet the needs of students (NewSchools Venture Fund, 2008).
According to Hale and Moorman (2003), training programs should include courses that require principals to apply theory to practice. Coursework should require principals to analyze real-life leadership challenges. Other researchers have found that examining data from schools is a method of understanding and applying leadership theories (Chapman, 2005). Programs should teach principals to collaborate with teachers toward change in developing a plan to improve student performance (Davis et al., 2005).

Another effective method in developing principals is high quality mentoring and professional development (Hale & Moorman, 2003). Mitgang (2012) stated that mentoring is effective for novices or newly hired principals. According to Chapman (2005), mentors could be retired principals or leaders who have received leadership training.

**Summary**

This literature review focused on four major areas: leadership theories, educational leadership, training needs analysis, and the Saudi Arabian education system. Each of these topics was investigated as it related to the current study. This chapter explored the history of leadership by reviewing the major theories and styles that have been represented over the past 30 years. Throughout the 20th century, theorists continued to evolve their definition of leadership to include research in the areas of educational leadership and the importance of school leadership for students’ learning. In the late 1990s, preparation for school leadership became one of the major educational concerns (Rhodes, 2006). Educators widely recognized that a more intensive form of professional development is needed. Evidence suggests that principals’ behaviors play a critical role in shaping how schools create a context in which students can learn effectively (Davis et al., 2005). Hale and Moorman (2003) reported that there is a growing consensus regarding the knowledge, attitudes, and skills commonly found among effective principals.
Facilitating and supporting learning, teaching, and implementing strategies that focus on constant school improvement have become substantial elements of emergent professional standards, guiding principal preparation and professional development (Davis et al., 2005). However, little is known about how to help principals develop the competencies to influence how schools function and what students learn (Hale & Moorman, 2003).

Researchers in the field found that leadership training and development programs are the most effective methods by which to prepare school leaders (Davis et al., 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Rhodes, 2006). In addition, this chapter aimed to identify the major qualities for women in leadership, training needs analysis, and education in Saudi Arabia.

Saudi Arabia’s future is not a massive building and wide roads; its real future is people skills and abilities to create, develop, and produce effective school leaders (Al-Radhed, 2014). Education is the foundation of King Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz’s project in developing education. The focus of this project was to raise the number of Saudi students studying abroad by making scholarships available, thereby building on the existing education system in order to enable it to change the nature of the country and its future. According to Al-Radhed (2014), King Abdullah allocated 25 billion dollars to be spent on developing the education system, which is a separate allocation from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education’s annual budget, $32 billion, most of which is spent on salaries and fixed expenses.

This massive spending to develop education requires developing curricula and training teachers and school principals to enable students to learn (Al-Faisal, 2006). For example, distance learning will be utilized as resources and compensate for the lack of schools’ workshops and libraries (Al-Radhed, 2014). This new education development project has made students and
educators enthusiastic, which has the potential to change the kingdom of Saudi Arabia by producing qualified, successful graduates.
Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of the present study was to analyze the training needs and preparation of women in leadership positions within the education system of Saudi Arabia. The objective of the study is to address the problem of emerging shortages of highly qualified women school leaders due to a lack of systematic training. This quantitative method study aimed to develop a training needs analysis that examines differences, if any indeed exist, between the required leadership skills and qualities for females in educational leadership positions and their perceived abilities regarding these skills in Saudi Arabian primary, secondary, and post secondary schools.

In order to accomplish the objectives of the study, a descriptive survey research method was used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomenon. This chapter included detailed descriptions of the data collection methods, the study sample, and analytical techniques.

Restatement of Research Questions

Research questions were used to shape the purpose of the research study (Creswell, 2009). To achieve the objectives of this study, the literature regarding the essential skills of educational leaders was reviewed, which helped the researcher gain an understanding and primary basis of the research problem by developing the research questions as well as the survey questionnaire. This study examined the following research questions:

1. What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers?

2. What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals as perceived by principals?
3. What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers?

4. What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by principals?

5. What are the gaps, if any exist, between the current self-reported leadership skills with the desired skills as perceived by principals?

6. What are the gaps, if any exist, between the current leadership skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by teachers?

Research Design

This study intended to analyze the gap between the current educational leadership qualities and the desired leadership qualities for women in leadership positions in the Saudi education system. The researcher utilized quantitative approach for the purpose of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the results of the study. According to Creswell (2009), there are several ways of classifying and identifying quantitative method strategies. This study employed surveys questionnaires as the quantitative techniques, which involved the collection and analysis of the quantitative data. In this study, utilizing the quantitative data is beneficial in order to yield a better understanding of the qualities of females in educational leadership positions. It also was important to gather quantitative data, because they helped the researcher to measure and evaluate specific qualities of an educational leader.

A quantitative approach was useful in analyzing the data from each participant’s survey instrument. The surveys were cross sectional analysis, collecting data at only one point in time (Creswell, 2009). According to Kumar (2011), using a survey research methodology is one of the most feasible methods for assessing the behavior of a population based upon the response of a
sample as well as the best method for obtaining data about personal and social perceptions. Two descriptive surveys were utilized for this research. One was developed to survey the school leaders such as principals and superintended. The second survey questionnaire was developed to survey the teachers and the administrators in the schools to gather information about their school leaders. The researcher developed to survey questionnaires for the participants to help to identify the gap between the current skills and the desired skills they perceive for the school principals. A descriptive research study was designed to obtain information about the population concerning the current status of phenomena (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative data included the number of leaders, census data, and demographic information. The survey questionnaires were designed as an online survey, allowing the researcher to email them to the participants with convenience. The data were obtained from the opinions and perceptions related to effectiveness questions included in the educational leadership surveys.

**Setting**

The General Presidency for Girls’ Education, in cooperation with King Abdulla bin Abdulaziz Public Education Development Project (Tatweer), provides opportunities for school leaders to receive scholarships to attend training and development programs for leadership development. King Abdullah Bin Abdulaziz is enhancing and encouraging education in Saudi Arabia by increasing educational resources in the Kingdom’s education budget. According to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education (2014), the King has allocated a large sum of the Kingdom’s income for education in addition to allocating another 80 billion Riyals ($25 billion) to be spent exclusively on developing educational support systems. This was conducted to analyze training needs and identify the gaps between the current and the desired skills of school leaders and principals. Most of this enormous budget is being spent on building
new schools, maintaining technology like e learning, and developing teachers’ and principals’ leadership skills and competency. However, significant portions of the funding are designed to enhance the professional development and preparation of educational leaders who can help transform the educational system to new levels of effectiveness that enhanced the Kingdom’s economic competitiveness, national defense, and the quality of life.

**Participants**

The sample population of the study included women educational leaders such as school principals, assistant principals, administrators and teachers from Saudi Arabia. The purpose of selecting a sample in this research is to gain in-depth knowledge about this research topic (Kumar, 2011; Polkinghorne, 2005). The principals’ opinion of their current and desired skills help the educators and leaders of the King Abdulla Project in Developing Education (Tatweer) to understand the principals’ priorities in regard to their perceived skills as school leaders and help the educational leaders develop professional development support programs to better train and serve the young people and families of Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the opinions of teachers and educational leaders are important in determining inconsistencies between principals’ perceptions of themselves and teachers’ perceptions of principals’ current skills.

The populations for this study were female leaders at different leadership positions primary, secondary, and tertiary schools in Saudi Arabia. Responses of teachers in the school were compared to the principals’ responses, which helped the researcher to identify the gaps, if it exists, in the principals’ skills and whether they are in needs of development training programs. The target sample were women leaders who are principals, women who serve as directors of specific programs at schools, and teachers.
The researcher began this study by obtaining permission from the General Presidency for Girls’ Education in Saudi Arabia. The population of the study included random selection of female school leaders such as principals and superintendents in Saudi Arabia. The researcher emailed the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education representative the link of the surveys. The email contained Institutional Review Board (IRB) consent information and survey questionnaire instruments. The researcher estimated that each participant would take approximately 10 minutes to read the information and IRB consent and 15 minutes to complete the survey. To administer the survey, the researcher used SurveyMonkey.com, the world’s leading providing of web-based survey solutions (SurveyMonkey, n.d.). SurveyMonkey (n.d.) was utilized to send the surveys to the participants, as well as for data monitoring and collection.

The sample included most female school principals and school leaders in Saudi Arabia, so the researcher did not select a specific school or city. According to the Central Department of Statistics and information, there are 12,047 female schools. Due to the large population of the educational districts in Saudi Arabia and the constraints of the time and resources, a sample of 200 of the schools were randomly selected from various major cities and schools to have understanding representative sample of the population.

According to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education (2014), the country’s education system has more than 12,047 female schools. Selecting a random sample helped to attain unbiased information and every school leader had an equal chance of being selected. Schools from both large urban and rural cities were selected to be included in this study. The surveys were sent to various schools at all levels such as elementary, middle, and higher levels.
Data Collection

When the researcher finished developing the survey, she issued a request to the Deputy General President of Educational Affairs in General Presidency Girls’ Education to obtain the permission to conduct the study. Receiving this approval enabled the researcher to distribute the research instrument to the participants.

Instrumentation. The data was collected from females in educational leadership positions in Saudi Arabian primary, secondary, and tertiary schools. The researcher developed two survey questionnaires one for the teachers and the other one for the principals due to the lack of an existing survey to address this study’s specific research questions. The surveys contain closed-ended questions that provide a range of possible answers, allowing the participants to select the answer they feel best describes their choice. The researcher also added an other, please explain option to accommodate responses not listed. The survey was categorized into various sections, which allowed the participants to distinguish what each category is measuring. Both surveys contained demographic questions whose purpose is to collect general information such as age, educational level, and year of experience. Demographic information helped the researcher to determine if the principals’ perceptions of their actual and perceived skills differ among groups with different demographic characteristics. However, the teachers’ survey questionnaire includes different questions than the principals’ survey questionnaire.

Survey questionnaire for teachers. The teachers’ survey aimed to identify the teachers’ perceptions regarding current skills for the principals and also to determine the skills those principals are lacking in order for them to be effective school leaders. The questions in the survey focused on the principals’ skills and performance. For example, the survey included work performance questions, a category developed to measure how teachers rate the actual work
performance of the principals and that asks them to identify the skills they need to acquire in order for them to accomplish their job responsibilities. Furthermore, this category asked teachers to describe the principals’ competence and if they are satisfied that the principals accomplish their jobs adequately. Other questions are included for the purpose of identifying the teachers’ opinions of whether the principals need to have additional training opportunities.

Another category in the teachers’ survey is knowledge and skills questions, which measures the participants’ current knowledge and whether it meets the demands of the principals’ job. Another question asked participants to rank the most preferred skills for current schools principals to have as well as select the skills they believe are required. Additional questions measured the leadership qualities those school leaders want the principals to develop. The last question category was about their participation in any training program, whether they are willing to attend a training program, as well as the appropriate time and method for such a program. The final question in the survey identifies the skills that principals are lacking in order to be effective school leaders.

**Principals’ survey.** The principals’ survey was developed to measure principals’ perceptions of their skills and knowledge. It includes performance questions, which were used to identify the principals’ opinions of their work performance. Such questions ask how they would rate their performance in order for them to succeed in their jobs and whether or not they are satisfied with their current performance. Moreover, they also were asked if they think it is important for them to have training opportunities. The third section measures the principals’ knowledge and skills. This section includes questions about what the principals think of their current knowledge and skills in order for them to meet their job demands. In addition, the principals were asked to determine and rank the preferred skills they want to acquire in order to
be effective leaders. Also, questions in this section focused on the principals’ expectations of their knowledge and skills. Finally, the last question is about the skills the principals think they are lacking in order for them to be successful. These survey questions measure if there is a gap between the current skills of school leaders and their perceived abilities by comparing the principals’ self-perceptions to the teachers’ perceptions of those leaders.

To ensure a high response rate, the researcher followed a three-phase administration process. First, female school principals and leaders received an email explaining the project and requesting their participation. The email indicated that they have 2 weeks to complete the survey, and provided the researcher’s contact information, should they wish to communicate with her. Then, participants received a reminder email 1 week after the first email has been sent, alerting the participants that they have 1 week left to complete the survey. As soon as the participants are done with the survey, they received a thank you email.

Validity and reliability. Validity is the instrument’s ability to measure what it was designed to measure. Validation used to determine whether the findings are correct from both the researcher’s and the participants’ point of view (Kumar, 2011). After developing the questionnaire, the researcher submitted it to a panel of experts for evaluation of its content validity. The panel of experts—Pepperdine University doctoral students—has experience with both qualitative and quantitative research methods and the subject matter of the study.

To validate the content of the survey, the panel of experts read the research questions to determine if the survey questions accomplish the goal of answering the research questions. Their feedback and suggestions were utilized to refine the questionnaires in order to improve its clarity. The researcher asked the panel of experts to focus on the simplicity of the language used, bias or ambiguities in the phrasing of the questions, and redundant questions. After feedback is
obtained from the subject experts, the researcher edited and finalized the questionnaire and sent it to the participants.

Reliability deals with whether research instruments are consistent across different studies and projects (Creswell, 2009). Both surveys were field-tested to determine the suitability and clarity of the items and directions. In order to determine the reliability of the instrument, the alpha reliability coefficient, or what is known as the Cranach’s Method of the Kuder Richardson Approach, was used (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996). The reliability coefficients of the components of the questionnaires administered in this study obtained utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS).

Additionally, the study also included a Split-Half reliability measure. This is a measure of the internal consistency of a test, obtained by correlating responses on one half of the test with responses on the other half.

**Translation and validation of the translated instrument.** After developing and validating the survey in its English version, the second stage involved translating it into Arabic, the participants’ native language. To validate the translated instrument, the researcher performed the following steps:

1. The original (English) survey and the translated (Arabic) version were given to an expert translator to confirm the accuracy of the translation.
2. The translated version was given to a panel of experts for their assessment of the instrument’s content validity. After receiving the panel of experts’ feedback, the researcher made the necessary changes to the survey.
Plans for Human Subjects Considerations

As this study involves human subjects, the researcher completed the expedited Pepperdine University’s IRB application. The researcher obtained an approval for permission to undertake the research before recruiting subjects. The researcher completed the Human Participant Protection Education Certification program. Once IRB approval was obtained, the researcher contacted the participants by email to ask for their agreement to participate in the study. As soon as the participants express their willingness to take part in the study, they received full disclosure about the study prior to agreeing to participate. The participants were informed that this study were conducted by a doctoral student, the estimated time to participate in the survey, and that all of their responses and study data were confidential. The researcher also explained the details of the study to the participants and obtains their consent to participate as per the information provided. A summary of the findings and results were mailed to the participants upon the completion of the study. The cover letter contained the following information:

• The purpose of the study is to examine what differences, if any, exist among female leaders in the Saudi Arabia primary, secondary, and tertiary education sectors with regard to the leadership skills they report as being required of their positions, as well as their perceived abilities regarding these skills.

• Informed Consent: An email was sent to all participants that included a description of the study and the cover letter. It also informed the participants about the confidentiality of their responses. Participants were provided their consent to participate in the study by clicking on the link in the email prior to accessing the survey.
• Voluntary Participation: Participants were informed that it is their right not to participate in the study. The consent form indicated that the survey is voluntary. It also stated that there are no negative consequences if the participants choose not to participate in completing the survey.

• Confidentiality: Participants were notified that their personal information were not be disclosed. They also were informed that their participation and responses to the survey were confidential. Only the researcher would have access to download the participants’ survey results. The researcher kept the responses in a secured computer for a period of 3 years.

Analytical Techniques

Data analysis occurs when the researcher starts moving deeper into the data, representing the data, and interpreting the data for larger meaning (Creswell, 2009). The researcher assembled, sorted, and analyzed the survey responses. The data were categorized by geographic and demographic characteristics to determine any trends. Once the responses are collected, the data were entered into a computer and analyzed using SPSS.

Statistical analysis were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 22; IBM Corporation, 2013). Descriptive statistics were given as mean ± standard deviation or median with minimum and maximum, for quantitative variables, and number with percent for qualitative variables. Independent samples t-tests were performed to compare the mean of the teachers and principals for each quantitative variable, such as skills, performance, and levels of interest. Independent samples Mann-Whitney U tests were used when the assumptions of independent samples t-tests were not met. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to compare the mean of the three or more groups for each quantitative variable. Kruskal Wallis tests were used
when the assumptions of the ANOVAs are not met. The Pearson Chi-Square procedure was used in the analysis to assess the association between qualitative variables. Fisher’s exact test was used in the analysis when the assumptions of the Pearson Chi-Square are not met. Paired t-tests were used to compare the current skills to the desired skills for the principals. Wilcoxon signed rank tests were used if the assumptions of the paired t-tests were not met. Cronbach’s alpha were used to assess the consistency of the different used to measure performance, skills, and levels of interest. Split-half reliability was used to measure the internal consistency of the survey items by correlating responses on one half of the test with responses on the other half. Alpha was set at the 0.05 significance level.

Summary

This chapter described the methodology used for collecting the data that answered the research questions. The study aimed to examine the differences between the educational leadership skills required for female school leaders and their perceived abilities regarding these skills in Saudi Arabian primary, secondary, and tertiary schools. Two survey questionnaires were developed in order for the researcher to achieve the goal of the study and answer the research questions. Validation and reliability, data collection procedures, and analytical techniques were identified and discussed in this chapter. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis.
Chapter 4: Data Analysis

This chapter examines in detail a training needs analysis for female school principals in Saudi Arabia. The chapter is organized around six research questions, as described in Chapters 1 and 3. The data collected in this study will be used to compare the current qualities for female school principals from both the principals’ and teachers’ perspectives. The desired qualities for school principals as expressed by both principals and teachers will then be compared. The overall purpose of this study is to identify if there are gaps between the teachers’ and principals’ responses as well as whether there are gaps between the current and the desired qualities for principals.

This study involved two survey questionnaires; the first, named the principals’ survey, was sent to female school principals and superintendents. Superintendents in Saudi Arabia take over the responsibility of the principals when the principals are not on duty. Therefore, the researcher found it necessary for them to take the same survey as the principals. The second survey, named the teachers’ survey, was sent out to the female teachers and administrators. The teachers and the administrators’ opinions are important in order to identify if there is a gap in the principals’ skills.

The researcher obtained approval to conduct the study from the Ministry of Higher Education in Riyadh, which oversees all schools in Saudi Arabia. After receiving approval, the researcher sent links of the survey to the department that is responsible for sending emails to the schools’ staff members. Emails were sent to most of the schools in the major cities in Saudi Arabia. The ministry did not specify how many emails were sent. However, the researcher received 158 responses from teachers and 65 responses from principals.
Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 22; IBM Corporation, 2013). Descriptive statistics are given as mean ± standard deviation for the quantitative variables, and number with percent for qualitative variables. An independent samples t-test was performed to compare the teachers’ and principals’ means regarding leadership attributes. The Pearson Chi-Square procedure was used in the analysis to assess the association between the categorical variables and the two groups. A z-test for proportions was used to compare the proportions of the two groups. The researcher also used Cronbach’s alpha to assess the reliability of both surveys and measure the internal consistency of the survey items for the different leadership attributes. Alpha was set at a 0.05 significance level.

Key Findings

Survey findings for research question 1: The current educational leadership qualities for female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers. The results for this research question revealed the teachers’ perceptions of principals’ current skills. The following narratives and tables/figures reveal the findings of survey items 5, 6, and 7, which are related to the study’s research question 1. Research question 1 asked, What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by the teachers?

Teachers’ survey item 5. The purpose of this item in the teachers’ survey was to determine if the teachers think the principals have adequate competency to perform their responsibilities as principals. Table 1 shows that competency to perform responsibilities in the current position is significantly dependent on whether the teachers or the principals are reporting the competencies. The results show that approximately 33% of the teachers think school principals are somewhat competent, whereas 29% of the teachers think that the principals have
excellent competency for their positions; this can be compared to 48% and 50%, respectively, as reported by the principals.

Table 1

*Group Characteristics (Chi-square Test)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principals and Assistant</td>
<td>Teachers and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience in</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
<td>3 (5.3%)</td>
<td>9 (6.5%)</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your current job</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>22 (38.6%)</td>
<td>41 (29.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>17 (29.8%)</td>
<td>32 (23.2%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;10</td>
<td>15 (26.3%)</td>
<td>56 (40.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency to perform</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>14 (10.4%)</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsibilities in the</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1 (1.7%)</td>
<td>38 (27.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>current position</td>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>28 (48.3%)</td>
<td>46 (33.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>29 (50%)</td>
<td>40 (29%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of having</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10 (17.2%)</td>
<td>27 (19.6%)</td>
<td>.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training/development at</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>48 (82.8%)</td>
<td>111 (80.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

*Teachers’ survey item 6.* This item asked the teachers whether the principals need to attend training programs or not. The responses to this item indicated that approximately 80% of the teachers think principals should attend training programs, whereas 19.57% of the teachers did not believe that principals need training programs. If the teachers thought the principals should attend training programs, they were asked to name the training programs they think are important. Thus, there was no specific answer, so the respondents did not specify any training programs, yet most of the teachers thought that principals should attend training programs to develop their leadership skills in general.

*Teachers’ survey item 7.* This item asked directly about the current qualities for the principals as perceived by the teachers. The researcher listed 10 qualities and asked the
participants to select the three most important current qualities for the principals. Twenty-seven percent of teachers thought that principals are flexible. Assertiveness and listening received equal percentage of 9.49%. Moreover, 21% of teachers thought that the principals give feedback (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Current and desired qualities of principals in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers.

Survey findings for research question 2: The current educational leadership qualities for female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by the principals. This question revealed the principals’ perceptions of their current skills and if they are appropriate to their positions. The following narratives revealed the findings of the survey items 4, 5, and 9, which are related to the study’s research question 2.

Principals’ survey item 4. This item reveals the principals’ perceptions of their current skills and competencies compared to their job responsibilities. The results indicate that 50% of the principals think that they have excellent skills to fit their positions, whereas 48% of the
principals think they have very good skills, and 1.7% of the principals think they have good skills see figure 3.

**Principals’ survey item 5.** This item asked the principals to determine if they need training programs to develop their leadership skills. Eighty-two percent of principals think they need to be trained to develop their leadership skills. In contrast, 18% of the principals think they do not need to develop their skills. This question had an option to write the training courses they wanted to receive. Most of the answers included developmental programs in leadership, but did not specify which programs.

**Principals’ survey item 9.** In this item the survey asked the principals to identify their current skills. The researchers listed 10 qualities that are important for school leaders to have. Also, there was an *other* option to give the principals the opportunity to add additional qualities they think they demonstrate. Sixty-two percent of principals think that they are flexible and adaptable. Fifty-three percent of principals think they work as a team with their staff and possess assertiveness skills. Forty percent of principals think they have good motivational skills and 32% of them think that they are good at listening to the school staff.

**Survey findings for research question 3: The desired educational leadership qualities for female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers.** To identify the desired educational leadership qualities for female principals, the researcher asked the participants to select the three most important qualities that female principals should have. The following narrative reveals the findings of the survey items 8 and 9 to answer research question 3.

**Teachers’ survey item 8.** In this survey item, the researcher asked the teachers to select the most three important qualities they think principals should possess. Sixty-two percent of
teachers think that their principals should be flexible and adaptable. Forty-three percent of the teachers believe that their principals should possess skills in resolving conflicts and problems. Forty-two percent of teachers would like their principals to listen effectively. Lastly, 38% of the teachers want their principals to have motivation skills.

*Teachers’ survey item 9.* This item asked the participants to reveal the three most important qualities that they think principals need. Thirty-eight percent of teachers think that their principals do not possess empathy, or the ability to understand others. Thirty-six percent of the teachers believe that their principals lack motivation skills, so principals do not motivate teachers, as they should. Lastly, 33% of the teachers selected flexibility and 33% conflict resolution.

*Survey findings for research question 4: The desired educational leadership qualities for female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by principals.* To answer this question the researcher asked the principals to identify the desired skills they would like to obtain in order to be effective school leaders. Survey item 10 revealed the three most important skills that they think they need to obtain. Fifty-seven percent of the school principals would like to have presentation skills. In addition, 46% of the principals would like to develop their skills in solving problems and conflicts. Moreover, 38% of the principals want to have skills to be visionary leaders.

*Survey findings for research question 5: What are the gaps, if any exist, between the current leadership skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by teachers?* To answer this question, the researcher developed a survey question that required the teachers and the administrators to select the most important three qualities that they think their principals have currently. Adaptability, providing feedback, and active listening were the highest ranked, skills,
garnering 27%, 21%, and 9%, respectively. Next, teachers and administrators were given the same list of qualities and asked to identify the three most important qualities that they would like their principals to obtain. Adaptability, conflict resolution, and active listening received the highest percentages at 62.3%, 43%, and 42%, respectively (see Figure 1 and Table 2).

Table 2

*Current and Desired Qualities of Principals in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia as Perceived by Teachers (Z-test for Proportions)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Current</th>
<th>Desired</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active listening</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolutions</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>62.3%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>0.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team work</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation skills</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding others (empathy)</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating others</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>37.7%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>0.782</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

Comparing the current skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by teachers. Both surveys included questions that served to identify the current educational leadership qualities of female principals as perceived by teachers and the principals. Additionally, principals were asked to identify their current qualities and their desired qualities to identify the gap between what skills they think they have and what skills they need. To answer the first research question, the researcher asked participants to identify three qualities by which they think principals are distinguished. Figure 2 illustrates the qualities that the principals think they demonstrate. A z-test was utilized to compare the proportion between the principals and the teachers. Z-tests for proportions indicate that there is a significant difference in the principals' current qualities as perceived by both the principals and the teachers. The first
significant difference that had the highest score was flexibility and adaptability at 62%.

Additionally, 53% of principals think they have good teamwork skills, as well as assertiveness skills. However, personal skills received the least endorsement: only 3.4%. Another significant difference is motivating others; 4.4% of teachers think that principals do motivate them. In contrast, 40% of principals think they motivate their staff (see Table 3).

![Figure 2](image-url)  
*Figure 2. Comparing the current qualities of women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia between teachers and principals.*
Table 3

Comparing the Current Qualities of Women in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia between Teachers and Principals (Z-test for Proportions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Principals and Assistant principals</th>
<th>Teachers and Administrators</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active listening</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolutions</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>62.1%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>31.0%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team work</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation skills</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding others (empathy)</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>0.016***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating others</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
<td>0.937</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

Survey findings for research question 6: What are the gap, if any exist, between the current leadership skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by principals?

To answer this question, the researcher combined items 9 and 10 from the principals’ survey to identify if there is a gap between the current and the desired skills from the principals’ point of view. Figure 3 shows that there is a significant gap between the current skills and the desired skills. Sixty-two percent of the principals think they are adaptable and flexible. Therefore, 15% only of the principals were interested in developing this skill. Another significant difference was assertiveness; 53% of the principals think they are assertive, so only 15% of them are interested in developing this quality. In contrast, 3.4% of the principals reported that they do not have presentation skills, yet 60% of them reported wanting to develop these skills (see Table 4).
Figure 3. Current and desired qualities of women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia as perceived by principals.

Table 4

Current and Desired Qualities of Women in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia as Perceived by Principals (Z-test for Proportions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Current</th>
<th>Desired</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active listening</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>0.003***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolutions</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>62.1%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>31.0%</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
<td>0.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team work</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation skills</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding others (empathy)</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
<td>0.042***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating others</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>0.014***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

Comparing the desired skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by principals. Z-tests for proportions indicate that that there is a significant difference in the
proportion desired qualities for principals as perceived by both the principals and the teachers.

Figure 4 indicates that significant differences were observed for the following skills: motivating others, presentation skills, adaptability and flexibility, and active listening. The findings demonstrated that 56% of principals would like to obtain presentation skills. The second most desired skill was conflict resolution skills, at 47%. Thirty-eight percent of the principals reported that they wanted to be visionary leaders. The least desired skill was active listening, endorsed by 10% of principals (see Figure 4 and Table 5).

Figure 4. Comparison of desired qualities of women in educational leadership in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers and principals.
Table 5

Comparing the Desired Qualities of Women in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia between Teachers and Principals (Z-test for Proportions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Principals and Assistant principals</th>
<th>Teachers and Administrators</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active listening</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
<td>0.017***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolutions</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
<td>0.684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>62.3%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>37.9%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team work</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>0.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation skills</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding others (empathy)</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td>0.966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating others</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>37.7%</td>
<td>0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>0.901</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

Principals’ survey item 4. To identify whether there is a gap between current and desired skills, the following question was asked in both surveys: How would you rate the principals’ competency to perform their responsibility in their current job? Both principals and teachers were given this question so the researcher would be able to compare both answers and identify if there was a gap or not. A Chi Square test was utilized to identify if there is a significant association between competencies to perform responsibilities in the current position between the teachers’ opinion and the principals’ perception. Based on the responses, 50% of the principals think they are competent to perform their current job. However, only 29% of the teachers think that the principals are competent to perform their jobs. Also, 10% of the teachers believe that principals are not competent to perform their jobs; no principals selected this answer (see Figure 5).
Principals’ competence to perform their job.

**Principals’ survey item 5 and teachers’ survey item 6.** The following question was asked in both surveys: Do you think it is important to have opportunities for training/development at work? Eighty-three percent of the principals and 80% of the teachers answered yes. Therefore, both agree that principals need to attend development programs. However, in the teachers’ survey, 20% of the teachers indicated that they do not think that principals need to attend training programs, claiming that it is not important because they do not see differences in the principals before and after attending the programs. Therefore, they think it is a waste of time, especially since the principals have to leave the school in order to attend training programs (see Figure 6).

**Figure 5.** Principals’ competence to perform their job.

**Figure 6.** The need for principal training programs.
Another question that was given in both surveys was, What do you think is the principal’s most important responsibility? Sixty-four percent of the teachers think that developing a school vision is one of the principal’s most important responsibilities. Both teachers and principals agreed that student supervision and discipline is another important responsibility of the principal. Furthermore, 63% of the teachers think that principals are responsible for developing the school vision. However, only 38% of the principals think that they are responsible for developing the school vision. Whereas 35% of principals think that they should participate in the hiring process of the new teachers, only 5% of teachers believe this should be the principal’s responsibility. Another important point is that 41% of the teachers think that principals should be responsible for developing students’ knowledge, yet not a single principal selected that answer.

The two independent t-tests shown in Figure 7 for the comparison of means between the principals and teachers with regard to the raking of the attributes indicates that the mean ranking of the principals was significantly higher than the mean of the teachers for all the attributes except for conflict resolution, which did not attain significance. These results show that there is a significant gap between the two groups when comparing the level of satisfaction with these attributes (see Table 6).

*Teachers’ survey item 4 and principals’ survey item 6.* This item in the survey was included in both surveys to measure if both groups, principals and teachers, agreed on the same responsibilities for principals. The main reason for including this question is that, by identifying the principal’s job responsibilities, it was easier for the researcher to compare those job responsibilities to the current and desired skills for principals, allowing for the identification of a gap between these skill sets. Z-tests for proportions indicated that that there was a significant difference in the proportion in the responsibilities of the principals as perceived by both the
principals and the teachers. Figure 8 indicates that the significant differences were observed for the following responsibilities: participating in the hiring process for new teachers, preparing school reports and records, developing student knowledge, conducting teacher evaluations, overseeing the development of curriculum, and enforcing policies and developing school vision. The largest difference was observed for developing school vision (see Table 7).

Figure 7. Comparison of importance of attributes between teachers and principals.

Table 6

Comparison of Importance of Attributes between Teachers and Principals (Independent T-test for the Comparison of Means)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active listening</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>&lt;0.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>&lt;0.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team work</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding others/empathy</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivating others</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation skills</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td>Principals and Assistant Principals</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers and Administrators Principals</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

**Figure 8.** Responsibilities of a principal as perceived by the two groups.
Table 7

*Responsibilities of a Principal as Perceived by the Two Groups (Z-test for Proportions)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Principals and Assistant Principals</th>
<th>Teachers and Administrators</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicate with board about needs of school</td>
<td>44.8%</td>
<td>40.6%</td>
<td>0.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop school vision</td>
<td>63.8%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enforce policies</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>0.016***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oversee the development of curriculum</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher evaluation</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>46.4%</td>
<td>&lt;0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing school finance</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>0.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting teachers</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>0.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student supervision/discipline</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td>0.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop student knowledge</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>0.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepare school reports and records</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
<td>0.026***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating the hiring process of new teacher</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>0.029***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate with parent</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>0.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape culture</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at an alpha of 0.05

Both surveys included an *other* answer option in the multiple choice question that gave the participants an opportunity to write about the skills the training programs that are needed for principals to be school leaders. There was not a specific answers were provided, yet most of the answers were proposing that principals should have leadership skills in general.

**Reliability**

The Cronbach’s alpha of 0.91 indicates that there was a high level of consistency between the items that were identified as key variables to measure attributes of leadership. Similar results were also achieved when the analysis was run stratified by group type. The Cronbach’s alpha was observed to be 0.923 and 0.899 for the principals’ and the teachers’ groups, respectively.
Summary

This chapter sought to analyze the finding from both surveys. Specifically, it:
(a) analyzed the current and the desired qualities for female school principals from the teachers’ point of view, (b) analyzed the principals’ current and desired qualities from the principals’ point of view, (c) compared both analyses to identify the gap in the qualities and whether there is a need for training or not, and (d) determined the qualities for which principals need to receive training.

Analyzing the data revealed a significant gap between the principals’ responses and the teachers’ responses. For some questions the teachers have significant differences answers than the principals. Moreover, there was a significant gap between the current skills and the desired skills in both surveys, as well as significant differences between the current and desired skills in the principals’ survey.
Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Study Overview

The purpose of this study was to analyze the training needs of female school leaders in Saudi Arabia. The research compared current and desired leadership skills as perceived by female principals, superintendents, teachers, and administrators to identify whether there is a gap between these skills or not, as well as to recommend the appropriate skills for which successful school leaders need to receive training. In this study, the researcher conducted in-depth research on leadership theories, training needs analysis steps, education in Saudi Arabia, and theories regarding women in leadership.

Data were collected from 65 principals and superintendents and 158 teachers and administrators. Surveys were sent via email to the Ministry of Higher Education in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, from which it was then sent to the participants. The researcher waited for a week, and then sent a reminder email to the participants if they had not done yet done the survey. After 2 weeks of sending reminders, the researcher closed the survey and sent a thank you email to the Ministry of Higher Education.

This chapter presents a summary of the study and conclusions drawn from the data presented in Chapter 4. This chapter is divided into three parts: first, a summary of the study including a restatement of the study’s purpose and research questions, the study’s methodology, and a presentation of the major findings. The second section presents conclusions and a description of how the study findings relate to the existing body of literature. The third section presents recommendations for future research and the researcher’s final thoughts about the study.

Statement of the problem. A failure to identify the gap between skills required and current performance causes major problems in terms of time, resources, and money, all which
have been wasted on unnecessary and ineffective training for the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia’s Ministry of Higher Education. Therefore, this study focused on analyzing the skills that women in educational leadership need to possess by conducting a training needs analysis.

**Purpose statement.** The purpose of this study was to analyze the training needs for female school principals in Saudi Arabia by identifying the gap between current and desired leadership qualities. This was done by comparing the teachers’ perspective and the principals’ perspective of the current and desired skills for principals. The results can be used to determine whether or not the principals need to attend leadership development programs. The research also explored the differences between the principals’ self-perceptions of their current skills and their desired skills.

**Research questions.** This study explored the following research questions:

1. What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers?
2. What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals as perceived by principals?
3. What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers?
4. What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by principals?
5. What are the gaps, if any exist, between the current self-reported leadership skills with the desired skills as perceived by principals?
6. What are the gaps, if any exist, between the current leadership skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by teachers?
**Study methodology.** A quantitative approach was utilized in this study. The researcher developed two survey questionnaires. The first survey was administered to the school principals and superintendents, and the second survey was directed to the teachers, and administrators. Two hundred twenty-three participants completed the survey; 158 teachers and administrators completed the teachers’ survey, which was used to measure the teachers’ perceptions of the principals’ current skills and the skills they wish principals to have. Moreover, 65 principals and superintendents completed the principals’ survey, which was used to measure their perceptions of their current and desired skills in order to determine the gap in these skills. The researcher then compared the results that were collected from both surveys and identified the gap in the principals’ skills.

**The Process of Training Needs Analysis**

Although conducting training needs analysis can be a daunting task, it is a relatively straightforward process. Researchers have identified several steps to produce training needs analysis: (a) identify current level of principals’ skills, (b) identify the desired training outcomes, (c) identify the training gap (if any), (d) evaluate and prioritize the competencies, and then, (e) identify the appropriate training developmental program.

**Relating the Major Findings of the Study Literature**

This study involved conducting training needs analysis for school principals to identify the gap between their current skills and the desired skills (Pfau, 2000). Researchers have agreed that quality of school leadership makes a difference in students’ outcomes (Rhodes, 2006). Distributed leadership and instructional leadership are two theories are based on the notion that school leaders set clear goals or visions, evaluate teachers, and focus their efforts on improving teaching and students’ learning. According to Hallinger and Heck (1998), principals contribute to
students’ learning indirectly through their influence on the school staff. From the literature that school principals need to have the leadership skills that are necessary to perform their job.

**Research question 1.** Research question 1 asked, what are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers? To answer the research questions a descriptive statistical analysis approach was utilized to evaluate the relevant survey items that were ranked high enough to be considered significant. The participant had the opportunity to select three qualities that they thought their principals currently demonstrate. The highest rated item was flexibility (\( M = 27.74 \)). The second highest current skill of the principals was active listening (\( M = 9.49 \)), which was ranked equally highly as assertiveness (\( M = 9.49 \)). As stated by Ames and Flynn (2007), assertiveness helps leaders to control situations by expressing their views while respecting others’ rights.

**Research question 2.** Research question 2 asked, What are the current educational leadership qualities of female principals as perceived by principals? To answer this question, a descriptive statistical analysis approach was utilized to evaluate the relevant survey items, which were rated to select the three highest ranked skills they think they demonstrate as principals. Participants were asked to rate skills along a 5-point Likert scale for each skill, from 1 = much less important skill for a school principal to 5 = much more important skill for a school principal. Table 2 lists the highest ranked qualities for school principals to possess.

The highest rated items were flexibility and adaptability (63%), assertiveness (53%), and teamwork (40%). According to Llopis (2014) and Walter (2013), flexibility, adaptability and team-mindedness, are considered interpersonal skills that female leaders possess more than men leaders.
Research question 3. Research question 3 asked, What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by teachers? To answer this question, a descriptive statistics analysis approach was utilized to evaluate the relevant survey items at a statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level. Flexibility and adaptability (62%), conflict resolutions (44%), active listening (42), and motivating others (38%) were the highest ranked skills that teachers selected as desired skills for their school principals.

Research question 4. Research question 4 asked, What are the desired educational leadership qualities of female principals in Saudi Arabia as perceived by principals? To answer this question, relevant survey items were correlated with the desired qualities as perceived by the principals. Presentation skills (57%), conflict resolution (47%), and vision (38%) were the three highest ranked skills in which principals believe they need to receive training. The literature has also suggested that female leaders should possess these skills (Stevens et al., 2008; Walter, 2013)

Research question 5. Research question 5 asked, what are the gaps, if any exist, between the current self-reported leadership skills with the desired skills as perceived by principals? To answer this question, relevant survey items were correlated with the desired qualities perceived by the principals. Table 4 presents a comparison between the current and desired skills perceived by principals that were significant at $p = .05$. The study found significant differences between the current and desired principals’ skills.

Research question 6. Research question 6 asked, what are the gaps, if any exist, between the current leadership skills for principals with the desired skills as perceived by teachers? To answer this question, relevant survey items were correlated with the desired qualities perceived by the principals. For the 10 qualities resulting in correlation, seven were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. An examination of the literature yielded support for the findings as well as the
implication that female school leaders in Saudi Arabia need to be trained in the following skills: active listening ($p = .001$), Assertiveness ($p = .001$), conflict resolution ($p = .001$), adaptability and flexibility ($p = .001$), vision ($p = .001$), team work ($p = .001$), empathy ($p = .016$), and motivating others ($p = .001$).

The literature noted several important traits for school leaders, such as interpersonal skills, communication skills, listening skills, and empathy, study the findings support that these same traits are critical for effective school principals. From analyzing the relevant survey items related to the research questions, it is evident that female school leaders in Saudi Arabia require the same traits a leader must have to lead any organization (Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009). The findings of this study revealed the following significant differences between the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions:

- Based on the teachers’ perceptions, there is a significant gap between principals’ current and desired skills.
- From the principals’ point of view, there is a significant difference between the principals’ current and desired skills.
- There was a significant difference between the teachers’ and principals’ perception of principals’ current and desired skills.
- There is a gap between the principals’ current skills and their desired skills from the teachers’ perceptions.

**Identifying the gap between the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of desired skills for principals.** The researcher identified 10 qualities for effective school leaders that were drawn from the literature: active listening, assertiveness, conflict resolutions, flexibility and adaptability, vision, teamwork, presentation skills, understanding others (empathy), motivation,
A descriptive statistics analysis approach was utilized to evaluate the relevant survey items that were ranked high enough to be considered significant. The researchers compared the responses regarding each skill from the teachers’ and the principals’ survey to identify the following skills gaps:

- **Active listening:** 42% of the teachers think that their principals should have this skill, but only 10% of the principals believe they need it. Thirty-three percent of the principals think they are already active listeners.

- **Thirty percent of teachers think that assertiveness is an important skill for principals.** In contrast, 14% of the principals think they should obtain this skill because they think they already have it.

  skills, so the average was from both group is \( M = 44\% \) for both.

- **Sixty-two percent of the teachers think that principals should be flexible and adaptable, yet 63% of the principals think that they are already flexible.**

- **Thirty-eight percent of the principals want to be trained in developing a school vision.** In contrast, only 5% of teachers think this skill is important. Therefore, it is essential for principals to clarify the importance of vision for the teachers.

- **Encouraging the staff to work, as a team was another skill that showed significant differences between the principals and the teachers. Twenty-eight percent of the teachers want principals to be trained in teamwork skills, yet 20% of the principals think this skill is important.**

- **Fifty-six percent of the principals think that presentation skills are important.** However, only 5% of the teachers think this skill is important.
Thirty-eight percent of the teachers want the principals to obtain skills in motivating others. However, only 19% of the principals want to receive training in that area because 40% of the principals think they already have this skill.

However, both teachers and principals agree that empathy is a skill that principals should have or be trained in, yet the providing feedback skill did not receive large differences between the principals and the teachers and

**Identifying the gap between the principals’ self-reported current skills and desired skills.** A descriptive statistics analysis approach was utilized to evaluate the relevant survey items that were ranked high enough to be considered significant. Then the principals’ perceptions of the averages between the principals’ current and desired skills were compared.

- **Active listening:** In the current skills the principals evaluated this skill at $M = 32$. However, in the desired skills, the principals rated it at $M = 10.3$. Thus, they evaluated themselves higher in terms of their current possession of this skill and were less likely to rate the skill as a desired one.

- **Assertiveness:** In terms of current skills, principals rated assertiveness at $M = 53$, yet in terms of desired skills, principals ranked it at $M = 13.7$. Principals believe that they are good at assertiveness currently, so less of them selected this quality as a desired skill for training.

- **Conflict resolution:** In terms of current skills, principals rated conflict resolution at $M = 36$, but in terms of desired skills, they rated it at $M = 46$. The desired skill was rated higher than the current skills even though there was no significant difference between the two.
• Flexibility and adaptably: In the current skills, the principals rated this skill at $M = 62$. However, in the desired skills they rated it at $M = 15$. Therefore, they ranked themselves high currently in this skill and they rated it low as a desired skill.

• Vision: In the current skills vision was given an $M = 31$, yet in the desired skills the principal rated it at $M = 38$.

• Teamwork: In the current skills the principals rated this skill at $M = 53.45$, but in the desired skills they rated it at $M = 20.6$. Thus, they rated themselves high in teamwork at present and low as a desired skill, indicating their belief that they do not need to improve in this skill.

• Presentation skills: In the current skills, the principals rated this at $M = 3.45$, yet in the desired skills they rated it at $M = 57$. Currently they rated this skill very low, yet would like to be trained in this skill in the future.

• Understanding others (empathy): In the current skills, the principals rated this at $M = 13.7$, yet the desired skill was rated at $M = 29$.

• Motivating: The current skill was rated at $M = 39.6$, but the desired skill was rated at $M = 18.9$. Currently, most of the principals believe that they are good to motivating their staff, so as a desired skill fewer principals selected it.

• Providing feedback: The current skill was rated at $M = 22.4$, but the desired skill was rated at $M = 22.4$.

Although the principals’ and the teachers’ results yielded some significant differences regarding the qualities they believe principals should have, both agreed on that the principals should receive training in developing their leadership skills.
Other Findings

- Forty percent of teachers have been in schools for more than 10 years, yet 39% of the principals have been school principals for less than 5 years. This finding indicated that the teachers’ years of experience might have significant impact on how they perceive their principals’ skills.

- Some of the questions had another option to give participants the opportunity to add an answer that they did not find in the answers provided by the researcher. Most of the answers that were found in the other options were not specific. However, they indicated that principals should treat teachers equally, and attend leadership development courses.

- A question in both surveys was used to determine if the principals are competent for the job. When comparing the teachers’ responses to the principals’ responses in Table 1, there was a significant difference at an alpha of .05; 10.4% of teachers think that principals have poor competency, whereas none of the principals selected that option. Whereas only 1.7% of the principals indicated that they possess average competency, 27% of the teachers selected that option for the principals. As a result, principals have high standard of themselves that they are competent to do their job. Yet, some of the teachers do not think that.

- The majority of the respondents were teachers who hold a bachelor’s degree. Forty percent of the teachers have more than 10 years of experience, which indicates that they have been working in schools for long time. However, 38% of the principal have been there in less than 5 years, which indicated that they have been school principals in shorter time than most of the teachers. Eighty percent of the teachers think it is
important for principals to attend training programs to accomplish their job requirements.

**Recommendations for Practice**

This research study determined that there is a significant difference between the current and desired skills for female school leaders in Saudi Arabia. The findings strongly suggested that female school leaders should attend leadership development courses. The study’s findings lead to recommendations for the Ministry of Higher Education leaders to provide the necessary and appropriate training programs for female school leaders. Moreover, future-training options should be determined by assessing how well principals’ current skills meet their job requirements. Based on this study’s findings and a review of prior research in this area, the following recommendations are suggested:

- Due to the significant gap that was found in this research, the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia should build its own academy for school leadership and development to provide specific courses for school principals. It will be useful to create a research and development department to help to improve school leaders in different situations. It also, will minimize the cost and time to train schools leaders instead of paying to external institutions which are most of the time are not qualified to train school leadership. This academy will make sure that there is a transfer of learning through providing a real life experiences examples for the principals.

- School principals should not limit their leadership skills to a single skill. Although some skills are more important than others, but combination of interpersonal skills such as empathy, effective listening, flexibility, and motivating others are especially important skills for effective school leaders to develop.
• It is recommended that female school leaders in Saudi Arabia attend developmental programs that will help them build effective communication and interpersonal skills when dealing with school staff such as active listening, empathy, assertiveness, adaptability, and motivation.

• Leadership training program should train school leaders to coach teachers and plan appropriate development activities. Also, they should utilize data to identify the students’ needs.

• School principals should attend training courses that will help them to apply theory to practice. Principals should analyze real-life leadership challenges and learn to respond to them. For example, utilizing techniques that are well suited to adult learning such as problem based learning, so they are required to examine data from their own schools.

• Training should go beyond a mere understanding of classroom instructions. Rather, it should give principals the opportunities to experience leadership firsthand.

• To achieve the goal of having principals who are ready to lead school, much still remains to be done. The Ministry of Higher Education has to make connections between the teachers and the principals needs and the training courses it provides. Thus, the content in the development programs should be more connected to leadership standards. Training also needs to be connected to the realities of the school environment.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study and its findings present some opportunities for future research into school leadership and training needs analysis: (a) a replication of the study in multiple settings and
cultures, and (b) a comparative study of leadership skills of female school principals and male school principals. Training needs analysis for female school principals to identify the gap between current and desired skills deserves additional study in other settings, such as different cultures. This study involved female principals in Saudi Arabia, which has a separated school system between men and women. It would be interesting to see what results would be found in other studies involving mixed school systems and only study female principals.

**Conclusion, Findings, and Implications**

The purpose of this study was to identify the gap in leadership skills among female school principals in Saudi Arabia. This chapter discussed the survey finding from 151 teachers and 65 principals who took an online questionnaire. The findings were discussed in relation to previous research and implications for the leadership skills of school principals. As described in Chapter 2, despite the fact that school principals are considered leaders, they are not being trained and prepared for their positions as being leaders.

The study findings suggest that there is a significant gap between the current and desired skills for female school leaders in Saudi Arabia. The majority of the respondents suggested that female school principals should attend leadership development courses. The participants endorsed the following traits as the most important skills for effective school principals (see Table 8).

No single leadership skill was selected to be adopted entirely; rather, teachers, administrators, and principals recommended that a female school leader who is dynamic in her approach toward leading students, teachers, and situations should be more inspiring. This study added to the current body of leadership knowledge with implications for skills needed by school leaders. The study outlined skills that school principals should obtain in order to lead a
successful school environment. Principals should utilize systems thinking, understanding the relationship among the various school systems for better decision-making in order to diagnose problems and arrive at practical solutions.

Table 8

*Important Skills Principals Need to Acquire In Order To Be Effective Leaders*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Teachers’ Responses</th>
<th>Principals’ Responses</th>
<th>Significant difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective listening</td>
<td>$M = 34$</td>
<td>$M = 62$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>$M = 46$</td>
<td>$M = 62$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>$M = 28$</td>
<td>$M = 43$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and flexibility</td>
<td>$M = 40$</td>
<td>$M = 53$</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>$M = 29$</td>
<td>$M = 39.6$</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>$M = 28$</td>
<td>$M = 58.6$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation skills</td>
<td>$M = 19$</td>
<td>$M = 46$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>$M = 27$</td>
<td>$M = 56$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>$M = 27$</td>
<td>$M = 25.8$</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td>$M = 35$</td>
<td>$M = 50$</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary and Concluding Thoughts**

The research provided an opportunity to conduct training needs analysis for female school principals in Saudi Arabia. Different leadership theories and traits for effective school principals were analyzed. The empirical research findings attained from this research were important in developing a well-rounded perspective regarding the necessary leadership skills for school principals. This study’s results should inspire educational leaders at the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Higher Education to provide appropriate developmental training programs for school leaders so that they can build successful learning environments. There is no quick fix for achieving these goals, but there is an imperative to improve the schools in Saudi Arabia by strengthening the preparation of school leaders.
References


Chiu, W., Thompson, D., Mak, W., & Lo, K. L. (1999). Re-thinking training needs analysis. 
Personnel Review, 28(1), 77-90. doi:10.1108/00483489910249009


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*Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*, 137-145. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.137


APPENDIX A

Copy of IRB Approval

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY
Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

May 5, 2015

Faten Alsari Salem

Protocol #: E0315D02
Project Title: Training Needs Analysis for Women in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia

Dear Ms. Salem:

Thank you for submitting your application, Training Needs Analysis for Women in Educational Leadership in Saudi Arabia, for exempt review to Pepperdine University’s Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your faculty advisor, Dr. Stephens, have done on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations (45 CFR 46 - http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansub/requirementsforexemptionunderthefederalregulations.html) that govern the protections of human subjects. Specifically, section 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) states:

(b) Unless otherwise required by Department or Agency heads, research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects will be in one or more of the following categories are exempt from this policy:

Category (2) of 45 CFR 46.101, research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: a) Information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and b) any disclosure of the human subjects’ responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

In addition, your application to waive documentation of informed consent has been approved.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a Request for Modification Form to the GPS IRB. Because your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual (see link to “policy material” at http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/).
Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval. Should you have additional questions, please contact Kevin Collins, Manager of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at gpsirb@pepperdine.edu. On behalf of the GPS IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Thema Bryant-Davis, Ph.D.
Chair, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives
    Mr. Brett Leach, Compliance Attorney
    Dr. Ron Stephens, Faculty Advisor
APPENDIX B

Copy of English Surveys

Survey Questionnaire (principals)

Demographic Questions

1. What is your position?
   • Principal
   • Assistant principal

2. Years of experience in your current job.
   • Less than 1 year
   • 1-5 years
   • 5-10 years
   • More than 10 years

3. Educational qualification
   • High School Diploma
   • Associate’s Degree or equivalent
   • Undergraduate degree
   • Post graduate degree
   • Secondary education
   • Diploma or equivalent
   • Other, Please specify…..

4. List your top three job responsibilities....
   • Communicate with Board about needs and successes of school
   • Enforce policies
   • Oversee the development of curriculum
   • Teacher evaluation
   • Student supervision/ discipline
   • Managing school finance
   • Supporting teachers
   • Prepare school reports and records
   • Participating the hiring process of new teacher
   • Communicate with parent
   • Other, please specify…….

Work Performance Questions

5. How would you describe your current job performance?
   • Very good
• Good
• Average
• Poor

6. How would you rate your skill set to accomplish your job responsibilities?
   • Very Good
   • Good
   • Average
   • Poor

7. Are you satisfied with your current performance?
   • Highly Satisfied
   • Satisfied
   • To some extent Satisfied
   • Not at all

8. In the work environment, what is the most challenge do you face that affect your work performance? If yes, please specify.
   • Yes ..................................................
   • No

9. Do you think it is important to have opportunities for training/development at work? If yes, please specify.
   • Yes ..........................................................  
   • No

**Knowledge and Skills Questions**

Please rank from 1 (being least preferred) to 5 (being most preferred)

10. How satisfied are you with your current skill level in these areas in your job? Please select three answers.
   • Active listening 1 2 3 4 5
   • Assertiveness 1 2 3 4 5
   • Conflict resolution 1 2 3 4 5
   • Adaptability and flexibility 1 2 3 4 5
   • Presentation skills 1 2 3 4 5
   • Vision 1 2 3 4 5
   • Team work 1 2 3 4 5
   • Understanding others (empathy) 1 2 3 4 5
   • Motivating others 1 2 3 4 5
   • Providing feedback 1 2 3 4 5
11. How interested would you be in taking training courses covering these skills?

- Active listening: 1 2 3 4 5
- Assertiveness: 1 2 3 4 5
- Conflict resolution: 1 2 3 4 5
- Adaptability and flexibility: 1 2 3 4 5
- Presentation skills: 1 2 3 4 5
- Vision: 1 2 3 4 5
- Team work: 1 2 3 4 5
- Understanding others (empathy): 1 2 3 4 5
- Motivating others: 1 2 3 4 5
- Providing feedback: 1 2 3 4 5
- Others please specify…….

12. Have you attended any continuing education programs in the 5 past years?

- Yes
- No

If your answer is yes, write the name of the program below and indicate its content values to your work.

The name of the program ……………………………

- High value
- Average
- Low value

13. What skills are you lacking? Please select three answers.

- Active listening
- Assertiveness
- Conflict resolution
- Adaptability and flexibility
- Vision
- Presentation skills
- Team work
- Understanding others (empathy)
- Motivating others
- Providing feedback
- Other, please specify
Survey Questionnaire for Teacher

Demographic Questions

1) What is your position?
   • Assistant principal
   • Administrator
   • Teacher

2) Years of experience in your current job.
   • Less than 1 year
   • 1-5 years
   • 5-10 years
   • More than 10 years.

3) Educational qualification
   • High School Diploma
   • Associate’s Degree or equivalent
   • Post graduate degree
   • Secondary education
   • Diploma or equivalent
   • Other, Please specify….

4) List the principal’s top three job responsibilities.
   • Communicate with Board about needs and successes of school
   • Enforce policies
   • Oversee the development of curriculum
   • Teacher evaluation
   • Student supervision/ discipline
   • Managing school finance
   • Supporting teachers
   • Prepare school reports and records
   • Participating the hiring process of new teacher
   • Shape Culture
   • Develop school vision
   • Inspire learning
   • Communicate with parent
   • Other, please specify…….

Work Performance Questions
5) How would you describe the principal’s current job performance?
   • Excellent
   • Good
   • Neutral
   • Poor

6) How would you rate the principal’s skill set to accomplish her job responsibilities?
   • Excellent
   • Good
   • Neutral
   • Poor

7) Are you satisfied with the principal’s current performance?
   • Highly Satisfied
   • Satisfied
   • To some extent Satisfied
   • Not at all

8) Do you think it is important to have opportunities for training for the principal? If yes, please specify.
   • Yes ............................................................
   • No

Knowledge and Skills Questions

Please rank from 1 (being least preferred) to 5 (being most preferred)

9) How important are the following skills in the performance of the principal’s job?
   • Active listening 1 2 3 4 5
   • Assertiveness 1 2 3 4 5
   • Conflict resolution 1 2 3 4 5
   • Adaptability and flexibility 1 2 3 4 5
   • Presentation skills 1 2 3 4 5
   • Vision 1 2 3 4 5
   • Team work 1 2 3 4 5
   • Understanding others (empathy) 1 2 3 4 5
   • Motivating others 1 2 3 4 5
   • Providing feedback 1 2 3 4 5
   • Other, please specify….

10) How satisfied are you with your current skill level in these areas in your job? Please select three answers.
    • Active listening 1 2 3 4 5
    • Assertiveness 1 2 3 4 5
11) What qualities or responsibilities and skills do you expect from the current principal? Please select three answers.

- Active listening
- Assertiveness
- Conflict resolution
- Adaptability and flexibility
- Presentation skills
- Team work
- Understanding others (empathy)
- Vision
- Motivating others
- Providing feedback
- Other, please specify

12) What skills is the principal lacking? Please select three answers.

- Active listening
- Assertiveness
- Conflict resolution
- Adaptability and flexibility
- Presentation skills
- Team work
- Understanding others (empathy)
- Vision
- Motivating others
- Providing feedback
- Other, please specify
APPENDIX C
Copy of Arabic Surveys
1- ما مهنتك؟
- مساعد مدير
- معلم
- أدارية

2- كم عدد سنوات الخبرة في وظيفتك الحالية؟
- أقل من عام
- من 1 إلى 5 أعوام
- من 5 إلى 10 أعوام
- أكثر من 10 أعوام

3- الدرجة العلمية:
- شهادة ثانوية
- خريجة معهد علي
- درجة جامعية
- البكالوريوس
- آخر (من فضلك قومي بنكرها)

4- ذكرى أهم ثلاث مهار ووظيفة لمدير المدرسة
- التفاصل مع مجلس إدارة المدرسة بما يحقق التفوق الدراسي بالمدرسة
- تنفيذ اللجان
- الإرادة بالمناهج
- تقييم المعلمين
- المحافظة على التضييق وسلوك الطلاب
- إدارة مدرسة
- دعم المعلمين
- تجهيز تقارير المدرسة وسجلاتها
- استخدام معلمين جدد بالمدرسة
- التوعية بلغة الطلاب
- تطوير رؤية المدرسة
- المحافظة على الجودة التعليمية
- التواصل مع الوالدين
- آخر (من فضلك قومي بنكرها)

5- أسلحة الإداء الوظيفي
- كيف تقاس الإداء الوظيفي؟
- ممتاز
- جيد
- مقبول
- ضعيف
1. ما هو تقييمك لمهارات مديرتك الحالية في إعداد مستوياتها الوظيفية؟
   • ممتاز
   • جيد جداً
   • متوسط
   • مقبول
   • ضعيف

7. ما هو تقييمك لمستوى معايير العمل في أداء مستوياتها الوظيفية الحالية؟
   • ممتاز
   • جيد جداً
   • متوسط
   • مقبول
   • ضعيف

8. هل أنت راضي عن أداء مديرك الحالي؟
   • راضي جداً
   • راضي
   • راضي إلى حد ما
   • غير راضي

9. هل ترون أنه من ال необходимا أن تتم التدريب (إذا كانت الإجابة ب نعم، ذكر الأسباب من فضلك)
   • نعم: ..................................................
   • لا: ..................................................

استمارة المعرفة والمراة

10. هل مديرتك الحالية كفؤ في تقديم واجباتها الوظيفية؟
   • نعم
   • لا
   • إجابة أخرى (انشرها بالتحديد)

11. ما هو تقييمك لمهارات ومهارات مديرك الوظيفية الحالية؟
   • ممتاز
   • جيد جداً
   • متوسط
   • مقبول
   • ضعيف

12. من فضلك، قومي بتحديد من 1 (الأقل تفضيلاً) إلى 5 (الأكثر تفضيلاً)
    ما هي أهمية المهارات التالية في أداء مديرتك الوظيفية؟
    • الالتزام ب':{'value':3},
    • قوة الشخصية {'value':3},
    • حل المشكلات {'value':3},
    • المرونة في التعامل {'value':3},
    • مهارات التحقيقات {'value':3},
    • الألوان الاستثنائية {'value':3},
    • العمل الاجتماعي {'value':3},
    • فهم المشاكل {'value':3},
    • تفوق الأفكار {'value':3},
    • إعطاء التوجيهات {'value':3},
    • الإجابة أخرى (انشرها بالتحديد)
13. ما مدى رضاك عن مستوى قدرات ومهارات المدير الوظيفي؟
- الاستماع بنغالية 0 4 3 2 1
- قوة التحصين 0 4 3 2 1
- حل المشكلات 0 4 3 2 1
- المرونة في التعامل 0 4 3 2 1
- مهارات التفاوض 0 4 3 2 1
- العمل الجماعي 0 4 3 2 1
- فهم مشاعر الآخرين 0 4 3 2 1
- الروتين المعتاد 0 4 3 2 1
- تحسين الآخرين 0 4 3 2 1
- اعتماد التوجيهات والإرشادات 0 4 3 2 1
- أخرى (قمي بتذكرها)

14. ما هي المهارات والقدرات التي تجب أن تكون في المديرة؟ الوجهاء اختيار ثلاثة إجابات
- الاستماع بنغالية
- قوة التحصين
- حل المشكلات
- المرونة في التعامل
- مهارات التفاوض
- العمل الجماعي
- فهم مشاعر الآخرين
- تحسين الآخرين
- اعتماد التوجيهات والإرشادات
- أخرى (قمي بتذكرها)

15. ما هي المهارات التي تخصص مديرك؟ من فضلك قم بتخليد ثلاثة اختيارات
- الاستماع بنغالية
- قوة التحصين
- حل المشكلات
- المرونة في التعامل
- مهارات التفاوض
- الروتين المعتاد
- العمل الجماعي
- فهم مشاعر الآخرين
- تحسين الآخرين
- اعتماد التوجيهات والإرشادات
- أخرى (قمي بتذكرها)
لا يوجد نص يمكن قراءته بشكل طبيعي من الصورة المقدمة.
APPENDIX D

Site Approval Letter in English

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Education
280
General Admin for Education, Riyadh Region
Planning and Development Admin.

No. : 36942068
Date: 12/05/1436H - 03/03/2015

Facilitating Research Duty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Researcher / University</th>
<th>Faten Salem Al Sarli / Pepperdine University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of study</td>
<td>Acquiring the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PHD)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research authority</td>
<td>Headmasters / Teachers / Administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Facility</td>
<td>Satisfy requirement for specified sample of research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mrs. / Head master of / Elementary / Intermediate / Secondary school

Greetings

Based on His Excellency Minister of Education No. 610/55 dated 17/09/1416H regarding authorization of general administrations for Education to issue permit letters for the researchers to carry on the researches and studies, and based on the authorization of general manager of education planning and development in the letter No. 33674823/11 dated 14/04/1433H regarding facilitation males and females researchers tasks, and where as the researcher above mentioned her details applied for performing the study. Kindly facilitate her task, noting that the researcher will be fully responsible for distribution of tools, and receiving the research sample after performance. This does not mean that the general admin for education approval for the research problem or ways and styles used in her study and correct them.

Your cooperation is highly appreciated

Planning and Development Manager
Saud Rashid Al Abdul Latif
Signature & stamp

ر.مح. ن.س. ب. ح. ن.ر. (stamp)

E-mail: dialects2009@hotmail.com
# APPENDIX E

Site Approval Letter in Arabic

<table>
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<th>قانون الباحثة/ة</th>
<th>الكلية / الجامعة</th>
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| نص الباحثة/ة |
|----------------|-----------------|
|                |                 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>منطلق للحصول على شهادة</th>
<th>مجال الدراسة والمحلية</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>البطاقة / الدكتوراه</td>
<td>مدارس التعليم (الابتدائي/الاعدادي/ثانوي) - مقر مدارس إعداديات</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

حفظة الله

سلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

بناءً على تعميم معالي وزير التربية والتعليم رقم 55/100 واريخ 9/17/1419 هـ بشأن تفهم

التدريب العام للتدريب والتعليم بإصدار خطابات السماح لضاحتين بإجراء البحوث والدراسات.

وبالإذن للتعليم مدير عام إدارة التربية والتعليم إدارة التخطيط والتطوير في الرقم

3324837/11/2013 واريخه 1/14/1419 هـ بشأن تفويضهم بمهم الباحثين والباحثات. نفتمسم أن لا معنى

من تفويض الدراسة على نطاق مجال المعرفة المحاذية للإدارة التعليمية والتعليم بمبة

الرياضيات مع ملاحظة أن السماح بها تكون مطلوبة قادمة الموافقة على ضرورة البحث أو على

الطرق والأساليب المستخدمة في دراستها ومراجعتها. بناءً على طلبهم تم منحها الإفادة.

沙特阿拉伯王国

مدير إدارة التخطيط والتطوير

سعود بن راشد آل عبد الحليم

1/12/1419
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Dear Teacher/Administrator

My name is Faten Salem Al Sari, a doctoral student in Education and Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, who is currently in the process of recruiting individuals for my study entitled, *Training Needs Analysis for Women in Educational Leadership*. The professor supervising my work is Dr. Ron Stephens. The study is designed to investigate the skills that women in educational leadership need to possess. Therefore, I am inviting current teachers and principals to participate in this study that the Ministry of Education approved. Please understand that your participation in my study is strictly voluntary. All data collected will remain anonymous meaning that no identifying data will be collected. The following is a description of what your study participation entails, the terms for participating in the study, and a discussion of your rights as a study participant. Please read this information carefully before deciding whether or not you wish to participate.

If you should decide to participate in the study, you will be asked to complete a survey. It should take approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete the survey you have been asked to complete. Please complete the survey alone in a single setting.

Although minimal, there are potential risks that you should consider before deciding to participate in this study. These risks include breach of confidentiality, boredom, fatigue. For the principals taking this survey you may feel a lack of self confidence, self esteem and/or feel that they are being judged as a result of participation.

There are no potential benefits to you for participating in the study, with exception that the result of the study may positively inform the Ministry of Education of your thinking as recommendations that could enhance the preparation for future education leaders.

If you should decide to participate and find you are not interested in completing the survey in its entirety, you have the right to discontinue at any point without being questioned about your decision. You also do not have to answer any of the questions on the survey that you prefer not to answer—just leave such items blank.

After 1 week, a reminder note will be sent to you to complete and return the survey. Since this note will go out to everyone, I apologize ahead of time for sending you these reminders if you have complied with the deadline.

If the findings of the study are presented to professional audiences or published, no information that identifies you personally will be released. The data will be kept in a secure manner for at least three years at which time the data will be destroyed. I will providing the deidentified aggregate results to King Abdullah Project which is sanctioned by the Ministry of Education.

If you have any questions regarding the information that I have provided above, please do not hesitate to contact me at the address and phone number provided below. If you have further
questions or do not feel I have adequately addressed your concerns, please contact Dr. Ron Stephens, Faculty Advisor at ron.stephens@pepperdine.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Dr. Thema Bryant-Davis, Chairperson of the GPS IRB at Pepperdine University via email at: gpsirb@pepperdine.edu or at 310-568-5753.

By completing the survey and returning it to me, you are acknowledging that you have read and understand what your study participation entails, and are consenting to participate in the study.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information, and I hope you decide to participate in this important study. Please remember to send me back the survey whether you decide to participate in the study or not. You are welcome to request a brief summary of the study findings upon the study completion.

Sincerely,

Faten Salem Alsari
Doctoral Candidate, Pepperdine University