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Views of private primary school headteachers in Somalia about what it means to be professional headteacher.

By

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late mother, Maryan Hussein Ahmed, who passed away during my study for her historical input into my education during my childhood. Her noble effort includes the persistent blessings and dua's she showered on me throughout my life. She is an incredible human being with many strengths and much courage. I remember that during exams, she would take my pencils and pens to the local imams for a prayer and ask Allah to make my exams easier, and that these were miracle pens and pencils that successfully contributed to my success. Thank you, mother.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BERA: British Educational Research Association

BLF: Building Learning Foundation

CEC: Community Education Committee

CPD: Continuous Professional Development

CRC: Convention of Rights for the Child

CSZ: Central-South zone

DCSF: Department for Children Schools and Families

DfE: Department for Education

DPA: Data Protection Act

ESA: Education Sector Analysis

ESDP: Education Sector Development Program

ESP: Education Sector Plan

ESSP: Education Sector Strategic Plan

FGS: Federal Government of Somalia

FMS: Federal Member States

FPENS: The Formal Private Education Network in Somalia

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

GDPR: General Data Protection Regulation

GLOBE: Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness

GMR-EFA: Global Monitoring Report, Education for All

GoK: Government of Kenya

GPE: Global Partnership for Education

HE: Higher Education

HeadLAMP   Heads' Leadership and Management Programme.

HT: Head Teacher

HTTM: Head Teacher Training Manual

INGO: International Non-Governmental Organisation

JRES: Joint Education Sector Analysis

KSA: Knowledge, Skills, Abilities

LCPS: Low-Cost private schools

LEA: Local Education Authority

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

MEHS: Ministry of Education and Higher Studies

MoE: Ministry of Education

MOECHE: Ministry of Education Culture and Higher Education

MoHDPS: Ministry of Human Development and Public Services

MoU: Memorandum of Understanding

NDP: National Development Plan

NEZ: North-East zone

NGO: Non-governmental organisation

NPQH: National Professional Qualification for Headship

NPQH: National Professional Qualifications

NQT: Newly Qualified Teacher

NTHt: Non-Teacher Headteacher

NWZ: North-West zone

OFSTED: Office of Standards for Education

PEER: Programme for Education in Emergencies and Reconstruction

PSP: Private School's Policy

R4D: Results for Development

REB: Rwanda Education Board

SDG: Sustainable Development Goals

SLMU: School Leadership and Management Unit

SLT: Senior Leadership Teams

THt: Teacher Headteacher

TSC: Teacher Service Commission

TVET: Technical and Vocational Education and Training

UN: United Nations

UNDESA: United Nations' Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNICEF: United Nations Children's' Fund

UNOSOM: United Nations Office for Somalia

USAID: United States of America Aid and Development

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ABSTRACT

A study carried out by the World Bank in 2018 recommended that there is a need to further study the role of school leadership, as they have important roles in determining the quality of schooling. This research investigated the views held by headteachers of private primary schools in Somalia about what it means to be a professional headteacher.

The research acknowledges that the enormity of the effects on education during armed conflict and post-conflict was felt everywhere, including the total destruction of the education infrastructure, teacher training provision, the disappearance of teachers and other education professionals, as well as the preparation and development of school leaders.

The main rationale behind focusing on private over public schools in Somalia is the wider representation of schools by non-state private schools. Regions do vary in the number of existing private schools. Over 65% of schools in Somalia are privately owned, and this made the study focus on the headteachers of this subsector.

Globally, there is typically a lack of an agreed-upon set of definitions and limited information on education providers. In Somalia's context, the definition of state and non-state schools is contested, and the absence of a commonly agreed-upon definition is a challenge for those who are interested in carrying out research about the subsector.

The study highlights the significance of the role of headteachers in improving school performance and the management practices often deployed successfully. School leaders will require a broad range of skills, experience, personal qualities, or traits that make them more stable and resilient in order to effectively discharge these important roles. The study also presents a range of arguments about the eligibility

and conditions for the professionalisation of a headteacher from international and regional perspectives.

The study adopted a qualitative approach. A number of data collection tools were used, including semi-structured interviews and observations. Twenty-nine participants were interviewed, and eight were observed. For ethical purposes, the data collected in Somali was transcribed into English externally.

The findings of the study indicate that participants held different views about being a professional headteacher, but they commonly agreed that a headteacher must hold a professional qualification in teaching, leadership, and management as well as leadership experience.

Recommendations were made to a number of key players in the education sector in Somalia, including school owners, governments at both the state and federal levels, as well as private school associations and research institutions, for further research possibilities.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Context of the Problem and Rationale

Notably, this study comprises the following three significant areas of research that complement each other: preparation, development, and support of school leadership in the private education sector; the provision of education during conflict and post-conflict; and the role of non-state education providers. This study also underscores how an armed conflict environment impacts the effective management of schools and whether any factors could have directly affected day-to-day school management.

The rationale behind the study's focus on private schools, as opposed to public schools, is the overrepresentation of private schools in Somalia. Although regions do vary in the number of existing private schools, non-state education remains dominant.

1.2 Personal Context

The researcher is a consultant on educational leadership, governance, special educational needs, and disability. Additionally, he is an active member of the Somali Global Diaspora Network and has successfully completed two Masters degrees: an MSc in Educational Leadership and Management and an M.A. in inclusion, special educational needs, and disability. He has served as a school governor for over 15 years and as chair of the board of governors for over 6 years. The researcher values the role of effective school leadership and its significance in raising standards to ensure a successful school. Consequently, despite a school leader's powerful influence and potential effectiveness, 'schools that are poorly led and managed will naturally suffer in terms of both learner and organisational performance' (Harris, 2004; p. 11). As Chair of Governors in several schools, the researcher has had the opportunity to compare and contrast the differences in school leaders and the range of leadership styles applied by his colleagues in two different schools.

1.3 Country Context

The preparation, selection, recruitment, and professional development of headteachers have become the norm, and this fact is now one of the key levers for professionalising the practice. According to Pont et al. (2008, p. 108), school leaders' training and development was introduced or strengthened in many countries in the mid-1990s. The researcher has also engaged with schools in some other parts of Africa, where he has observed the impact that limited developmental opportunities for school leaders in these countries can have on their ability to lead schools effectively. Bush and Heystek (2006) share an example from South Africa, where a significant number of school leaders have not studied beyond their initial teacher qualifications. They stated the following: 'this lack of formal leadership learning in South Africa and the wider African continent can be seen as partly to blame for the underperformance of the education sector that exists in many countries in Africa' (p. 66).

Due to constant changes in schools' internal and external challenges and school leadership conditions, school leaders are expected to respond to these challenges with a transformative and measured response. This includes meeting the needs of students, supporting effective teaching, and managing the resources of their school effectively. To address these challenges, countries—including those that neighbour Somalia, such as Ethiopia and Kenya, which this study examines—have undertaken educational reforms, including the professionalisation of the role of school leaders with a specific emphasis on selecting, preparing, and developing school principals to efficiently lead a school. For example, in Kenya, 'the government considers school leadership highly significant because of the fundamental role it plays in the country's education development strategy' (Okoko et al., 2015, p. 280). Furthermore, in Ethiopia, 'the government has provided a policy direction to professionalise its educational leaders' (Gurmu, p. 652).

The researcher's recent conversation with a senior official within the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Higher Education (MoECHE) about its Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), published in 2017, revealed that unlike neighbouring

countries, the Federal Government of Somalia (FGS) has no government strategy to professionalise school headship in the country. School leadership is not a widely researched subject in Somalia, and there is no indication that the government intends to make the training and development of school leaders a priority. Thus, this research aimed to investigate the facts and to highlight some of the challenges faced by primary school headteachers in the absence of any preparation and development.

According to the National Development Plan (NDP, 2020), the post-war educational reconstruction in Somalia is slow, with most schools still either being owned by the community or managed by private-sector umbrella organisations. According to the World Bank (2018), 'currently, there are 14 such organisations, which vary greatly in size and reach, in the country that were initiated by former teachers—now leading these associations—with an interest in re-establishing education after the civil war had left the education system destroyed, with students and teachers scattered. The founders were unable to contribute significant funding to the umbrellas but turned to the Diaspora and international organisations for initial investments' (p. 72). The umbrella associations not only play the traditional role of providing networking for non-state providers but 'they have [also] taken up other roles such as intermediating between government and private schools and also providing training to school managers' (USAID, 2022, p. 37). A decentralised education system is currently being operated by the Federal Ministry of Education. However, the current system is fragmented with newly formed federal member states and regional and district-level offices, with limited technical and financial resources (NDP, 2020).

1.4 The Private School Context

In the absence of a broadly functioning government and a centrally regulated education system, 'non-state action takers became the most prominent providers of education in Somalia' (World Bank, 2018, p. 10). While a considerable amount of research has been conducted on non-state education in many conflict- and crisis-affected countries, few scholars have written on the role, types, and ownership of non-state education providers in Somalia. It is certain that these providers 'will continue to operate successfully if communities and others sustain their support' (p. 72).

Since the formation of the FGS in 2012 and with the help of international donors, several policies have been initiated to further strengthen the education sector. In 2012, the first Joint Education Sector Analysis (JRES) was completed to evaluate the state of the education sector. The federal MoECHE has also developed its own national ESSPs in collaboration with both national and international stakeholders. The current ESSP covers 2018–2020. Even though private schooling plays an active role in Somalia, a study on private school headship and its development has yet to be conducted. Although this study may not be considered a large-scale representative study, it may nevertheless be considered an initial pilot study for future and wider research on these issues.

1.5 Education in Somalia: Conflict and Post-Conflict

Somalia is located in the Horn of Africa, with an area of 637,657 sq. km and a population of 11,757,124. However, no official census has been conducted since 1975, while 'population counting in Somalia is complicated by the large number of nomads and by refugee movements in response to famine and clan warfare. Somalia gained its independence in 1960 from Britain and Italy. It borders Djibouti, Ethiopia, and Kenya (Bennaars et al., 1996).

Somalia is considered an overwhelmingly Muslim state, and it joined the League of Arab States in 1974. During the period of military rule from 1969 to 1990, Somali society was never completely culturally Arabian. However, Arabic has always been the preferred language of religious scholars and some of the educated elites who went to Arab countries to receive their education. A significant number of Somali students have undergone further studies in Arab countries, which has created a wave of Arabisation including the opening of schools and other religious-based educational settings. In addition to the initiative taken by those educated in these countries, Arab states such as 'Egypt have established Arabic-medium schools since the days of the UN Trusteeship in an agreement with the Italian colonial government. This dual education situation has often caused a rift among Somali intellectuals, some of whom, including the first head of state, Adan Abdullah Osman, preferred Italian over Arabic as the language of education, themselves having been Italian trained' (Abdinoor, 2007, p. 35).

After the takeover of power in 1969 by the former Somali government led by Mohamed Siad Barre, education became the government's priority. Several education campaigns were launched, including the introduction of the Somali language script in 1972. Another national campaign launched by the military rulers was the mass construction of schools through the '*Iskaa-wax-uqabso*' or national self-help scheme. National teacher training programmes were also introduced. '[After less] than a decade of military rule, the enrolment of primary school students, which had stood at 28,000 in 1970, rose to 271,000 by 1982, with an institutional increase of 1407 schools by 1980, up from a mere 287 in 1970' (Bennaars et al., 1996, p. 6). Bennaars et al. (1996) further explained that 'education in Somalia has been influenced by a number of dimensions, including traditional Koranic-madrassah education and colonial influences' (p. 6).

From 1991 onwards, Somalia experienced nearly two decades of civil unrest and war. The Somali people became deeply divided. During the conflict, villages and cities were indiscriminately bombed and looted, and basic services such as water, health care, and education collapsed. By 1998, the average life expectancy of a Somali person was 43 years, while the under-5 mortality rate exceeded 25%. Even before the war, Somalia had one of the world's lowest adult literacy rates. UNICEF reported in its State of the World's Children 1998 report that literacy rates for men and women in Somalia were 36% and 14%, respectively (Williams & Cummings 2015, p. 424).

The Somalia Civil War, which began in 1991, totally destroyed Somalia's education sector. According to UNICEF, approximately 90% of school buildings were destroyed, education materials and equipment were looted, and many children and teachers were displaced, while others, including educational administrators, were lost to other professions (UNICEF, 2002). The MoECHE manages a small number of schools that are predominantly based in the Benadir region, and they are the only schools classified as government schools.

Despite efforts made by the FGS to restore its role in the education sector, 'the position of umbrella associations remains strong; they are recognised as important providers of education and guarantors of minimal education quality' (World Bank,

2018, p. 72). However, 'the MoECHE is reclaiming core responsibilities, such as regulating the education sector, developing curricula and textbooks, and administering national exams that had originally been assumed by umbrella associations' (p. 72). As a result of the limited data and studies available on the types of non-state actors in Somalia, the most commonly described providers are 'the community-based organizations (CBOs) that are active in education, and these are Community Education Committees (CEC) and community-based oversight bodies that assist school administration' (p. 73).

However, in practice, these organisations are not effectively involved in school management and operational decision-making. Instead, they often only facilitate communication between school management and the community and help with fundraising. By providing a forum for parents and community stakeholders to voice their concerns to school management, CECs help to hold school management accountable. CEC members may also visit schools to assess their quality. Ultimately, teachers and headmasters use CECs to communicate with parents, such as addressing the issue of students dropping out of school. Additionally, CECs have sometimes been involved in teacher recruitment processes and the management of the teacher payroll (World Bank, 2018).

Since the start of the civil conflict, years have gone by without any schools opening for children. Abdi (1998, p. 3) stated the following: 'Only in 1993 did communities and teachers begin to re-open schools, and former educational administrators and community leaders set up informal education committees in Mogadishu. Communities in other regions also undertook similar initiatives with the help of international development organisations, such as UNESCO and UNICEF, which have begun to retrieve and reprint existing primary-level textbooks and teacher guides.

In the absence of formal education in Somalia during the conflict, the only learning activities that children could attend were in Koranic schools, which were widely available. 'The Koranic school was and still is a socio-cultural institution of great religious significance. All children, boys and girls, must attend Koranic school from the age of four onwards' (Bennaars et al., 1996, p. 11). Despite attempts by the

military regime to separate religion and state, the sentiment towards Islamic education in the country remains. Although no formal training is provided for teachers in Koranic schools—also known as madrasas—nor any set of standards for lesson planning, pupils are expected to learn to memorise and recite the Koran. Madrasas became institutionalised and fee-charging settings, particularly in cities. The learning journey in madrasas ends when the child completes the memorisation of all chapters of the Koran. 'There is little variety of activity in the Koranic classes, as it is concerned with rote memorisation of the Koran. Given this concern, the Koranic schools remain primarily religious institutions' (Bennaars et al., 1996, p. 11). Koranic schooling can be traced back to pre-independence history. Throughout the 1960s, Islamic schooling continued to appeal to Somalis, particularly at the pre-primary and elementary levels. A 1964 report estimated that some 40,000 students were enrolled in 1,928 Koranic schools in the south of the country, while approximately 3,200 students officially attended 189 such schools in the north (Cassanelli and Abdikadir, 2007).

1.5.1 State of education during conflict

Several researchers have discussed the large impact of armed conflict on education in many facets. Some of them have highlighted the physical destruction of the education system, while others have examined the extent to which these conflicts affect social development, human resources in education, and the emotional well-being of children in conflicts. Globally, of the 28.5 million primary school-aged children out of school in conflict-affected countries, 12.6 million live in sub-Saharan Africa, 5.3 million in South and West Asia, and 4 million in the Arab states. The vast majority—95% live in low- and lower-middle-income countries. Girls, who account for 55% of the total, are the worst affected, as they are often victims of rape and other sexual violence that accompanies armed conflicts (UNESCO, 2011, p. 4).

Children living amidst armed conflict face many barriers; they 'range from schools simply not being available in the worst affected areas of a country to the difficulty of recruiting sufficient teachers or persuading former teachers to return to teaching' (Save the Children, 2013, p. 3). The Attacks on Education report published by Save the Children (2013) further explained that 'even where children can access schools or schools are functioning, the chances of receiving a good-quality education—and

learning basic skills—can be diminished as a result of, for example, disrupted attendance, poor learning environments, unsafe or no school reconstruction, and reduced distribution of learning materials. In an already precarious context, these constitute additional barriers that can lead children to drop out permanently' (p. 4).

1.5.2 Delivery and access to education in conflict

During active armed conflict, the restoration and delivery of education are not considered priorities: 'It is often not considered an urgent need by those delivering and funding the aid' (Rohwerder, 2015, p. 1). Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child recognises 'the right of every child to free primary education and encourages the development of secondary education that is accessible and available' (UNICEF, 2016). Various legal measures are commonly used to support children's rights to quality basic education in conflict or crisis. 'In 2010, education delivery only received about 2 percent of humanitarian aid funding, even though the appeals often underestimate the actual education need' (UNESCO, 2011, p. 204).

Education is important for children's well-being, development, and future prospects, as well as for a country's peace, stability, and economic development, and it should be a priority for those directly affected (Save the Children, 2014, p. 3). In explaining the significance of access to education during a conflict and its benefit to children in armed conflict zones, Sinclair (2002, p. 123) stated that 'people displaced by war or calamity accord high priority to restoring education, and they see education as important for the future of their children and of their society'.

As cited in Tooley and Longfield (2017, p. 11), the Hidden Crisis Report (UNESCO 2011) stated the following: 'Whether they are in conflict zones, displaced within their own countries or refugees, parents, teachers, or children affected by conflict, they have at least one thing in common: the extraordinary level of ambition, innovation, and courage they demonstrate in trying to maintain access to education. Parents understand that education can provide children with a sense of normality and that it is an asset—something, the only asset—that they can carry with them if they are displaced'.

Providing education in conflict zones requires a collective approach and the engagement of a variety of stakeholders, including 'a community-based approach to education that exists, and community engagement requires a strong relationship of trust between external agencies and community members and a good understanding of the local context by the external actors' (Thompson et al., 2014, p. 6). According to UNESCO (2010b), numerous cases of attacks on schools, military recruitment on school grounds, sexual violence against children, as well as targeted killings of students and, in particular, teachers and humanitarian care workers, have been reported. This is a classic model as well as an important case for analysing the impact of conflict on education in Somalia. The country's educational infrastructure became the primary target of militia groups, which perpetrated 'the deliberate destruction of schools, university lecture halls, libraries, and laboratories, sometimes complemented by the targeting of the educated cadre among the warring factions' (Abdi 1998, p. 335).

The ability to minimise the impact of conflict or crisis on children's education depends on how quickly responses from either neighbouring countries or international actors are implemented, including Education in Emergencies. Education in Emergencies is a global campaign that advocates for the right to education during emergencies (Anderson, 2006). Sommers (2002) stated the following: 'Education in emergencies is a good example of how a bottom-up approach to intervention can be implemented in the local community because emergency education is largely community-centred' (p.26). The author further explained that 'most emergency educators are local professionals working for little or no pay, volunteering as members of the war-affected communities, and training must go hand-in-hand with the rehabilitation of destroyed infrastructure' (Sommers, 2002, p. 27). This local ownership can create community participation and enable the provision of education to be locally sustained.

At the early stage of the conflict in Somalia, there was a global response to reduce its impact and to restore education in the country, 'an inter-agency approach was initiated, and UNESCO was the key coordinator of the UN response. A number of initiatives and projects were introduced during 1994 and 1995, including the Basic

Education Programme, namely Koranic Education, Primary Education, Women's Education, and Psycho-Social Education' (Bennaars et al., 1996, p. 13).

As countries recover from conflict, most governments in transition 'prioritise other basic public services such as water, food, and shelter; there are often huge gaps in education provision' (USAID, 2013, p. 7). These gaps are often filled by non-state providers who have close relationships with local communities. A number of communities in countries affected by conflict, including Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Afghanistan, have stepped in to fill these gaps, as these communities have sought the continuation of their children's education. Recent studies in Afghanistan, Pakistan, Colombia, Sierra Leone, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), and Somalia have provided useful insights into successful models of affordable private schools that may help to leverage this sector to provide access and quality for low-income and marginalised populations. These models are cross-subsidisation, school-in-a-box and chain schools, community-embedded schools, government-partnered schools, and faith-based schools (USAID, 2013).

The key challenges faced by the education sector in Somalia during the civil war have included the following: 'violence in many parts of the country and fragile peace elsewhere, the lack of a national unified government structure, a dispersed population and poor infrastructure (making logistics costly and complex), low levels of basic skills in the population and a lack of training infrastructure, resulting in poor service, and a corresponding low level of ownership by Somalis of external projects' (Williams & Cummings, 2015, p. 424).

1.5.3 Rise of private schools in Somalia during conflict

The effect of armed conflict on children's education has been discussed in much literature. According to UNICEF, 'in 2016, over 109 million children were living in countries affected by violent conflict or other crises, and nearly a quarter of those children were not attending school, and such conflicts and crises held the potential to trigger a range of cascading negative effects on education systems, whether by destroying household resources or displacing populations' (UNICEF, 2016b in USAID, 2018, p. 6).

In nearly every country's educational history, the first formal educational opportunities for children were provided by non-state schools, whether run by religious organisations, philanthropists, or private interests (Macpherson, 2014; Steer et al., 2015, p. 5). As highlighted earlier, in the absence of the state or government, non-state providers respond to the urgent demand for education. In the last 20 years, the share of primary enrolment in non-state schools in low-income countries has doubled, from 11% to 22%. 'This is an indication that non-state providers account for a significant and growing proportion of enrolment' (Baum et al., 2014, cited in USAID, 2018, p. 6). However, in many cases, the data do not include unrecognised or unregistered non-state schools. Therefore, estimations of provision rates based on existing official data do not capture the full scope of non-state engagement and likely underestimate the size of the sector.

Despite the emergence of private education in many low-income countries, disagreements have revolved around questions such as whether non-state educational provision is consistent with the principle of education as a human right and inclusive of quality and equity implications, as well as around definitional issues concerning precisely what non-state education and private education are. 'UNESCO considers an educational institution "non-state" if it is controlled and managed by an NGO [non-governmental organisation] (e.g., religious group, association, or enterprise) or if it has a governing body that primarily consists of members not selected by a public agency' (Steer et al., 2015, p. 7).

A few other interested parties also refer to non-state institutions as private. For example, Day-Ashley et al. (2014) stated that 'private schools are controlled, managed, and owned largely independently of the state, and they are dependent on user fees to cover all or part of their operational and development costs, including those private schools that are identified as low-fee private schools and also referred to as Low-Cost Private Schools (LCPS)'. Tooley and Longfield (2017, p. 1) also asserted that 'LCPS are generally managed as small businesses, charging fees as low as $5 per month'.

There are several perspectives—some against and some in favour of—regarding the emergence of private schools in developing countries. The driving factors behind the

creation of these non-state schools vary. In Somalia, education activists and campaigners for quality education for all argue that the absence of state education is the core reason for the existence of a large number of private schools in the country. Despite attempts by the FGS to restore education, 'the role of the non-state providers in the delivery of education to the poor will stay as long as they have the support of the community' (Abdinoor, 2007). This perception also exists elsewhere: 'Despite the evidence, there are still some within international aid agencies, governments, and academia who do not acknowledge the success and potentialities of low-cost private schooling in developing countries' (Dixon, 2012, p. 187). 'One perspective is whether the state alone would be able to meet the primary school enrolment targets given the pressure placed on public finances' (World Bank, 2002, in Day-Ashley et al., 2014, p. 5). According to Tooley and Dixon (2003), 'LCPS emerged as a way of reaching more children with a better-quality education while also benefiting from the private sector's ability to reduce costs'. Throughout this thesis, the researcher uses the term 'private school' to denote a low-fee-charging school.

While a significant amount of research has been conducted on non-state education in many conflict- and crisis-affected countries, little of scholarly quality has been written on the role of non-state education providers in Somalia. Therefore, the researcher gathered relevant information from reports, personal experience/opinions, and key NGO documents and used them extensively to analyse the role of the private education sector in Somalia.

In discussing the rise of private schools in Somalia, Abdinoor (2007, p. 160) stated that 'their emergence followed the state collapse, when all educational infrastructures were destroyed, leaving no alternative to private schools. In fact, everything, including security and the provision of law enforcement, became private'. According to Tooley and Longfield (2017, p. 10), 'in many conflict-affected countries, communities have stepped into the vacuum created by the failure of governments to give support to education, and such efforts can deliver quick results for education and demonstrate that the government is beginning to function'. As there are no government instruments that support private education in Somalia, it heavily relies

on the support of communities, and 'they are likely to continue to thrive, so long as they have community support' (Abdinoor, 2007, p. 160).

Furthermore, Tooley and Longfield (2017, p. 13) asserted that 'countries emerging from conflict face twin challenges in education, and they need to both deliver early benefits and embark on a process of long-term reconstruction, advice that is as true for governments in more stable situations. Following the 1969 military revolution in Somalia, the military rulers immediately nationalised all private education institutions. They also banned the establishment of private schools in the country. The ban continued for nearly two decades. However, the regime permitted the establishment of private schools in the late 1980s. When the government collapsed in 1991, less than a handful of private schools had opened or were just starting to operate. As the government became unable to fund basic education, limited change became necessary.

A shift in the nation's status led to major changes in the education sector, including the transition from a transitional government to a federal republic with functioning institutions, such as an education ministry. However, the newly established federal system-based ministry has been operating without an overall education policy framework or subsector administrative procedures. In the absence of a comprehensive education policy to guide all stakeholders in the provision of education services, different entities in the private education sector have continued to deliver education without guiding policies, which has adversely affected the quality of education at all levels.

In 2017, the FGS approved the National Education Policy. It stipulates that the government's overall goals are to provide an equitable and inclusive education system that affords all learners access to free and compulsory basic education (ESSP 2017, p. 66).

As the country recovers from a state of complete collapse, the FGS has developed an ESSP with national and international partners. This document includes policy plans to engage the non-state sector for standardisation and regulation.

As part of the government's new regulatory efforts, a new private school policy (PSP) has been drafted, and the Department for Private Education and Umbrella Associations was created within the Ministry of Education for the purpose of coordinating with private education stakeholders and umbrella associations. 'Although there is active engagement between the Department and the private education sector, this engagement is not fully formalised or regulated' (World Bank, 2018, p. 21). As highlighted in the previous section, umbrella associations manage 64% of existing private schools, and they are owned privately. The government's PSP 'outlines the regulations for establishment and operation of private schools in the country' (NESSP, 2022, p. 25).

As previously mentioned, the need for the continuation of education during conflict leads families and communities at large to mobilise resources, both human and capital, to avoid any disruption to their children's education. Therefore, 'private schools are likely to continue to thrive, so long as they have community support' (Abdinoor, 2007, p. 160). In Somalia, most of the education settings are community-led and either supported by the community itself or by help received from donors, and 'they can therefore most appropriately be considered private rather than public ventures' (p. 160). It is apparent that, like in many other communities in the developing world, the affordability of private schools is a challenge for many families, and 'most people in rural areas and many in urban areas in the country cannot afford to pay the school fees of private schools, and therefore, access is severely limited' (p. 161). During the conflict, public schools were almost non-existent, and the growing number of private schools were financed with the fees paid by students and parents. Abdinoor (2007, p. 162) stated that 'this phenomenon represents a change in the institution as well as in attitude because Somalia did not have a culture of paying school fees prior to the collapse of the state, which used to provide free education. All of a sudden, society had to make a transition from free education to private education that individuals had to pay for'.

According to a recent study by USAID (2022), the FGS's schools census (2020) currently recognises 687 public schools and 910 private schools, although this is considered to be a significant underestimation of the total number of education establishments in Somalia. This school census is limited to South Central Somalia

and does not include Puntland or Somaliland, and there are also some schools that were not captured in the census. To have a unified voice in the education sector, private schools in Somalia have formed associations that bring them together and provide a platform for collaboration and working partnerships. While there are several private school associations in Somalia, the one with the most members is the Formal Private Education Network in Somalia (FPENS). FPENS is the largest association of private schools in Somalia, with over 1,080 members of individual schools or groups of schools owned by foundations in South Central Somalia and Puntland (USAID, 2022). Twelve of the schools selected for this study were members of FPENS. For safety reasons, the study did not engage other associations, and others in other regions were approached individually.

FPENS was established in Mogadishu on 14th January 1999 by 14 foundations and associations involved in education, which were running 50 schools in the large cities of Somalia with approximately 2,400 students. Soon after its establishment, FPENS prepared its regulations based on Islamic law. Among its early activities, it reviewed how the founding associations and foundations had worked to create a system for strengthening cooperation between them, which led to the extension of quality education throughout the country. At present, the member foundations number 153, and they run 453 schools, with a total of 319,048 learners in both primary and secondary schools and 8,015 teachers. In addition, the umbrella association has 2,309 employees. Some of its main goals are to encourage member organisations to provide quality basic education, to create a solid funding base to cover its services, and to encourage coordinated research programmes within the network (FPENS, 2020). These network-based initiatives were taken by members of FPENS as well as perhaps other associations to address educational issues and adopt policies such as teacher training, curriculum development, certification, and coordination among member schools, which are normally addressed by national governments.

1.5.4 Terms and terminologies used to describe private schools

Various terms and terminologies exist for describing private schools due to a 'lack of an agreed set of definitions and limited information on education providers' (Day-Ashley & Wales, 2015, in Aslam, 2017, p. 3). Providers' capacity varies according to their structure, the ownership status of those involved, management and financing

agreements, and the relationship with their stakeholders. According to Steer et al. (2015, p. 7), 'on-state education is characterised by a diversity of providers, including religious schools, non-profit schools run by NGOs or foundations, publicly funded schools operated by private boards, community-owned schools, and for-profit schools that operate as enterprises.

Moreover, according to UNESCO, 'an educational institution is deemed to be "non-state" if it is controlled and managed by an NGO (e.g., religious group, association, or enterprise) or if it has a governing body that primarily consists of members not selected by a public agency' (UNESCO 2005, p. 45).

1.5.5 Definitions, types, ownership, and management

The blurring of the boundaries that exist when attempting to define the different types of private schools in Somalia is shared by various non-state education providers in other poor communities around the world. Multiple stakeholders in the country often claim ownership of schools, as they are managed and funded in complex ways that involve many stakeholders. 'This highly fragmented environment has failed to produce a school typology unanimously accepted by all key state and non-state stakeholders, and the current policy framework does not offer a school typology reflective of the current education landscape, and, even among stakeholders within the ministry, there is minimal consensus regarding basic distinctions between what classifies as a private or public school' (World Bank, 2018, p. 27).

The government made greater efforts to increase the number of public schools; however, 'by laying claim to schools housed in buildings constructed by the government before the civil war, or those that occupy land owned by the government, or receive a financial contribution from the government irrespective of its size, this tendency is often disputed by many, including the umbrella associations and other participants, who feel they are the rightful owners of schools they manage and fund, and they feel that this new direction neglects the important roles and successes they have had in managing and supporting schools across the country' (World Bank, 2018, p. 27).

Several terms are used for non-state schools in Somalia, including mixed-management schools, which are managed jointly by the government and the local community (47% of cases), the government and an umbrella (47%), or the government, the local community, and an international NGO (6%). Independent schools are mostly managed by the local community and international NGOs. 'This may be the result of individual community members either founding a school directly or setting up an NGO to do so' (World Bank, 2018, p. 33). In terms of ownership, 'the majority (65%) of non-state schools in the country are owned by private individuals, and of that percentage, 50% are owned by individuals while 15% are owned by private individuals as part owners in combination with other owners. The three most common combinations of hybrid ownership found through this study are community and private individuals, private individuals and umbrellas, and community' (p. 35).

Another report, cited by Abdinoor (2007, p. 48), reported the number of current private schools in the following four categories:

- Charity-assisted schools: These are schools that provide modern education with either Arabic or English as the medium of instruction. Although heavily subsidised, most of these schools still charge nominal fees.
- Schools owned and run by former public-school teachers: These are self-sufficient schools that receive no external support from charities or aid agencies. They charge fees to maintain themselves.
- Schools for poor students: These schools serve students who cannot afford the fees charged by other schools. This type of school is common in rural areas and poorer neighbourhoods in major cities.
- Adult schools: These are private schools that charge fees and teach adult learners' basic literacy in Somali, arithmetic, and foreign languages.

1.5.6 Quality assurance systems

Due to the differences and diversity in learning communities in the developing world, what defines quality education is problematic, with no common consensus existing. More importantly, notions of quality change over time and are tied to societal values. Some educators believe that the concept of quality is elusive because everything depends on how they choose to define their preferred outcomes of schooling.

Furthermore, the concept of quality education has many dimensions. 'Under the umbrella term of "quality of education," the following could be included: content and methods of teaching; management of the educational process; what the students learn and who the learners are; as well as attempts to adapt education to changing needs through innovation' (Grisay & Mählck, 1991, p. 3). The factors that influence the delivery of good-quality education include countries' policies, practices, and provisions, as well as their school systems. Generally, 'the gap between public and private school quality is smaller in developed countries than in developing countries because developed countries have more resources, better educational infrastructure, and less corruption in public education' (Dixon & Humble, 2017, p. 132).

Over the years—nearly a decade—there has been a surge of research and policy interest in private schools educating disadvantaged children in developing countries (Day-Ashley 2014, p. 5). These interests have arisen because of the increasing participation of children from poorer backgrounds in private schools after states failed to deliver their commitment to educate everyone (UNESCO, 2015, p. 4). The reasons that explain why many countries have failed may vary and include the fragility or failure of some states, situations of national conflict or crisis, and a lack of financial, human, and institutional capacity (p. 4).

Furthermore, relationships with parents are crucial in any educational setting, as good levels of engagement have been found to enhance pupil aspiration and improve academic performance. Affordable fee-charging schools are more responsive to complaints and parental expectations than state schools because of the requirement to maintain enrolment and fee payment (Wales et al., 2015, in USAID, 2018, p. 31).

One implication of privatisation is that it leads to remarkable growth in the creation and advancement of national assessment and quality assurance systems, with the aim of improving the quality of information that consumers have to make better choices, both at the individual and collective levels (UNESCO, 2015, p. 5). Teaching in private schools often appears to be of a higher quality and may account for better academic outcomes. On the other hand, the development of the private provision of education as it is, even when low in cost, seems unlikely to address the issue of poor

children who cannot access schools. It may even increase segregation and reinforce inequalities in educational opportunity. There are only a few examples of policy shifts and reforms that have resulted in the strong privatisation of school provision (UNESCO, 2015, p. 7).

Although no reliable data exist on the quality of education provided by Somali private schools, 'independent schools are more likely to produce positive educational outcomes' (World Bank, 2018, p. 41).

1.5.7 Access and affordability

Accessibility remains an obstacle to universal primary education for children in poorer countries. Non-state education's share of primary enrolment in low-income countries has doubled in 20 years, from 11% to 22% (Baum et al., 2014; Heyneman & Stern, 2013; USAID, 2018, p. 13). In the Somalia context, 'the financial burden of funding education falls to parents, meaning that cost is the main driver of exclusion. Government officials, non-government stakeholders, teachers, and parents were all in agreement that costs can be prohibitively high. Students from low-income backgrounds and ethnic minorities are especially disadvantaged since they are more likely to be required to help at home. Additionally, their parents may be less invested in their education, leading to a greater chance of dropping out' (World Bank, 2018, p. 58). As stability and security have increased, enrolment rates have grown, despite numerous children in Somalia still being out of school (Salad, 2018, p. 127).

The lack of access to education during the conflict has resulted in a large number of children missing school. It is estimated that more than half of all children and adolescents in Somalia have never attended formal education or are currently out ofschool for a range of reasons (ESSP, 2017). To improve access to education for those who have missed education and are currently in adulthood, the FGS initiated Alternative Basic Education (ABE), a complementary initiative to formal primary education services. Most ABE services are provided by NGOs. 'The ABE programme seeks to address the needs of out-of-school children through a condensed curriculum, a flexible timetable, the cost-effective use of resources, and high community participation' (p. 194).

The affordability of private schools in the developing world is an issue that has been broadly echoed in much literature and many policy documents. McLoughlin (2013, p. 15) contextually interpreted affordability to mean 'the family's ability to pay for education without the need to forgo spending in other essential areas'. Other scholars have suggested a specific threshold for affordability. In Somalia, affordability is a challenge for parents due to their income, and 'they [have] indicated that they would choose to only send their sons to school if they could not afford education for all children' (World Bank, 2018, p. 61).

Barakat et al. (2012) considered schooling affordable if all school fees for a child are below 4 percent of a family's income', whereas Tooley (2013) argued that 'the total of education expenses for all children is affordable if it accounts for less than 10 percent of a family's income'. As household income varies from country to country, a consensus exists that affordability depends on the individual's situation, including their income level and number of school-aged children. 'Fees that are affordable for one family will not necessarily be affordable for another' (Psacharopoulos et al., 1997, in USAID, 2018, p. 30).

1.5.8 Accountability and participation

Accountability in education is fundamentally important to outcome-led educational practices. The researcher has had the privilege of working as an education officer, manager of an educational project, and school governor in the United Kingdom (UK). His previous colleagues—some of them school leaders—held differences of opinion on accountability and for whom and to whom they were accountable. In England, 'the term accountability is defined in relation to a minimum expectation or standard regarding the effectiveness of a particular activity' (Acquah, 2013, p. 2). The 2010 Schools in England White Paper (Department for Education, 2010) urged schools to be accountable for achieving a minimum level of performance because taxpayers expect their money to be used effectively.

Good-quality education requires strong accountability, which is a major challenge for public education in developing countries. 'Developing countries are plagued by higher rates of teacher absenteeism, which is symptomatic of a low level of

accountability' (Mbiti, 2016, p. 110). Some optimism exists that the growth of the private education sector may increase accountability. More than 10% of students in sub-Saharan Africa and 20% in South Asia now attend private schools, which often cater to the poor (Heyneman & Stern, 2013). Tooley (2009) asserted that 'low-cost private schools are likely to provide lower teacher absenteeism due to increased accountability to parents and school owners, more engaged teachers due to more local recruitment, smaller class sizes, and more individualised attention'.

1.5.9 Parental choice and attitudes

A parent's first task when their child starts school is to choose the right school for him or her. 'Like other parents in developed countries, parents in developing countries are making decisions and choices about where to educate their children' (Dixon & Humble, 2017, p. 14). In these countries, parents consider many factors when choosing schools for their children, including the school's quality, religious values, and safety. 'In comparison with government schools, parents tend to perceive private schools as high quality and of better quality than government schools in terms of teacher attendance, engagement and performance, school performance (exam results and promotion rates), and school popularity' (Ashley & Wales, 2015, p. 22). This perception reliably drives student choice across different geographies (Day-Ashley et al., 2014). In some countries, dissatisfaction with public education has contributed to policies that diversify provision and create an education 'market', in which parents can choose a school based on school rankings published with the intent of spurring competition and quality. Dixon (2013) argued that 'irrespective of the incentives to get children into government schools (free uniforms, midday meals, and free textbooks), parents tend to prefer private schools. A number of intentions have been highlighted in the literature, including 'socioeconomic and household levels' (Nishimura & Yamano, 2013, in Mcloughlin, 2013, p. 12).

According to Humble and Dixon (2017, p. 14), 'there is a paucity of research around choice and schooling in developing contexts, with little conducted in post-conflict zones. In Somalia, a conflict-affected state, families have little or no alternative to non-state substitutes, which have arisen because of the destroyed education infrastructure and state absence; however, several government schools have reopened and provide free education with limited capacity and places.

In Somalia, over 71% of parents in the assessment preferred private schools over public schools because of access, which instils greater discipline in children and provides high-quality education (USAID, 2013). 'For many families, cost is the principal determinant of which school their children attend. The number of nearby schools, reputation, and perceived education quality may also play a role' (World Bank 2018, p. 63). Other factors that influence Somali families' choice of schools are external factors such as security. For instance, the security situation may lead parents to send children to nearby schools to avoid travelling through potentially dangerous neighbourhoods' (World Bank, 2018, p. 66).

1.6 The Role of Education in Post-Federal Somalia

During the conflict, Somalia's education system was destroyed, and education activities ceased. One scholar of Somali education stated that 'all modern systems of learning in the country were destroyed by the fighting factions, and Somalia has since been a country without any formal programmes of education' (Abdi 1998, p. 327). This lack of education opportunities has led to a generation of Somali young people missing education for quite a significant amount of time; as a result, literacy in Somalia was rated the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa, and 'in 2015, only 40% of the Somali population was literate, with literacy rates being 8% higher among males compared to females' (ESSP, 2017, p. 28).

Attempts to restore the delivery of education in Somalia vary from one region to another, since relative stability exists in regions like Puntland and Somaliland. These two regions enjoy 'greater political stability, security, and administrative development; student enrolments have improved substantially over the past two decades' (World Bank, 2018, p. 34). However, post-war educational reconstruction has been slow in South Central Somalia, and opportunities for public education are limited as most of the primary and secondary schools are managed by non-state providers. The current Somali education system emerged in 2012 with the establishment of the FGS. While the schools have very little reach and a significant proportion of school-age children remain out of school, enrolments in both primary

and secondary schools have marginally increased in the last 5 years, especially in the country's more stable areas (Cassaneli and Abdikadir, 2007).

According to the abovementioned study by the World Bank (2018, p. 34), in three member states of the Federal Republic of Somalia, 'most schools are owned by private individuals (65%), and an additional fifteen percent include private individuals as part owners, in combination with other owners. Twenty percent of schools have multiple owners. In most of these cases (64%), the school is managed by an umbrella association and owned by private individuals' (p. 34).

1.6.1 Education in federal Somalia

Somalia established a federal system in 2012, which comprises five Federal Member States (FMSs) along with Somaliland. The five FMSs are Jubaland, the Southwest, Galmudug, Hirshabelle, and Puntland, and each state administration has a state president. 'Somaliland declared independence in the early 1990s and has been isolated by the international community as a result' (World Bank, 2017, p. 108).

Somalia's government officially comprises the executive branch of government and a Federal Parliament, which are jointly responsible for electing the president and the prime minister. The Parliament is bicameral and consists of a 275-seat lower house as well as an upper house capped at 54 representatives. It has the authority to pass and veto laws (World Bank, 2017).

1.6.2 Primary education enrolment

In Somalia, past and present presidents have promised to establish free primary and secondary education, but these promises have not yet been fulfilled. Low primary enrolment in Somalia remains a challenge to successive administrations in the country. Even before the Somali state imploded in 1991, one could state that the country's education system had collapsed. School enrolment at the primary and secondary levels had begun to decline in the 1980s; teachers started to desert their classrooms for work in Arab and other countries, and by 1985, budgetary allocations for education had reached an all-time low (Cassaneli and Abdikadir, 2007).

As a result of the absence of public schools in Somalia, a significant number of its children are out of school. According to the recently published National ESSP, more than 85% of school-age children were out of school in 2020 (NESSP, 2022). It should be acknowledged that some improvements have been made in introducing policies to standardise education, such as the introduction of a new curriculum. The MoECHE manages the education system, and non-state actors maintain their influential roles (ESSP 2017).

Data on enrolment by management and ownership reveal that the share of students enrolled in government-managed schools across all of Somalia is 47.9%; however, this figure has not been independently verified and many stakeholders consider it too high. In Mogadishu, for example, there are over 600 schools, and only 23 are managed by the ministry of education. This is believed to be a widespread trend throughout the country. Regionally, the highest proportion of students enrolled in government schools is in the Bay region, while the lowest proportions are in the Bakool, Galguduud, and Gedo regions, where no government-run primary school enrolments are reported. Considering the MoECHE's definition of public schools, most of the schools in Galguduud and Gedo are community schools and are, as such, publicly funded. Moreover, options in terms of education accessibility for the Banadir population are far greater than for any other region in Somalia (ESSP, 2017).

Somalia has a shift-based system of schooling, with morning and afternoon shifts. Primary pupils attend school in the afternoon, and secondary students attend it in the morning. According to the World Bank (2018), the lowest proportion of single-shift schools are found in Puntland (27.2%) while the highest proportion are in Somaliland (74.8%). Jubbaland State has the most single-shift schools in the Central South Region with 61.8%, followed by Southwest State with 78.2%, Galmudug State with 62.8%, and Banadir with 62.8%. Whereas the Galguduud Region and Lower Juba Region have higher proportions of double-shift schools compared with other regions within their states, only Hirshabelle appears to have more double-shift schools than single-shift schools, with 57.6% of surveyed schools identifying as double-shift. Thus, a greater proportion of non-government-managed schools use a double-shift teaching strategy. This may appear to be true because most schools surveyed in the World Bank study were identified as non-government. However, 'it may also be

driven by economic forces as they wish to maximise the use of expensive buildings' (ESSP, 2017, p. 62).

1.6.3 Teachers, qualifications, availability, and recruitment

Regarding another impact on the education sector, 'the education system in Somalia has been suffering from a chronic shortage of qualified teachers, and as a result, poor teaching quality and low proportions of qualified teachers consistently feature as a critical challenge for children's learning across all educational subsectors' (ESSP, 2017, p. 28). 'There is a particular shortage of female teachers and only a handful of female education administrators in the entire nation. There is also a lack of qualified special needs education teachers' (ESSP, 2017, p. 29). Currently, there are no coordination or coherence mechanisms across various regions and institutions that address on-going teacher development, management, and licencing' (p. 29). Although successive educational leaders have made several attempts to agree on a nationwide educational framework for the country, this is due to the 'country's political instability and a perception of mistrust and disconnection between the FGS and Federal Member States (FMS)' Ministries of Education' (World Bank, 2018, p. 119). 'In non-state schools, the median student–teacher ratio is 28:1, with the average of 37:1 being in line with the FGS's national estimate of 33:1. Although the median is low and in line with what is recommended for emergency recovery contexts, it should be approached with caution. Parents, students, and teachers have often expressed that there are too few teachers, and in some cases, the student-teacher ratio can reach 250:1' (World Bank 2018, p. 43).

In terms of teacher qualifications, 'only 37.9% of all teachers are qualified across all of Somalia. This is highest in Puntland at 62.6%, followed by Somaliland at 39.2%, and lowest in the Central South at 20.8%. Within the Central South, the state with the highest proportion of qualified teachers is Southwest State (32.7%). This is attributed to teachers who qualified before 1990, the recruitment of teachers from neighbouring Kenya, and the concentration of donor and partner resources in the region. Beyond this, there is no consistent pattern across states, with regions and states showing high levels of variation regarding the proportion of qualified teachers' (ESSP, 2017).

In Somalia, teachers employed by both primary and secondary schools have different levels of education. 'The MoECHE, as yet does not regulate teacher qualifications, but there is a government attempt to standardise education and regulate schools. Non-state schools have the best-qualified teachers, with 75% in possession of a bachelor's degree. However, overall, only 12% of teachers have formal qualifications' (World Bank, 2018, p. 11). As recruitment of teachers is the most important part of the school system, 'most schools have an internally defined teacher recruitment process, during which the applicant's qualifications and knowledge are considered. (World Bank 2018, p. 45). The World Bank study further explained that 'the degree of formality of the process varies from a simple review of applicants' CVs to standardised testing and checks applied during the recruitment, and some schools require proof that the applicant has received a teaching certificate' (p. 12).

Moreover, in Somalia, 'teacher salaries vary significantly, both by teacher qualification and school type' (World Bank, 2018, p. 46). It is important to note how employment conditions can impact the role's attractiveness, as they increase teacher morale and make the teaching profession more attractive to aspiring teachers. As a classic example, in the UK, people who want to become secondary school teachers in subjects such as math and science are awarded financial incentives, including a fee waiver and a monthly allowance. In Somalia, 'the average salary of teachers at mixed management schools is significantly higher compared to other school types at both the primary and secondary levels. In group discussions, the teachers from government schools indicated that they earn less than teachers working at private schools' (World Bank, p. 46).

In addition, it is important to note the community's contribution to staff salaries. As previously mentioned, communities mobilise themselves to assume education responsibilities in the absence of the state, and their contribution to school staff costs and other finances continues (Abdinoor, 2007). Overall, at the primary level, 36.2% of teachers are paid by the government through different ministries of education, 24.6% are paid through contributions made by the community, and the next largest portion of teachers are paid by private sources. For states in the Central and Southern parts of the country, over 90% of teachers receive payment from non-

government sources. Community contributions to the payment of teacher salaries are highest in Puntland (69.4% of teachers), while in Somaliland, the majority of teachers are paid by the government (66.4%). Breaking this down by state, in Jubaland, Southwest State, Galmadug, Hirshabelle, and Banadir, 97% of teachers are paid through private (79%) and community (9%) sources. Community sources play an even more crucial role in teacher salaries in Puntland, where they fund 85% of them (World Bank, 2018, p. 126).

 In accordance with the MoECHE's ESSP, 2018–2020, there is funding support from the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) and technical and funding support from UNICEF through a consultative and participatory process. With relevance to this research, the plan prioritises the government's vision for good-quality education through improved in-service training and the recruitment of a qualified teaching force, along with increased community participation in school-based management. The strategic plan also reveals the importance of reviewing and updating existing in-service training materials for primary schools to ensure alignment with the endorsed national curriculum framework. The plan also recognises the significance of community involvement in school management, as this improves schools' effectiveness and efficiency. CECs will be developed, as will training packages.

1.6.4 In-country variations

The complete destruction of the education system due to the civil war has 'contributed to regional differences, as several states claimed greater autonomy. In the absence of a central education system, non-state actors became the most prominent providers of education. This remains the case, although the federal government has been leading a push towards the reestablishment of public education' (World Bank, 2018, p. 10).

Around the country, there are significant variations in the school systems and subjects taught. 'The most commonly preferred school system in the country is the 4-4-4 system, which sees students spend 4 years in primary, intermediate, and secondary schools' (Hussein, 2015: p. 8). According to Hussein (p. 8), the popularity of the system is mainly driven by those who currently work in education and have been through this system themselves. Several aspects of education are impacted by this variation in systems, including 'quality assurances, assessments, accountability,

and the effective management of schools' (p. 8). Hussein further explained that schools teach what they want, which causes frustration for schools and educational leaders as there is no unified curriculum for schools across the country to follow (p. 8).

Somaliland: The North-West region of Somalia declared itself an independent state from the rest of Somalia in 1991, although it has received no international recognition to date, and many states in the region and the rest of the world consider it part of Somalia. Its own national ESSP 'sets out the policies and objectives of the education system to be achieved during the next four years' (ESSP, 2017). The Somaliland National Development Goals 2012, the National Development Plan 2017–21, and the Constitution of Somaliland are broader goals and objectives that align with the principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and, if well implemented, will progressively lead the sector and the country towards the achievement of its Sustainable Development Goals 2030 (ESSP, 2017). Furthermore, Ahmed and Bradford (2011, p. 224) stated the following: 'Systematic and structural policy reforms are proposed to instantiate the new economic discourse of education, including a contemporary education policy reform that advances a special status for the private sector's participation in education'. Somaliland's ministry of education (2005) document, for example, 'suggests that the 'contribution of the private sector to the development of education in Somaliland is not in doubt' (ESSP, 2005, p. 39). As a multi-stakeholder sector, the education sector requires the input and support of the community, and this is a declaration by Somaliland's government to 'recognise education as a joint enterprise between itself, communities, civil society, the private sector, and parents, and therefore put in place measures and incentives designed to encourage the relevant and active involvement of these stakeholders in the provision of education services' (p. 6).

Puntland: As an FMS of Somalia that did not seek independence but was formed as a semi-autonomous state in 1998, Puntland enjoys relative security, has formed a regional administration, and is self-governed with a relatively resourced capacity to deliver limited services to its people, including education. As part of its regional commitment to achieving free universal primary education, the State Ministry of 'Education and Higher Education has been actively working towards the goal, and it

has developed its own policy documents, ESSPs. It has also signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the FGS to define responsibilities and align strategic objectives. Policy plans aim to engage non-state actors to standardise education and regulate schools. Existing documents outline plans for the development of a unified national curriculum, for the administration of national exams, and for a regulation of teacher qualifications' (World Bank 2018, p. 22).

Benadir Regional Administration: Mogadishu, which is the main area of the Benadir Administration and the capital city of Somalia, has an estimated population of 1.6 million people, which accounts for approximately 13% of the country's total population. It is also the headquarters of the Federal Government and has a small number of schools (ESSP, 2017). The city has the largest private primary and secondary schools in the country, and they are members of a large umbrella association.

Despite the government restoring its role in the education sector, the position of umbrella associations remains strong as crucial providers of education and guarantors of a minimal quality of education. Government data indicate that there are over 1,000 umbrella-affiliated schools in Somalia, providing education to over 250,000 students' (p. 22). Unlike Puntland and Somaliland, the Benadir Regional Administration does not have its own education policy, although it has recently been mandated to take over 23 public schools that were under the direct management of the MoECHE of the federal government. These schools were part of the Benadir Administration's initial statutory responsibilities with a view to subsequent progress.

1.7 School Leadership in a Conflict-Affected Environment

As discussed elsewhere in this thesis, the enormity of the effects on education during the armed conflict as well as post-conflict was felt everywhere. These effects included the complete destruction of education, both in physical and human forms. Pherali (2016, p. 1) asserted that 'despite these effects, the post-conflict educational debates have largely undermined the voice of those who were on the frontlines during the crisis'. There is a high prevalence of attacks on schools during armed conflict, with a commonality of deaths among pupils, teachers, and school leaders.

Although an increasing amount of literature is dealing with relationships between education and armed personnel, 'there is still a research gap in terms of understanding how teachers and school leaders experience and navigate through both physical and psychological threats and how they trade off their survival in the context of a protracted conflict' (Pherali, 2016, p. 1).

This study did not aim to investigate Somali headteachers' experiences of the conflict; however, several key personal accounts and statements were shared with the researcher by three headteachers (HT1, HT2, and HT3) during the field study. The situation in Somalia mirrors that of Nepal and other African countries, where school leaders face violence and have to work in a challenging environment. According to one of the interviewed headteachers, 'most schools were not used for years during conflict because they were in areas where armed conflict continued to be active'. He faced a number of challenges during conflict and post-conflict situations, including those concerning the reopening of schools, safety concerns for students and staff, staff retention, shortage of school supplies, fear of repercussions from parents or relatives of students who have failed their assessments or exams, as well as the lack of personal and professional support available to him and others.

Despite community mobilisation for safely reopening schools, many school leaders face challenges in recovering school buildings for the safe return for children. As a school leader, with help from local communities, HT1 had to clear debris and dead bodies from school buildings before they were safe for students and staff. These were not isolated but rather common cases. He told the researcher that he and his colleagues removed 17 dead bodies from the school playground before the community had the trust required to send their children there. Another headteacher (HT2) revealed that it took more than 2 years to negotiate with militiamen to vacate the school premises, and the deal on which they agreed to leave was a monthly share of 50% of the collected revenue.

Moreover, HT2 shared his experience of trauma, with no support available to him during those difficult times. Further sharing his experience, he stated how he and others were compelled to pay financial support to grieving families, although the schools themselves were experiencing financial difficulties. Waiting for bad news of

the death or injury of a member of staff or a student who was on the way to school was a daily expected briefing. HT3 was also concerned with staff retention and mentioned common reasons for it, namely the high demand for teachers, pay, and safety in certain areas in which conflict might still be active. A shortage of teachers sometimes compels school leaders to teach, especially those who possess teaching skills. These staff turbulences have a knock-on effect on schools' overall subscriptions, as parents can remove their children if a school does not have a sufficient number of teachers to teach them.

1.8 Professional Development for Headteachers

According to the personal experience of the researcher, public and private schools in Somalia have faced many challenges in the wake of two decades of conflict. These challenges have also been accompanied by a lack of opportunities for private school leaders to receive the professional development training that would be necessary for them to effectively conduct their institutional leadership duties.

As a result of the absence of government regulation and support, no institutions prepare or develop headteachers in Somalia. Furthermore, no formal training and leadership development are provided for public and private primary headteachers in Somalia, while recognition is growing of the significance of school leadership preparation through professional development and training across the world (Bush and Oduro, 2006). In many countries, particularly in Africa, the procedures used in appointing and offering pre-service training are inadequate. Induction and in-service training for headteachers are also inappropriate in many developing countries, especially those in Africa (Bush & Oduro, 2006). Globally, 'the majority of school heads do not receive training prior to the assumption of office, and they perform their work from experience; this is not ideal for creating an effective and supportive environment for teachers and other staff in schools' (Balansikat & Gerhard, 2005, as cited in Benson, 2011, p. 5).

There are no specific Somalia-related studies on the availability of professional development opportunities for school leaders or a skills audit of current leaders of low-cost private schools in Somalia. However, the World Bank (2018) suggested that

a need exists 'to further study the role of school leadership since leaders have important roles in determining quality through resource allocation, hiring practices, and establishing school guidelines. It is vital for headteachers to possess the required competencies and skills to lead, support, and challenge members of their institutions, including teachers, support staff, and administrators, as well as manage external relations effectively' (World Bank, 2018, p. 72).

Moreover, it is crucial to acknowledge the link between the leadership competencies of school leaders and their positive impact on the success of schools. According to Davis et al. (2005, p. 3), 'this indicates an increasing acceptance that principals play a significant role in affecting student achievement and should be held accountable for it'. Furthermore, in the context of school improvement and students' learning outcomes, it is vital to acknowledge the relationship between the different sections that comprise schooling, including leadership and management. In addition to the role that principals play in improving students, it is also critical to highlight that their role also includes developing effective relationships among staff members, acquiring and allocating resources, promoting teacher development, improving student outcomes, and building mutually supportive school community relations.

According to a recent document published by the FGS, one of the key components of its ESSP is the enhancement of the quality of education and children's learning outcomes through the provision of school-based coaching for headteachers to improve school performance (ESSP, 2017). To achieve this goal, it will develop comprehensive and consolidated headteacher training programmes. This strategy only applies to the education sector in Somalia (Benadir Region and the FMSs), as Somaliland has its own ESSP. Although Somaliland's ESSP makes extensive reference to increasing the number of female headteachers in Somaliland, there is no mention of any direct government policy for preparing, developing, and training headteachers.

1.9 Significance of the Problem

Researching the professional developmental needs of headteachers in low-cost private schools in Somalia is vital, as the education sector is undergoing reconstruction and private schools must continue to play a role in educating future

generations. It is crucial to acknowledge that several challenges exist in the Somali education sector, which are not just confined to the lack of provision for professional development opportunities for headteachers. Therefore, this research study investigated the views held by Somali primary and private school headteachers about what it means to be a professional headteacher to improve the effectiveness of the school systems in Somalia. In addition, the success of the quality of education provided in Somalia depends on the adequate preparation and training of school leaders in private primary schools, which currently cater for the majority of school-age children in Somalia. There is also evidence of a similar relationship between principals' leadership competencies, teachers' motivation, and the quality of teaching and learning (Day et al., 2001).

Somalia's ESSP (2018–2020) stresses that 'the government's goal is to provide an equitable and inclusive education system that affords all learners access to free and compulsory basic education' (ESSP, 2017, vii). According to a document titled Somalia's Education Sector Analysis, poor teaching quality and the low proportion of qualified teachers consistently feature as a critical challenge for children's learning across all educational subsectors (p. 138). Furthermore, in the same document, the FGS recognises the significance of good-quality staff training for schools to provide a good-quality education. The devastation of the country's education system was caused by the civil war and included the physical destruction of many teacher-training and development facilities. This exacerbated the lack of teachers and other education professionals as well as the lack of coordination and coherence across the education sector, which would be necessary to address ongoing teacher development.

As noted above, school leadership is at the centre of every successful school management system, whether it is the effective supervision of staff, deployment and management of resources, or collaboration between stakeholders, parents, the community, and the wider education sector. According to Khalifa et al. (2014), there are neither post-secondary educational leadership programmes nor school-based apprenticeship programmes in Somalia. This makes it difficult for school leaders to learn how to enact any type of leadership other than unavoidable daily managerial tasks.

1.10 Research Aims and Questions

The main aim of this research was to explore Somali primary school headteachers' leadership and management experiences and perceptions of what constitutes a professional headteacher in the Somali context.

This study made strenuous efforts to understand how and when headteachers were trained and recruited and what continued professional development opportunities, if any, were available to them in Somalia. The research specifically examined whether differences exist in the types of training and professional development opportunities in different parts of the country. It further sought to understand the selection and recruitment criteria of these headteachers and the types of qualifications that their appointments were conditional on. The professionalisation and professional development of Somali school leaders in Somalia have scarcely been touched upon by researchers (Cassanelli and Abdikadir, 2007).

Creswell recommended that researchers should reduce 'the entire study to a single, overarching central question and several sub-questions' (Creswell, 2013, p. 139). Drafting this study's central research question took considerable work because of its breadth. To reach the overarching central question, the researcher took Creswell's advice to state the broadest question for addressing the research problem. Considering its main objective, this study examined the following central research question:

What views do Somali private primary school headteachers hold about being professional headteachers?

This central research question led to the development of the following secondary research questions:

1. What does 'being a professional headteacher' mean to Somali headteachers?
2. What is their understanding of the roles of a primary school headteacher?
3. What skills, attributes, and personal qualities contribute to being a professional headteacher?
4. What provisions are available in Somalia for preparing, developing, and supporting Somali private primary school headteachers?

1. Are there any similar provisions that they are aware of in other countries in the region?
2. Can these provisions be adopted in Somalia?

1.11 Research Methodology

In emphasising the significance of deciding on a research approach, Cohen et al. (2018) stated that 'what the researcher does depends on what the researcher wants to know and how she or he will go about finding out about the phenomena in question'. They further stressed that 'having a rigorous research design is crucial in the search process' (p. 175). The approach employed to conduct this research is outlined in the following subsections.

1.11.1 Research approach

This study adopted a qualitative approach, which was chosen as the appropriate method for conducting the research because of its suitability for exploring a particular issue or problem (Creswell 2013, p. 47–48). This exploration was required because a need existed to study a group or population to identify variables that could not be easily measured or hear silenced voices (Murray and Wayne 2001). As highlighted in a study conducted in Somalia by the World Bank (2018), 'there is a need to further study the role of school leadership' (p.72). It is vital for headteachers to possess the required competencies and skills to lead, support, and challenge members. There are no formal institutions in Somalia that prepare school leaders for the demanding responsibilities of post-conflict school leadership' (World Bank, 2018, p. 72).

1.11.2 Research design

In this study, the case study design was chosen due to its ability to describe and understand a phenomenon and the particular context in which it occurs. The phenomenon of the study, which related to the views of Somali headteachers in private schools about being professionals, provided an opportunity for the researcher to explore or describe the perception of Somali headteachers and 'its context using a variety of data sources' (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 544). According to White (2013), the 'research design is a logical rather than a logistical matter, i.e., concerned with the overall blueprint—the architecture—rather than the nuts and bolts of how to carry out

that plan' (p. 221). The logic here was the sequence that connected the data to the research questions and their conclusions (Yin, 2009, in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 175). The logical component in issues of research questions, for example, is to have suitable research for answering the research questions. The overall strategy that researchers choose involves integrating the different components of their study in a coherent and logical manner, thereby ensuring that they effectively address the research problem as 'it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data' (Labree, 2013; Cohen et al., 2018: p. 173). Details about the strategy in relation to the data collection are discussed in Subsection 3.6.4.

1.11.3 Sample and sampling

Sampling in research involves selecting a subset of individuals, cases, or entities from a large population to study a specific phenomenon, context, or experience in depth. According to Cohen and Holiday (1996), 'there are two main methods of sampling by which a researcher must decide whether to opt for a probability sample (also known as a random sample) or a non-probability sample (also known as a purposive sample)' (in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 214). In explaining the difference between the two, Cohen et al. (2018, p. 214) stated the following: 'In a probability sample, the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are known, whereas in a non-probability sample, the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are unknown. In the latter type, the researcher has deliberately and purposefully selected a particular section of the wider population to include or exclude from the sample' (p. 214).

This study applied purposive sampling to select participants who were currently practising headteachers. The size of the sample for the study was determined by its purpose and nature as well as the overall size of the population. This study applied all measures necessary to minimise the limitations of the use of purposive sampling, including defining selection criteria, the researcher's positionality, and the fairness of the selection process. All 29 participants consented to participate in the study. See Part II of Appendix B.

1.11.4 Data collection

The process of choosing the appropriate data collection techniques can be made easier by considering a series of questions. Perhaps the simplest question to ask is how objective the data that are gathered will be. If subjective information, such as attitudes and perceptions, is of interest, then questionnaires and interviews are appropriate (Drever, 1995). The following steps were followed to collect data: semi-structured interviews; observations, documents, and visual materials; and the establishment of a protocol for recording the information.

1.11.5 Data analysis

It is important to highlight the significance of data analysis in conducting research, particularly qualitative research. Taylor and Gibbs (2010, p. 1) stated that 'qualitative data analysis concerns the identification, examination, and interpretation of data collected from studying the phenomena in question. Therefore, it includes organising, describing, understanding, accounting for, and explaining data; making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation; and noting patterns, themes, categories, and regularities. From another perspective, Merriam (1998, p. 178) argued that data analysis involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read.

Furthermore, Denzin and Lincoln (1998, cited in Olesen, 2004) stated that the process of data analysis goes hand in hand with the data collection throughout the study. Great attention was paid to the coding and categorisation of the collected data, understanding of the phenomena, and development of a theory or model that should be linked with the theoretical framework or chosen research paradigm.

The researcher chose to conduct a hand-analysis to assist in the analysis of the data, as suggested by Creswell (2013): 'The hand-analysis means researchers read the data, mark it by hand, and divide it into parts' (p. 239). The researcher chose this method because 'it is more suitable for studies with fewer than 500 pages of typed data' (p. 239).

1.11.6 Validity and reliability of the study

According to Cohen et al. (2018, p. 245), 'as researchers, we must be certain that our instruments for understanding phenomena are as sound as possible, i.e., that

they are valid. According to Selltiz et al. (1976), 'reliability is concerned with the consistency, stability, and repeatability of the informant's accounts as well as the investigators' ability to collect and record information accurately' (Brink, 1993, p. 35; Selltiz et al., 1976). Cohen et al. further stressed that 'threats to validity and reliability can never be erased' (p. 245). In the literature, the most commonly suggested risk to the validity and reliability of research is error. The greater the degree of error, the less accurate and truthful the results. Thus, researchers must be especially watchful of the sources of error when planning and implementing their studies' (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Brink categorised sources of error as follows: the participants, the situation or social context, the researcher, and the collection and analysis methods. This study adopted Brink's suggestions.

1.11.7 Limitations of the study

Researchers should be mindful of the challenges or limitations that may affect their study. The main challenge of this study was its purview, which targeted a small sample in a certain part of the country; therefore, its findings might be useful to any future large-scale research on the phenomena, but they are not intended to be generalised and replicated in other cases. Most importantly, qualitative research studies do not concern themselves with the generalisability of the research outcome to similar situations (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The rationale for such an approach was explained above.

Another challenge and limitation that the study identified was a lack of scholarly literature that discusses the studied phenomenon of school leadership development in the Somali context, compared with the vast body of international literature available from the UK and other countries. A further challenge to overcome during this research study was the need to travel between the UK and Somalia to collect data and the associated costs. Due to the security situation, the researcher paid close attention to the travel arrangements and access for participants. Despite the researcher's ability to communicate with the research participants in their language, namely Somali, his involvement in transcribing audiotaped data may have compromised the authenticity and validity of the collected data, and the study was considered a challenge. Efforts were made to avoid transcribing the audiotaped materials; specifically, a professional translator was used to transcribe and translate

all audiotaped materials. Presumably, some of the headteachers may have had a limited ability to speak English, so it was important for the researcher to make efforts to ensure that participants could express their views in their own language.

1.12 Contributions

This study makes several contributions, including **(a)** contributions in the field of research and the limited literature in this area; **(b)** the early-stage recognition of the importance of the role of headteachers in the Somali educational context; and **(c)** contributions towards any national policy on the professionalisation of primary school headship.

1.13 Summary

This chapter has highlighted key issues that were critical to this study, including the concept of the study and personal, country, and private school contexts. The chapter also presented key pieces of information about Somalia's conflict and its impact on education, the provision of education, the rise of private schooling, and the disparities in the school system in the new federal system. The chapter also highlighted the professional development of headteachers in Somalia and the government's strategies for developing school leadership in Somalia.

Moreover, this chapter provided an overview of the methodology chosen for the study, including the research approach, design, sampling, data collection tools, data analysis, validity and reliability of the study, challenges and limitations, as well as its contributions.

Chapter Two Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The central inquiry of the study explored the views of Somali headteachers in private schools about being a professional headteacher. Thus, the literature review focused on the following two main themes:

- Theme 1: International perspectives on school leadership and management and the role of a headteacher;

- Theme 2: The profession, professionality, and the professionalisation of school leadership.

The first theme involved examining international perspectives on school leadership, management, and the role of the headteacher. This theme also specifically highlighted cultural influences on leadership and management and an international perspective on the roles and responsibilities of a primary school headteacher. The rationale for examining international perspectives is the universality of the terms leadership and management and the roles and responsibilities of headteachers.

The second theme involved exploring the profession, professionalism, and professionalisation of school leadership, with the following four subthemes:

1. A skills-based model of professionalism;
2. Professional identity;
3. The professionalisation of school leadership;
4. The preparation, development, and professionalisation of school leadership.

An important fact to highlight here is that there is a shortage of academic literature on the specifics of the professionalisation of school leadership in Somalia. Hence, the researcher sought the personal perspectives, opinions, and observations of individuals, scholars, NGO staff, and key officials in the ministries of education of the federal or member states. Furthermore, because of the limited literature on private schooling in Somalia, this study extensively used a study report on non-state education providers in Somalia published by the World Bank in 2018.

2.2. Theme 1: An International Perspective on School Leadership

This section on Theme 1 discusses the following three key areas:

- School leadership and management;

- Cultural influences on leadership and management;

- An international perspective on the roles and responsibilities of a primary school headteacher.

2.2.1 School leadership and management

The consideration of leadership and management in this study was guided by the following overarching question: What is the theoretical and practical understanding of leadership and management skills and competencies, and how can this understanding be applied in developing the professional competencies of headteachers in private schools in Somalia?

Although the two terms 'leadership' and management' have been separately defined, they are used interchangeably or regarded as synonyms in some academic literature. In the 1990s, however, a distinction was drawn between the two concepts, with leadership being linked to vision and values, while management was said to relate to processes and structures (Bush & Coleman, 2000, p. 4).

Gardner (1990; cited in Baker, 2014, p. 356) defined leadership as 'the process of persuasion or example by which an individual or team induces a group to act'. Since most leaders are also engaged in management, it is useful to distinguish between the two interrelated processes of leadership and management. 'Leadership and management are not synonymous terms; one can be a leader without being a

manager' (Bush and Coleman 2000, p. 18; Schon, 1984). Citing Bush and Coleman (2000, p. 19) and Schon (1984), Schon further explained that 'one can fulfil many of the symbolic, inspirational, educational, and normative functions of a leader and thus represent what an organisation stands for without carrying any of the formal burdens of management'. In discussing the aspect of 'management' or being a 'manager', they stated that 'one can manage without leading, monitor and control organisational activities, make decisions, and allocate resources without fulfilling the above-mentioned norms' (p. 19).

Leadership and management are two of the most widely defined and discussed topics in many academic and non-scholarly publications. Bennis and Townsend, (1995) estimated that 'at the end of the last century, there were 650 definitions of leadership in the literature, and this has only been increasing since then' (Bennis, 1995, p. 1). In the field of leadership in education, 'educational leadership and management is pluralist, with many competing perspectives and an inevitable lack of agreement on the exact nature of the discipline' (Bush, 2008, p. 1).

Due to the distinctiveness and specialisation of elements of education, 'educational leadership and management are fields of study and practice concerned with the operation of schools and other educational organisations' (Bush, 2005, p. 1). Bolam (1999) defined educational management as 'an executive function for carrying out agreed policies' (cited in Bush, 2005, p. 1). He further differentiated management from educational leadership, which has at its core the responsibility for policy formulation and, where appropriate, organisational transformation' (p. 1). 'There is great interest in educational leadership because of the belief that the quality of leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes' (Bush, 2010, in Atkinson, 2013, p. 2). Bush (1998, p. 328) linked leadership to values and purpose, while he related management to implementation or technical issues.

A central element in many definitions of leadership is that there is a process of influence. Wasserberg (2002, p. 158) claimed that 'the primary role of any leader is the unification of people around key values'. From his perspective as a secondary headteacher, he argued that these core values come down to the following:

- Schools are concerned with learning, and all members of the school community are learners;

- Every member of the school community is valued as an individual;

- The school exists to serve its students and the local community;

- Learning is about the development of the whole person and happens in and out of classrooms.

In discussing the strategic dimension of leadership, West-Burnham and Harris (2015, p. 8) suggested three elements that enable the strategic dimension of leadership to be understood: *principle*—the values that inform an organisation's culture and priorities; *purpose—the* dominant view of the most important reason for the existence of the school; and *people*—their engagement, motivation, and performance in securing principles and purpose. They further suggested that the operational aspect of leadership is, by contract, 'concerned with the routines, systems, structures, and procedures that translate principles and aspirations into actual goal-oriented results. Leadership and management work in a symbiotic relationship, but this should always be with leadership driving the management' (p. 8).

2.2.2 Theories of Leadership

To understand leadership, it is important to highlight the leadership theories that have commonly been derived from general leadership.

Several theories of leadership emerged in the first half of the 20th century, from which researchers perceived a need for an exact measurement of the characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Nohria and Khurana, 2010). All contemporary theories fall under one of the following three perspectives: leadership as a process or relationship; leadership as a combination of traits or personality characteristics; and leadership as certain behaviours or, as they are more commonly referred to, leadership skills (Ololube et al., 2015, p. 7). While these different approaches to leadership have significance, a focus on instructional leadership, which is a leadership concept, links leadership with teaching and learning.

Sometimes it is also referred to as 'leadership for learning, which is an essential element of successful schooling' (Bush et al., 2020, p. 5), and 'managerial leadership, which has a direct relationship with leadership for learning due to its management function to support learning and teaching' (Hoyle & Wallace, 2005, p. 68).

The instructional leadership model emerged from research on effective schools during the 1980s (Leithwood et al., 1999; Bush & Glover, 2013, p. 11). Instructional leadership models typically assume that school leaders, usually principals, have both the expert knowledge and formal authority to exert influence on teachers. Discussing the effectiveness of this school leadership model in relation to school leadership. Hallinger (2003) stated, with an emphasis on curriculum development and supervision, that it led most international thinking in the late 1980s and early 1990s as the best approach for effectively leading schools and improving students' learning outcomes. This is achieved through instructional leadership styles that affect classroom practice, including framing goals, maintaining high visibility, supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress.

Researchers have established a link between instructional leadership and managerial leadership. Huber (2003, p. 669) viewed 'the concept of instructional leadership as school leadership's actions and activities that focus on the learning progress of learners and at the same time encompass management'. Management is often linked to implementation, but there is a danger of 'managerialism', where procedures are more important than educational outcomes. Management is associated with formal 'positional power and is linked to the hierarchy' (Bush, 2020).

According to Bush et al. (2019, p. 5), the increasing emphasis on managing teaching and learning as the core activities of educational institutions has led to 'instructional leadership' being emphasised. Instructional leadership is the longest-established concept linking leadership and learning. As instructional leadership is linked to the involvement of a school's core activities, Bush et al. (2019, p. 6) asserted that 'the closer leaders are to the core business of teaching and learning, the more likely they are to make a difference to students'.

Despite the implication of the model for teaching and learning and its prominence and longevity, instructional leadership has been criticised on the following two grounds: (a) it is perceived to be primarily concerned with teaching rather than learning (Bush, 2013), and (b) it places too much emphasis on the principal as the centre of expertise, power, and authority (Hallinger, 2003; Bush et al., 2019, p. 5). Moreover, it focuses on the 'what' rather than the 'how' of educational leadership. In this respect, it is limited and partial and must be considered alongside other models (p. 5).

As school leaders should be aware of the quality of teachers and what they are teaching, instructional leaders ensure that effective teaching and learning are happening in classrooms by monitoring the effectiveness of teaching and learning activities, supervising assessment practices, and reporting results. Khalifa et al. (2014, p. 253) found that Somali school leaders did not support the instruction in their schools by supporting the teachers and learners; they did not provide examples of leadership that encouraged and promoted school improvement; and there was little evidence that these school leaders were in fact instructional leaders at all, despite the prominent application of this model of leadership in the Somali school context. The study further found that any effort to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the participating schools was virtually non-existent (p. 253). Headteachers are perceived to be the main source of leadership by key school staff. Their educational values, reflective strategies, and leadership practices shape the internal processes and pedagogies, which result in improved pupil outcomes (Harris, 2004, p. 3).

In recent decades, researchers and professionals worldwide have argued that school leaders should be engaged in instructional leadership (Shaked & Benoliel, 2020). Instructional leadership comprises the following three broad categories: defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and promoting a school climate through dialogue. Qualitative research with primary heads of small schools in England and Wales demonstrated that three strategies were particularly effective at improving teaching and learning – namely modelling, monitoring, and professional dialogue and discussion (Bush and Glover, 2013, p. 12). Hallinger (2003, p. 334) stated the following: 'The headteacher of a small primary school can more easily

spend a substantial amount of time in classrooms working on curriculum and instruction. One of the schools studied showed that there was consensus among the teachers that the headteacher knew the reading level and progress of all 450 students in their school. However, this type of direct involvement in teaching and learning is simply unrealistic in a larger school. In highlighting this limitation, critics assert that efforts to focus narrowly on this single role to improve student performance will be dysfunctional for the principal'.

According to the aforementioned study conducted by Khalifa et al. (2014, p. 253), the 'Somali principals observed did not provide examples of leadership that can encourage and promote school improvement. In fact, in the interviews, principals indicated that they did not know what a school improvement plan was. They understood their jobs were to be managers who at times used violent methods to enforce rules, such as physical punishment used to discipline children's behaviour'. The study was conducted in a select number of schools, where Khalifa et al. noted that the ideal notion of instructional leadership did not exist. Hence, a need exists to re-evaluate or reframe the professional preparation of principals. Managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks, and behaviours, and that if these functions are conducted competently, the work of others in the organisation will be facilitated. 'Most approaches to managerial leadership also assume that the behaviour of an organisation's members is largely rational' (Bush et al., 2019, p. 6).

The term 'competence' means a set of behaviours that reflect a combination of knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivations and they are related to performance in an organisational role (Ali et al., 2020). Due to its dynamics, competence requires the accommodation of the continuous advance of knowledge in the field (Falender and Shafranske, 2004, p. 238). Therefore, having the ability and required skills to accomplish a given task advances competence. Effective headship is, therefore, 'the combination of leadership, managerial and administrative behaviours, and actions that are appropriate to the given circumstance'. Male (2006, p. 13) argued that 'headteachers of highly effective schools tend to spend more of their time in the leadership mode, where decision-making and influence are primary activities, rather than in the operational world, where emphasis is on a hands-on approach'.

2.2.3 Influences of culture on leadership and management

This subsection examines how the culture of a society influences how leaders lead followers and how they are perceived by the people they lead. The purpose of highlighting culture in this context is to signify the role it plays in ways in which cultural characteristics are related to culturally accepted leadership attitudes.

According to Bush (2020, p. 211), culture can be understood on several levels. First, broad societal norms provide the framework for institutional leadership. As these may differ across countries, leadership is understood and enacted differently depending on these norms. Second, there is a notion that organisational culture arises from the values and beliefs of teachers, leaders, parents, and other stakeholders, leading to what may be a distinctive ethos. According to Hofstede (1992, p. 39), culture is 'the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another'. A considerable number of relevant studies have acknowledgede that culture shapes the values, attitudes, and behaviours of people (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, in Alves et al., 2006), and that those different cultures influence views and expectations with respect to the way things 'ought to be done' (Jogulu & Wood, 2008, p. 5).

Bissessar (2018, p. 6) stated that 'culture and its impact on leadership, especially school leadership, is an under-researched topic'. Extensive academic writing exists on Hofstede's dimensions and the leadership role in other domains, such as 'Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions 30 Years later' by Wu (2006) as well as that by Favaretto and Barreto (2016), but not specifically in education. This gap and its relevance to the context of this study, plus four of the cultural dimensions—power distance. Due to its suitability and relevance to the study, the power distance dimension is discussed further below.

The relationship structure in a culture affects interactions, work, and sometimes interpretations of situations. Power distance has an even greater influence on these interactions. Northouse (2013, p. 388) stated the following: 'Power distance is concerned with the way cultures are stratified, creating levels between people based

on power, authority, prestige, status, wealth, and material position'. In an educational context, Bush (2020) asserted that 'power distance may be a particularly significant variable across cultures, and teachers may be preferred more to their leaders in high-power distance contexts, including in China' (p. 211).

To highlight this dimension, Somalia is a country with a high power distance, of which a hierarchy is one of the dominant characteristics. This means that people who occupy higher positions hold more power and privileges with little challenge, while powerless people tend to respect and conform to authorities (He, 2021, p. 104). Within this cultural dimension of a high power distance in Somalia, principals tend to enact a top-down practice, maintaining a power distance relationship between teachers and themselves.

Concurring with this view, Offerman and Hellman (1997, p. 343) found that autocratic and paternalistic management approaches were widely present across high-power-distance countries. It is now well established in educational research that specific educational leadership reform must be a central part of any general educational reform. The types of educational leadership matter, as they are linked to the potential improved academic success of students (Khalifa et al., 2014; p. 235). In arguing for the importance of such a reform, Khalifa et al. further stated that school reformers in Somalia must face the reality that if an educational reform is to succeed, it must be introduced, developed, monitored, and evaluated by effective school leaders. Without effective and sustained school leadership, the development of a strong school culture and vision, execution and monitoring of reforms, and effective training of teachers are unlikely to occur.

2.2.4 Leadership and Somali culture

In explaining how Somali societies perceive leadership and its structures, Shire (2010) stated that, traditionally, Somalia had clan-based leadership, which still exists to an extent in contemporary life and continues to play a crucial role in politics and governance. This system of leadership is based on heredity, and successors are always brothers or sons of the preceding traditional leader. Such traditional leaders came with different titles, such as *ugaas, suldaan, boqor, garaad, wabar, islow, islaan, malaaq, and imam*. Although Somalis are traditionally independent and can

express their views openly, they are fiercely loyal to their clan. The rule and enforcement of clan laws usually fall to the elders and a council made up of the clan's adult males (UNESCO, 2014, p. 7). The following quote from Shire (2010, p. 16) means, when translated, 'human life has always been in a state of flux. For a society to succeed in its struggle against nature and other enemies, it needs to find a leader who addresses the problem and has the courage to lead the society on the path to success'.

The original text is as follows:

> *Nolosha aadamigu waxay waligeed ku jirtay isbedel ay marba xaalad ku sugnayd. Si bulshadu ugu guulaysato loolanka ay dabeecadda iyo cadawyada kale ee jira ay kula jirto, waxay u baahan tahay in ay hesho hogaamiya abbaara dhibaatada oo leh geesinimo uu bulshada ku gaarsiiyo tubta guusha lagu gaaro.*

Every clan used to have a traditional leader of their own and a council of elders who helped to run the clan's affairs. However, when a clan was choosing a leader for the first time, the clan members used to consider certain personal qualities, including bravery, patience, honesty, generosity, and spiritual excellence. These selection criteria reflect on great man theory, which argues that 'leadership is associated with and thought to be the exclusive province of males. Secondly, leadership conveyed a mythical, heroic sense of destiny' (Northouse, 2013, p. 19). Traditional leaders are also expected to follow a democratically structured system of decision-making and have wider consultation with the '*Guddoon*', or the Council. Whenever there was an issue to be dealt with, the traditional leader ruled (as the head) with a council of elders and had the power to set up a committee from the council to resolve it. This indicates that the traditional leader was not always personally involved in resolving each and every issue faced by the community but had the powers to delegate and oversee (Shire, 2010, p. 17).

Islam is an integral part of Somali life, providing a unified identity for all Somalis, regardless of their clan affiliations or cultural backgrounds. Since Somalis are mostly Muslim and mostly practice Islam, religious knowledge and piety were seen as an added advantage for the one to be selected as a traditional leader (Shire, 2010, p.

16). As Khalifa et al. (2014, p. 244) observede earlier, Somali school leaders are culturally relevant in a spiritual way and tend to demonstrate more wholesome leadership behaviours. Leadership in Islam is not any different from that of Western societies, except for its religious conventions and human roots. Religious and moral spirit (fear of God) dominated under the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) and the Four Caliphs (AlBuraey, 1985).

The interaction between the leaders and the 'led' is guided by the principles of their cultural and ideological beliefs. Both parties 'participate in related activities informed by their ideological and cultural knowledge transmitted from generation to generation and learned through living and sharing with a group or community as its members' (Shah, 2006, p. 366).

Somali school principals are culturally and spiritually responsive to their students and families (Khalifa et al., 2014, p. 250). Khalifa et al. found that 'spiritualised school leadership has unique expression in Islam and rests on a moral vision linked to specific goals' (Sayani, 2005, in Khalifa et al., 2014, p. 251). In Islam, the 'association between religion, knowledge, and teaching creates a discourse of educational leadership that elevates teaching and learning to a sacred duty of the highest order' (Shah, 2006, p. 366).

In summary, Somali cultural perspectives on leadership are dominated by Islamic principles and elements of Somali tradition. Somalis believe that a leader should be just in managing the affairs of his clan, resolute and unswerving in defending their lives and properties, and generous and selfless in attending to their needs. This belief is based on how an individual relates to Islamic spirituality under the auspices of being a leader. 'School leaders may apply similar leadership commitments to protect, safeguard, and lead schools to achieve the interests of their school population, resources, including staff and students, and properties. Furthermore, unlike schools in the West, schools in Somalia continually hold discourses on spirituality and religion. Students pray in school and use religious language, and teachers and administrators use religious concepts to convey knowledge and messages to students. The principals interviewed in this study made similar comments and tended to interpret their own decision to be involved in education

alongside their commitment to performing their Islamic commitments and duties. Another principal described his work as 'the work of the Prophets' (Khalifa et al., 2014, p. 251).

2.3 Roles and Responsibilities of a Primary School Headteacher: An International Perspective

Countries may have different systems of education, which may influence how school systems operate; nevertheless, the universally agreed roles and responsibilities of a school head are 'planning, staff management, management of pupils' affairs, curriculum policies and instructional development, improvement and appraisal, financial and business management, maintenance of the school-community relationship, and general tasks' (Ojo and Olaniyan, 2008, p. 172).

The selected literature covers four countries, namely England, Ethiopia, Kenya, and Rwanda. The rationale for this selection was based on the researcher's personal and professional experience being in England, which was thought to possibly help him to critically compare and contrast the phenomena being discussed; Kenya and Ethiopia are neighbouring countries that share many characteristics with Somalia, including social and economic systems; and Rwanda, as an armed conflict-affected state, has experienced the destruction of its education system, similar to Somalia. Reviewing all of these countries helped the researcher to provide a comparison by which Somalia can be measured.

England

In England, 'school headship is established within a matrix of governance and management systems that tend to distinguish the job from other, similar positions held in other school systems' (Male, 2006). Male elaborated the context that underpins the role of headteachers in England, asserting that 'the job really involves reconciling a range of personal values and beliefs with the demands of the system and feeling comfortable in that position'. In this context, the most important aspect of the headteacher's role is being a leader for learning, and he or she is expected to lead, support, and challenge the teaching staff in school. As the role is crucial to guiding and supporting the whole school system, a clear standard is required to guides them.

According to the Headteachers' Standards of England's Department for Education (DfE; 2020, p. 1), 'headteachers are leading professionals and role models for the communities they serve. Their leadership is a significant factor in ensuring high-quality teaching and achievement in schools and a positive and enriching experience of education for pupils'. Together with those responsible for governance, headteachers are custodians of the nation's schools (DfE, 2020, p. 1). The Headteachers' Standards are intended to represent contemporary headship in schools today, inspire public confidence in headteachers, secure high academic standards in the nation's schools, and empower the teaching profession. They replaced the earlier National Headteacher Standards (2004) by bringing them up to date so that they are relevant for the school system that has developed since 2004.

One of the main reasons that these standards were not made mandatory is that they do not set a baseline for expected performance. Therefore, they 'should not be used as a checklist or as a baseline, and any shortcoming with respect to the standards is not, in and of itself, the basis for questioning competence or initiating culpability' (DfE, 2015, p. 8). The link between headteacher standards and teachers is worth mentioning: 'Headteachers, like other teachers, are expected to meet the teachers' standards. The headteachers' standards articulate how headteachers can meet both the additional responsibilities of headship and the requirements of the teachers' standards' (p. 8).

The DfE (2020) set out the National Standards of Excellence for Headteachers in the following four 'domains': qualities and knowledge; pupils and staff; systems and processes; and the self-improving school system.

The *first domain*—qualities and knowledge—stipulates the requirement for a headteacher to hold and articulate clear values and moral purpose, focused on providing a world-class education for the pupils he or she serves; to demonstrate optimistic personal behaviour, positive relationships, and attitudes towards their pupils and staff, and also towards parents, governors, and members of the local community; and to lead by example—with integrity, creativity, resilience, and

clarity—drawing on their own scholarship, expertise, and skills and that of those around them. Another crucial element in this domain is the expectation that a headteacher should sustain wide, current knowledge and an understanding of education and school systems locally, nationally, and globally and pursues continuous professional development. The successful performance of a task requires knowledge-based skills to accomplish it (Victor, 2017, p. 2: Carol and Edward, 2004). The final important skill expected of a headteacher is to compellingly communicate the school's vision and drive strategic leadership, empowering all pupils and staff to excel. As mentioned earlier, successful leaders develop a vision for their schools, articulate this vision at every opportunity, and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures, and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision (Bush & Glover, 2003, p. 5, cited in Bush et al., 2019, p. 4).

The *second domain* in England's Headteachers' Standards—pupils and staff—demands headteachers to seek ambitious standards for all pupils, instil a strong sense of accountability in staff for the impact of their work on pupils' outcomes, and secure excellent teaching through an analytical understanding of how pupils learn and of the core features of successful classroom practice and curriculum design, leading to rich curriculum opportunities. A headteacher is expected to create an ethos through which all staff are motivated and supported, to develop their own skills and subject knowledge, and to support each other. In addition, headteachers are expected to hold staff accountable for their professional conduct and practice.

The *third domain*—systems and processes—expects a headteacher to ensure that the school's systems, organisation, and processes are well considered, efficient, and fit for purpose, upholding the principles of transparency, integrity, and probity. Furthermore, he or she should provide a safe, calm, and well-ordered environment for all pupils and staff, focused on safeguarding pupils and developing their exemplary behaviour in school and in wider society. Moreover, a headteacher should establish rigorous, fair, and transparent systems and measures for managing the performance of all staff, address any underperformance, and support staff to improve and value excellent practice. Another crucial element to highlight in relation to a headteacher's expected standards is how he or she manages resources and how

effectively he or she exercises curriculum-led financial planning, along with the equitable deployment of budgets and resources in the best interests of pupils' achievement and the school's sustainability. Everard et al. (2004, p.4) agreed, statinge that 'a school leader should integrate the school's resources in the effective pursuit of its goals and be an agent of effective change, maintaining and developing its resources: human, material, and financial' (p. 4).

Lastly, the *fourth domain* of the Headteachers' Standards—the self-improving school system—demands headteachers to create outward-facing schools that work with other schools and organisations in a climate of mutual challenge, to champion best practice and secure excellent achievements for all pupils, to develop effective relationships with fellow professionals and colleagues in other public services, and to improve academic and social outcomes for all pupils. Hallinger (2010, cited in Day and Sammons 2016, p. 7) highlighted the indirect or mediated positive effects that leaders can have on student achievement through the building of collaborative organisational learning. Another critical aspect of this domain is how a headteacher is expected to shape the current and future quality of the teaching profession through high-quality training and sustained professional development for all staff; model entrepreneurial and innovative approaches to school improvement, leadership, and governance; and be confident in the vital contribution of internal and external accountability. Headteachers are expected to be able to inspire and influence others—both within and beyond schools; to believe in the fundamental importance of education in young people's lives; and to promote the value of education.

In addition, prospective and serving headteachers in the UK must attend National Professional Qualification (NPQH) training, a professional qualification for aspiring headteachers. It is intended to prepare experienced teachers for headships through training in management techniques, tutorial support, and achievement of school standards. The qualification was introduced in 1997 by the UK government following a commitment in their party manifesto to introduce a mandatory qualification for headteachers. Initially voluntary, the first group of people were awarded the qualification in July 1998. The legal requirement for the qualification became mandatory on 1st April 2004 and, until 8th February 2012, holding the NPQH was a mandatory requirement for all newly appointed English and Welsh school

headteachers. The course is taught through blended learning at centres nationwide (DfE, 2020, p. 5).

Kenya

In post-independence Kenya, an emphasis has been placed on quality improvement in education, closely linked to Kenya's developmental processes (Mackatiani et al., 2016, p. 59). According to Eshiwani (1993), as cited in Mackatiani et al. (2016, p. 59), during the first two decades of Kenya's independence, curriculum reforms played a pivotal role in directing the expected quality of education. Major changes introduced in the curriculum included new mathematics, agricultural, industrial, and science curricula.

Noteworthily, there has been much political interference in the education reform process in post-independence Kenya (Ojiambo, 2009, p. 8). Some of the educational initiatives that illustrate political interference in Kenya's education sector include presidential decrees on the Harambee school system, free education, a school milk programme, the quota system, model schools, the National Youth Service, higher education (HE), and a proposed laptop programme. Many of these initiatives were introduced without any consultation with stakeholders. As a result, the programmes have been resisted, and their implementation has been ineffective. Because of political interference in the education process, the policy environment has been characterised by a lack of popular consultation, with decrees, circulars, and political rhetoric replacing the policy-making apparatus.

The Government of Kenya considers school leadership significant because of the fundamental role it plays in the country's education development strategy. This was evident when the Ministry of Education (MoE) identified the enhancement of the quality of leadership among managers of education institutions as one of its objectives in the current strategic plan (Okoko et al., 2015, p. 280). In terms of policy, the Education Act is the key regulation that guides school leadership in Kenya. This act gives the MoE the mandate to manage schools through the ministerial delegation of responsibility to a range of educational stakeholders (Republic of Kenya, 1980; Okoko et al., 2015, p. 280).

Policy Priority 4 of the National Education Sector Strategic Plan (2018–2022) aims to improve school-level governance and accountability in primary schools as well as to enhance the capacity of school management in leadership. In 1981, after the Kenyan government realised that school leaders lacked the skills to perform their roles (Eshiwani, 1993), it established the Kenya Education Staff Institute, which offers in-service training to managers of schools and the people responsible for implementing directives from the MoE (Eshiwani, 1993; Onguko et al., 2008, cited in Okoko, 2015, p. 284). A few initiatives were introduced to improve school leadership in Kenya, including the expansion of various programmes, initiation of projects, and encouragement of development partners to invest in school leadership preparation and development programmes. These efforts have resulted in various forms of principal preparation, some of which are formal while others are informal.

For Kenyan teachers to qualify for school leadership, they had to go through three stages. First, they were required to serve as regular classroom teachers for at least 10 years, followed by 3 years of serving as senior teachers in primary schools and 3 years as deputy headteachers or principals. The Teacher Service Commission (TSC), a government body responsible for registering, recruiting, and assigning teachers, developed two promotional grades for deputy headteachers of primary schools – namely Deputy Headteacher II (T-Scale 9) and Deputy Headteacher I (T-Scale 10). A Deputy Headteacher II is a promotion for institutional administrators in primary schools, and the individual must have knowledge of curriculum development and implementation, education policies, and school organisation (TSC, 2020).

The majority of headteachers consider seniority to be a factor in their eligibility for leadership as well as a crucial aspect of their school leadership preparation experience. In a study by Okoko et al. (2015, p. 286) on the perception of school leaders about their leadership preparation and development, the majority of respondents found experiential leadership in schools to be useful because of the assumption that concepts and practices of leadership applied to the positions they held as they moved through the ranks. Thus, they had experience in planning, strategising, communicating, handling difficult personalities, creating conducive working environments, and accounting for student learning.

Ethiopia

According to the UN's Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA; 2014), Ethiopia is one of the least urbanised countries in the world, with only an estimated 19% of its population living in urban areas. This dispersal poses specific problems for the education sector. Spreading education and ensuring equitable access present specific challenges in such a geographic context. In addition, the existence of many pastoral and semi-pastoralist groups raises issues of the organisation of the school system and also of the relevance of the curriculum. The demographic pressures of the country increase the demand for quality education and offer a large window of opportunity for development if investments are made to ensure a fair distribution of education at all levels (ESDP, 2020).

According to Ethiopia's MoE (Gurmu, p. 664), 'there are four main areas of responsibility expected of Ethiopian school principals', which are list as follows: (1) planning—preparing and implementing school plans; (2) organising and coordinating—establishing different co-curricular programmes that advance classroom teaching, structuring and strengthening a supervision system in the school through which high-performing and talented teachers can provide professional support to their associates, and establishing different committees and units of the school; (3) leading—creating a teaching and learning process that enables the development of students' intellectual, physical, and emotional capacities; encouraging students to keep their classes and school grounds neat, tidy, and orderly so that they become conducive to teaching and learning activities; and making resources accessible to students; and (4) controlling, the main role—providing guidance on policies, including monitoring staff and students' records, executing internal communication and assessments, using school resources properly, and holding teachers and staff to account (p.664).

Gurmu further explained that the MoE (2013, p. 4) 'underscores the significance of professionalising school leaders and initiated a policy for the selection and preparation of the principals of Ethiopian primary schools in 2013, following the adoption of the revised blueprint that opened the selection of candidates' (Gurmu, 2020, p. 662). As part of a career stage, teachers in Ethiopia must pass through

ranking before applying for headship, including at least 3 years of teaching experience with a university degree in one school subject. A selection committee assesses their suitability by administering an exam and conducting interviews (Gurmu, 2020, p. 663).

Rwanda

Since the 1994 genocide against the Tutsis, Rwanda's government has made remarkable progress in rebuilding the social and economic fabric of the country. For the past 10 years, successive Rwandan ESSPs have been aligned to the national macroeconomic development programme (ESSP, 2018, p. 11).

In a policy context, Rwanda's MoE makes efforts to align the Rwandan education system with not only international targets but also the government's aspirations. Rwanda aspires to transform the country into a knowledge-based and technology-led nation. One of the pillars of Rwanda's vision is to have skilled people in place for the socioeconomic development of the country. This pillar underlines the importance of education and training for equipping citizens with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will enable them to be entrepreneurial in their own learning, thinking, and doing.

In line with this strategic vision is the fact that one of Rwanda's strategic priorities, as stated in the ESSP 2018, is the training and support of headteachers to equip them with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they require to effectively lead and manage the continuous professional development (CPD) of their teaching staff and to plan for school improvement. The Rwanda Education Board (REB), through its School Leadership and Management Unit (SLMU) and in collaboration with development partners, has developed the following five professional standards for school leaders: creating a strategic direction for the school; leading learning; leading teaching; managing the school as an organisation; and working with parents and the wider community. Headteachers must be skilled so that they can be a focal point for the CPD of their staff and for overall school development. They also need to be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their teachers and provide support and advice on pedagogy, subject matter, inclusion, and other issues.

The challenge under this ESSP (2018) is to transform headteachers' roles so that they can become true leaders of their schools. This requires training, capacity

building, and support; however, it is expected to result in more effective professional learning communities and positive learning environments. The basic principles that underpin the importance of school leadership apply equally to technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and HE institutions (REB, 2018). Like England, Rwanda has adopted headteacher standards in terms of key school leadership roles and knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values that school leaders (headteachers, deputy headteachers, chairpersons, and heads of subject) 'must demonstrate as they do their work. These standards cover four areas: i) creating strategic direction for the school; ii) leading learning and teaching; iii) managing the school as an organisation; and iv) working with parents and the local community' (REB, p. 3). The Standards serve as guidelines for good practice in school leadership and management and are a framework for recruiting headteachers, training school leaders, monitoring and evaluating the performance of educational leaders, and ensuring accountability (ESSP, 2018).

2.3.1 School management system and the headteacher's role

According to UNESCO (2000, p. 1), 'improving the quality of schools remains high on the agenda of governments all over the world. In recent years, more attention has been given to the need to improve school management and strengthen the role of headteachers'. Schools' effectiveness is primarily determined by how well they have been managed, and not by the abundance of resources they have available. Schools' ability to improve teaching and learning is strongly influenced by the quality of the leadership provided by their headteachers. Noteworthily, schools tend to share a common structure and organisation, although their general ethos and character can differ widely (Bates et al., 2019, p. 97).

Like any other organisation, a school is an organisation of many activities that are undertaken by a number of people, who require a leader who sets a direction for them. According to Crawford (2014, p. 55), 'an organisation is a system with a hierarchy and an official structure, in which leaders have power and authority because of their official roles in that organisation'. Such authority is required to meet schools' internal as well as external demands, such as the provision of quality education and meeting of nationally expected standards. Bush (2011) noted that such a hierarchical approach can be seen in the management of schools where

there are key external demands, including government expectations and parental and community engagement (Crawford, 2014, p. 55). According to Agih (2015, p. 63), the functions in a school are performed by the school's head (i.e., the headteacher or principal), who is known as the school manager. Therefore, for a school manager to successfully accomplish the set objectives, he or she must work with other people within the school system and be able to inspire them to work cooperatively to achieve the educational objectives. Agih further explained that, in terms of school management, the primary aim concerns the improvement of teaching and learning and all the activities of the school, including planning, organising, coordinating, and directing. These are universally accepted functions for the role of headteacher.

To summarise the role of headteachers in the aforementioned countries, in the UK it is to guide and support the whole school system. In Ethiopia, school principals are responsible for leading, planning, organising, and controlling. In Kenya, a headteacher is expected to provide overall leadership and oversee the effective and prudent management of the school, including the use of resources, coordination of teaching and learning, maintenance of enabling learning environments, and assurance of effective teaching and delivery. Heads in Rwanda are expected to create a strategic direction for the school, lead learning and teaching, manage the school as an organisation, and work with parents and the wider community.

In conclusion, in highly centralised systems of education, the role of the principal or headteacher has tended to focus on the interpretation of national and state rules and regulations as well as the exercise of delegated responsibility in functional areas, such as administration, planning, finance, student welfare, and reporting (Chapman, 2005, p. 7). Within these variations in national policies and regulations, the commonly agreed roles of a headteacher are confined to managing teaching and learning, leading and supporting staff, providing vision, controlling or overseeing resources, developing policies to achieve the school's objectives, and engaging and being accountable to stakeholders, such as the governing body and community (Male, 2006, p. 93). As there is no cohesive system of headteacher standards for Somalia's headteachers, the country's future plans to professionalise the

headteacher role must partially or wholeheartedly apply the globally agreed roles of a headteacher, with a key focus on various roles.

Specifically, this section further discusses the following five key roles in relation to the main roles and responsibilities of a headteacher in Subsections 2.3.1.1–2.3.1.5, respectively:

1. Management of and support for teaching and learning;

2. Selection, recruitment, and staff induction;

3. Supervision and management of staff appraisals;

4. Management of school resources and finances;

5. Engagement of stakeholders and management of external relations.

2.3.1.1 Management of and Support for Teaching and Learning

Several scholars have linked pupil outcomes with how school leaders mobilise and work with others (Leithwood and Riehl 2003). This means that the leadership practice of headteachers influences the internal processes and pedagogic practices that directly result in school improvement. This clearly enforces what Sahana described as the 'pedagogical competency of a headteacher, which refers to his or her capability to manage the teaching and learning process from the planning to the evaluation stages' (Sahana, 2018, p. 797).

In England, according to the Department for Children, Schools, and Families (DCSF), currently known as the DfE, 'headteachers must give greater attention to establishing, maintaining, and sustaining school-wide policies for teaching standards, improvements in the quality of teaching and learning, and establishing cultures of care and achievement' (DfE, 2015, p. 3). Furthermore, according to the National Standards of Excellence for headteachers, 'a headteacher must create an ethos within which all staff are motivated and supported, and he or she must hold all staff to account for their professional conduct and practice' (DfE, 2015, p. 6).

In Kenya, 'a headteacher of a primary school is charged with the responsibility of being the sole administrator accountable for all operations, including curriculum and

instruction, student/pupil, personnel, staff personnel, the school facilities, staff development, school community relations, and monitoring and evaluation programmes' (Mosiori and Thinguri, 2015, p. 309). As an instructional leader, the headteacher is also involved in many activities, such as improving teaching and learning, developing supervisory strategies, executing strategies for improvement, and maintaining the school system.

In Ethiopia, school principals are expected to support the implementation of quality and relevant instruction that results in higher levels of achievement for all students through instructional practices that are effective and that meet the needs of all students (Gurmu, 2020).

In Rwanda, a headteacher is expected to create strategic direction for the school, lead teaching and learning, manage the school as an organisation, and work with parents and the local community. Although there are similarities in the role of headteachers in the selected countries, the effectiveness of the role is determined by variables such as culture, educational policy, and systems. These differences strongly influence the ways in which a headteacher supports teaching and learning, such as 'accountability, resource allocation, and engaging with stakeholders' (REB, 2018, p. 10).

2.3.1.2 Selection, recruitment, and staff induction

The second important role of a headteacher is his or her involvement in the selection and recruitment of staff, whether teaching or non-teaching staff, and inducting them. Headteachers spend much time and effort on the recruitment process in their schools every year. Even if the role is delegated, it is still usually regarded as being within the sphere of the school leader. Choosing the right staff is critical for an institution's achievement of its core business objectives; therefore, the recruitment process is the 'headteacher's best route to influencing learning through the teacher he or she hires' (Hayden & Thompson, 2016, p. 85).

Although the headteacher sets the direction of the recruitment processes, others within the school management system are involved wholly or partially. According to Everard et al. (2004, p. 75), 'the person under whose immediate direction the new

recruit, teacher, or other staff will work should be involved in all stages of the selection process. Increasingly, it is also the practice to take account of the views of not only those with whom the newly recruited staff member will work but also of those whom the recruit will lead. The researcher's experience in schools and other education projects in England has indicated that headteachers, along with other relevant senior members of staff, play a crucial role in the recruitment and induction of staff, and that several processes are undertaken guided by the school's selection and recruitment policy.

In England, government guidance is designed to help employers in all schools with staffing and employment issues and to inform their decision-making. The guidance advises on matters contained within the School Staffing (England) Regulations 2009 for maintained schools and independent schools, which include academies and free schools, and in the Education (Independent School Standards) Regulations 2014, and also on wider staffing and employment issues (DfE, 2020). According to this guidance, governors and school leaders should consider all new staff appointments in the context of curriculum-led financial planning over 3 to 5 years. 'The teacher recruitment and utilisation policy are the guiding principle that guides and governs recruitment and utilisation. Policy gives direction of action to organisational activities and procedures' (Maithya and Akala, 2014, p. 10). In Kenya, teachers' recruitment and deployment are overseen by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and driven by a supply-driven process (TSC, 2020).

In Somalia, 'most schools have an internally defined teacher recruitment process during which the applicant's qualifications and knowledge are considered' (World Bank, 2018). The degree of formality of the process varies from a simple review of an applicant's CV to standardised testing. Additionally, some schools require proof that the applicant has received a teaching certification. 'At some schools, CECs (Community Education Committees) and parents are involved in the recruitment process—especially if there is a practical assessment of teaching capability. The recruitment process is more regulated in government schools. In schools where the government is not the primary manager, owners and managers hire teachers at their own discretion. Only a few schools indicated that they do not have a formal

recruitment process, instead accepting any willing applicant' (World Bank, 2018, p. 45).

2.3.1.3 Supervision and management of staff appraisals

Every institution that brings groups of people together to achieve certain organisational outcomes must have systems in place to ensure that an element of accountability is applied to everyone involved in reaching the organisation's determined goal. In the school system, 'one of the mechanisms to be put in place towards achieving the goals of the school is supervision' (Ekundayo et al., 2013, p. 185). The word supervision can be interpreted to mean looking over someone's shoulder to check but also as meaning to help someone to extend their professional skills and understanding. Helpern and Mackimm (2009, p. 226) stated the following: 'Supervision supports professional learning and development but also relates to monitoring and improving performance as part of effective governance and standard setting'. As a key teacher in schools, headteachers have the role of providing teacher supervision and guidance to improve performance (UNESCO, 2006, cited in Mpaata et al., 2017, p. 459). This role enables them to assist others in becoming efficient and effective in the performance of their duties.

In defining those who undertake the role of supervision, Betts (2000, p. 4) described a supervisor as 'a person who is given authority and responsibility for planning and controlling the work of a group through close contact'. In a broad sense, this definition means that supervisors may be delegated the authority to deal with key aspects, such as engagement, transfer, and dismissal; staff grievances and discipline; the quantity and quality of output; and recommendations to management. Betts further explained that headteachers' supervisory roles include providing professional support to teachers as part of the maintenance of good standards of teaching, guiding them in the planning and delivery of the curriculum, and following up on students' learning outcomes. In the researcher's experience in his school, specifically a large primary school in the UK, there are various middle leaders who are tasked with keeping an eye on the appraisal targets of members of staff, talking with them through an annual performance review, and then informing the head if areas need developing or changing to secure improved outcomes for students.

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Evidence suggests that instructional supervision, which is a service activity that exists to help teachers do their job more effectively, has always been regarded as an essential and integral part of school administration and geared towards the improvement of all factors in teaching and learning (Ekundayo et al., 2013). In Somalia, while no headteacher standards define the role of headteachers in staff supervision and appraisal, a recently developed Headteachers' Manual states the following: 'the head of the school should not simply sit in your office; instead, you should supervise the work of the school here, there, and everywhere. This should include, but not be limited to, instructional work, activities going on in the playground, hall, and library, the proper use of school materials, the behaviour of students, and the provision of facilities to maintain the cleanliness of the school' (MoECHE, 2020, p. 46).

2.3.1.4 Management of the school's resources and finances

Learning is the basic purpose of all educational institutions, which is directly linked with the core objectives of promoting learning and teaching as well as managing resources (Briggs et al., 2004). 'Resources are defined broadly to include knowledge, technology, power, material, people, time, assessment, information, and finance' (Caldwell & Spinks, 1998, cited in Briggs et al., 2004, p. 23). Resources refer to the money available to purchase real teaching and learning resources, and human resources are the resources required to deliver high-quality teaching and learning. The prime concern is how to utilise limited resources and balance the human and material resources to achieve goals most effectively when the money available to schools is not increased, or is even reduced, from year to year despite the increasing costs of equipment and salaries (Everard et al., 2004, p. 211). Ogbonnaya (2000) argued that 'as resources are scarce, it is the duty of educational administrators to use optimally and prudently those that are available for the attainment of institutional objectives' (Yizengaw & Agegnehu, 2021, p. 2). She further asserted that the 'poor management of available funds can lead to diversion of funds from prioritised projects, misappropriations, and even embezzlement' (p. 2).

In Somalia, 'almost all (89%) schools charge school fees, including those with a mixed management system which cover, on average, 74% of a school budget'

(World Bank, 2018, p. 78). The World Bank study also explained that several schools rely solely on school fees for funding and operate in a state of chronic deficit. At the school level, chronic underfunding is evidenced by delays in teacher salary payments and a lack of investment in infrastructure and teaching equipment. The effectiveness of schools' financial management system, which involves the use of financial information, skills, and methods, depends on how leaders plan, organise, direct, monitor, and control the financial activities of their organisations. 'Researchers have acknowledged the potential importance of management in improving school performance, and it is only recently that empirical research has emerged indicating that management practices are often deployed successfully by school leaders' (Bryson et al., 2020, p. 429). Generally, undertaking such a task would require school leaders to acquire the necessary skills, as 'financial management in schools remains a challenge due to a lack of proper training to equip them with knowledge and skills to have an oversight of the school's finances' (Mestry 2004, p. 128).

According to the researcher's experience, the headteacher of his school oversees the work of others and holds them accountable for what they do, which includes managing the school's resources effectively. In the UK context, according to the National Headteachers' Standards (2020), the headteacher has an important role in the financial management of the school, and his or her key responsibilities include conducting the internal organisation, management, and control of the school; advising on and implementing the governing body's strategic financial framework; and being, along with other staff, accountable to the governing body for the school's financial performance. The headteacher works with a dedicated member of staff, a business manager if there is one, depending on the size of the school; a school bursar; or a school administrator, whose main role is to manage both the school's human and material resources. The headteacher and that member of staff meet regularly to go through many areas of the school's resources, including budgeting, staffing, and other non-human resources. In their meeting, the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) also discusses finances and other resource allocations in the school's development plan.

In Kenya, headteachers are expected to have expertise in the following areas of financial management: understanding the sources of revenue for the school, such as

government funds, donations, fund raising, and income-generating projects; preparing the school budget; and monitoring expenditures in light of the improved budget (Okumbe, 2001). Similar tasks are also expected from Ethiopian school principals (Yizengaw & Agegnahu, 2021, p. 25). In Somalia, no similar guidance defines specific roles for headteachers in the management and deployment of resources, but the recently developed Headteacher's Manual states that 'one of the main functions of a headteacher as a manager is to organise school resources effectively and arrange them the best way' (MoECHE, 2020, p. 42).

2.3.1.5 Engagement of stakeholders and management of external relations

Waring (1999) defined stakeholders as 'all those who have a legitimate interest in the continuing effectiveness and success of an institution' (Briggs 2004, p. 74). According to Briggs et al. (2004), the school must carefully identify the individuals and communities that it engages with. They also asserted that the importance of these relationships varies considerably in relation to the educational system and phase, the stakeholder group, and the specific circumstances.

In a school's context, there are different stakeholders, including pupils, parents, the local authority (LA), governors and trustees, teachers, feeder schools, HE, employers, and the local community. According to the researcher's own experience as a governor and trustee, schools benefit from the effective engagement of stakeholders, and the level of engagement is determined by the nature of the stake held by a group. Governors have important and strategic roles to play in a school's strategic direction. Like other stakeholders, parents also play a crucial role in school life, and their effective involvement in schools can improve outcomes for their children. Parents engage in schools in many ways, including by supporting their children at home, participating in school activities, volunteering in school, or being on the governing body. As stakeholders in the researcher's schools, pupils actively engage with school life, not only in accessing their academic education but also by becoming involved in many other activities, such as participating in the school council, performing fundraising activities, and representing the school in local and regional competitions. Due to the lack of an accepted typology in private schools in Somalia, there is more than one stakeholder, but parents, the government, pupils,

umbrella associations, as well as local and international NGOs seem to be involved in Somalia's school system.

2.3.2 Routes to Headship: An International Perspective

Headship, or educational leadership, is broadly viewed by Anglo-American commentators as having moral, interpersonal, instructional, and administrative dimensions (Oplatka, 2004, p. 427). Professional norms that call for school leaders to engage more actively in leading the school's instructional programme and in focusing staff attention on student outcomes are prevalent (Hallinger, 1997; Southworth, 2002).

In England, in the researcher's experience, an individual passes through several stages to reach headship, which depend on a school's leadership development structure. In some schools, leadership development is structured so that all staff who are interested in leadership, from appointment, step onto a leadership ladder. A number of initiatives are in place to support those who are interested in leadership, including the government-recommended NPQH programme. According to Matthews et al., (2011, p. 10), 'structured opportunities, incentives, and rewards are all readily available, and there are clear routes for leadership progression. The stages are finely delineated in both primary and secondary examples. The researcher's school has a structured system of leadership development, collectively managed by other senior leaders within the school and occasionally external advisors. This progression and leadership development programme is tailored to the individual to ensure that each potential leader has the necessary development opportunities to progress successfully to the next stage of leadership.

Matthews et al. (2011, p. 11) found, in one of the schools they visited in England, that teaching competencies and experience are key to stepping onto the leadership ladder. They believed that good teachers with leadership potential will eagerly take on the role of mentoring a newly qualified teacher and then become trainee coordinators, which equips them to apply to be coordinators themselves. Once they have developed the necessary skills, they can become a year group leader, followed

by an assistant headteacher and a trainee headteacher. However, some people may not progress because they are not motivated or feel unable to take on more responsibility.

Ethiopia and Kenya are close neighbours and share many socioeconomic characteristics with Somalia, and school leaders there pass through stages. For example, in Ethiopia, to qualify for selection as a school leader, candidates must be teachers who have at least 3 years of teaching experience and have graduated in one of the school subjects at the bachelor-degree level. If they apply for a leadership position, the selection committee will assess their suitability by administering an exam and conducting interviews (Gurmu, 2020, p. 663). For Kenyan teachers to qualify for school leadership, they must pass three stages. First, they serve as regular classroom teachers for at least 10 years, followed by 3 years of serving as senior teachers in primary schools and 3 years as deputy headteachers or principals (TSC, 2020). As Somalia has neither a structure of development nor support for leadership progression, it may consider the models aforementioned. 'Due to the absence of formal preparation and development in the country, further weaknesses have been found with monitoring and evaluation, school supervision, and quality assurance of teachers and schools. Weak staff management systems, coupled with poor inconsistent remuneration and the lack of teacher professional development programmes at the school level, demoralise teachers and result in high turnovers as teachers search for better prospects in business and other opportunities' (MoECHE, 2020, p. 12).

In summary, the role of headteachers is universally the same, but preparation and development for the role vary widely. This section has discussed the variations in the regions—the countries that border Somalia—and the researcher's personal experience in the UK context. The next theme discussed is the profession and professionalisation of school leadership.

2.4 Theme 2: The Profession, Professionality, and the Professionalisation of School Leadership

The third theme focuses on professionalism, professional identity, and the professionalisation of school leadership. It is broken into the following four subthemes:

- Professionalism and professional identity;

- A skills-based model of professionalism;

- Professionalisation, preparation, and professional development of primary school headteachers.

2.4.1 Profession, professionalism, and professional identity

Evans (2008) defined a 'profession' as an 'occupation that controls its own work, organised by a special set of institutions sustained in part by a particular ideology of expertise and service'. She viewed 'professionalism' as 'the ideology that governs the work and standards of an occupation that provides a service within a special set of institutions' (p. 24). Furthermore, Evans emphasised the plurality of definitions when describing professionalism as a function that represents the identification and expression of what is required and expected of members and professionals of a particular occupation. The consensus of interpretation suggests that 'professionalism goes beyond professional culture by delineating the content of the work conducted by the profession, as reflected in the accepted roles and responsibilities, key functions and remits, the range of requisite skills and knowledge, and the general nature of work-related tasks' (p. 7).

In a school leadership context, Crow and Møller (2017, p. 4) defined professional identities as identities that individuals use to make sense of and enact professional identity in leadership. 'Leadership is a way to understand what influences a leader's behaviours and what drives a leader's willingness and ability to take on and enact creative and effective leadership in a high-stakes, dynamic knowledge society'. School leaders need skills and competencies, and they are entrusted with discretionary power based on public trust that they will exercise discretion in an acceptable way. 'They must know certain things that are required of principals, such as budgeting, data monitoring, and conferencing skills' (p. 10). These skills are discussed further below.

Sammons et al. (1995) reinforced this notion of professional leadership being key to schooling and 'professional leadership as one of the central elements of school effectiveness' (Huber, 2004, p. 2; Sammons et al., 1995). They further described 'professional school leadership as being firm and purposeful, having the capacity to share leadership responsibilities, and being involved in and having knowledge about what goes on in the classroom' (p. 2). Any attempt to professionalise the role of school leaders requires these inputs if the goal is for them to have a positive impact on the school's efforts to enhance pupil and staff outcomes. Noteworthily, Eger and Tomczyk (2017, p. 27) stated that 'school leaders are mostly professionally active teachers who are aware of methodical and organisational conditions, and they are required to have a set of skills and competences that can be acquired through education and professional experience'. Possessing teaching experience enables leaders to provide effective instructional-based support to teachers and other junior leaders. In addition, 'a headteacher must demonstrate optimistic personal behaviour, positive relationships, and attitudes towards their pupils and staff, as well as towards parents, governors, and members of the local community. Furthermore, he or she leads by example—with integrity, creativity, and resilience—and pursues continuous professional development for himself or herself and their staff' (MoECHE, 2020, p. 20).

2.4.2 Skills-based professionalism in leadership

Some scholars, such as Lumby and English (2009), have argued that greater attention is devoted to increasing the emphasis on skills and techniques while diminishing the emphasis on values, beliefs, and identities; however, Molander (2016), as cited in Crow and Møller (2017, p. 754), argued that 'school leaders need skills and competencies, and they are entrusted based on public trust that they will exercise discretion in an acceptable way'. Such power is enshrined in 'the capabilities (knowledge and skills) that make effective leadership possible. Skills-based professionalism can be realised through Mumford's skills-based model of leadership, which has five components – namely competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcome, career experiences, and environmental factors. These components are respectively described in the following subsections.

2.4.2.1 Competencies

The concept of competency has become ubiquitous within the field of performance assessment and development within organisations (Bolden & Gosling, 2006, p.148). According to Omemu (2015), as cited in Gurmu, 2020, p. 655, 'competence is perceived to mean the ability to do something well'. Thus, 'school leaders must gain the necessary competencies if they are to perform their school-leading role well'. emphasised that 'education and experience are among the main mechanisms for acquiring leadership capabilities (p.655)'. This suggests that 'school leaders' competencies are developed not only through organised training but also through guided practice' (Gurmu, 2020, p. 655). Problem-solving skills, social judgement skills, and knowledge are at the heart of the skills model. These three competencies are the key factors that account for effective performance (Northouse, 2013, p. 48). In addition, personal qualities are also essential elements for complementing skills.

Visone (2018, p. 35) asserted that 'solving problems is a quintessential aspect of the role of an educational leader. In particular, the process of building leaders, such as principals, assistant principals, and deans of students, is frequently beset by situations that are complex, unique, and open-ended'. In schools, many situations require greater skills to deal with. Visone further elaborated that there are often many possible pathways to resolving situations (e.g., student misconduct, personnel matters, parental complaints, instructional matters, or school culture), and an astute educational leader must consider many factors and constituencies before determining a plan of action. Allison (1996), as cited in Visone (2018, p. 35), stated that 'problems are situations that require thought and/or action'. Furthermore, different types of problems can present themselves to educational leaders. First, well-structured problems, which can be defined as those with clear goals and relatively prescribed resolution pathways, include an easy way of determining whether goals have been met. According to Mumford et al. (2000), problem-solving skills are a leader's creative ability to solve new and unusual, ill-defined organisational problems. The skills include being able to define a significant problem, gather information about it, formulate new understandings about it, and generate prototype plans for the solution.

In discussing the role that values play in a school leader's thinking when solving a problem, Lazaridou (2007) stated that 'values become one of the fundamental processes used in solving it' (p. 339). Several values were highlighted by Leithwood et al. (199) on school leaders' views about the role of values in problem solving. In the context of Somali culture, problem-solving skills, individuals' credibility and honesty with perceptions held by their colleagues, cultural competency, and good personal attributes can contribute to leaders' problem-solving capabilities.

Furthermore, Zacarro et al. (2000, cited in Northouse, 2013, p. 49) stated the following: 'Social judgement skills are the capacity to understand people and the social system. These skills enable leaders to work with others to solve problems and to marshal support to implement change within an organisation. They are people skills necessary to solve unique organisational problems'.

Moreover, Mumford et al. (2000) put social judgement skills into the following categories: perspective taking—understanding the attitudes that others have towards a particular problem or solution; social perceptiveness—having an insight and awareness into how others in the organisation function; behavioural flexibility—the capacity to change and adapt one's behaviour in light of an understanding of others' perspectives in the organisation; and social performance—an understanding of employees' perspectives and an ability to communicate their own vision to others (Northouse, 2016; Mumford et al., 2000).

2.4.2.2 Individual attributes

The key component in Mumford et al.'s skill-based model is individual attributes. The model identifies the following four individual attributes that have an impact on leadership skills and knowledge: general cognitive ability, crystallised cognitive ability, motivation, and personality. On a critical note, Northouse (2013, p. 59) stated that the model of Mumford et al. has weaknesses. The breadth of the skills approach seems to extend beyond the boundaries of leadership. By including motivation, critical thinking, personality, and conflict resolution, the skills model addresses more than just leadership. However, Kraus and Wilson (2014), as cited in Gurmu (2020, p. 655), positively argued that this model considers personality (openness and tolerance for ambiguity) as a part of the attributes that are critical for educational institutions. In addition, the model enables the identification of candidates perceived

as having leadership potential and their development into leaders through structured training and experiential learning.

Connelly et al. stated that 'effective leaders can learn new skills, understand complex information, and communicate with other people in oral and written forms due to their crystallised cognitive ability' (Connelly, 2000, p. 67). When leadership is attached to a set of skills, it becomes a process through which people can be trained and given the opportunity to apply their skills to become better at performing their jobs. Bush and Glover (2003, p. 109) indicated that leadership is about communicating with individuals and groups to build and act on a shared and evolving vision of enhanced educational experiences for pupils. To this end, 'skill in persuasion and communicating change is essential' (Northouse, 2013, p. 50). Another crucial element of leaders working with others is the effective deployment of staff resources. Leaders have great responsibility for the effective deployment of staff, as schools are professionally staffed organisations. This concept enabled the researcher to consider, from a different perspective, the views held by the study participants on how the skills they have learned impact their day-to-day duties as school leaders.

2.4.2.3 Leadership outcomes

Effective problem-solving and performance are the outcomes of leadership. These outcomes are strongly influenced by a leader's competencies, such as problem-solving skills, social judgement skills, and knowledge. When leaders exhibit these competencies, they increase their chances of solving problems and having high overall performance.

Several scholars have highlighted the effect that leaders' performance can have on student achievement, and Hallinger (2010) mentioned 'the indirect or mediated positive effects that leaders can have on student achievement through the building of collaborative organisational learning structures and cultures and the development of staff and community leadership capacities to promote teaching and learning and create a positive school climate' (Day & Sammons 2016, p. 7). These inputs can, in turn, promote students' motivation, engagement, and achievement. In discussing the impact of leadership on the wider organisational outcome, Strukan et al. (2014) acknowledged that 'leadership can improve the results of key (human) resources in

school as well as the correlation of job satisfaction, motivation, and organisational (school) culture with the quality of student achievement' (Struken, 2014, p. 101).

Although educational establishments are essentially engaged in socially useful activities, they are also business organisations whose main resource is a workforce, which includes teaching and non-teaching staff—along with the functions of management and leadership—working to achieve worthy educational outcomes. 'Principals are the main coordinators of all activities' (Strukan et al., 2014, p. 102). Research on leadership has been conducted in a variety of contexts, including international studies conducted by members of the International Successful School Project. Over the past decade, such studies have provided significant empirical evidence that leadership values, characteristics, and strategies play crucial roles in explaining variations in pupil outcomes across schools. These studies have demonstrated that 'successful schools strive to educate their pupils by promoting positive values (integrity, compassion, and fairness) and a love of lifelong learning, as well as fostering citizenship and personal, economic, and social capabilities' (Day & Sammons, 2016, p. 7). The ability of the school leader to mobilise resources to identify and foster a culturally affirming school environment is a central part of what culturally responsive leaders do (Khalifa, 2014, p. 241).

2.4.2.4 Career experience

As in many other professions, career experiences in a school or education setting are considered significant, and they 'have an impact on the characteristics and competencies of leaders' (Northouse, 2016, p. 54). Mumford's skills model suggests that 'the experiences acquired during leaders' careers influence their knowledge and skills to solve complex problems' (p. 54). Therefore, either a structured or non-structured programme of support may help them to develop the required skills, knowledge, and experience. Mumford et al. (2000, p. 24) highlighted that 'leadership can be developed by challenging job assignments, mentoring, appropriate training, and hands-on experience in solving new and unusual problems, all of which can help leaders to develop'. One of the main advantages of such input is that it 'positively affects the individual characteristics of leaders as they move through their careers; higher levels of problem-solving skills and social adjustment skills become

increasingly crucial as they confront increasingly complex problems within their organisations' (Northouse, 2013, p. 55; Mumford & Connelly, 1991).

2.4.2.5 Environmental factors

Changes in environmental factors have a large influence on how institutions are managed. According to Northouse (2016, p. 55), 'several factors influence the environment, including both internal and external factors, such as working space, the ability of subordinates to communicate, internal factors, and economic, political, and social factors. Therefore, it is essential for school leaders to understand how to respond to these specific challenges presented by a school's internal and external environments. 'The intensity of the training should also be seen in light of those environmental challenges' (Gurmu 2020, p. 655; Northouse, 2016). The acquisition of competencies and skills can be viewed in association with the environment in which school leaders are set to work, since such acquisition is represented as a component of environmental influences in the skills model. Al-Jabari (2014, p. 2) stated the following: 'Effective school leadership offers both great opportunities and challenges for many schools, and they have a major impact on the growth, development, and positive progress of student relationships. Balyer (2012, cited in Al-Jabari, 2014, p. 2). Due to its relevance to the study, the competencies component of the skills model is discussed in greater depth next.

2.4.3 Pedagogical competence

Pedagogy is an encompassing term concerned with what a teacher does to influence learning in others (Siraj-Blatchford, 2010). Pedagogical competence refers to performance, knowledge, and skills in teaching and learning. Thus, 'it includes a headteacher's capability to manage the teaching and learning process from the planning to the evaluation stages. It refers to the ability to perform well in curriculum planning, assessment, reflective teaching, and classroom management' (Sahana, 2018, p. 797).

To manage the evaluation stages successfully, 'a headteacher must establish a milieu for high-quality education by effectively managing the teaching and learning environment' (Rapp, 2010, p. 336). Their pedagogical competence can effectively enable a school leader to (a) evaluate the school's performance; (b) identify its

priorities and efforts towards a continual improvement of standards; (c) develop policies and practices; and (d) ensure that resources are efficiently and effectively used to achieve the school's aims and objectives. Pedagogical leadership skills and personality traits have become increasingly vital with regard to the responsibility and accountability of the headteacher in organising schoolwork and coordinating working processes, as well as their own (Peko et al. 2009, in Varga, 2020, p. 176).

It is important to acknowledge that this overall commitment to organising and co-ordinating quality schoolwork can be realised if a school leader has an understanding of teaching and learning and then challenges teaching staff with the requirement for high-quality teaching. One of several headteachers interviewed in a research study by Rapp (2010, p. 340) said the following: 'I think it is important to be an educated teacher. I can discuss pedagogical matters, and the teachers will know that I can deliver in a classroom'. Several interviewees, but not all, expressed the view that to be a pedagogical leader, one should have a background as a teacher and/or have teaching experience (Rapp, 2010, p. 339).

In summary, a pedagogical leader is a leader who has both the understanding and skills to support teachers and evaluate the school's teaching and learning. It is recommended that leaders are teachers themselves, specifically trained teachers, and that they possess the necessary teaching competency and experience. Although they still have to have other skills for managing the school's affairs, such as HR, finance, and parent engagement, they should have the ability to support and challenge teaching staff, have an understanding of the curriculum, provide teaching-related instructions, and act as critical friends to teaching staff.

2.4.4 Personal qualities

Leithwood (2004) asserted that the leadership of schools is widely recognised to play a crucial role in improving pupil outcomes. School leaders are commonly anticipated to require a range of skills and personal qualities to successfully undertake their duties in leading their schools. Few rigorous studies have attempted to identify the leadership qualities that make some principals more effective than others. Branch et al. (2013) found that a school leader's ability to achieve excellence was influenced by his or her traits, behaviour, and actions (Branch et al., 2013; cited in Krasnof,

2015, p. 2). Even though a principal may be able to implement and combine diverse leadership styles in the administration and management of a school to achieve excellence, 'they also require personal qualities or traits that make them more stable and resilient' (Goolamally & Ahmed, 2013, p. 123).

In highlighting knowledge-based leadership, Male (2006, p. 86) stated that 'the main knowledge bases that have been developed for formal school leadership have tended to identify skills and personal qualities as the bedrocks of successful behaviours' (p. 86). The author further asserted that skills can be separated into those for dealing with technical or social (moral) issues. Personal qualities, meanwhile, have more to do with the disposition to engage successfully with the demands of the job. Based on research conducted by the Centre for Creative Leadership (2021), a few qualities are associated with good leadership, including the ability to delegate, communication skills, self-awareness, gratitude, learning agility, influence, empathy, courage, and respect. The influences of culture on leadership are worth noting, particularly the cross-cultural interactions and the impact of culture on leadership effectiveness (Northouse, 2016, pp. 387).

Islam is the main religion in Somalia, and it is a major influence on the lives of Somalis (Andrzejewski, 1983). The people are Sunni Muslims of the Shafi'ite school, with a great interest in Sufi spiritualism. Sunni Islamic traditions are deeply infused into the personal, political, and legal lives of most Somalis. Islamic values directly influence the governance and daily lives of individuals. National legislation and traditional customary law are informed by shari'a rulings, meaning that certain behaviours that do not abide by Islamic principles are criminalised by law.

One of the important elements for developing headteachers and other school leaders, and one commonly discussed in the literature, is the professionalisation of school leaders. McPherson (2010, p. 211, cited in Gurmu 2020, p. 652) described this as a 'transformation process that helps school leaders gain outstanding knowledge, superior skills, and exceptional professional behaviour for effectively leading schools.

2.4.5 Preparation and development of headteachers

One of the core requirements of the professionalisation of headship is the acquisition of superior professional expertise and behaviours by school principals that may help develop exceptional handling in school leadership (Gurmu, 2020, p. 657). 'The necessity that a principal's professional qualification also emanates from the protection of the interests of the public by assuring that practitioners hold an agreed-upon level of knowledge and skills' (Ingersoll and Perda, 2008, in Gurmu, 2020, p. 568) 'The professionalisation of principalship may encompass a variety of programmes such as training and networking' (Mathibe, 2007, p. 524), providing an opportunity for developing an individual's skills in conducting certain activities or duties. 'These training and development opportunities are about the use that people make of their knowledge and skills and what the acquisition of knowledge and skills has done to their minds, their attitudes, their values, motives, and intentions' (Higgs and Higgs, 1994, in Mathibe, 2007, p. 524).

As highlighted in the discussion in many parts of this chapter, there is a growing call for the professional development of school leadership due to poor results in schools, which are linked to poor or inappropriately trained school principals. 'Principals need appropriate knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) to be effective leaders, and their preparation should not be left to chance' (Okoko et al., 2015, p. 281). Professional development may take different forms, such as training, on-site processes, networks, and professional development courses. These opportunities for development enable school leaders to acquire professional competencies to support, challenge, and lead teams effectively.

In the context of Somalia, the issue of developing headteachers is still underdeveloped, despite the recently published Training Manual, which does not provide the headteacher standards that exist globally (e.g., in England) and in nearby countries such as Kenya and Rwanda. However, Huber (2004) stated that 'there is broad international agreement about the need for school leaders to have the capacities needed to improve teaching, learning, and pupils' development and achievement. Developing appropriate training and development opportunities has become a major focus of professional development programmes in many countries. As highlighted above, these phenomena also exist in Somalia.

Any attempt to initiate preparation and development programmes for Somali headteachers must be culturally and environmentally adaptable. Training programmes should be carefully considered, as countries vary both culturally and in the structure of their education systems. These programmes may fail if they are not geared towards meeting the needs and demands of headteachers (Harper and Dadey, 1993). As there are universally agreed roles and responsibilities for a headteacher, Lumby et al. asserted that 'preparation and development are universal to some extent, and schools in Africa that operate in different philosophical contexts look beyond African borders for support and establish links with international platforms' (Lumby et al., 2008, p. 152). Highlighting the benefit of international engagement, Lumby et al. suggested that African countries can take planned, deliberate steps towards improving school leadership development efforts, which are currently scant. However, such a suggestion was viewed critically by Eacott and Asuga (2014), who stated that 'in the diverse geographic and socio-political space that is Africa, school leadership preparation and development, as with much education reform, are caught up in the donor logic of "catch up" frequently mobilised by the power centres of the global north' (p. 920). In applying these development programmes contextually and making them more appropriate to the local context, Eacott and Asuga further stressed that 'context matters and that a consistent call to adopt models and methods from elsewhere cannot merely be adopted and mobilised in Africa' (p. 920). Due to this consideration, this study sought to contribute to any plan to develop a contextualised model of preparation and development of headteachers in Somalia.

In the UK, the New Vision Programme was developed by the National College of School Leadership (NCSL), which no longer exists. The aim of the programme was to meet the leadership development needs of principals in the first 3 years of school principalship (Bush, 2003, in Mathibe, 2007, p. 526). To ensure that principals attend the New Vision Programme, funds are made available from the Heads' Leadership and Management Programme (HeadLAMP). According to Bush (2003), the programme has an unusual mix of content and process, with an emphasis on participants' personal and school contexts (Mathibe, 2007, p. 526).

In Rwanda today, high-level support exists for improving the leadership competencies of its headteachers. Rwanda's ESSP 2017/18 includes the strategic objective that 90% of assessed headteachers should demonstrate capabilities for school leadership (ESSP, 2017). In its ESSP's targets and with UK Aid, Rwanda has introduced a CPD development programme named Building Learning Foundations (BLF) for its school leaders. This programme has been aligned to the government's policies, including the ESSP and the Professional Standards for Effective Leadership, and is designed to complement and build on the country's existing school leadership programme (REB, 2018). The content of this programme, which is run by the University of Rwanda in partnership with REB, reflects the core roles of Rwandan headteachers. It covers areas such as deepening their understanding of impactful leadership for learning, leading the improvement of learning outcomes in mathematics and English, pursuing a self-sustaining system, and creating an action plan to sustain wider improvement in schools (University of Rwanda, 2018, p. 2).

In Ethiopia, as part of ensuring that an effective quality assurance system is in place, school principals and supervisors are supported through a professional development programme that focuses on school leadership and management (MoE, 2020, p. 19). The Leadership and Management Programme was redesigned during Education Sector Development Programme IV (ESDP IV) and has now provided training to more than 25,000 school principals and supervisors. The new training course, which began 2 years ago, continues to provide both theoretical understanding and practical skills in the core areas of supervision, management, and school leadership. In addition, a refreshed emphasis on instructional leadership is included to improve a leader's support for the teaching and learning process through, for example, classroom observation skills (ESDP, 2020, p. 20). The current policy for selecting and preparing Ethiopian primary school principals was initiated in 2013 following the adoption of the revised blueprint, which states that 'educational management is a unique and vast profession in itself' (p. 20). It has its own unique scientific theories and implementation guidelines (Gurmu, 2020, p. 662).

In summary, the importance of professionalising school leadership is universally acknowledged, and this has been articulated well through the demonstration of the relationship between appropriately trained school leaders and student learning

outcomes as well as the maintenance of public confidence in education. The professionalisation of principals means providing effective training and development, and there are numerous challenges in their implementation. One challenge is the lack of uniformity in the training and professional development of school principals, as education systems, policies, and resources are differ greatly between countries. In addition, some developed countries have advanced and are well-developed with resources and professional opportunities for their school leaders, while others may still be in an early stage of developing their school leaders. The nature of the international professionalisation, preparation, and development of headship is insufficiently understood and there are differences in national contexts (Bush, 2020, Bailey and Gibson, 2020, p. 1007); nevertheless, the common logic is that the role of a headteacher is universally agreed to be to lead and support teaching and learning as well as to manage resources and stakeholder engagement effectively. However, this study and analysis of Somalia's professional development of its headteachers were driven by the need to acknowledge the existence of national variations. As a result, Somalia's education policymakers may be inspired to adopt provisions that exist elsewhere in the world.

2.4.5.1 Professional development for headteachers

School leadership in Somalia is an area that is still under-researched, and the country does not have a set of agreed standards or a code of regulation for preparing and developing headteachers. With the help of the Global Partnership for Education (2020), the Somali government launched its ESSP (2020–2023). The plan seeks to enhance the quality of primary education and children's learning outcomes through the following four measures: (a) the provision of school-based coaching for headteachers to improve school performance; (b) a review of textbook content for grades 1–8; (c) the construction of libraries in selected schools to promote a culture of reading and literacy; and (d) increased access to safe and protective learning environments for Somali children (MoECHE, 2020).

The researcher's personal experience indicates that both public and private schools in Somalia have faced many challenges in the wake of two decades of conflict. These challenges included poorly or untrained teachers, a lack of a nationally agreed curriculum (as regional and interregional differences exist and several states claim

greater autonomy), conflicting ownership, poor leadership and management, financial mismanagement, a shortage of school supplies, and a lack of government or external support. These challenges are also accompanied by a lack of opportunities for private school leaders to receive the professional development training necessary to effectively conduct their institutional leadership duties.

As a result of the absence of government regulation and support, despite the training manual developed by the MoE, there are no institutions that prepare and develop headteachers in Somalia. Furthermore, there is no standardised formal training or leadership development for public and private primary headteachers in Somalia (MoECHE, 2020). While a great emphasis is placed on school leadership preparation through professional development and training throughout the rest of the world (Bush, 2008), in certain countries, particularly African ones, there is a lack of procedure in appointing and then offering pre-service training. Induction and in-service training for headteachers are also apparently inappropriate in many developing countries, especially those on the continent of Africa (Bush & Oduro, 2006). Heads must rely on experience to perform their work (Benson, 2011), which is not ideal for creating an effective and supportive environment for teachers and other staff in schools.

There are no specific studies related to Somalia on the availability of professional development opportunities for school leaders or a skills audit of current leaders of schools in private sector schools in the country. One of the key components in Somalia's ESSP (2020–2023) is the life enhancement quality afforded by a good education. It aims to raise children's learning outcomes through the provision of school-based coaching for headteachers to improve school performance. To achieve this, comprehensive and consolidated headteacher training programmes will be developed. This strategy only applies to the education sector in Somalia, including the Benadir Region and the FMSs, as Somaliland has its own ESSP. Although Somaliland's ESSP makes extensive reference to increasing the number of female headteachers in Somaliland, it makes no mention of any direct government policy for preparing, developing, and training headteachers.

As part of delivering school-based coaching for headteachers, the MoECHE (2020) produced a comprehensive and consolidated Head Teacher Training Manual (HTTM). It is the result of a consultant working closely with the Teachers Development Department of the MoECHE and Somali National University to support the training of headteachers. Although the manual was produced in consultation with several headteachers and other stakeholders in education, it was wholly based on the professional development of teachers and heavily dependent on external references, since there are no government-recognised headteachers' standards in Somalia. This manual neither provides professional guidance nor is it mandatory. According to the non-standardised HTTM, headteachers are leading professionals and significant role models within the communities they serve; the values and ambitions of headteachers determine the achievements of schools; they are accountable for the education of current and future generations of children; and their leadership has a decisive impact on the quality of teaching and pupils' achievements in the classroom. The manual further explains that headteachers, together with those responsible for school governance, are guardians of the schools they head (MoECHE, 2020).

The HTTM still encourages a school-based coaching approach, which requires instructional leadership-based practices. It further stresses the importance of school leaders being instructional and experienced educators by stating that 'a headteacher is a professional educator and at best an experienced class teacher and role model to other teachers, and he must share instructional work with teachers' (p. 43). It highlights ways in which the coaching model improves instructional practice and the capacity of school systems to promote teacher learning. Coaching involves an expert teacher working with a novice in an individualised, classroom-based, observation–feedback–practice cycle (Sims, 2020).

Crucially, instructional coaching involves revisiting the same specific skills several times, with focused, bite-sized pieces of feedback that specify not just 'what' but also 'how' the novice needs to improve during each cycle. As highlighted elsewhere in this thesis, it is crucial to acknowledge that this commitment to coaching staff and scrutinising quality schoolwork can be realised if a school leader understands the

curriculum and challenges teaching staff with the quality of teaching (Varga, 2020, p. 176).

Although the manual does not rationalise its choice of using moral leadership, one may argue that because of its association with values and ethics, this form of leadership is derived from democratic theory, as suggested by Leithwood et al. (1999, cited in Bush & Glover, 2013, p. 15). Despite Somalia's claim of being a federal democratic state, this democratically driven approach to leadership may be a challenge to school organisational culture in the country given the nature of Somali culture, where leaders tend to enact a top-down approach and maintain a power distance between headteachers and subordinates.

One way in which moral leadership could be an appropriate model to apply in Somalia's context is what West-Burnham (1997), in Bush & Glover, 2003, p. 15) described as 'spiritual', in that it relates to 'the recognition that many leaders possess what might be called "higher order" perspectives, and these may well be represented by a particular religious affiliation' (p. 15).

The following chapter will present the research design and methodology used for the study.

Chapter Three   Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide details of the research processes undertaken while conducting the study, including the research paradigm, theoretical framework, research design, methods, and methodology, as well as the epistemological and ontological reasoning. In brief, it intends to significantly highlight the issues related to ethics, validity, and limitations and how to address them. In addition, this chapter presents a summary of the pilot study that was conducted to test the appropriateness of the data collection tools as well as the research questions. This study focused on Somali primary school headteachers in the private sector and their views on a professional headteacher. The research aim and objectives are recapped as follows.

3.1.1 Research aim

The main aim of this research was to explore Somali primary school headteachers' leadership and management experiences as well as their perceptions of what constitutes a professional headteacher in the Somali context.

This study made strenuous efforts to understand how and when they were trained and recruited and what continued professional development opportunities, if any, were available in Somalia. The research specifically examined whether there were differences in the types of training and professional development opportunities that existed in different parts of the country. It further sought to understand the selection

and recruitment criteria of these headteachers and the types of qualifications that were conditional on their appointments. The professionalisation and professional development of Somali school leaders in Somalia have scarcely been touched upon by researchers (Cassanelli and Abdikadir, 2007).

3.1.2 Objectives of the research

The main objectives of this research were as follows:

- To gather what Somali headteachers understand about being professional;

- To identify any gaps in the views they hold and those highlighted in the scholarly literature;

- To explore the importance of formal preparation and development for inspiring headteachers in the delivery of quality education in Somalia;

- To explore any existing model that creates professional development opportunities for Somali headteachers of private primary schools in Somalia.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework selected for this study was based on the Mumford skills model, as this approach suggests that 'knowledge and abilities are needed for effective leadership' (Mumford et al., 2000, cited in Northouse, 2013, p. 43). Mumford et al. formulated this skills-based model of leadership, which is characterised as a capability model because it examines the relationship between leaders' knowledge and skills (i.e., capabilities) and their performance.

In the circumstances surrounding this study, other theories and models, such as great man theory, were not considered appropriate to this study. This is because great man theory implies that 'leadership is reserved for only the gifted few, while the Skills Model suggests that leadership capabilities can be developed over time through education and experience' (Mumford et al., 2000, in Northouse, 2013, p. 47). The skills model can capture many of the intricacies and complexities of leadership not found in other models. Another important reason for the application of this model is that 'it provides a structure that is very consistent with the curricula of most leadership education programmes. Leadership education programmes have

traditionally taught classes in creative problem solving, conflict resolution, listening, and teamwork' (p. 59).

Thus, the researcher believed the skills-based model to be relevant to the Somalia context, as 'leadership is less likely about status and position in a hierarchy than the possession of essential competencies, skills, and expertise' (Morrison, 1998, p. 205, cited in Khalifa et al., 2014, p. 246). Such skills help school leaders to use existing skills, but they may need to further develop them so that they meet the ever-changing educational landscape. In addition, such a model is relevant to the Somali context because it also pays greater attention to other factors that influence leadership, including individual attributes, as 'Somali principals saw that leadership was more about status than anything else' (p. 246). Mumford's skills-based model has five components – namely competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental factors.

Figure 1 illustrates the components of the skills-based model, which establishes links between a leader's knowledge, skills, and attributes and their relationship with that leader's performance (Northouse, 2013, p. 55):

Figure 1. Components of Mumford's skills-based model.
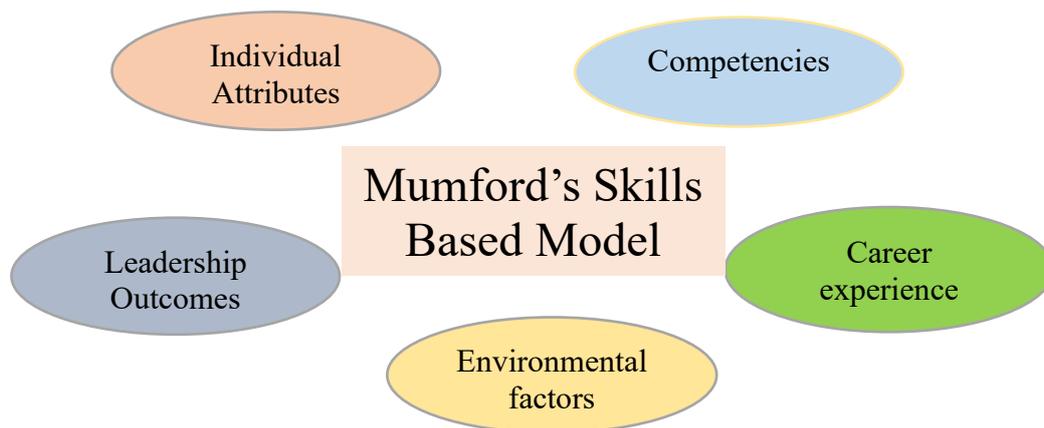
Source: Adapted from 'Leadership Skills for a Changing World: Solving Complex Social Problems', by M.D Mumford, S. J. Zaccaro, F.D. Harding, T.O. Jacobs, and E. A. Fleishman, 2000.

Individual attributes play a significant role in leaders' effectiveness in their roles, and they also enable them to lead, guide, challenge, and support others. Effective

leaders can learn new skills, understand complex information, and communicate with other people through oral and written forms due to crystallised cognitive ability (Connelly et al., 2000, p. 67). By using this concept, the researcher was able to examine the views of the study participants concerning the impact that the skills they learned have on their day-to-day performance as school leaders.

Competence is perceived to mean 'the ability to do something well; therefore, school leaders must gain the necessary competencies if they are to perform the school-leading role well' (Omemu, 2015, in Gurmu, 2020, p. 655). Problem-solving skills, social judgement skills, and knowledge are at the heart of the skills model. These three competencies are the key factors that account for effective performance (Northouse, 2013, p. 48). Effective problem-solving and performance are the goals of leadership. These outcomes are strongly influenced by a leader's competencies, such as problem-solving skills, social judgement skills, and knowledge. 'When leaders exhibit these competencies, they increase their chances of problem solving and overall performance' (Northouse, 2016, p. 53). Hallinger (2010, cited in Day and Sammons (2016, p. 7) highlighted 'the indirect or mediated positive effects that leaders can have on student achievement through the building of collaborative organisational learning, structures, and cultures and the development of staff'. In discussing the impact of leadership on the wider organisational outcome, Strukan et al. (2014) stated that 'leadership can improve the results of the key (human) resources in school, as well as the correlation of job satisfaction, motivation, and organisational (school) culture with quality and student achievement'.

Career experiences are another significant component of Mumford's skill model. This component has an impact on the characteristics and competencies of leaders. 'The experiences acquired during leaders' careers influence their knowledge and skills to solve complex problems. In the school context, these complex problems may include teaching and learning, staff supervision, [and] students' performances' (Northouse, 2016, p. 54). As headteachers are key staff members responsible for the overall management of the school, including teaching instructions and the effective use of resources, their past career experience is vital for their effective performance. These experiences can be gained through challenging job assignments, mentoring, appropriate training, and hands-on experience in solving new and unusual problems

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(Mumford et al., 2000). Therefore, the skills and knowledge of leaders are shaped by their career experiences as they address increasingly complex problems in their organisation. According to Pont (2008, p. 113), 'experts in leadership and development argue that school leaders' professional development activities should be ongoing, career-staged, seamless, and continue throughout the stages of a principal's career'.

In addition to setting the tone for success among students and staff as well as other school-organisation-related matters, successful school leaders can influence positive change for the betterment of the school. Several factors are acknowledged to be able to influence how leaders lead organisations, including 'environmental influences that may relate to internal factors such as working space, communication infrastructure, and capability of subordinates, or external factors such as economic, political, and social issues' (Northouse, 2016, p. 55). The school environment has a major impact on the growth, development, and positive progress of student relationships. 'If school leaders are successful in responding to the distinctive challenges presented by schools' internal and external environments, their development must be seen in line with the environment in which they have to operate' (Al-Jabari, 2014: p. 2). These developments must be continuous, as changes often happen at all levels and are greatly influenced by the external and internal environments. More about the theoretical model of Mumford et al. (2000) is discussed later in this chapter.

As school leadership in Somalia is an under-researched area, it was important to test methods such as interview questions for the main study. This was critical for the study, as Holloway (1997) suggested that 'when conducting a qualitative inquiry, researchers can pilot a study to assess the acceptability of an interview, an observation protocol, or both' (Kim 2016, p. 193). See Appendix B for the summary of the pilot study and its main implications for the main study.

3.3 Research Questions

Creswell (2013, p. 139) recommended that researchers reduce their entire study to a single, overarching central question and several sub-questions. Drafting this central question took considerable work because of its breadth. To reach the overarching

central question, the researcher took Creswell's advice to state the broadest question that could be posed to address the research problem.

The primary research question for the study was as follows:

> What views do Somali private primary school headteachers hold about being a professional headteacher?

This central or primary research question then led to the development of the following secondary questions:

1. What does 'being a professional headteacher' mean to Somali headteachers?

2. What is their understanding of the roles of a primary school headteacher? (Research question: secondary)

3. What skills, attributes, and personal qualities contribute to being a professional headteacher?

4. What provisions are available in Somalia for preparing, developing, and supporting Somali private primary school headteachers?

   a. Are there any similar provisions that they are aware of in the region?

   b. Can these provisions be adopted in Somalia?

3.4 Methodology & Approach

In emphasising the significance of deciding on a research approach, Cohen et al. (2018) stated that 'what the researcher does depends on what the researcher wants to know and how she or he will go about finding out about the phenomena in question'. They further stressed that 'having a rigorous research design is crucial in the search process' (p. 175). The approach considered in the research is presented in the following subsections.

3.4.1 Research Design

For this study, a case study design was chosen due to its ability to describe and understand a phenomenon and the particular context in which it occurs. The

phenomenon of the study, which relates to the views that Somali headteachers in private schools have about being professionals, provided an opportunity for the researcher to explore or describe the perception of Somali headteachers and 'its context using a variety of data sources' (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 544). According to White (2013), 'research design is a logical rather than a logistical matter, i.e., concerned with the overall blueprint—the architecture—rather than the nuts and bolts of how to carry out that plan' (p. 221). The logic here was the sequence that connected the data to the research questions and their conclusions (Yin, 2009, in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 175). The logical component in issues involving research questions is to have suitable research for answering those questions. The overall strategy that researchers choose is to integrate the different components of a study in a coherent and logical manner, thereby ensuring that they effectively address the research problem, as 'it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data' (Labree, 2013; Cohen et al., 2018: p. 173). Details about this study's data collection strategy are provided in Subsection 3.6.4.

The qualitative method was used intentionally in this research to unravel a complex phenomenon with a little-known context, namely that of Somalia. Leedy and Ormrod (2005), as cited in Njie and Asimiran (2014, p. 35), indicated that qualitative research is not an appropriate approach if one seeks quick results and easy answers. It involves enthusiasm and the determination to dig deep to understand a situation or process; moreover, more time and further inquiry are often required to obtain an enhanced understanding of a situation through observation, interviews, and further follow-up sessions.

The qualitative approach was chosen to conduct this study as it was the most appropriate due to its suitability for exploring a particular issue or problem (Creswell 2013, p. 47– 48). The study examined aspects of reality that cannot be quantified and focused on the motives, beliefs, and attitudes of the participants, as opposed to numbers and statistics. The researcher disregarded the use of quantitative methods due to the study's focus on objectivity, which are particularly appropriate when quantitative measures of variables can be collected from a sample over a population. In addition, a major advantage of using a qualitative research design was that data

were collected in face-to-face interactions with selected persons in their professional settings, allowing the researcher to understand a social phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants (Gay and Airasian, 2003).

This exploration was necessary for further studying the role of school leadership in Somalia, as it is vital for headteachers to possess the required competencies and skills to lead, support, and challenge members of school staff. 'There are no formal institutions in Somalia that prepare school leaders for the demanding responsibilities of post-conflict school leadership' (World Bank, 2018, p. 72).

3.4.2   Research paradigm

According to Patton (2015), 'a paradigm is a way of thinking about and making sense of the complexities of the real world'. Furthermore, Guba and Lincoln (1994) stated that a paradigm comprises the following three components: the composition of the nature of reality or knowledge (ontology), the relationship between the knower and the known (epistemology), and the approaches adopted by the inquirer for seeking knowledge (methodology).

In general, choosing a research paradigm helps researchers to summarise any previous information and guide their future course of action. As such, it provides researchers with the opportunity to formulate missing ideas or links, the additional data required, and how these are connected, and also to establish sets of propositions or generalisations (Henning et al., 2004, p. 14). In addition, the concept of theory necessitates some clarification.

Patton (2015) argued that seeking to identify the 'best' paradigm is meaningless; instead, the focus should be on determining the most appropriate paradigm for the aim of each research project. Therefore, this study carefully selected the concept of interpretivism as an appropriate approach to employ due to its emphasis on understanding the individual and their interpretation of the world around them. 'Researchers tend to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon and its complexity in its unique context instead of trying to generalise the base of understanding for the whole population' (Pham, 2018, p. 2). By choosing the interpretivist approach, the researcher sought to understand the views of primary

school headteachers on professionalism in school leadership, which allowed the researcher to construct knowledge socially as a result of the experience of real life within the setting (Punch, 2005). In justifying the selection of this paradigm, other possible alternatives were considered, such as positivism and pragmatics; however, they were not preferred for addressing the research aim due to their limitations, which include generalisation and the longer period required to prepare and conduct studies (Goldkuhl, 2012).

3.4.2.1 Epistemological & ontological position of the study

A paradigm is a key element for researchers, and 'this depends on how the researcher views the world from an epistemological and ontological standpoint' (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 6). According to Rawnsley (1998), epistemology is used interchangeably with the theory of knowledge to encompass philosophical problems concerned with the origin and structure of knowledge. As this study focused on the perception and behaviour of a selected group of primary school headteachers, interpretivism was the epistemological position that the researcher adopted. This is because the study fell within the interpretivist paradigm, since it focused on the views held by a group of headteachers about what constitutes a professional headteacher. Thus, the researcher made meaning from the data through his own thinking and cognitive processing of the data, informed by his interaction with participants (Kivunja and Kuyini, 2017, p.33).

Crotty (1998) defined ontology as 'the study of being'. It is important to highlight researchers' involvement in the study and their positions typically involve in investigating and gathering information and these can be based on researchers' fundamental beliefs about reality and existence. Crotty continued as follows: 'The ontological assumptions refer what constitutes reality and researchers need to take a position regarding their perceptions of how things really are and how things really work' (p.10). In this study, the ontological position was based on the researcher's belief about realities; as such, a relativist ontology is the position chosen for the study, which means that the situation studied has multiple realities and that they can be explored and meaning made from them or constructed through human interaction between the researcher and the subjects of the research. Therefore, the researcher believed that the participants were not only sharing their views of being professional

headteachers but also constructing the multiple realities that exist within the context of professionalising school leadership outside Somalia.

3.4.3 Case study design

A case study has many definitions and has indeed been termed a 'contested terrain' (Yazan, 2015). As cited in Cohen et al. (2018, p. 375), Stake (1995) defined a case study as 'the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances'. Yin (2009) referred to a case study as a study in a context, and seeing within its context is crucial. Cohen et al. also developed the definition of a case study as a 'specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle, and it is the study of an "instance of action"' (2018, p. 375). While a case study is a widely used qualitative research paradigm, and some authors have defined a case study as a bounded unit of a particular situation or context, this does not necessarily represent all case studies, and 'it still does not define what constitutes a unit and what constitutes a boundary' (Cohen, 2018, p. 375).

Due to this study's focus on individual or group cases, the researcher chose a case study design as it enabled him to investigate the phenomenon in much detail, capturing the views held by Somali headteachers about being a professional headteacher, using sources of data found within this context.

In conclusion, Yin (2009, p.72) asserted the following: 'case study provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles. It is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context, where the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are defined. Moreover, a case study follows an interpretivist research framework that enables 'the researcher to understand the subject of the study and its real-life context from the perspective of the participants' (Cohen 2011, p. 183).

This study's main rationale for using a case study design was the need to gain a comprehensive understanding of the investigated phenomenon using multiple data sources, such as archival searches, interviews, questionnaires, and observations (Eisenhardt, 1989). A secondary rationale for this selection was the fact that a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are unclear (Yin, 2009, p. 13). No prior similar research had been conducted in this area, and this study drew a link between professionalism in school leadership and the perceptions held by Somali headteachers about this term, as well as the provision of preparation and development for headteachers. The researcher specifically chose an instrumental case study design due to its relevance for serving 'as an instrument for studying a particular theme or phenomenon related to views and perceptions held by a group of people, and the selection was determined by the purpose and the context of the study – of the case of Somali headteachers in this context' (Cohen, 2018, p. 377).

In summary, a case study is a qualitative research paradigm that is widely used in social science and other disciplines, and it involves an in-depth investigation of a particular individual, group of people, or phenomenon within a real-life context. Yin (2009) also asserted that a case study strategy offers the researcher the opportunity to gain different perspectives from a range of sources and increases the likelihood of generating theory. This enhanced the researcher's intention to investigate a range of relevant literature, including documents, to explore significant features of the case in relation to gaps in the professionalisation of school leadership or headship in Somalia. As mentioned above, 'the strength of case study research lies in its ability to enable the researcher to intensively investigate the case in depth, to probe, drill down, and get at its complexity' (Coe et al., 2017, p. 114).

3.4.4 Research methods

Research methods concern specific and systematic processes, techniques, and approaches used by a researcher to collect, analyse, and interpret data to investigate phenomena or answer specific research questions. The choice of research methods depends on the nature of the research question, the type of data required, and the overall goals of the study. Some of these methods include

strategies for conducting sampling, planning the data collection, analysing the data, and then reporting them.

3.4.5 Sample and sampling

Sampling in research involves selecting a subset of individuals, cases, or entities from a large population to study a specific phenomenon, context, or experience in depth. 'There are two main methods of sampling by which a researcher must decide whether to opt for a probability sample (also known as a random sample) or a non-probability sample (also known as a purposive sample)' (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 214). In explaining the difference between the two, Cohen et al. (2018, p.214) stated the following: 'in a probability sample, the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are known, whereas in a non-probability sample, the chances of members of the wider population being selected for the sample are unknown. In the latter type, the researcher has deliberately and purposefully selected a particular section of the wider population to include or exclude from the sample' (p. 214).

It is paramount for a researcher's 'sampling choice to be aligned with the research objectives and the nature of the research question, and the exclusion and inclusion of certain potential participants must be clearly explained. This explanation enhances the credibility and validity of the method of selection' (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 152). Due to its qualitative nature, purposive sampling was adopted for this study. It is also crucial to highlight the limitations of this type of sampling. Regardless of the specific type chosen, purposive sampling is prone to researcher bias. According to Sharma (2017, p. 751), 'the idea that a purposive sample has been created based on the judgement of the researcher is not a good defence when it comes to alleviating possible researcher biases, especially when compared with probability sampling techniques that are designed to reduce such biases. Sharma (2017) further explained that 'this judgmental subjective component of purpose sampling is only a major disadvantage when such judgements are ill-conceived or poorly considered; that is, where judgements have not been based on clear criteria' (p. 752). To minimise such bias, this study followed the recommendations of Miles and Huberman (1994), namely the use of clearly defined criteria, avoidance of prejudice, application of randomisation techniques within those categories to increase

representativeness, documentation of the process, and provision of a detailed record of the selection processes.

Based on the abovementioned advice, the study took the following steps: first, it defined selection criteria for the participants, including the safety of the regions, as armed conflict is still active in Somalia and a plan for safe travel had to be carefully considered, in addition to private schools, availability, and accessibility to participants. Second, to avoid prejudices, the researcher declares his positionality in the research, his personal context, and his intention to minimise any biases in Section 3.8 of this chapter.

Two steps were taken to select participants for this study. First, an open invitation for research participation was sent to private primary school headteachers of private school networks in several safe locations within Somalia—namely the Benadir, Somaliland, and Puntland regions. Thirty headteachers responded and agreed to take part; 38 responses were received, and only 30 respondents were selected as actual participants, while 29 of them participated in the study. For this reason, there was no need for randomisation. Five were primary school headteachers, and three were deputy headteachers. The researcher considered the 30 respondents 'who would provide the richest information and those who were the most interesting' (Best and Kahn, 2006).

'As there is no commonly agreed sample size for the qualitative research by academic commentators' (Boddy, 2016, p. 429), some have suggested that 'qualitative sample sizes of ten may be adequate for sampling among homogeneous populations' (Boddy, 2016, p. 429; Sandelowski, 1995). Others, such as Creswell, have also stated that qualitative sample sizes of 20–30 are typical (Creswell, 1998). This study chose a small sample size because a large sample would not have permitted a deep, case-oriented analysis, which would be the main reason for conducting a qualitative inquiry (p.429).

As this study was qualitative in nature and aimed to investigate the views held by Somali private school headteachers about being a professional headteacher, the researcher planned to interview 30 participants, but only 29 of them agreed to

participate. The researcher based his decision on the abovementioned advice from Sanelowski.

In summary, this study applied purposive sampling to select participants who were currently practising headteachers. The size of the sample for the study was determined by its purpose and nature as well as the overall size of the population. The study applied all necessary measures to minimise the limitations of the use of purposive sampling, including defining selection criteria, the researcher's positionality, and the fairness of the selection process. All 29 participants consented to participate in the study.

3.5 Data Collection

A qualitative researcher engages in a series of activities in the process of collecting data (Creswell, 2013, p. 146). The researcher engaged in activities that included gaining permission, conducting an effective qualitative sampling strategy, designing interview questions, developing means for recording information both digitally and on paper, storing the data, and anticipating ethical issues that may arise. To visualise the types of activities involved in collecting data, Creswell (2013, p. 146) presented a data collection circle, which is provided in Figure 2:

Figure 2. The data collection circle

This data collection circle suggests multiple phases that a qualitative researcher may consider when collecting data. The process of choosing the right data collection

techniques can be made easier by considering a series of questions. Perhaps the simplest question to ask is how objective the gathered data will be. If subjective information, such as attitudes and perceptions, is of interest, then questionnaires and interviews are appropriate (Drever, 1995). This study applied the data collection circle to collect data, and the processes followed are described in the following subsections.

In describing the most common sources of qualitative data, Patton (2002) stated that interviews, observations, and documents are the most commonly used because they involve the collection and analysis of non-numerical data to develop a deeper understanding of concepts, opinions, or experiences. Denzin (1989), as cited in Olesen (2004), also made a similar assertion by describing people's lived experiences, events, or situations that have meaningful social and historical contexts and experiences. The following steps were taken to collect the data: information collection through semi structured interviews, observations, documents, and visual materials, and the establishment of the protocol for recording information.

3.5.1 Semi structured interviews

Interviewing is one of the oldest and most widely used modes of gathering information in social science research techniques. Kvale (1996) defined it as an 'interchange of views between two persons (interviewer and interviewee) conversing about a topic of mutual interest' (Ruslin et al., 2022, p. 23; Kvale, 1996). These formal interactions are more than a collection of data; rather, 'interviews are social, interpersonal encounters, not merely data collection exercises' (Cohen, 2018, p. 506). It is a particularly useful tool for researchers due to its flexibility, allowing them to slightly change the order of questions within a chosen thematic framework. At this stage in the research, it was imperative for the researcher to clearly define the purpose and the type of interviews that were appropriate for this study.

According to Cohen et al. (2017, p. 508), 'interviews may serve three purposes. First, it may be used as the principal means of gathering information to serve the research objectives. Second, it may be used to test hypotheses or suggest new ones. And third, the interview may be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking'. Several types of interviews have been discussed in the academic literature. Five main types are commonly used as research tools: '(i) the structured

interview; (ii) the semi-structured interview; (iii) the unstructured interview; (iv) the non-directive interview; and (v) the focused interview' (Cohen et al., 2017, p. 511).

The researcher selected individualised, semi structured interviews as the most appropriate tool for gathering relevant information to achieve the research objective. The rationale for the selection of this tool was that semi structured personalised interviews provide flexibility for the interviewer to observe the subject and the conditions in which he or she is responding; moreover, questions can be repeated or explained in case they are not understood by the respondents (Ary et al., 2002). Another rationale the researcher considered is 'its flexibility in allowing the researcher to enquire about such matters as the development and support of teaching competence, relationships between insider and outsider groups and individuals, the impact of decisions on members of institutions, and factors influencing the outcomes of teaching and learning' (Wragg, 2003, p. 143). In the context of this research, the researcher sought to partially structure the interview questions into themes. As part of the recorded process, the researcher used clearly organised, semi structured interview protocol (See Appendix D) that enabled him to conduct the interviews within the theoretical framework of the selected themes, including topics that emerged from the literature review as reported in Chapter 2. These enabled the researcher to answer the primary and secondary research questions.

Furthermore, the researcher carefully applied the suggestions of Punch (2009), namely that researchers should consider several issues before conducting interviews, including answering the following questions: '(i) Who will be interviewed and why? (ii) how many will be interviewed? (iii) when and for how long will each respondent be interviewed? (iv) where will each respondent be interviewed? [and] (v) how will access to the interview situation be organised?' (p. 150). Considering these suggestions, the details of the sampling conducted for this study were presented in Subsection 3.4.4.1.

3.5.2 Observations

Marshall and Rossman (1989), as cited in Kawulich (2005), defined observation as 'the systematic description of events, behaviours, and artefacts in the social setting

chosen for a study' (p. 2). According to Ciesielska et al. (2018, p. 33), 'observation is one of the most important research methods in the social sciences and, at the same time, one of the most diverse'. They further asserted that choosing the type of observation depends on the type of information the researcher gathers (p. 33). It allows a researcher to hear, see, and experience reality from the participants' perspective (Billups, 2021; Spradley, 2016).

As observation was the second research tool used to collect data for the study, the researcher needed to first be clear about the purposes. This meant 'ensuring that the conceptualisation of the research question was as clear as it could possibly be' (Moyles, 2003: p. 173). Observation is recommended when little is known about the behaviour of people in a particular setting or context. As no prior study has been conducted about Somali headteachers' understanding of 'being a professional headteacher, the researcher chose observation as another appropriate tool for gathering data. It adds value to a study as 'a supplementary source of data and can enrich it in many ways. As part of the triangulation effort, observation can also add a different perspective when compared with the spoken or written findings' (Billups, 2021, p. 3). Billups (2021) further asserted that 'observation data is valuable when the researchers may be able to observe things about their participants that those participants may be unwilling to share in interviews or group discussions'. It is also valuable when 1:1 interaction comprises an important element in data triangulation for a study (Billups, 2021).

The term observation encompasses several types, techniques, and approaches, which may be difficult to compare in terms of enactment and anticipated results; the choice must be adapted to the research problem and the scientific context (Ciesielska et al. 2018, p. 33). Ciesielska et al. mentioned the following three types of observation that can be used in different ways and, to some degree, even combined: '(i) participant observation, where the researcher strives towards an "immersion" in a specific culture, preferably for a longer period to acquire an insider understanding of this culture either as a (marginal) member or as a visitor; (ii) non-participant observation, [where] the researcher tries to understand the world, relationships, and interactions in a new way, without prevalent categorisations and evaluations; [and] (iii) indirect observation, [where] the researcher relies on

observations done by others (e.g., other researchers), on various types of documentation, recordings, or on auto-observation' (Ciesielska et al. 2018, p. 33).

The researcher believed participant observation to be the appropriate form of observation to undertake for this study as it allowed him 'to be part of the setting and to become part of it, often with no pre-determined view about what findings emerge or how they were interpreted and trying to understand the setting in a way without prevalent categorisation and evaluations. Another rationale for the selection was that it enhances the quality of the data obtained during the field work as well as the interpretation of the data, whether those data are collected through participant observation or by other methods. The researcher did not consider other types of observations due to his fixed checklist and lack of flexibility in adjusting situations with participants.

This type of observation involves making field notes and/or recording events using audio-visual means in a relatively unstructured way (Moyles, 2003, p. 177). Due to his ability to engage the participants in their language, the researcher intended to become a part of the sample schools during the observation period and to observe the headteachers during their everyday activities, as doing so would reveal a variety of situations, stressors, and behaviours. It is important to highlight the significance of contextualising the observational approach as well as the circumstances in which the observation occurs, such as the role to be adopted during data collection by the researcher and the establishment of a trusting relationship with participants during the research process (Lopez-Dicastilloa & Belintxon, 2014: p. 524). During the previous field-study stage, namely interviews, the researcher successfully established a trusting relationship with participants, which enabled him to partly engage with the setting as opposed to being a part of it.

The process

Out of the 29 headteachers interviewed, eight were selected for observation, but only six were observed due to unexpected COVID-19 travel restrictions introduced by the UK government at the time of the observation, which led to the researcher returning to the UK. The rationale behind the selection of only eight was the purposeful information they provided for the study during their interviews, as advised by

Palinkas et al. (2013): 'purposive sampling is widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest' (p. 2). All participants who consented to observation were male, and their selections were based on the information variables that were highly significant to the study, including their age, number of years of headship, qualification, teaching or non-teaching experience, and school headship journey.

Furthermore, the researcher followed Dyer's checklist, which provides guidance to researchers who plan to conduct observations. Dyer (1995) asserted that 'researchers must identify location, who to observe, design the data collection sheet, clearly define what to observe, including categories, and resources needed to collect data from observation' (p. 186). Merriam (2002: Billups, 2021) also provided further guidance on this matter, including the description of the physical environment, such as through drawing a map, creating a visual representation of the setting, providing detailed descriptions of the participants, identifying the frequencies and duration of interactions, and recording planned and unplanned activities.

As highlighted above, six headteachers were observed in their schools, and clear data collection sheets were presented to them at the start of the observation. These include data on their age, qualifications, training, teaching experience, access to professional development opportunities, school ownership status, school organisation, and management. Coding was used to select and emphasise information that was important enough to record and helped the researcher to focus his observation on the type of information needed for the study (DeMunk and Sobo, 1998).

The observation was based on the following five themes that emerged from the literature, specifically from the theoretical proposition and research questions suggested by Yin (2009). The themes were as follows: (a) management of and support for teaching and learning; (b) management of school finance and resources; (c) selection, recruitment, and induction of staff; (d) staff supervision and management appraisal; and (e) stakeholder engagement. An observation log was used, and the time allocated for each observation was 4 hours, including preparation and pre-observation meetings with participants. A voice recorder and notepad were

used to record field notes. As suggested by Emerson et al. (2001), these 'field notes were intended to provide descriptive accounts of people, scenes, and dialogues, as well as personal experience and reactions' (p. 353). The researcher also applied two methods advocated by DeMunk and Sobo (1998), namely the 'use of two notebooks for keeping field notes, one with questions to be answered, the other with more personal observation that may not fit the topics covered in the first notebook' (Kawulich, 2005, p. 21).

Limitations

In discussing the limitations of observation as a data collection tool, DeWalt and DeWalt (2002) noted that 'male and female researchers have access to different information, as they have access to different people, settings, and bodies of knowledge'. The researcher must understand how his or her gender, sexuality, ethnicity, class, and theoretical approach may affect observation, analysis, and interpretation. Another limitation involved in conducting observations was noted by DeWalt, DeWalt, and Wayland (1998), namely that the researcher must determine the extent to which he or she will participate in the lives of the participants and whether to intervene in a situation. The researcher acknowledged the limitations highlighted above and put measures in place, such as the safety of the participants. In Somalia, a country where active armed conflict is ongoing, the researcher applied the British Educational Research Association (BERA)'s guidelines on participant safety: 'in advance of data collection, researchers have a responsibility to think through their duty of care in order to recognise potential risks and to prepare for and be in a position to minimise and manage any distress or discomfort that may arise' (BERA, 2018, p. 19). In following BERA's advice, the researcher discussed any potential risks during interviews and observation with the participants and agreed to any measures to avoid these risks. Another ethical responsibility is to preserve the anonymity of the participants in the final write-up and in field notes to prevent their identification should the field notes be subpoenaed for inspection. Individual identities must be described in such a way that community members will not be able to identify the participants (Kawulich, 2005, p. 31).

According to Kawulich (2005), Denzin advised the researcher to set out an outline of the information field notes he or she has and organise the collected data into a narrative. 'Once the data have been organised in this way, there will probably be

several sections in the narrative that reflect one's interpretation' (Kawulich, 2005, p. 23; Kutche, 1998). This study followed this advice. It produced a clear outline for analysing the data gathered from the observations and created an overview of the observed realities; then, it organised the collected data in a chronological story of events regarding what occurred. The study also adopted member checking to clarify the observation data before performing the final analysis.

3.5.3 Review of documents

Another data source for the study was a review of a select number of policy and programme documents of the MoE and international NGOs, including UNICEF, UNESCO, the World Bank, GPE, and others. Documents are an important data source in many areas of investigation, and document analysis is widely used in education research. A key purpose of document analysis was 'to describe prevailing practices and conditions or ascertain the relative importance of or interest in certain topics or problems' (Best & Kahn, 1993, p. 192). The review and coding of the document review were, as in the case of the interview data analysis, conducted carefully.

3.6   Validity and Reliability of the Study

According to Cohen et al. (2018, p. 245), 'as researchers, we must be certain that our instruments for understanding phenomena are as sound as possible, i.e., that they are valid'. According to Selltiz et al. (1976), 'reliability is concerned with the consistency, stability, and repeatability of the informant's accounts as well as the investigators' ability to collect and record information accurately' (Brink, 1993, p. 35; Selltiz et al., 1976). Cohen et al. further stressed that 'threats to validity and reliability can never be erased' (p. 245). In the literature, the most commonly suggested risk to the validity and reliability of research is error. The greater the degree of error, the less accurate and truthful the results. Therefore, 'researchers must be especially watchful of the sources of error when planning and implementing their studies' (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Brink further categorised sources of error as follows: the participants, the situation or social context, the researcher, and the methods of the collection and analysis. This study adopted Brink's suggestions, and the following

subsections address the strategies that the researcher applied to ensure the validity and credibility of the study.

3.6.1 Participants as risks to validity and reliability

Regarding the participants, the most critical aspect of the study is their involvement; therefore, it is important for researchers to evaluate the risks their responses pose to the validity and reliability of their study. Brink (1993, p. 36) stated the following: 'The truth of responses is a key concern when data are obtained through questionnaires and interviews. Bias may be introduced because of particular responses or characteristics of the informants. To minimise such risks, the researcher attempted to ensure that the participants were clear about the objective and the nature of the research. This included explaining why the researcher was there, what the researcher was studying, how he would collect data, and what he would do with it.

3.6.2 Social context as a risk to validity and reliability

Brink (1993) also advised that researchers pay attention to situations where individuals may behave differently under differing social circumstances; for example, when alone with the researcher, they may provide different information than when they are in a group. This risk did not affect this study, as the participants were interviewed privately without the presence of other participants.

3.6.3 Researcher as a risk to validity and reliability

The researcher is a key data collection instrument in a research study, and 'the researcher's bias and researcher competency, if unchecked, may influence the trustworthiness of data considerably, and their presence may affect the validity of the data provided by subjects' (Brink, 1993, p. 35). Thus, a reflexive stance is required to identify and understand what these influences are (Cassell and Nadin, 2006).

3.6.3.1 Researcher's reflexivity and positionality

Reflexivity often refers to the 'generalised practice in which researchers strive to make their influence on the research explicit—to themselves and often to their audience' (Gentles et al., 2014, p. 1). Being reflexive meant the researcher made the relationship between, and influence of, him and participants explicit. Furthermore,

qualitative researchers are strongly implicated in the collection, analysis, and theorising of data, making these processes highly subjective (Atkinson, 2007). A qualitative study was used as a tool to demonstrate how the reflexive process improves data reliability as well as to promote the understanding of the phenomenon under study and the researcher's role.

For the aforementioned reason, qualitative researchers must be cautious as they attempt to be both involved and unbiased (Creswell, 2009). The researcher committed to reflecting on the entire research process and attempted to understand how his values and views could influence the research findings. This was a cornerstone of the study, as it gave credibility to the research. To ensure that trustworthiness, dependability, transferability, and credibility could be established, the research process was made transparent through reflexivity and an in-depth self-awareness of the researcher's perspective, strengths, and limitations (Patton, 2002). Reflexivity often refers to the generalised practice in which researchers strive to make their influence on the research explicit—to themselves and often to their audience (Gentles et al., 2014, p. 1). As reflexivity involves reflecting on how research is conducted and understanding how the process of research shapes its outcomes, the researcher should state plainly how data are collected and question their preconceptions throughout the process (Hall and Callery, 2001).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher chose to reflect on five main areas of concern, which required a great deal of reflection. These concerns were (a) relevant prior personal experience; (b) background and language implications; (c) the potential advantages of personal experience; (d) the potential disadvantages of relevant personal experience; and personal and professional development goals.

(a) Relevant personal experience

The researcher has Somali heritage, has lived in and successfully completed his secondary education in Somalia, and attended two different public schools in Mogadishu, but he attended private tutorials for math, science, and language school evenings (English and Arabic).

The researcher's personal experience suggests that a good relationship between school and parents is beneficial to students, their families, and the wider community. Despite differences in the leadership styles of these schools, both schools were not performing well academically, which is why his parents paid a significant amount of money for extra private tuition.

The two public schools that he attended both offered learning in a formal and instructional style. These were fee-charging settings, and the atmosphere was highly competitive and engaging. Parents seemed to be greatly respected by the managers of both settings. Parents would be invited for an update on their children's progress, and interestingly, some of the private tutors taught at public schools during the day. These managers seemed to have the motivation to effectively manage their settings, and students and parents' satisfaction was their number-one priority.

Further relevant experience of the researcher was his service as a governor in four different schools in the UK and his management of educational programmes, including school cluster collaboration and partnerships, as well as leading supplementary education in a local authority. Most of these programmes were aimed at improving the educational standards of local schools through collaboration, partnerships, and accountability.

(b) Background and language implications

The researcher was born and raised in Somalia, is fluent in Somali, and is very familiar with the local culture. He is fortunate to have several ex-classmates serving in different institutions in Somalia, including the MoE.

As part of the data collection, he interviewed headteachers of private schools in Somalia. This was very useful in collecting data because most of the interviewees did not speak English. Although he spoke the local language, his bilingual competency raised ethical issues, such as the translation of the transcripts. He applied several strategies to avoid any ethical risks to validity and credibility when handling the raw data, including the interview transcripts.

(c) Potential advantages of personal experience

The researcher's Somali heritage and knowledge of the culture and norms of the locals contributed positively to this research. His understanding of the current state of education, as well as the school system, allowed him to relate to the challenges facing the Somali education sector in general and the school management system. This understanding also put him in a culturally advantageous position for engaging headteachers in the interview process in ways that were likely to produce sufficient data for the study. Moreover, he has appeared in several debates on the crisis in the education sector in Somalia on many Somali-speaking television and radio shows, which gave him another advantage as it demonstrated his passion, enthusiasm, and willingness to be part of any future reconstruction of the education sector in Somalia.

(d) Potential disadvantages of personal experience

Being a lecturer in a country known as a global education leader, namely the UK, posed a potential problem for this study. Specifically, the headteachers anticipated a power distance between them and the researcher, given his status as an educated person coming from a developed country and the potential participants having no qualifications beyond the secondary level. To avoid this power distance, the researcher introduced himself as a university student who was conducting a research study.

Another possible disadvantage of the researcher's personal experience was his assumption of Somali headteachers' lack of leadership skills for effectively managing their schools, which had inherent links to his knowledge and experience of the Somali school management system. Such personal knowledge and perspectives could have had negative implications for the research, such as the design and conclusion of the study. To avoid this unhelpful assumption, the researcher continuously reminded himself that his assumptions must not interfere with the professional and impartial design and conclusions of the study, which had been drawn from the data analysis.

(e) Personal and professional development goals

The researcher's personal goals for the study were to contribute to the continuous progress that has been made in reconstructing the education system in Somalia and to advance the professional development opportunities for school leaders in

Somalia. His intention was to conduct research on the professionalism of school leadership. Somalia, as a country, heavily relies on private education providers, and their development and support should be a national priority. A significant number of school-aged children in Somalia attend private, non-government schools.

3.6.4 Risks to validity and reliability in the data collection and analysis

Another important effort made by the researcher in relation to the validity and reliability of the study was to minimise any risks or threats that may arise during the data collection and analysis processes. 'Validity in qualitative research concerns the purpose of the participants, the actors, and the appropriateness of the data collection methods used to catch those' (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 249).

In the data collection process, Brink identified sampling bias as a major risk to validity, and the subjects under study may over- or underrepresent the phenomena under study. Furthermore, the researcher may be overly reliant on accessible and elite informants (Brink 1993). As explained earlier in Subsection 3.4.4.1, the researcher's selection of samples was based on those who provided rich and relevant information.

In the analysis process, a number of risks may arise, as identified by Miles and Huberman (1984), who stated that 'major threats to validity in the data analysis process are inferences and judgements' (Brink, 1993, p. 37). These were mitigated by the researcher through the data collection and analysis processes, which included structuring the interviews with the same format and sequence of words and questions for each respondent, as suggested by Silverman (1993, cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 273). Moreover, in the observation-based data collection, the researcher ensured that the observational activities were structured in their nature, that he entered data into the appropriate themes that emerged from the literature, and that he adopted a theoretical framework, which was used consistently and accurately (p. 279)

3.7 Triangulation

To reduce bias and strengthen the overall credibility and validity of the study, the researcher employed triangulation to address potential biases that could arise when

collecting and analysing the data. Maxwell (2013) argued that this would be impossible to completely eliminate given the researcher's beliefs, theories, and perceptual lens. Yet, applying triangulation is academically recommended as 'it allows researchers to contrast different methods used to collect and analyse data' (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 265). This study used observation for internal validity purposes, as suggested by Ruane (1989), who stated that 'ways of overcoming problems of reliability and validity are to triangulate methods' (Cohen 2018, p. 279).

3.8 Ethics

First and foremost, the researcher adhered to the University of Buckingham's research ethics, including upholding high standards in research projects. Thus, he followed strict codes of conduct, policies, and procedures to ensure that the research he conducted was compliant with the university's regulations and legislation. This included data protection laws, which protect and safeguard the use of personal information. Although many of the principles were the same as previous data protection laws, the UK General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and Data Protection Act (DPA) in 2018 introduced some key changes to further safeguard the use of participants' personal information. In addition, the University of Buckingham's (hereinafter 'the university') Code of Academic Conduct urges research respect that its privacy notice provides information on how the university processes research project participants' personal information. It was important for the research participants to read this privacy notice together with the participant recruitment and introduction letter (see Appendix B) for the particular study. The sheet explained the purpose of the research and contained more specific details about what information was being collected about them as well as how it was used to achieve the research objectives. This privacy notice was prepared following the introduction of the abovementioned laws.

There were several ethical considerations that attracted the researcher's attention the most, as he obtained the participants' consent, assuring them of anonymity and confidentiality. This meant respecting their rights and safeguarding their welfare, as their participation was entirely voluntary, and they could disengage from the research at any time without giving a reason.

The researcher followed the strategies to protect personal information advanced by Orb et al. (2001), namely securing data storage methods, removing identifier components, collecting biographical details, amending biographical details, and using pseudonyms (applicable to the names of individuals, places, and organisations). The researcher assured the anonymity of the respondents, who had been reassured that neither their answers nor their identities would be disclosed. For future contact, in the case of interviews, the respondents were asked to provide their names during the interview if they were available for an observation. Names were coded, and only the researcher had access to them.

Another key ethical consideration was access to the participants and familiarisation with some unfamiliar cultures and customs of the research context. The researcher travelled to the location where prior arrangements for access to the respondents were made. A key contact person was identified with the help of like-minded and connected individuals. With the help of said individual, respondents were recruited successfully.

In addition, the researcher encouraged participants to understand the process in which they were engaging. An introductory cover letter was attached to any data or information gathering methods, including interviews, which provided a brief description of the research, a statement of confidentiality, and confirmation that participation was voluntary and that there were no consequences or implications when any question was answered. It also confirmed the participants' right to withdraw. Regarding the storage of data, all returned questionnaires and interview scripts were kept safely locked in a cupboard at the researcher's residence throughout the period of the research.

BERA (2018) suggests a few areas to consider in ensuring that researchers act within the best ethical practices. These are the responsibilities of the participants, sponsors, stakeholders in research, and the community of educational researchers. In relation to the participants, BERA urges that educational researchers should operate with an ethic of respect for any person participating in their research to be treated fairly, sensitively, and with dignity and freedom from prejudice, in recognition of both their rights and of differences that arise from age, gender, sexuality, ethnicity,

class, nationality, cultural identity, partnership status, faith, disability, political beliefs, or any other significant characteristic.

Another crucial ethical practice is the welfare and well-being of researchers, where BERA clearly states that safeguarding the physical and psychological well-being of researchers is part of the ethical responsibility of the researchers themselves. Safety was a particular concern when conducting fieldwork in situations that were potentially risky. The researcher therefore completed an in-depth risk assessment form before undertaking field work abroad. Specialist training should be made available to researchers entering conflict or post-conflict settings internationally or in areas with a high risk of disease (BERA, 2018). No incentives were offered to participants to take part.

As Somalia is a country where armed conflicts are present, the researcher considered several precautionary measures, including selecting safer areas of the country such as Somaliland, Puntland, and Banadir as the research locations. All necessary steps were taken before the field study began, including monitoring the security situation and sharing this with the researcher's supervisors. The short period of field study due to security concerns was one of the rationales for the selection of a small sample.

3.9 Limitations

A researcher should be mindful of the challenges or limitations that may affect their study. The main challenge in this study was its purview, which targeted a small sample in a certain part of the country; therefore, while its findings might be useful to any future large-scale research on the phenomena, they are not intended to be generalised and replicated in other cases. Most importantly, qualitative research studies do not concern themselves with the generalisability of the research outcome to similar situations (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The rationale for such an approach was explained above.

Another limitation was that limited research papers and reports have discussed school leadership development in the Somali context, compared with the vast

international literature available from the UK and other countries. As a result, this study relied to a certain extent on international studies, which did provide enough information on the subject matter.

A further challenge that needed to be overcome during this research study was the need to travel between the UK and Somalia to collect data. Due to the security situation, the researcher paid greater attention to his travel arrangements and access to participants. Obviously, another limitation was the cost of travel and the extended budget required, as well as the physical ability to do so. Further details of the ethical considerations for safety were discussed above.

3.9.1 Use of an interpreter or translator in the data collection

Despite the researcher's ability to communicate with the research participants in their language, Somali, his involvement in transcribing audiotaped data may have compromised the authenticity and validity of the collected data. Efforts were made to avoid the researcher transcribing the audiotaped materials; a professional translator was used to transcribe and translate all audiotaped materials. Although, presumably, some of the headteachers may have had a limited ability to speak English, it was important for the researcher to make a greater effort to ensure that the participants were allowed to express their views in their own language.

Although much has been written about the importance of translation in qualitative research, very few studies have explored the process and strategy involved, especially when the research is especially involved in cross-language settings (Regmi et al., 2010, p. 17). Crystal (1991) defined translation as a process where 'the meaning and expression in one language (source) is tuned with the meaning of another (target), whether the medium is spoken, written, or signed' (Crystal, 1991, cited in Regmi, 2010, p. 17). It was important to highlight the ethical dilemma of using a translator in this study, as some participants were likely to lack the English language skills required to fully engage with the data collection methods of the research.

'Interviews and discussion are key approaches for information-gathering in qualitative research methods, mostly in the form of audiotaped recordings,

observations, documentary analysis, and/or field notes' (Halai, 2007; cited in Regmi et al., 2010, p. 16). The process of transformation of such texts from one language to another is embedded within the sociocultural context (p. 18). In this regard, several challenges existed in translating audiotaped Somali material to English, including language structure, sociocultural connotations, literal translations (also known as transliteration), and contextual translations. As an experienced and professional translator, the researcher trained the translator with the skills required to translate the material, paying greater attention to the sociocultural language context of the Somali language. Steps were taken to ensure that a qualified and competent translator was selected, as advised by Murray and Wayne (2001, p. 8): 'researchers must cautiously consider a number of steps in using a translator, such as finding a competent translator and conducting the transcription and translation of the audiotaped materials, and the need to do so is not only a practical necessity but an ethical obligation'. This approach supported the attempt made by the researcher not to get involved in transcribing the raw data.

3.10 Research Procedures

The study employed a few procedures, including the following:

- Defining the research objectives and participants;

- Recruiting participants and collecting data;

- Preparing data;

- Organising and coding themes and categories;

- Handling the data;

- Analysing and interpreting the data.

3.10.1 Defining participants

The participants of this research were headteachers of private primary schools in Somalia. The study participants were chosen based on their accessibility and the existence of a reasonable number of schools that were active members of a larger umbrella association of schools. See Section 1.5.3 for further details about one of the umbrella organisations that hosted the research. They were chosen from the three regions of Somaliland, Benadir, and Puntland.

3.10.2 Recruitment of participants

The recruitment of participants was vital to the success of this research study. It involved the dialogue that occurred between the researcher and potential participants prior to the initiation of the consent process. It began with the identification, targeting, and enlistment of participants. It involved providing information to the potential participants and generating their interest in the proposed study (Patel et al., 2003, p. 1).

This research study identified its target sample of participants. More details about the selection and criteria were presented in Subsection 3.4.4.1. Clear and concise information about the study and the frequency of participants' engagement with the research were communicated to them. This clarity avoided any problems associated with poor participant retention for the study, as early retention techniques were incorporated into recruitment strategies during the planning phase of the study. Retention also involved building relationships with participants to encourage their continuing participation (Nishimoto, 1998; in Patel et al., 2003: p. 1).

Discussing this further, Hulley et al. (2001, p. 29) stated that there are two main goals of participant recruitment: (1) to recruit a sample that adequately represents the target population, and (2) to recruit sufficient participants to meet the sample size and power requirements of the study. There was a challenge in achieving goal 1, as the sample was not representative. Although the sample was small and could be challenged by how widely it represented all private school headteachers, its findings had wider application, relevance, and implications beyond those individuals. Justification for such an argument is that this study was a small-scale study that addressed a key issue identified by a previous study conducted by the World Bank in 2018, which stated the following: 'There is a need to further study the role of school leadership, and it is vital for headteachers to possess the required competencies and skills to lead, support, and challenge members. The present study's key recommendations might complement what the World Bank study highlighted.

3.11 Data Analysis

It is important to highlight the significance of data analysis in conducting research, and particularly in qualitative research. Taylor and Gibbs (2010, p. 1) stated that

qualitative data analysis concerns the identification, examination, and interpretation of data collected from studying the phenomena in question. It therefore included, among other matters, organising, describing, understanding, accounting for, and explaining data, making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation, and noting patterns, themes, categories, and regularities. From another perspective, Merriam (1998, p. 178) argued that data analysis involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read.

In this section, a few options have been considered, including the discussion of the data analysis and its relationship with parts of the methodology, including the research question, as well as the data collection. Denzin and Lincoln (1998, cited in Olesen, 2004) stated that the process of data analysis goes together with data collection throughout the study.

As the main aim of this study was to find the views held by Somali private primary school headteachers about being professional, the study identified a number of pre-existing categories and themes that emerged from the literature review, and the theoretical framework is grouped into categories that related to the research focus. The emerging themes are presented as follows:

Theme 1: International perspectives on school leadership
This theme explores the universally accepted roles and responsibilities of a headteacher. The categories that emerged from this theme were as follows:
- The school management system and the role of a headteacher.
- Management of and support for teaching and learning;
- Management of finance and resources (human and capital);
- Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff within one's school;
- Supervision of staff and management of staff appraisals;
- Engagement of stakeholders (school board, parents, and students).

Theme 2: The profession, professionality, and the professionalisation of school Leadership

The categories that emerged from this theme were as follows:

A skills-based model of professionalism;

Professional Identity;

Preparation, development, and support for the headteacher.

In analysing the collected data, great attention was paid to coding and categorising them, understanding the phenomena, and developing a theory or model that should be linked with the theoretical framework or chosen research paradigm.

The researcher chose to conduct a hand-analysis to assist in the analysis of the data, as suggested by Creswell (2014): 'The hand-analysis means researchers read the data, mark it by hand, and divide it into parts' (Creswell, 2014, p. 239). The researcher chose this method because 'it is more suitable for studies with fewer than 500 pages of typed data' (p. 239). The researcher did not consider the use of a computer-assisted method for handling the analysis because such a method required the researcher to learn how to run the programme, 'which can sometimes be a daunting task above and beyond the learning required for understanding the procedure of qualitative research' (Creswell, 2013, 179). The preparation, organisation, formation of themes, and handling of transcriptions were done by computer, mainly in Microsoft Word.

3.11.1 Preparing, organising, and handling the data

Initial steps were required to be taken before the collected data could be analysed. The first step was to prepare the data, followed by organising and handling it with caution. Preparing the data meant putting it into a format that lent itself to analysis and creating documents such as Word files, text files of observational data, interview data, questionnaires, memos, and field notes. All of these were prepared with ease and access, with overall organisation and data analysis in mind (Cohen et al., 2018: p. 645).

After preparation, the next step was organising and handling the data. This meant organising it into a format that was easy to handle and store (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 398). To do this, three steps were followed – namely data

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reduction, data display and conclusion drawing, and verification. Data reduction did not mean disregarding data; rather, it meant distilling from the complexity of the findings the key points of the phenomena in question, reducing complexity without violating it, catching the essence of the issue or the situation, and enabling the researcher to identify patterns, key issues, causal processes, and sequences (Gläser and Laudel, 2013; Cohen et al., 2018, p. 643). Saldaña (2016, p. 17) highlighted that there are some who 'feel every recorded fieldwork detail is worthy of consideration', while others suggest that 'only the most salient portions of the corpus related to the research questions merit examination' and that much else can be deleted (Elliott, 2018, p. 2854). The researcher cautiously handled the transcribed data to reduce their complexity while respecting their authenticity. This process required honesty and transparency when analysing and managing data, as all research must be a 'trustworthy source of knowledge' (Brooks et al., 2014: p. 117– 118).

Another critical step was handling the data. To keep this in mind, the researcher provided a detailed description of what was being researched, the sample, and different methods of collecting data. Digital voice recordings of semi structured interviews were transcribed by an independent translator with strictly agreed-upon terms and conditions, including confidentiality and protection. Detailed descriptions of this were highlighted in the analysis and interpretation in Section 3.10.1.

3.11.2 Coding, themes, and categories

A major approach to qualitative data analysis is coding (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 668). A code is simply a name or label that the researcher gives to a piece of text that contains an idea or a piece of information (Miles and Huberman, 1994) cited in Gläser and Laudel, 2013, p. 14). Cohen et al. (2018) described coding as the process of breaking down segments of text data into smaller units and then examining, comparing, conceptualising, and categorising them. Coding enables the researcher to identify similar information; thus, he or she can search, retrieve, and assemble the data in terms of those items that bear the same code (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 669).

Though coding is a central feature in many forms of qualitative data analysis, concerns were raised about the use of coding because it risked stripping out important contexts from the study and fragmenting holistic data into small segments; thus, the whole picture would be lost and one would only have a series of decontextualised codes (Blikstad-Balas, 2016, p. 9). To mitigate this risk, the researcher used content analysis, which 'allows for the use of both pre-existing categories and emergent themes to generate' (Cohen, 2011: p. 564).

After organising and handling the data, the researcher proceeded with breaking them down into the categories or themes selected in the theoretical framework, such as theories of skills models, professionalism, and professional identity. These were also thematic networks, which were a means of establishing a thematic analysis of qualitative data (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Braun and Clarke (2006) stated that 'thematic analysis is a method for systematically identifying, organising, and offering insight into patterns of meaning (themes) across a dataset. The common advantage of thematic analysis is 'that it provides a highly flexible approach that can be modified for the needs of many studies, providing rich and detailed yet complex accounts of data' (Nowell et al., 2017, p. 2). The advantage of using this method for this study lay in its usefulness for examining the perspectives of the different research participants, highlighting similarities and differences, and generating unanticipated insights. It also helped the researcher to identify, analyse, organise, and describe. While there are many advantages to using this method, there are also limitations. Holloway and Todres (2003, cited in Nowell et al., 2017, p. 2) argued that while thematic analysis is flexible, this flexibility can lead to inconsistency and a lack of coherence when developing themes derived from the research data.

To overcome the abovementioned limitation, the following steps were taken, as suggested by Harding (2013) for analysing themes: (a) themes were identified and categories were created; (b) codes from different illustrative issues were collated into the categories; (c) subcategories were created to reflect different elements of the themes; and (d) the themes were used to explain relationships between different parts of the data and build theory (Harding 2013, cited in Ngulube, 2015, p. 112). The researcher's motive for choosing this method was its flexibility for analysing different participants' thematic-based responses—namely Somali headteachers with large differences in their skills and attributes.

As stated in Section 3.12, the study identified emerging themes, which were then grouped into categories that related to what was being researched. The categories used to analyse the data were both pre-established (derived from general literature) and not pre-established (emerging from the data; Wellington, 2015, p. 267–268). Categories need to be exhaustive to address content validity. A content analysis 'is no better than its system of categories, and these can include: subject matter; direction (how a matter is treated—positively or negatively); values; goals; method used to achieve goals; traits (characteristics used to describe people); actors (who are being discussed); authority (in whose name the statements are being made); location; conflict; and endings' (Robson, 1993, in Cohen et al., 2007: p. 479).

3.11.3 Analysis, interpretation, and presentation of the data

The next step consisted of moving from reading and memoing in the spiral to describing, classifying, and interpreting the data. In this loop, 'forming codes or categories (and these two terms were used interchangeably) represented the heart of qualitative data analysis' (Creswell, 2013, p. 184). Qualitative content analysis was selected as an appropriate strategy for this study. 'It is one of the qualitative methods available for analysing data and interpreting its meaning' (Elo et al., 2014, p. 1). The following three phases were involved in the processes of the content analysis: preparing, organising, and reporting the results (p. 1). In the deductive content analysis, the preparation phase consisted of collecting suitable data for a content analysis, making sense of the data, and selecting the unit of analysis. The organisation phase involved developing a categorisation matrix, whereby all the data were reviewed for content and coded for correspondence to or exemplification of the identified categories. Lastly, in the reporting phase, the results were described by the content of the categories describing the phenomenon using a selected approach (p. 2).

As Cohen et al. (2011) suggested, content analysis allows the use of categories and themes that emerge to generate theory. It also allows for the emergence of categories during the data coding phase, which again indicates that content analysis was the most important and useful strategy for this research study to employ.

Interpretation is at the heart of qualitative research because it is concerned with meaning and the process of meaning-making (Willig, 2017, p. 276). Cohen et al. (2017) warned that it is naïve to suppose that the qualitative data analyst can separate analysis from interpretation. The interpretation of the data meant that the researcher stepped back and formed some greater meaning about phenomena based on his personal views, experiences, and findings from past studies (Creswell, 2013).

The presentation of the data and findings of the study was guided by the research questions, the skills approach (Mumford et al., 2000), and the themes that emerged from the data. Noteworthily, the most important parts of the study were the pre-established categories and themes that emerged from the data about the headteachers' views on being professional and their perceptions of the phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011). Further details of the actual presentation of the data are presented next in Chapter 4.

Chapter Four: Data Presentation

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the findings of the study, focusing on the views about being a professional held by Somali private primary school headteachers. The chapter contains brief details about the participants of the study, followed by a presentation of the data gathered during the study, which was guided by the key research questions.

There are five sections in this chapter, which concern (1) the participants' profiles; (2) the data gathered from the interviews; (3) the data from the eight observed participants; (4) the data from the survey; and (5) the information gathered from the documentary evidence.

4.2 Participants and Profiles

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the interviewees were headteachers of private primary schools in Somalia. They were chosen based on their accessibility and the existence of a reasonable number of schools that were active members of a larger umbrella association of schools. These schools were in four cities (Borama, Garowe, Hargeisa, and Mogadishu) in three regions (Somaliland, Benadir, and Puntland). The participants were practising private primary school headteachers. Of the 30 headteachers approached, only 29 were willing to participate in the interviews. Figures 3–5 highlight key pieces of information about the participants and their profiles, including location, age, qualification, and number of years in headship.

Location

The Banadir region was overrepresented in this study because it has a larger school population. Mogadishu is a city within the Benadir region, and it has the largest number of non-state schools in the country. It is a hub for private schools, which are predominantly members of large umbrella organisations, such as FPENS. The umbrella associations are the main actors in non-state education in Somalia, and they act almost as mini-authorities that set standards for their member schools, develop curricula, and provide teacher training. There were over 658 private schools in Mogadishu and 23 government-owned schools at the time of the study.

Hargeisa, the capital of Somaliland, is considered separate from the rest of Somalia. Somaliland declared itself independent in 1991. However, it was also significantly represented in the study. Eight schools took part in the study, while seven schools participated from Garowe, a semi-autonomous region of Puntland, and three schools from Borama, also part of Somaliland.

Figure 3. Participants' age range
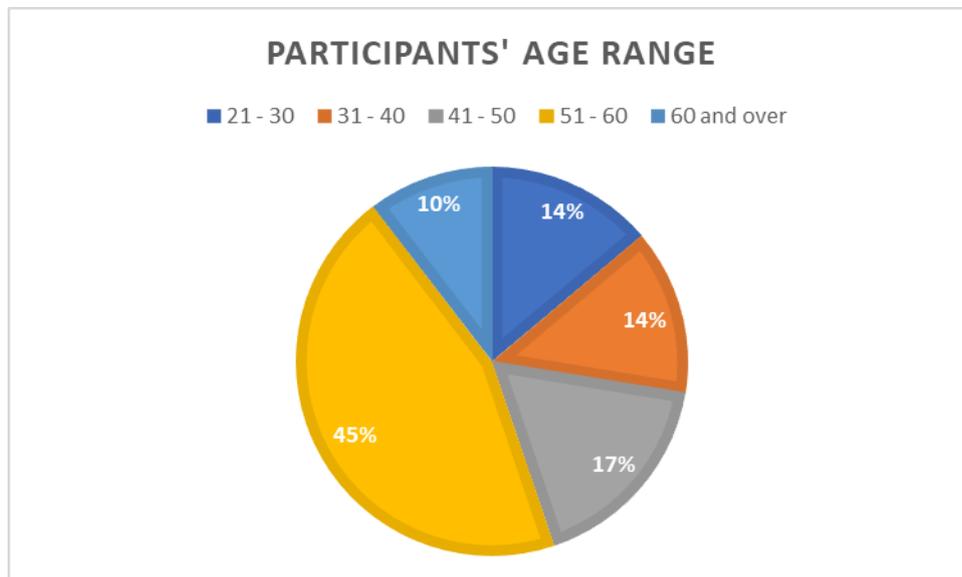
Thirteen participants fell within the age range of 51–60 years, and these were overrepresented. Those in the age range of 60 years and over were the smallest group.

Figure 4. Participants' qualifications
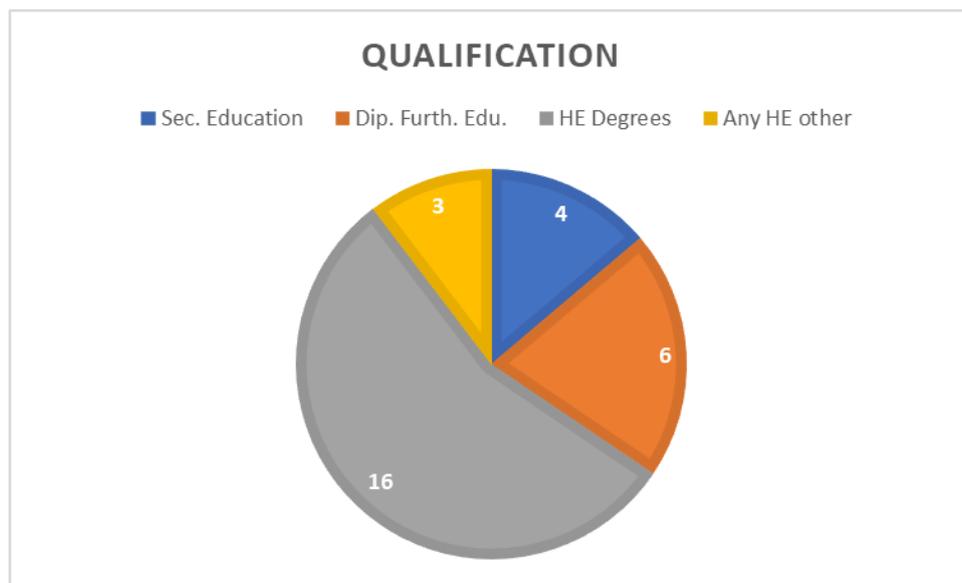
Sixteen of the participants possessed university or other HE qualifications, including degrees, postgraduate certificates, or Masters, among others, while six participants stated that they held a Diploma of Further Education. Those holding secondary school certificates were the least represented group.

Figure 5. Participants' length in headship

Length in Headship

- 2 - 5 yrs.
- 6 - 10 yrs.
- 11 - 15 yrs.
- over 15 yrs.
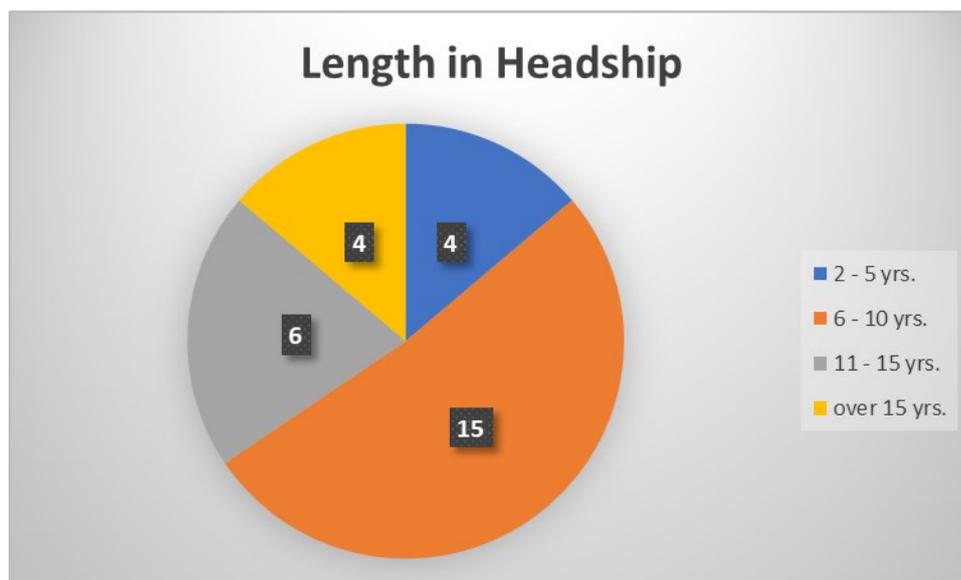
The number of years that the participants had served as headteachers was another question they were asked. The majority of the participants indicated that they had been in headship posts for 6–10 years. Those who were headteachers for 2–5 years and over 15 years were equally represented in this study, while six participants indicated they had been in the post for 11–15 years.

4.2.1 Participant teaching profiles

Codes were assigned to participants to describe their teaching profiles. Two types of codes were used to describe the two cohorts: teacher-headteacher (THT) for those with a teaching background and non-teacher headteacher (NTHT), i.e., those without a teaching background). These categories are further used in the data analysis chapter. The codes are used throughout the rest of the thesis to represent each participant.

Of the 29 participants, 11 indicated that they had no teaching background. However, the remaining 18 had an average of 12 years of teaching experience and became headteachers, passing through the leadership hierarchy from assistant to deputy headship. Table 1 presents the teaching background of the participants:

Table 1: Participants' Teaching Background

Teacher-Headteacher	Non-Teacher Headteacher
HT01	NHT08
HT02	NHT013

HT03	NHT015
HT04	NHT021
HT07	NHT012
HT09	NHT019
HT010	NHT020
HT011	HT06
HT014	HT025
HT016	HT023
HT017	HT05
HT018	
HT022	
HT024	
HT026	
HT027	
HT028	
HT029	

Note: Teacher Headteacher (THT): those with a teaching background; and Non-Teacher Headteacher (NTHT), those with no teaching background.

The appointment to headship of the 11 headteachers who had no teaching background varied significantly in terms of how they were selected and recruited. This was due to the type of school, ownership, governance structure of their schools, and the roles they held before.

4.3 Data Gathered Through Interviews

While 30 interviews were planned, only 29 headteachers of private primary schools were interviewed, and their responses are presented in the following subsections. The other participant was not available for an interview due to personal circumstances.

4.3.1 Research question 1

What does be a professional headteacher mean to private primary school headteachers?

Interview questions

- What is the difference between a professional and a non-professional headteacher?

- Do you consider yourself to be a professional headteacher? Please explain your answer.

4.3.1.1 Profession and professionality in school leadership

When asked about their views on being a professional headteacher, all respondents unanimously agreed that a headteacher must be professionally trained, but their views of how and what skills they should acquire varied. Twenty interviewees provided a detailed explanation of their views, while the other nine respondents, who were THTs, gave brief single answers, such as the following:

- *'Headteachers must be trained and experienced teachers'.*

Respondents: HT01, HT02, HT03, HT05, and HT09

- '*Headteachers must possess professional qualifications, e.g., leadership and management'.*

Respondents: HT06, HT013, HT023, and HT07

Variations existed in the respondents' views regarding their understanding of the terms professionalism and professionality in school leadership. Some respondents—HT02, HT03, HT04, HT09, HT012, HT018, HT019, and HT022—clearly explained the difference between a professional and non-professional headteacher.

'A professional headteacher is someone who is a trained teacher and has several years of experience'.

(HT018 and HT022)

'A professional headteacher is someone who is expected to hold a minimum qualification in the field of education and maintains high standards of leadership qualities'.

(HT09)

'A professional headteacher is a person who has the professional qualifications to lead and manage a school with the required knowledge and skills. He or she should be a trained teacher, so he or she applies their knowledge and supports new or other teachers in their schools'.

(HT03)

'A professional headteacher is a person who is a qualified teacher and has experience in leadership, for example, having been a deputy headteacher before becoming a headteacher'.

(HT04)

'A professional headteacher is someone who has management experience with people and resources, as he or she is dealing with people and managing finances, including fees, facilities, and other resources'.

(HT019 and HT012)

In expressing their views on non-professional headteachers, just over half of the interviewees (17) who had teaching experience held almost similar views, which are presented as follows:

'A non-professional headteacher is a person who is not a trained teacher or has no teaching qualification, skills, or experience'.

'A non-professional headteacher is a person without experience who has not been a senior teacher or deputy before becoming a headteacher'.

'A non-professional headteacher is someone who has teaching experience but no leadership or management qualifications'.

Of the 29 respondents, 12 (11 headteachers without teaching experience and one with a teaching background) held similar views on this question. Teaching qualifications and experience were not significant factors in becoming a professional headteacher. Their responses focused more on management skills and leadership qualities. Here are some of their responses:
'A non-professional headteacher is someone who lacks leadership and management qualifications and experience'.

(HT06, HT08, and HT012)
'A non-professional headteacher is someone who doesn't possess personal and leadership qualities and is not trained as a leader and manager'.

(HT05, HT023, and HT020)

'A headteacher who doesn't have a minimum qualification in management is not a professional headteacher'.

<div align="right">(HT028, HT021, and HT010)</div>

In the last interview question, respondents were asked if they considered themselves to be professional headteachers. Their responses were very divided, and some of them offered varying and detailed explanations.

Although the majority of the respondents with teaching backgrounds (HT01, HT02, HT07, HT09, HT11, HT014, HT017, HT018, HT024, HT026, HT028, and HT029) considered themselves to be professional headteachers, five respondents with no teaching background expressed similar views (HT08, HT013, HT020, HT06, and HT025).

Two respondents with a teaching background (HT016 and HT027) did not consider themselves to be professional headteachers, despite both of them having been experienced teachers. One of them had been in the post for less than 3 years, while the other has served for 10 years as headteacher.

Furthermore, four respondents with a teaching background (HT03, HT04, HT010, and HT022) were unsure if they considered themselves professional headteachers. This hesitancy was also shared by four respondents with no teaching background (HT015, HT021, HT012, and HT019), although their explanations varied. Based on their teaching profiles, respondents' answers and their explanations are presented in Appendix 2.

4.3.2 Research question 2

What school leadership and management challenges and opportunities do Somali private primary school headteachers experience in conducting their headship roles?

Interview Questions

Please describe your roles in the following areas within your school:

1. Managing and supporting teaching and learning;

2. Managing finance and resources (human and capital);

3. Selecting and recruiting staff within your school;

4. Inducting and supporting new staff in school;

5. Supervising staff and managing staff appraisals;

6. Engaging stakeholders (school board, parents, and students).

4.3.2.1 Roles and responsibilities of a headteacher

The leadership and management contexts within which the participants operated varied significantly. The 29 headteachers interviewed offered varied responses in describing their roles as headteachers. Although the majority (25) understood their roles in leading and managing their schools, five respondents struggled to give detailed day-to-day leadership and management functions in relation to their schools' effective management.

They were asked to describe the following five key areas in their roles as headteachers: (a) managing teaching and learning; (b) managing finance and resources, both human and capital; (c) selecting, recruiting, and inducting staff; (d) supervising staff and managing staff appraisals; and (e) engaging stakeholders (school board, parents, and students).

4.3.2.1.1 Managing and supporting teaching and learning

Varied responses were given by the respondents in relation to the question of managing and supporting teaching and learning. Their responses were dependent on their appointment and teaching experience. Based on their level of experience in teaching, appointment, and educational background, the respondents were categorised as a (A) THT or (B) NTHT. Of the 29 interviewees, only 15 provided general responses to say that managing and supporting teaching and learning were core functions in their roles. Only five of these gave further examples of how they support teaching and learning in their schools.

Participants' responses about managing and supporting T&L are highlighted as follows:

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Participant	Response
HT04	I have a clear understanding of managing the curriculum and resources as well as ensuring improvements in student learning.
	I evaluate the standards of teaching and learning in the school and ensure that proper standards of performance by staff are maintained.
	I make sure all aspects of school performance are observed and maintained, and pupil progress is monitored.
	As a senior experienced teacher, I provide support, advice, and guidance to teachers to make sure they have the skills and knowledge to effectively deliver quality teaching.
	I have regular meetings with teachers about their teaching work, including sharing their lesson plans, their timetable, and the outcome of the monthly assessment they undertake. My deputy is also an experienced teacher, and he also supports me in my role as headteacher. He and other senior teachers helped observe their lessons.
HT07	I have over 20 years of experience in the teaching profession. It is my main role to support teaching and learning in my school by providing support, advice, and guidance to teachers and other staff in my school to achieve better outcome for our students.
	My deputy and I have regular meetings with my teachers; we observe them during lessons, monitor their scheme of work, and provide support if needed. My teaching experience and pedagogical competency have enabled me to scrutinise my teachers' work and make sure they deliver good teaching. I also make sure they have the resources they need to teach.
HT011	I support my teachers in delivering good lessons by providing the resources they need. Some of my senior teachers help me to be an effective and supportive headteacher. We supervise teachers and monitor them regularly, and we visit classrooms during lessons, in some cases, without announcement.

HT016   It is the most important role in my headship to make sure the curriculum is followed accordingly and to manage the teaching and learning process effectively, from planning to monitoring and evaluation. I observe lessons, keep copies of all lesson plans, and talk to my teachers if there are any issues. I have to make sure staff follow school teaching policies, making sure there is consistency in teaching, effective use of resources, monitoring and evaluation of teaching, and pupils' progress.

I work with senior teachers to help me lead my school successfully.

HT025

It is my responsibility to make sure the school is successful. It can only be successful if the teaching is good. Teaching can be good if teachers know what they are doing, and it is the most important role in my leadership of this school that I monitor teachers and check what they do. I support them if they need help. I also work with other experienced teachers who sometimes step in as lesson observers and checkers.

I make sure teachers have the resources they need to teach effectively.

I keep records of lesson plans and materials teachers use to teach.

I observe them in lessons, and if a teacher performs poorly, he or she receives a warning with support that they need to improve.

Eleven participants said that they were not involved in supporting teaching and learning in their schools. They merely relied on the judgements of other staff (senior and experienced teachers, deputy headteachers, and assistants), and their overall responsibilities for evaluating and monitoring teaching and learning varied. Of these 11 headteachers (NTHTs), only six provided detailed descriptions of the evaluation and monitoring of teaching and learning in their schools.

The following responses were from the six NTHTs:

Participant	Response
HT08	I was in the business sector before I was appointed as headteacher of this school to manage the school to be a successful school and ensure that children get good lessons.

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I have a number of very good teachers with a number of years of experience, and they are responsible for monitoring and evaluating the teaching and learning of other teachers.

I meet with them every week, and they share their judgements of the teaching performances of teachers. They cannot take action without the authorisation of the school owners.

HT013	My main responsibility is to manage the school and support staff. I have never taught, and I have no teaching experience, but I have a deputy headteacher who is responsible for the teaching and learning, and she supports teachers. I meet with her regularly, and she shares with me any information or issues about teaching and learning and the progress students make. I am one of the school owners, and it is easier for me to fire and hire teachers, but I have to consult with other owners too. Although I do not support teachers directly, I do provide any resources they need to teach pupils well.
HT015	I am the owner and headteacher of the school and have never been a teacher, but I have two brothers who are very experienced teachers who teach in my school, and they help me to have an oversight of the teaching and learning of the school. They monitor and support teachers. They meet with me every week. I only deal with other business at the school, including recruitment, finance, and parent relations.
HT019	I am one of the owners of the school and the headteacher. I am involved in supporting teaching and learning, and that is the responsibility of assistant headteachers. They have to monitor and evaluate teaching and learning, and I only provide the resources that they need. I work with them, and we meet regularly, maybe every week or sometimes monthly.

HT020	I have been headteacher of this school since 2010, and I have one deputy and one assistant headteacher. I have never taught, and I provide the materials they need to teach effectively, and my colleagues deal with the monitoring and evaluation of the teaching in the school. They meet with me regularly and share information about teaching and learning, including the progress pupils make.
	If there are any teaching-related performance issues, I will make a decision after consultation with the school owners or board.
HT021	I am not a teacher and have never taught before. I became the headteacher of this school 8 years ago. I have one deputy headteacher who supports teachers alongside other senior teachers.
	They monitor lessons, including lesson observations, and they keep copies of the lesson plans and other teaching materials. They provide advice and guidance to teachers. They also carry out monthly progress checks on pupils.
	As a headteacher, I provide the resources and encouragement they need, and I rely on the judgement of my senior staff. We are a good school because of their commitment. My deputy has over 15 years of teaching experience, and he was trained in Sudan as an educator.

4.3.2.1.2 Managing finance and resources

Of the 29 participants, over two-thirds gave detailed information about how they manage their school's finances and resources directly or through their colleagues—administrators, finance officers, deputy headteachers, and assistant headteachers. Of the 29 headteachers, 11 (NTHTs) demonstrated a strong and healthy understanding of business management, including financial and human resource management, while six (THTs) equally demonstrated some level of competency in managing finance and resources. Nine headteachers, seven of whom were THTs, stated that they do not deal with the finance and resource management of the school and that it is the responsibility of someone else, who is either appointed by the owners of the school or the headteachers themselves if they own the school.

4.3.2.1.3 Selecting, recruiting, and inducting staff

In describing their roles in the selection, recruitment, and induction of new staff, all respondents indicated that they were involved, although the decision-making processes varied due to the type of school, ownership structure, and governance. Although respondents are all involved in the selection and recruitment process, the induction of staff systems varies. A total of 26 respondents, including NTHTs, indicated that they were not directly involved in the induction of new staff, particularly teaching staff, as they delegated this task to their senior staff, such as deputy and assistant headteachers. Three respondents who were in very small schools indicated that they are involved in inducting all staff, whether teaching or non-teaching staff.

4.3.2.1.4 Supervising, supporting, and managing staff appraisals

All of the respondents said that they have an overall responsibility to supervise, support, and manage staff appraisals, but there was a variation in the type of staff they supervise. The NTHTs (11) said that they do not directly supervise teachers, which was a role undertaken by those who were appointed to manage and support teachers; however, they did say that they had the responsibility to supervise the non-teaching staff (i.e., administration, finance, and support staff). Although there was variation in supervising, managing, and supporting staff appraisals, all respondents said that they were involved in the decision-making process for any performance-related matters. This depended on the management structure and governance of the school.

4.3.2.1.5 Engaging with stakeholders

All respondents stated that they deal with the engagement of stakeholders, including trustees, members of the local CEC, private sponsors, parents, and the wider community. Only 12 respondents provided a detailed programme of engagement, including regular meetings with parents and other key stakeholders. Although all of them signified the importance of engaging with their stakeholders, variations existed in the types of stakeholders and approaches that these headteachers engaged with. These variations were caused by the type of school, its ownership, and its governance structure. Four of the 12 respondents who provided a detailed programme of engagement were NTHTs, demonstrated greater enthusiasm, and provided specific engagement strategies, such as

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- regular meetings with owners, trustees, and the board of directors of the school;

- parent–teacher meetings;

- community events, mainly for fundraising and celebration purposes;

- membership of larger umbrella associations (which offer support and training to private schools in Somalia).

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4.3.3 Research question 3

What views do Somali private primary school headteachers hold on personal qualities, attributes, and competencies a headteacher should possess?

Research question 3 aimed to gather participants' views on the personal qualities, attributes, and competencies that a headteacher should possess and how these affect the way they lead and manage their schools.

Interview questions:

1. What competencies and skills should a headteacher possess?

2. What are the key personal attributes a headteacher should have to lead a school?

3. How and why did you get into education, and how and when did you become a headteacher?

4.3.3.1 Skills and competencies of the headteacher

All respondents unanimously agreed that a headteacher should possess relevant and necessary skills—leadership and management—to lead, manage, and support school staff, both teaching and non-teaching. Respondents with a teaching background were explicit about what skills and competencies a headteacher should possess, including teaching skills, knowledge, and experience, as they found these skills to be critical for challenging and supporting teachers. A summary of the key points highlighted in responding to this research question is provided as follows:

'A competent, knowledgeable, and skilled headteacher can provide guidance and support to staff and create a conducive learning environment'.

<div align="right">(HT03)</div>

'A competent headteacher is a good headteacher, and he or she knows what needs to happen in the school to raise students' achievement'.

<div align="right">(HT04 and HT07)</div>

'A headteacher must possess professional management and leadership competencies to effectively lead and manage the school'.

<div align="right">(HT05 and HT015)</div>

'A competent headteacher should possess competencies such as problem solving, good interpersonal and communication skills, as well as management skills'.

<div align="right">(HT022)</div>

'As schools have a complex system, it requires a competent leader with the required experience and knowledge to guide, mentor, and challenge teachers. This level of competency enables schools to achieve a better outcome for their students'.

<div align="right">(HT03, HT024, and HT027)</div>

Respondents without a teaching background emphasised leadership and managerial skills rather than knowledge and experience, as they felt that leadership is about setting directions, planning and managing resources, engaging stakeholders, and improving standards. Eight of the NTHT respondents explicitly listed a number of business and managerial skills, including interpersonal skills, problem solving and decision making, an understanding of the commercial position of the school, planning and strategic focus, financial management skills, and team and conflict management skills.

4.3.3.1.2 Personal qualities

All respondents indicated that good personal qualities play an important role in leading schools effectively. Although there were variations in views held by the respondents in other areas, such as competencies, knowledge, and experience, no differences were observed in opinions expressed in their responses regarding the question about the personal qualities that a headteacher should possess. Their responses and commonly listed personal qualities and attributes were as follows:

Honest	Patience	Decisive
Traditional	Spiritual competent	Analytic
Cultural	Generous	Entrepreneurial
Trust	Integrity	Self-aware
Respect	Courage	Ability to lead
Emotionally intelligent	Role model	Problem solver
Anticipative	Thinker	Fair

4.3.3.1.3 Motivation and career in education

In the final section for responding to this research question, the respondents were asked about their career in education, motivation to become a head, and route to headship. They were asked the following two questions:

1. How and why did you get into education?

2. When and how did you become a headteacher?

There were different responses regarding their motivations and careers in education. All respondents with teaching backgrounds indicated they had an interest in teaching, and eight of the respondents (HT03, HT04, HT07, HT09, HT016, HT017, HT019, and HT022) said that their parents were teachers and that they had developed an interest at a young age. Only one NTHT (HT06) indicated that he was also interested in working in education, as his dad was a secondary school teacher. He was a trained teacher but had never taught in a school, but he later applied for an assistant post in another school and worked as an assistant and deputy headteacher before joining this school as a headteacher.

Other respondents with a teaching background (10 in total) indicated that their motivations were as follows:

- There were more teaching jobs available in schools as there was a high demand for teachers.

- Teacher training was shorter than other professional training.

- They received encouragement from peers.

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- They received parental advice.

- They helped friends and relatives' initiatives (e.g., setting up a new school).

The most common motive given by the respondents with a non-teaching background was employment, while another reason was commercial opportunities that existed in Somalia as a result of the growing number of non-state schools in the country. Of the 29 respondents, 12 said that they had a teaching background and had passed through different levels of leadership before becoming headteachers, although the process of their appointment varied. The different processes that these 12 headteachers had undergone before being appointed are summarised as follows:

Of the 12 respondents, six had been deputy headteachers of their schools before being appointed by the school owners (private companies, foundations, and charities). Two had served as assistant headteachers in their schools before their appointment. They had not served as deputies.

Four respondents served as deputies for a number of years (3, 1, 4, and less than a year) before they became headteachers, but they had no teaching qualification and had never taught. Three of the respondents worked in other schools as teachers (4, 8, and 11 years in teaching) before their appointment as headteacher of their current school. None of them had held assistant or deputy headships before they were appointed. Three other respondents were experienced teachers (11, 8, and 6 years in teaching) and had served as assistant headteachers but were not deputies before they became heads.

Two respondents indicated that they were owners and headteachers of their schools and possessed teaching and other relevant qualifications. Two others were owners and headteachers but had never had a teaching background. The last three respondents stated that they worked in other sectors (financial/foreign exchanges, hospitality, and health) as senior managers, and they then applied for the headships directly and were successful. The selection and recruitment of their headship posts varied. Two respondents were approached by school owners (a private company), while the other one sent an open letter and their CV to the school (owned by a foundation), and he was interviewed for the headship post. The latter gave details,

and the reasons for his success were his experience as a manager of a private company as well as his spiritual competency.

4.3.4 Research question 4

What provisions are available in Somalia for preparing, developing, and supporting private primary school headteachers?

Subquestion:

Are there any models that exist in neighbouring countries and globally that can be adapted in Somalia?

These questions aimed to gather participants' views on the provisions available for preparing, developing, and supporting the primary school headteacher.

Interview questions

1. What school leadership development and training have you received to prepare you to become a headteacher?

2. Are you aware of opportunities for preparing and developing primary school headteachers in Somalia?

3. Are you aware of any models of preparing and developing primary school headteachers that exist elsewhere?

4. Do you think that these models are adaptable to Somalia?

4.3.4.1 Preparation and development of headteachers in Somalia

As stated in the table below, the respondents were asked if they had any formal school leadership development or training that had prepared them to become headteachers. Their responses are highlighted in the below table.

Table 2: Responses on Preparation and Development

Respondents	Responses	
	Yes	No

Headteachers with a teaching background	4	14
Headteachers without a teaching background	3	8

Of the 29 interviewees, 22 indicated that they did not have any training or professional development programmes that prepared and developed them to become headteachers.

Four respondents (HT02, HT09, HT011, and HT014) with a teaching background indicated that they had postgraduate degrees or diplomas in educational leadership or business management. Another three respondents (HT012, HT020, and HT025) indicated that they had higher degrees in business management, although when asked directly about any relevant school management training, they did not give detailed information about the relevance of these degrees in leading and managing their schools.

Moreover, some of the respondents (HT03, HT04, HT011, HT013, HT016, HT018, HT022, HT028, and HT029) highlighted that they had attended training and seminars specifically organised for them by their schools.

4.3.4.2 Models of preparing and developing a headteacher

The questions related to the interviewees' awareness of any existing models of opportunities to prepare and develop primary school headteachers in Somalia or elsewhere. The majority of them indicated that they were not aware of any specific professional development programmes for headteachers in Somalia; however, two respondents (HT021 and HT03) who held HE qualifications from abroad indicated that they were aware of the existence of such programmes. One of them had studied for his Master's degree in Sudan, and he mentioned that such a programme exists but did not give details. The other respondent with a Master's degree from Uganda stated that a similar programme exists in Uganda. In answering the question about the adaptability of these models, the two respondents shared a couple of concerns about the possibility of adapting these models. Language was the main issue, as the programmes were delivered in Arabic (Sudan) or English (Uganda). There were also

other challenges for adapting such models, including different educational policies and systems as well as resource allocation.

4.4 Data Gathered Through Observation

4.4.1 Process

Out of the 29 headteachers interviewed in phase one of the field study, eight were selected as a purposive sample for observation. The purpose of participant observation as a tool of data collection was for triangulation purposes. The literature also indicates that it adds value to studies when little is known about the behaviour of people in a particular setting or context. The eight headteachers were selected for observation after all had given their consent during the initial interview. All participants who consented to observation were male.

4.4.2 Observed participants and their profiles

As shown in Table 3, the observed participants were given separate codes from those who took part in only interviews. The codes started with OHT (for 'observed headteacher') followed by the participant's individual code number.

Tables 3 to 7 present general data regarding the participants' age, qualifications, training as a teacher (trained or non-trained), number of years in the teaching profession, previous school leadership experience, access to any professional development opportunities before becoming headteacher, ownership status of the school, and the number of existing senior teachers and leaders in the school.

Table 3 presents participants' age, qualification, number of years in teaching, and any previous leadership role other than headship:

Table 3: Observed Participants' Profiles

Participant	Age	Qualification	Trained Teacher		Years of Teaching Experience	Prev.School Leadership Experience (years)	
			Yes	No		Assistant	Deputy

OHT 01	68	Diploma in ITT	√		Over 20	11	5
OHT 02	51	Degree in Ed	√		10	5	1
OHT 03	62	Diploma in ITT	√		Over 20	8	2
OHT 04	64	Diploma in ITT	√		Over 15	9	3
OHT 05	55	Dip. Business		√	0	0	5
OHT 06	41	Degree in Hospitality		√	0	0	0
OHT 07	31	Bus. & Mngmnt		√	0	0	0
OHT 08	30	Financial Mngmnt		√	0	0	0

Table 4 presents the number of other senior teachers and other senior leaders who exist in the participants' schools:

Table 4: Senior Teachers and Other Leaders

Participant	Other Senior Leaders in the School			
	Number of Senior Teachers	Assistant	Deputy	School administrator
OHT 01	10	2	1	1
OHT 02	4	2	1	1
OHT 03	8	1	1	1
OHT 04	8	1	1	1
OHT 05	4	2	0	1
OHT 06	4	1	1	1
OHT 07	3	1	1	1
OHT 08	7	1	1	1

Table 5 presents the ownership status at each participant's school:

Table 5

Participant	School Ownership			
	Sole Owner	Shared Ownership	Private Company	Foundation/
OHT 01				√
OHT 02	√			
OHT 03				√
OHT 04		√		
OHT 05			√	
OHT 06		√		
OHT 07	√			
OHT 08	√			

Table 6 describes participants' responses to the question in relation to their access to professional development opportunities before they were appointed or currently:

Table 6: Access to Professional Development Opportunities

Participant	Access to Professional Development Opportunities	
	Prior to Headship	Current
OHT 01	None	Occasionally
OHT 02	None	None
OHT 03	Distance learning	None
OHT 04	None	Occasionally
OHT 05	Distance learning	None
OHT 06	No	Distance learning
OHT 07	No	Occasionally
OHT 08	None	Distance learning

Table 7 summarises all of the schools' basic data:

Table 7: Management and Structure of the Schools

School	Number of Pupils Enrolled			Staff		Available School Policies					Does the School Have a Defined Org Structure	
	Total no.	Boys	Girls	Tchng	Non-Tchng incl admin	T&L	S&CP	Prfrmce Mngmnt	H&Sch Eng	Staffing	Yes	No
School 1 (OHT01)	724	482	242	32	9	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes, but old	
School 2 (OHT02)	331	213	118	26	9	No	No	Yes	No	No		√
School 3 (OHT03)	560	359	201	28	9	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		√
School 4 (OHT04)	732	436	296	31	11	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes, but not shared	
School 5 (OHT05)	480	245	235	24	12	No	Yes	Yes	Yes			
School 6 (OHT06)	510	280	230	27	15	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		√
School 7	281	121	160	28	7	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes	

(OHT07)										Yes		
School 8 (OHT08)	420	215	205	30	8	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	√

The average school population of the eight schools was 550. They had fewer girls than boys except for school 7, which was a relatively small school and had a nursery unit. The average number of staff in the observed school was 40, and an average of 30 were teaching staff.

Overall, the headteachers varied in the creation, updating, and implementation of school policies, including teaching and learning, safeguarding and child protection, performance management, and home-school engagement and agreement. These variables also existed in the schools' defined organisational structure and staffing policy, as their ownership and management varied.

Four headteachers said that they have a teaching and learning policy, while the other four stated that they have some other arrangements that provide guidance for teaching and learning in their schools. All of the schools had a performance management policy in place, but the implementation of these policies varied among the schools. Further details are presented in each participant's observation notes below. Only two headteachers stated that they did not have policies on safeguarding, child protection, or a home-school engagement policy. Four schools had a defined organisational structure, and only two headteachers indicated having a selection, recruitment, and staffing policy.

The participants' responses are presented separately as follows:

OHT01

OHT01 was an experienced headteacher and had served as a headteacher for 10 years. He was a trained teacher with a diploma in teaching, and he had worked as an assistant and deputy headteacher before becoming the headteacher of this school. He had served as assistant headteacher in another school for 11 years and as deputy at the current school for 5 years. He had not had access to any

professional development opportunities or preparation for headship before becoming headteacher, but he had occasionally attended workshops and seminars, mainly organised by NGO or private schools' networks.

School organisation and management

The school is owned by a foundation, and he was appointed by the trustee of the foundation. There are 10 senior teachers—these are teachers with over 5 years of teaching experience—two assistant heads, one deputy, and a school administrator.

The total number of pupils enrolled in this school is 724 (482 boys and 242 girls). The school has a two-shift system (a morning and an afternoon shift). This is an average-to-large primary school, and it occupies a former government school building. This was refurbished and re-opened during the civil war by a dedicated group of people, mainly ex-teachers and members of the local community, and it charges full fees of £15 per month per child. Boys and girls are taught in separate classrooms. Pupils attending this school are in grades 1–8 locally, and over 90% of pupils walk to school. The school is oversubscribed, and there are waiting lists for almost all year groups.

The school has 32 teachers, two assistant heads, and one deputy, all of whom are trained teachers, as well as one administrator and nine non-teaching support staff.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

As an experienced teacher and senior leader, the participant confidently shared his role in managing and supporting teaching and learning in his schools. He described this role as follows:

- Being responsible for the teaching and learning processes of the school;

- Developing teaching policies alongside other policies;

- Monitoring the scheme of work and lesson plans;

- Meeting with senior teachers, assistant heads, and deputy heads on a weekly basis;

- Observing lessons;

- Supporting teachers who are new to the school and the profession;

- Developing and maintaining teaching standards;

- Monitoring students' progress.

During the observation, the researcher observed some of these roles in practice, including participants' weekly meetings with staff, examples of schemes of work, and monthly lessons submitted to his office by teachers. School policies were shared with the researcher.

Management of school finances and resources

Although the participant had oversight of the school's finances, one of the assistants had overall responsibility for finance and resource management, including school fee policies, the line manager, the administrator, and other non-teaching staff. The assistant headteacher meets with the HT on a weekly basis to discuss finance, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters. The participant indicated that his financial and resource management skills are not advanced, and that he relies on the assistant's knowledge and judgement.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant indicated that although he is involved in selection and recruitment processes, the final staffing decision is the responsibility of the trustees. He advises them of his observations. The process for recruiting staff at this school is highly erratic and inconsistent. The participant stated that there is no consistent formal selection and recruitment process, and that staff checks are rarely made, even for teaching staff. If there is a vacancy, the school advertises it, and candidates apply directly to the school by sending a cover letter (*arji shaqo* – Somali for job application letter), and an interview is arranged by the school administrator.

Staff supervision and management of appraisals

The participant has an overall responsibility of supervising staff and managing their appraisals, but this duty is conducted by the deputy and the two assistants. The deputy and one assistant are responsible for the supervision and performance management of teaching staff, while the other assistant is responsible for the non-teaching staff's supervision and appraisal. Due to their wealth of experience in managing teaching and learning and the other staff of the assistant and the deputy, the participant stated that he delegates this role to them. The school does have several staff appraisal arrangements, including lesson observations, monitoring of lesson planning, staff reports, and staff attendance.

Stakeholder engagement

As he was appointed by the trustees of the foundation, the participant stated that he shares his engagement arrangements with stakeholders, including trustees, parents, students, government agencies, and private schools, as well as the local community. His engagement with trustees seemed to be the most structured and recorded. Occasionally, he meets with parents if there is a serious matter, but most of the parent engagement is undertaken by other relevant staff.

OHT02

This participant had been the headteacher of his school since 2011, and he was the founder and sole owner of the school. He was a trained teacher and had acquired just over 10 years of teaching experience in other schools before setting up this school as a primary school with a secondary school unit. He had served as assistant headteacher for 5 years in a primary school and held a 1-year deputy headship in a secondary school. The participant did not have access to preparation and development for the headship before, although he had gained a degree in education and a diploma in leadership and management; however, he had accessed specialist training and development prior to taking up the headship post.

School organisation and management

The school was founded in 2007 as a small language school, and in 2011 it became a primary and secondary school. The school's core activity is to provide basic education, but it also offers adult learning programmes, including languages and computing, in the evening. There are 620 children enrolled in both primary and secondary schools (331 primary children; 213 boys and 118 girls). There are 35

staff, comprising 26 teaching staff, and nine non-teaching staff. There are eight senior leaders, including four senior teachers and an administrator. There are four senior teachers, two assistants, and one deputy. The school also has one additional deputy who is responsible for the management of the secondary school unit. The school is very popular, and there are waiting lists in most year groups.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

As a secondary school teacher with over 6 years of leadership experience, the participant stated that he holds full responsibility for the school's teaching and learning programmes and activities. He summarised his role in the teaching and learning of the school as follows:

- Overseeing the teaching and learning activities of the school;

- Developing teaching practices that help children to learn more effectively;

- Developing policies that ensure that the children make progress and achieve more;

- Monitoring the schemes of work and lesson plans of teachers regularly;

- Meeting with senior teachers, assistant heads, and deputy heads regularly;

- Observing lessons and monitoring teachers' teaching practice;

- Supporting new teachers and inducting them—this is mainly done by the deputy;

- Developing, maintaining, and monitoring teaching standards;

- Supervising and managing senior staff;

- Monitoring students' progress.,

Although many of these activities were not available for observation due to time, the researcher was offered the opportunity to attend staff meetings where key teaching and learning matters, resource allocation, and assessments were discussed, chaired by the headteacher. The researcher also had access to lesson observation notes taken by the headteacher and his deputy as well as decisions taken by the

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participant regarding performance-related issues. He stated that his experience, knowledge, and skills in teaching play a significant role in managing the school successfully.

Management of school finances and resources

As owner and headteacher of the school, the participant stated that he has oversight of the school's finances, but that the day-to-day management of the school's finances and resources, including fee collection, purchase, wages, HR issues, and overall financial operation, is the responsibility of the administrator. The administrator is directly managed by the participant. The participant holds regular meetings with the administrator on a weekly basis to discuss finances, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters. As the owner of the school, he makes decisions on resource allocation, HR, finance, and fee policies by himself, and he stated that this makes the work easier and quicker.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant indicated that he is directly involved in staff selection, recruitment, and sometimes induction, depending on the type of staff. The process for the recruitment of staff at this school was clearer, although no coherence was found in how the procedures are followed. The staff are employed based on the decision made by the participant, without any consultation with any member of staff, due to the type of school ownership. The participant stated that there is no consistent formal selection and recruitment process, and that the administrator processes the decision of the participant. If a vacancy is advertised, candidates are asked to write directly to the participant, and he makes a decision. Staff induction is usually conducted by either the deputy, the assistant, or the administrator, depending on the type of staff.

Stakeholder engagement

The participant shared his engagement with stakeholders, including parents, students, government agencies, and other private school networks, as well as the local community. His engagement with stakeholders seemed to be highly structured, and he is an active member of the local private school networks. Occasionally, he meets with parents to discuss school matters, fee policy, behaviour, any changes in

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assessments and examinations, school transport, and students' learning, among other matters.

OHT03

This participant was a trained teacher with 10 years of teaching experience. He had served over 5 years as headteacher, and he had served as assistant and deputy headteacher of this school before he was appointed head. He had no access to preparation and development opportunities before becoming a head and had not attended any further training and development while in the post.

School organisation and management

The school is owned by a foundation, which is fully responsible for its governance and management. The school is similar to the previous one because it occupies an ex-government school building and was re-opened by the foundation with the help of local communities and private sponsors. The school has a two-shift system, and it also has a secondary school on site but under a different management system. There are 560 children enrolled (350 boys and 201 girls), with 37 staff, 28 teaching staff, and nine non-teaching staff. It also has one deputy, one assistant, one administrator, and eight senior teachers who are involved in supporting teaching and learning in the school.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

The participant stated that his main role in this school is to lead the school's teaching and learning work, and he described his main roles as follows:

- Leading, challenging, and supporting the teaching in school;

- Promoting a positive and better learning environment;

- Monitoring teaching with the help of other senior leaders and teachers;

- Monitoring standards and conducting monthly pupil assessments;

- Monitoring students' progress;

- Keeping track of teachers' work;

- Teaching lessons if required.

Regarding the activities for conducting these roles, the participant shared some of the records, including the scheme of work and meeting notes, and he invited the researcher to his monthly staff meeting with his senior leadership team and the administrator. The school has a clearly defined teaching and learning policy, which staff are expected to implement. It is monitored by a member of the senior leadership.

Management of school finances and resources

Although the participant has the overall responsibility for the school's finances, the school's administrator provides day-to-day assistance for conducting these responsibilities, including financial management and resource allocation, once approved by the trustees, including school fee policies, and for line-managing the non-teaching staff. The assistant headteacher meets with the headteacher on a weekly basis to discuss finance, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant is involved in the selection and recruitment processes of new staff, and he has the right to endorse successful candidates to the Board of Trustees, which makes the final staffing decision. The process for recruiting staff at this school is similar to that mentioned above, but it is highly inconsistent. The participant also stated that there is no formal selection and recruitment policy that the school follows, which he finds to be a challenge because the lack of clarity on how to select and recruit individual staff may lead to the wrong person being recruited. The current process is that candidates contact the school with a CV and cover letter, which are forwarded to the board if there is a vacancy.

Staff supervision and appraisal management

The participant stated that he has the overall responsibility for supervising staff and managing their appraisal, but that this task is also often conducted by the deputy.

The deputy has co-responsibility with the headteacher for supervising and managing the performance of teachers, while the assistant takes responsibility for the supervision and performance management of non-teaching staff. The participant delegated this responsibility to them, but he oversees their work. The school's regular performance management activities include teachers' monthly submission of their scheme of work, staff attendance, lesson plans, lesson observation, monitoring of lesson planning, and staff reports.

Stakeholder engagement

The participant explained his stakeholder engagement and stated that he has different arrangements with different stakeholders. He has regular contact with the Chair of the Trustees of the Foundation, and he meets with the Board quarterly, although the notes indicated that meetings take place twice a year. He also engages parents on a number of occasions, including at parent–teacher meetings, and parents can see him any time they need. The school is an active member of FPENS, the local umbrella association for private schools, and actively engages with government agencies and local communities. The participant stated that he has direct contact with students, but that the assistant head deals with the student committee and reports back to him.

OHT04

This participant was a trained teacher with over 15 years of teaching experience and had taught in five different schools. He had served for 9 years as an assistant in another school and 3 years as deputy head of this school before he was appointed headteacher of this school 7 years ago. He stated that he had not had access to preparation and development opportunities before becoming a head, nor had he attended any further training and development while in the post. He attended some specific workshops and training occasionally, but these were not designed to prepare and develop a headteacher.

School organisation and management

The school is owned by a private company with multiple shareholders, and the company has full ownership of the school and is responsible for its governance and management. The school occupies a private building, which is leased from a private owner. The school has a two-shift system, and it also has a secondary school, but it is not within the site and has a different management system. There are 732 children enrolled (436 boys and 296 girls), with a total of 42 staff, 31 teaching staff, and 11 non-teaching staff. It also has one deputy, one assistant, one administrator, and eight senior teachers, who are involved in supporting teaching and learning in the school.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

The participant stated that his main roles are leading and teaching in the school, providing support for collaboration among staff (both teaching and non-teaching), creating a positive learning for pupils to learn more effectively, monitoring teaching with the help of other senior leaders and teachers, monitoring standards and assessments, monitoring pupil progress, holding teachers to account through the performance management system, and sometimes teaching if staff are absent. The participant shared some of the records, including schemes of work and meeting notes, and invited the researcher to his monthly staff meeting with his senior leadership team and the administrator. The school has a clearly defined teaching and learning policy, and staff are expected to implement it. It is monitored by a member of the senior leadership team. However, it does not have other policies, such as safeguarding or a home-school agreement.

Management of school finances and resources

Although the participant has overall responsibility for the school's finances, the school's administrator provides day-to-day assistance in conducting this responsibility, including financial management and resource allocation, once approved by the trustees, including school fee policies, and for the line management of non-teaching staff. The administrator meets with the headteacher on a weekly basis to discuss finances, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

Like participant OHT01, this participant is involved in the selection and recruitment processes of new staff, and he has the right to endorse successful candidates to the Board of Trustees, who have the final say on staffing. The process of recruiting staff at this school is similar to that mentioned above and is sometimes inconsistent with the recruitment policy. The participant also stated that there is no formal selection or recruitment policy that the school follows. He shared similar concerns with OHT01 that this is a challenge because the lack of clarity over how to select and recruit individual staff has led to the recruitment of an unsuitable person. The current process is similar to that mentioned above.

Staff supervision and appraisal management

The participant stated he has overall responsibility for supervising staff and managing their appraisal, but this task is also often conducted by other members of the senior leadership team, including the deputy. The deputy has co-responsibility with the headteacher for supervising and performance management of teaching staff, while the assistant takes responsibility for the supervision and performance management of non-teaching staff. The participant delegated this responsibility to them but oversees their work. The school's regular performance management activities include teachers' monthly submission of their schemes of work, staff attendance, lesson plans, lesson observation, monitoring of lesson planning, and staff reports.

Stakeholder engagement

The participant stated that he has different arrangements with different stakeholders. He has regular contact with the Chair of the Board, and that he meets with the Board quarterly, although the notes indicated that the dates of meetings are irregular and not recorded. He also engages parents on a number of occasions, including at parent–teacher meetings, and parents can see him any time they need. The school is an active member of FPENS, and he actively engages with government agencies and the local community, but these engagements are not as regular as the other engagements. The participant stated that he has direct engagement with students, but that the assistant head deals with the student committee and reports back to him.

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OHT05

This participant had no background in teaching but had worked in schools and served for 7 years as deputy headteacher before becoming headteacher of this school. He held a higher diploma in business and had no access to any preparation or development training before embarking on his headship. He was a co-owner of the school along with three other people who were not directly involved in the school's day-to-day operation. He had successfully completed an Advanced Certificate of Leadership & Management through a distance learning programme.

School organisation and management

The school was set up by four business-minded individuals, including the participant. None of the owners have any education or teaching background. The school was set up to meet local demands, and it was initiated by the participant, who then encouraged the other three to join and co-share the school. As he was an experienced deputy at another school, the shareholders agreed to appoint him as the headteacher. The school was set up in 2006 with only 120 children, and now there are 480 children (245 boys and 235 girls). The school has four senior teachers, two assistant headteachers, and one administrator. Unlike the other schools, this school only caters to primary school children.

Although the school is classified as a small school, it has a two-shift system. The school is oversubscribed, and there are waiting lists in almost all year groups. The school has 24 teachers, two assistant heads who are trained and experienced teachers, one administrator, and 12 non-teaching support staff. Unlike other schools mentioned above, the school has a number of well-defined related organisational matters, including a 5-year strategic business and marketing plan, an HR policy, and a public relations strategy.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

Although the participant was a non-trained teacher and had no teaching experience, his 7 years of experience as deputy had helped him to have oversight of the school's teaching and learning; however, he acknowledged that he has no direct involvement

in the school's teaching and learning activities. He relies on the support of his two assistants, who are trained and experienced teachers. Both have over 15 years of teaching experience. His assistant heads have full responsibility for supporting the teaching and learning in the school, while he is responsible for the school's vision, and other business transactions, including HR, finances and resources, and external affairs. He holds regular meetings with the assistants to discuss the school's teaching and learning strategies and school policies, including monitoring of standards, student progress, and staff performance.

The researcher observed one of these meetings, and there was no active contribution by the participant to the discussion of teaching and learning, and he agreed with the judgement of the assistants. However, he participated well in the discussion of the other issues, including staff performance, finances, and other related matters. The researcher had the opportunity to see notes from previous meetings, and he observed similar levels of non-engagement by the participants in the discussion around teaching and learning. The school was found not to have a written teaching and learning strategy, and there appeared to be no coherence in the school's expectations of teaching standards. Assistant headteachers are responsible for recording schemes of work and lesson plans submitted to the office by teachers, and they hold teachers' meetings, which the headteacher occasionally attends.

Management of school finances and resources

The participant stated that he is fully involved in the school's financial and resource management. He directly manages non-teaching staff and determines the school's finance and resource management, including school fee policies, finances, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters. Furthermore, the participant indicated that his business and management skills help him to run a highly respected school. He said that the school is one of the very few to have achieved many awards for fundraising and engaging local networks effectively. He also stated that the school is popular, and if it advertises a vacancy, it is inundated with applications. During the observation, the researcher noted some of the business strategies applied by the participant, including the marketing and promotion strategies of the school. Leaflets and well-printed materials were found at the school office; photos of the school's

annual celebration event were also on display, as were graphs of the results of parent surveys.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant indicated that he has both strategic and operational involvement in the school's selection, recruitment, and staff induction for non-teaching staff. Unlike other schools mentioned above, the participant is directly involved in the selection and recruitment of staff from start to finish and makes decisions along with other owners of the school. He also inducts non-teaching staff and supports them.

Staff supervision and appraisal management

The participant has overall responsibility for supervising non-teaching staff and managing their appraisals. He holds regular supervision meetings with them and discusses their personal issues, development, and performances, and the administrator attends these meetings. The researcher also had access to the notes of these non-teaching staff supervision meetings, which indicated the participant's active engagement in managing, supporting, and supervising non-teaching staff, including the administrator. His two assistants conduct the performance management of the teaching staff due to their wealth of experience in managing teaching and learning, and the participant delegated these roles to them. Any performance-related decision is made by the owners of the school after the endorsement of any action by the two assistants.

Stakeholder engagement

The participant stated that the school has a clearly defined and well-structured engagement strategy, and he believes the school is successful because of its well-balanced management system. The participant indicated that the school has an open-door policy for parents. He stated the following:

'Parents and children are the most important customers, and their satisfaction is our success. Our school is very successful and popular because we engage parents and the wider community very well'.

(OHT05)

During the observation, the school held a successful community fundraising event. It raised a significant amount of money for the school to support children who cannot afford the fees and to renovate some parts of the school. The participant defined the school's stakeholders as co-owners, parents, pupils, and local community members. The school is also actively engaged with FPENS. In engaging with the school's co-owners, the participant meets with them quarterly, discusses school-related matters with them, and seeks approval for some of the decisions that need to be made.

OHT06

This participant had no background in teaching, and before this he had never worked in a school. He had worked for over 10 years as a senior manager in the hospitality sector before becoming headteacher of this school. He held a higher diploma in hospitality and business and had no access to any preparation and development training before he became a headteacher. He shares the ownership of the school with two more people, one of whom is a member of staff at the school within the management team. The other co-owner is not directly involved in the school's day-to-day operation.

School organisation and management

The school was set up in 2003 by three individuals, including the participant. None of the owners have any education or teaching background, but the school was set up to meet local demands. Because he was an experienced manager who had held a senior position before, the owners invited him to take up the headship of the school after the departure of the previous headteacher, who was an experienced teacher and headteacher. The participant has been in the post for 9 years as a headteacher. There are 510 children (280 boys and 230 girls). The school has four senior teachers, one assistant headteacher and one deputy (who are both trained and experienced teachers), and one administrator. The school charges full fees of £18 per month per child. The school is almost full but has nearly 60 empty places in a number of year groups. It has a total of 42 staff, comprising 27 teachers and 15 non-

teaching staff. The school has a number of well-defined systems in place, including a 3-year strategic business and marketing plan, HR policy, and customer retention policy.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

Although this participant had similar characteristics to the previous participant (OHT06) as a non-trained teacher with no teaching experience, participant OHT06 had worked as a deputy headteacher in another school. This participant was not a trained teacher and had never taught in school. The management and support for teaching and learning were delegated to his deputy and assistant headteacher, and he relies on their support. Both have long-term experience in teaching and leadership. His regular engagement with his deputy enables him to have oversight of the school's teaching and learning, but he acknowledges that he has no direct involvement in teaching and learning activities. The deputy and assistant head have full responsibility for supporting the teaching and learning of the school, while he is responsible for the school's vision and strategic and business management, including HR, finances and resources, and external affairs. He holds regular meetings with the assistants to discuss the school's teaching and learning strategies, school policies (including the monitoring of standards and student progress), and staff performance. During the observation, the researcher observed less engagement by the headteacher in the discussion, and he agreed with the judgement of the deputy and the assistant. In another observation at another meeting, the participant participated well in the discussion of other issues, including staff performances, finances, and other related matters.

The researcher had the opportunity to see notes from previous meetings and observed similar low-level engagement by the participant in the discussion around teaching and learning. Despite the deputy's experience in teaching, the school has not developed a written teaching and learning strategy or policy, and no coherence was found to exist in the school's expectations of teaching standards. The deputy headteacher, with the help of the assistant, is responsible for recording schemes of work and lesson plans submitted to the office by teachers, and when they hold teachers' meetings, the headteacher occasionally attends.

Management of school finances and resources

The participant is fully involved in the school's financial and resource management. He directly manages non-teaching staff and sets the school's finance and resource management, including the school fees policies, finances, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters. The participant indicated that his business and management skills help him to manage the school successfully. He said that the school is one of the very few that has achieved many awards with effective fundraising and engagement of local networks. He also stated that the school is popular among teachers and receives many job application requests. The researcher noted some of the business strategies applied by the participant, including marketing and promotion strategies for the school, leaflets, and well-printed materials; photos of the school's annual celebration event; and graphs of the results of parent surveys on display at the office.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant indicated that he has both strategic and operational involvement in the school's selection, recruitment, and staff induction for non-teaching staff. Unlike other schools mentioned above, the participant is directly involved in the selection and recruitment of staff from start to finish and makes decisions along with the other owners of the school. He also inducts non-teaching staff and supports them.

Staff supervision and management of appraisal

The participant stated that he does have an overall responsibility for supervising non-teaching staff and managing their appraisal. He holds regular supervision meetings with them and discusses their personal issues, development, and performances, and the administrator attends these meetings. The researcher also had access to the notes of these non-teaching staff supervision meetings, which indicated the participant's active engagement in managing, supporting, and supervising non-teaching staff, including the administrator. His deputy and assistant conduct the performance management of the teaching staff due to their wealth of experience in managing teaching and learning, and the participant delegated these roles to them. Any performance-related decision is made by the owners of the school after an endorsement of action from the two assistants.

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Stakeholder engagement

The participant stated that the school has clearly defined and well-structured engagement protocols, and he believes that the school engages very well with its stakeholders, including shareholders, staff, parents, pupils, the community, and the wider education sector. The participant stated that the school holds several events annually, including the celebration of pupil achievements. Members of the local community, government officials, religious leaders, and others are invited to attend. There are also other events, including fundraising and Teachers' Day. The school is also actively involved in FPENS, and he meets with the other two co-owners monthly and discusses school-related matters with them, and they agree on decisions.

OHT07

This participant owned and managed the school. He had no teaching background but had served as a headteacher briefly in another local school run by a foundation. The participant did not have access to preparation and development for headship before he became a headteacher at his previous school. Although he held a degree in education, he had never been trained as a teacher nor taught in a school. He set up this school in 2009 with financial support from his family. He stated that he is highly entrepreneurial and aims to serve the local poor children by giving them access to basic education.

School Organisation and Management

This small school was founded in 2009 and has 281 children (121 boys and 160 girls). The school has a nursery unit that is run and managed by a family member. There are 35 staff, 28 teaching staff, and seven non-teaching staff. There are also four senior teachers, one deputy, one assistant, and one administrator. The school also has one additional deputy who is responsible for the management of the nursery unit, but this person was not counted in these data. The school is not oversubscribed and was 90% full at the time of the observation.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

The participant shared some commonalities, such as ownership and non-teaching background, with previous participants (OHT02 and OHT04). He is not involved in managing or supporting the teaching and learning activities of the school due to his

lack of experience in teaching and understanding teaching practice. He works very closely with his deputy and the assistant, who are both experienced teachers and have middle management leadership experience in other schools. The participant stated they hold full responsibility for the school's teaching and learning programmes and activities. During the observation, the participant shared some of his communication arrangements with the deputy and the assistant as well as the teaching and learning policy of the school.

Although many of these staff communication and engagement activities were not available for observation due to time constraints, the researcher was offered the opportunity to attend staff meetings where key teaching and learning matters, resource allocation, and assessments were discussed, which were chaired by the deputy and the assistant. The deputy stated that he shared the key outcomes of the meeting with the headteacher (participant) and that he trusts his judgement. The deputy and assistant headteacher are responsible for recording schemes of work and lesson plans submitted monthly to the office by teachers, and they hold teachers' meetings. The headteacher occasionally attends these meetings but does not contribute.

Management of school finances and resources

This participant shared many features with OHT04, and as the owner and headteacher of the school, he has full responsibility for the school's management and is the sole decision-maker; however, the day-to-day management of the school's finances and resources, including fee collection, purchase, wages, HR issues, and overall financial operations, is conducted by the administrator. The administrator is directly managed by the participant. The participant holds meetings with the administrator on a weekly basis to discuss finances, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters. As the owner of the school, he solely makes decisions on resource allocation, HR, finance, and fee policies, and he expressed similar views to participant OHT04, who stated that this quick decision-making process makes it much easier to get the work done quickly.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant indicated he is directly involved in staff selection, recruitment, and sometimes induction, which depends on the type of staff. The process of recruiting staff at this school is clearer. The participant stated that there is no consistent formal selection and recruitment process, and that the administrator processes his decisions. If a vacancy is advertised, candidates are asked to write directly to the participant, who makes a decision. Staff induction is usually conducted by either the deputy, assistant, or administrator, depending on the type of staff.

Staff supervision and managing appraisal

Like the previous participant (OHT04), this participant has an overall responsibility for supervising non-teaching staff and managing their appraisal. He holds monthly supervision, namely a 1:1 catch-up meeting with them and discusses any issues related to their roles in the school, including their development, performance, and any personal issues. The administrator attends these meetings. The researcher also had access to the notes of these non-teaching staff supervision meetings, which indicated the participant's active engagement in managing, supporting, and supervising non-teaching staff, including the administrator. His deputy and assistant conduct the performance management of the teaching staff due to their competence, knowledge, and experience in managing and supporting teaching and learning, and the participant delegated these roles to them. Any performance-related decision is made by the participant, but the deputy and assistants are heavily involved if this performance is related to teaching.

Stakeholder engagement

The participant's stakeholder engagement was similar to that of OHT04 and OHT02, and the school has a clearly defined and well-structured engagement strategy. The participant also stated that he believes that this clearly defined strategy will lead the school to become a successful school. He strongly believes that if parents are happy with their children's learning and progress, then the school is successful. He stated that his close working relationship with parents and other stakeholders, including the local community and other local schools—both private and public, including secondary schools—is critical for their relationship with the local community, and that this helps them to secure better outcomes for the children. During the observation, the researcher was shown records of the participant's engagement with staff,

parents, and pupils, including general staff meetings and parent–teacher committee meetings. The school holds a number of successful events, including fundraising, sports, and other celebrations, and photos of these events were shared with the researcher.

OHT08

Like the previous participant, this participant owned and managed the school. He had no teaching background. He had served for 2 years as assistant headteacher for a non-teaching role in another school before taking over the management of the school in 2014 from his father, an experienced teacher and headteacher who could not lead the school due to illness. His main role in the previous school was to lead the administration, including finance and HR. The participant did not have access to the preparation and development of headship before he became a headteacher. He had a degree in finance and accounting. In sharing his motive for setting up the school, the participant stated that his aim was to serve local poorer children to access basic education as there were no state schools in the area.

School Organisation and Management

The school was founded in 2005 by the participant's father, who is not currently involved, along with three more people. Currently, 420 children are registered (215 boys and 205 girls). There are 38 staff, 30 teaching staff, and eight non-teaching staff. There are also seven senior teachers, one deputy, one assistant, and one administrator. The school is not oversubscribed and was only 82% full at the time of the observation.

Management of and support for teaching and learning

As one of the owners, this participant had no teaching background. He shared some characteristics with participant (OHT07), including not being involved in teaching and learning and delegating this role to his deputy and assistant, who are both trained and experienced teachers. He works very closely with his deputy and the assistant, and they hold full responsibility for the school's teaching and learning programmes and activities. During the observation, the participant shared some of the communication arrangements that he has with the deputy and assistant as well as the teaching and learning policy of the school. The deputy and assistant headteacher

are responsible for recording schemes of work and lesson plans submitted monthly to the office by teachers, and they hold teachers' meetings. The headteacher occasionally attends these meetings, which are chaired by the deputy.

Management of school finances and resources

This participant shared many features with OHT04 and OHT07, and he has full responsibility for the school's management, including the day-to-day management of the school's finances and resources, such as fee collection, purchases, wages, and HR issues. Overall, financial operations are conducted by the administrator, who is directly managed by the participant. The participant holds meetings with the administrator on a weekly basis to discuss finance, resource allocation, staffing, and other related matters. As the owner of the school, he solely makes decisions on resource allocation, HR, finance, and fee policies.

Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

The participant indicated that he is directly involved in staff selection, recruitment, and sometimes induction, which depends on the type of staff. Unlike other schools, this participant stated that there is a consistent formal selection and recruitment process, and that the administrator processes his decisions. If a vacancy is advertised, candidates are asked to write directly to the participant, who makes the decision. Staff induction for teaching staff is usually conducted by either the deputy or the assistant, while for non-teaching staff, it is conducted by the administrator.

Staff supervision and management of appraisal

Like previous participants (OHT04 and OHT07), this participant stated that he does have overall responsibility for supervising non-teaching staff and managing their appraisal. He holds monthly supervision with them and discusses any issues related to their roles in the school, including development and performance, and also any personal issues, and the administrator attends these meetings. The researcher had access to the notes of these non-teaching staff supervision meetings, which indicated the participant's active engagement in managing, supporting, and supervising non-teaching staff, including the administrator. His deputy and assistant conduct the performance management of the teaching staff due to their competence, knowledge, and experience in managing and supporting teaching and learning. Any

performance-related decisions are made by the participant, but the deputy and the assistant are heavily involved in the endorsement of any teaching-related performance.

Stakeholder engagement

The participant's stakeholder engagement was similar to that of OHT04, OHT02, and OHT07, and the school has a clearly defined and well-structured engagement strategy. The participant also stated that he believes that this clearly defined strategy will lead the school to success. He expressed similar views to the other two participants and strongly believes that parents and children are their customers. He also stated that his close working relationship with parents and other stakeholders, including the local community and both private and public schools, including secondary schools, is crucial for securing better outcomes for the children. During the observation, the researcher was shown records of the participant's engagement with staff, parents, and pupils, including general staff meetings and parent–teacher committee meetings. Like other schools, the school holds a number of events, including fundraising, sports, and other celebrations, and photos of these events were displayed on the office walls.

4.5 Data Gathered From Documents

Another source of data for the study was a review of several documents, including the Somali government's policies and programmes as well as international NGOs that deliver education programmes in Somalia. The purpose of this form of data collection was to triangulate the data collection approach of the study.

Government policy

According to Somalia's ESSP 2020, the FGS seeks to enhance the quality of primary 'provision of school-based coaching for headteachers to improve school performance' so that a headteacher training manual is developed. The manual, which was still in the consultative stage with education stakeholders during the study, was developed by a consultant who was working very closely within the MoECHE and the Somali National University. This training manual was designed to be interactive and participatory, and it provides new knowledge and skills that can

help headteachers to develop. Several methods are suggested for implementation in this training manual, including debates, roleplay, presentations, demonstrations, and group, pair, and individual work. This training, which is not mandatory for the preparation, development, and recruitment of headteachers, consists of the following modules: Module 1: Introduction to Leadership, Management, and Administration; Module 2: Headteachers' Role in Leadership; and Module 3: Headteachers' Role in School Management. In Module 1, headteachers are expected to learn the basics of leadership and management, including the definitions of a school leader, manager, and administration, and how these roles significantly contribute to schools' effectiveness. The manual distinctively defines the difference between leader and manager as follows:

'A leader is the one who influences the behaviours and attitudes of others'.

'A manager is an individual who has been granted the task to plan, organise, direct, and control resources (human and non-human) for the realisation of specified results'.

<div align="right">(MoECHE, 2020)</div>

In Module 2, headteachers are expected to learn about standards for qualities and knowledge of headteachers in leadership and the use of emotional intelligence across diverse leadership styles to build high-performing teams. Several headteacher qualities are also highlighted in this module, including the following:

- Holds and articulates clear values and moral purpose, focused on providing a world-class education for the pupils they serve;

- Demonstrates optimistic personal behaviour, positive relationships, and attitudes towards their pupils and staff, as well as towards parents, governors, and members of the local community;

- Leads by example—with integrity, creativity, resilience, and clarity—drawing on their scholarship, expertise, and skills, as well as those of those around them;

- Sustains wide, current knowledge and understanding of education and school systems locally, nationally, and globally, and pursues continuous professional development for themselves and their staff.

In Module 3, headteachers are introduced to the role of a headteacher in school management and the four main common functions undertaken by the headteacher as school manager. These functions are planning (deciding what to do and how to do it), organisation (arranging the resources in the best way), directing (motivating people to work well, including supervising and maintaining relations), and control (measuring performance—monitoring, evaluation, and review of strategy).

In highlighting the importance of headteachers' prior knowledge in teaching, the manual (MoECHE, 2020) states the following:

'First and foremost, the headteacher is a professional educator and, at best, an experienced class teacher and a role model to other teachers, both trained and newly recruited. A headteacher must share instructional work with teachers; he or she should consider teachers first and foremost. The headteacher must also understand the problems his or her teachers face in instructional delivery and those that the learners face in realising learning objectives and outcomes'.

Regarding the teaching and learning responsibilities of a headteacher, the manual states that a headteacher must organise the instructional work, including curriculum implementation, by ensuring that all subject leaders organise the development of the work scheme and that all teachers prepare lesson plans from the work scheme.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings of the study and the data gathered in the interviews, observations, and survey. The participants exhibited similarities in several areas of their responses. To present the findings clearly and concisely, this chapter was split into five sections, which covered participants' profiles, data gathered from interviews, data gathered from headteacher observations, data gathered through the survey, and other information gathered from documentary evidence.

Twenty-nine participants participated in this study's interviews and observations, and 62 respondents completed the survey questionnaire. Eight participants were

observed, and they were selected because they had information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest. All participants who consented to participate in the observation were male. In the observation section, the profiles of all of the participants and their schools were presented with clear codes to disguise their identities.

The categories used in the data presentation were driven by the themes selected in the literature review. A number of categories were used to present the data, including headteachers' understanding of their roles in teaching and learning, the management of resources and finances, stakeholder engagement, staff supervision, and views about being a professional headteacher. Similarities were noted in participant responses, which were grouped while maintaining and highlighting the individual codes. The similarities included the headteachers with teaching and non-teaching backgrounds, school ownership, the journey to headship, and school management and structure.

Another source of data was documentary evidence, including the FGS's policy of developing and improving school leadership in Somalia. Information about a training manual that is still underdeveloped was also presented in this chapter.

The following section intends to provide discussion on data he findings from the study.

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a detailed discussion of the research data collected through different data collection tools, including semi structured interviews and observation. The research focused on investigating the views held by Somali private primary school headteachers on what it means to be a professional headteacher. The collected data were presented in Chapter 4, while this chapter reports the data analysis, with the intention of using the theoretical framework and the literature on professionalism in headship to establish a link between the literature and the research data. The chapter concludes with the development of a model of professionalisation of primary school headship, established from a combination of the findings in response to the research questions.

This section generates a number of key points, which are discussed along with the themes presented in the literature review (Chapter 2). The following are the key points that emerged:

1. Private schools are key education providers in Somalia.

2. The study found that the male gender was dominant in the leadership of schools that took part in the study. No accurate study has been conducted in Somalia on female representation in the leadership of primary schools.

3. The highest qualifications held by the majority of the participants were further education qualifications, but it is important to note that these qualifications varied among different academic fields, including education, business management, and other fields.

4. Over half of the participants indicated that they had been in headship posts for between 6 and 10 years.

5. The majority of the participants indicated that a headteacher must have a teaching background, have training and experience as a teacher, and have served as a deputy or assistant headteacher.

6. Of the 29 interviewees, 11 indicated that they were not trained teachers and had no teaching experience, while 18 indicated that they were trained teachers with teaching experience, although their leadership journeys varied. Their views on being professional headteachers also varied. Some participants with a non-teaching background strongly expressed their views and stated that teaching qualifications and experience are not significant factors for being a professional headteacher. Their responses focused more on management skills and leadership qualities.

7. Almost all participants with no teaching background (10) emphasised the importance of headteachers having teaching experience so that they can provide good-quality teaching instructions.

8. Participants with a non-teaching background were not involved in their school's teaching and learning policies or instruction. This cohort spent more time in other school management areas, such as strategic management, the school's vision, finance and resource management, and stakeholder management.

9. Participants with a teaching background tended to be in charge of their schools' teaching and learning, including curriculum, teaching policies, and performance management of teaching staff.

10. A significant number of participants (19) emphasised that cultural, traditional, and spiritual competencies seem ideal personal qualities for a leader.

11. All participants stated that they had received no specific training or development that prepared them to become headteachers.

12. Two participants shared a model of professional development for headteachers that they were aware of, but these exist outside of Somalia. Both agreed that these models may not be appropriate in Somalia due to differences in the education system and language.

The discussions on the findings for each research subquestion are presented in the following sections.

5.2 Discussion of Findings for Research Question 1

Research question 1:

What does 'being a professional headteacher' mean to private primary school headteachers?

This question sought to gather participants' views on being a professional headteacher. The majority of the participants clearly stated that a headteacher must be a professionally trained person, and some of them provided detailed explanations, which are summarised as follows:

1. 'A professional headteacher is someone who is a trained teacher and has several years of teaching experience'.

2. 'A professional headteacher is a person who is a qualified teacher and has experience in leadership; for example, he has been a deputy headteacher before becoming a teacher'.

3. 'A professional headteacher is someone who is expected to hold a minimum qualification in the education field and maintains high standards of leadership qualities'.

4. 'A professional headteacher is someone who has management experience in people and resources as he or she is dealing with people and managing finance, including fees, facilities, and other resources'.

These were the most common detailed explanations provided by the participants, the majority of whom were headteachers with a teaching background. The participants' interpretations were echoed by Eger et al. (2017, p. 27), who stated that 'school leaders are required to have a set of skills and competencies that can be acquired through education and professional experience'. They further discussed the notion that school leaders are mostly professionally active teachers who are aware of

methodological and organisational conditions. Sammons et al. (1995) held similar notions and believed that 'professional leadership is the key to schooling, and they feature professional leadership as one of the central elements of school effectiveness' (as cited in Huber, 2004, p. 2).

In explanation 1, a significant number of participants argued that the headteacher must be a trained teacher with teaching experience. Explaining this further, participants acknowledged that a headteacher's involvement in planning and co-ordinating teaching and learning in the school requires them to possess pedagogical competence, which enables them to challenge and support teaching staff. These assertions echo Rapp (2010, p. 339), who interviewed several school leaders in his research. One of several headteachers he interviewed said the following:

'I think it is important to be an educated teacher. I can discuss pedagogical matters, and the teachers will know that I can deliver in a classroom'.

Rapp (2010, p. 339) further stated that 'several headteachers expressed the view that to be a pedagogical leader, one should have a teaching background'.

In explanation 2, participants also stated that past leadership experience is another factor that contributes to a headteacher being a professional. A professional headteacher must have career-staged experience before becoming a headteacher. They further stated that being a deputy will help the prospective headteacher to build experience, knowledge, and skills in leadership, including managing school policies and resources effectively. According to Northouse (2016, p. 54), career experiences have an impact on the characteristics and competencies of leaders, and Mumford and Connelly highlighted that, as leaders move through their careers, higher levels of problem-solving and social adjustment skills become increasingly important (Mumford and Connelly, 1991, cited in Northouse, 2016, p. 54). A similar point was noted by Pont et al. (2008, p. 113), who stated that 'school leaders should build their prior learning and continue throughout the stages of their careers as principals'. According to Kenya's Teacher Service Commission (TSC), in the preparation and development of headteachers, teachers are required to go through the ranks before qualifying for primary school headship. The process includes acquiring at least 10

years of experience as a regular classroom teacher, 3 years as a senior teacher, and 3 years as a deputy (TSC, 2020).

In explanation 3, participants indicated that a professional headteacher is someone who is expected to hold a minimum qualification in the education field and maintain high standards of leadership qualities.

A significant number of participants mentioned that there should be a minimum qualification required for someone to hold a headship role, but their views varied as there is no nationally agreed framework on the qualification criteria for school leadership in Somalia. Their views on the significance of a headteacher holding a minimum professional qualification are also shared by Gurmu (2020, p. 667), who stated that the recognition of the principalship profession must start with consideration of a professional qualification and leadership experience as part of the selection criteria. Concurring with Gurmu's viewpoint, Ingersoll and Perda (2008, in Gurmu, 2020, p. 568) stated that the necessity for principals to have professional qualifications also emanates from the protection of the interests of the public, to be reassured that practitioners hold an agreed-upon level of knowledge and skills, without which the well-being of the public and their quality of life might be negatively affected.

As highlighted in the data presentation chapter (Chapter 4), the interviewees held numerous qualifications, some of which were not in the field of education but were more management-related qualifications. There is a growing call for school leaders to have the capacity to improve teaching, learning, and pupil development. According to Huber (2004), many countries have started to modify appropriate training and development opportunities for their school leaders. In the UK, the NPQH was introduced and then made a legal requirement in 2004, but after 2012 it was no longer mandatory. Although there is a government drive to do the same in Somalia, there is no commonly agreed-upon qualification required for aspiring headteachers. The common logic is that the role of headteacher is universally agreed upon, which is 'to lead and support teaching and learning as well as managing resources and stakeholder engagement effectively, and these roles require a set of skills that can

be acquired through training and development, such as formal and non-formal professional qualifications' (Bush, 2018, in Bailey and Gibson, 2020, p. 1007).

In explanation 4, participants believed that a professional headteacher is someone who has management experience with people and resources, as they deal with people and manage finances, including fees, facilities, and other resources. These participants, the majority of whom had a non-teaching background, argued that the management profession is equally important and that a headteacher with management qualifications, experience, and skills can be considered a professional. Their arguments were based on managing resources and facilities rather than the headteacher's overall responsibilities in effectively leading the school, and many researchers agree with them about the necessity of a headteacher to possess certain management skills, as confirmed by Hoyle and Wallace (2005, p. 68). Similarly, Bush et al. (2019, p. 6) asserted that 'managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks, and behaviours and that, if these functions are conducted competently, the work of others in the organisation will be facilitated'. Although many researchers have, like Bush et al. (2019), linked managerial leadership with instructional leadership, the participants' views related more to the idea that a person with non-teaching management experience and skills can be considered a professional headteacher. This is crucial because it reassures the implementation of the school's vision and strategy for teaching and learning. 'Instructional leadership is a model that emphasises managing teaching and learning' (Bush et al., 2019, p. 5).

According to Everard et al. (2004, p. 4), 'management is about setting directions, aims, and objectives, planning how progress will be made or a goal achieved, organising available resources, controlling the process, and setting and improving organisational standards'. However, considering the critical role a headteacher plays in school management, it is essential for them to possess the requisite leadership competencies (Giles, 2016, cited in Koskei et al., 2020, p. 22). Under the UK's headteacher standards, organisational management competence is one of the requirements (DfE, 2020). Participants acknowledged the importance of a headteacher possessing the necessary knowledge and skills to provide direction to the school.

5.3 Discussion of Findings for Research Question 2

Research question 2: What school leadership and management challenges and opportunities do Somali private primary school headteachers experience in conducting their headship roles?

This question intended to establish headteachers' leadership and management experience and how they view their roles.

Universally, there are sets of roles or duties that a headteacher undertakes, including planning, staff personnel services, pupil personnel services, curriculum and instructional development, improvement and appraisal, financial and business management, and the maintenance of the school–community relationship (Ojo and Olaniyan, 2008, as cited in Suaka and Kuranchie, 2018, p. 23).

Sets of descriptive headteacher roles were presented to the headteachers who participated in this research, and they were asked how they undertake these roles, including managing and supporting teaching and learning; managing finance and resources (both human and capital); selecting, recruiting, and inducting staff; supervising staff; and managing staff appraisal. As mentioned in the data presentation chapter, participants gave different responses regarding their involvement in these descriptive roles, and these differences were due to their educational background and experience.

The participants were divided into two categories – THTs, who were participants with a teaching background, and NTHTs, who were participants without a teaching background. Participants generally agreed with the duties highlighted by Ojo and Olaniyan (2008), but some of the NTHTs indicated that they were not directly involved in some of these roles, while others had some involvement in performing the aforementioned duties. Although the majority of their responses were overly generic, some of the participants shared practical examples of how they fulfil these roles, which are presented in the following subsections.

5.3.1 Managing and supporting teaching and learning

Participants with teaching backgrounds provided detailed descriptions of their involvement in managing and supporting teaching and learning. They indicated that their direct involvement also means working with others within the school to ensure improvements in students' learning. This oversight is what Sahana (2018, p. 797) called pedagogical competence, which refers to a headteacher's capability to manage the teaching and learning process, from planning to the evaluation stage. The THTs were very clear with their explanations and shared practical examples of how they are involved, from the planning to the evaluation of teaching and learning in their schools.

Through the observations, clear evidence was obtained that the THTs were leading and managing the teaching and learning in their schools. Their pedagogical competencies enabled them to have an understanding of the school's work and the ability to perform well in curriculum planning and assessment, identify school priorities, develop policies, and ensure that resources are efficiently and effectively used to achieve the school's aims and objectives (Rapp, 2010, p. 336). This notion of a headteacher as a pedagogical leader is becoming increasingly vital (Peko et al., 2009, as cited in Varga, 2020, p. 176). The overall commitment to organising and co-ordinating quality schoolwork can be realised if a school leader has the understanding and then challenges teaching staff with the expectations of high-quality teaching (Rapp 2010, p. 340).

The participants echoed several examples that are similar to the English, Kenyan, and Ethiopian contexts. In England, according to the DfE, 'headteachers must give greater attention to establishing, maintaining, and sustaining school-wide policies for teaching standards and improvements in the quality of teaching and learning' (DfE, 2015, p. 6). Headteachers in Kenya are charged with the responsibility of all operations, including curriculum and instruction, and as instructional leaders, they must be involved in improving teaching and learning, executing strategies for improvement, and evaluating students' progress. Similarly, Ethiopian headteachers are expected to support the implementation of quality and relevant instruction that results in higher levels of achievement for all pupils. Due to their experience in teaching, the THTs indicated that they hold teachers to account, and that their direct

involvement in managing and supporting teaching and learning makes a difference to pupils' learning outcomes. Their arguments are supported by Leithwood and Riehl (2003), who established a link between pupil outcomes and the way school leaders mobilise and work with others.

The participants without a teaching background (NTHTs) stated that they were not directly involved in this role of managing and supporting the teaching and learning in their schools. They had delegated the overall responsibility for this task to other members of the senior leadership team, who were either deputy or assistant headteachers. This arrangement was due to their lack of teaching background, and they merely rely on the professional judgements of their deputies or assistants, who are trained and experienced teachers. During the observation, the NTHTs shared with the researcher how they evaluate and monitor teaching and learning. One of the participants (NTHT/HT013) stated the following:

'I meet with my deputy on a regular basis and discuss overall teaching and learning programmes in the school, and this engagement gives me the opportunity to have an oversight of the matter'.

The NTHTs indicated that their focus is on overall management and administration rather than on teaching and learning. Although they may not be involved in the teaching and learning aspects of their schools, they seemed confident that their managerial competency enables them to effectively manage the available human and material resources for the achievement of desired goals and objectives (Nwune, et al., 2016, in Victor, 2017, p. 2).

During the observation, evidence was found that these participants were not instructional leaders, as was also evidenced in another study conducted by Khalifa et al. (2014, p. 253), who found that Somali school leaders whom they observed did not support the instruction in the school by supporting teachers and learners. The NTHTs did not provide examples of leadership that encouraged and promoted school improvement, and there was little evidence that these school leaders were in fact instructional leaders at all, despite the significance of the application of this model of leadership in the Somali school context. It is worth noting that any effort to

improve the quality of teaching and learning in the schools that took part in the study appeared to be non-existent.

5.3.2 Managing finance and resources

A significant number of the participants (20) provided detailed information about how they manage resources and finances in their schools. Their involvement varied, as some stated that they are involved in managing resources and finances directly, while others stated that they delegate the responsibilities to their administrators and other staff. Five participants stated that they bore no responsibility or involvement in this task due to the ownership structure of the school. Those who provided detailed information about their involvement in this task acknowledged the link between effective management of their resources, including finances, and their school's overall achievements in delivering high-quality teaching and learning (Caldwell and Spinks, 1998; Briggs et al., 2004). As stated in the HTTM (MoECHE, 2020, p. 42), one of the main functions of the headteacher is to organise school resources effectively, arranging them in an optimal manner.

The participants explained their roles in overseeing school resources, but they provided more details about the financial resource aspect—that is, money rather than human and material resource aspects—particularly NTHTs. This is because they are not involved in managing teaching staff. Some participants, who were THTs, have included humans and materials when giving an example of the resources they manage, including staff and the school facility or building.

During the observation, the NTHTs indicated that they had an in-depth understanding of managing school resources—both financial and human—despite their limited understanding of the broad meaning of resources. Resources are defined broadly to include knowledge, technology, power, material, people, time, assessment, information, and finance (Caldwell and Spinks, 1998, Briggs et al., 2004, p. 23).

5.3.3 Selection, recruitment, and induction of staff

All participants stated that they are involved in the selection, recruitment, and induction of new staff, but variation existed in which staff they induct and also in the decision-making mechanism of who to employ. There was a degree of inconsistency in the process of recruitment, as the schools have an internally defined teacher recruitment process. Some of the participants from foundation-owned schools indicated that their process is inclusive, and that the trustees of the foundation, some parents, and community representatives may be involved in the process. Although some of the participants do not have the authority to hire and fire staff, they indicated that they are part of the process of recruitment, such as receiving a CV from a candidate and endorsing the applicant to the school owners for approval. School leaders should be able to influence teacher recruitment decisions to improve the match between candidates and their school's needs (Pont et al., 2008, p. 10).

As there is no government regulation that provides guidance to schools on the selection and recruitment of staff in Somalia, and as schools have their own systems, it is difficult to check a candidate's appropriateness for working in a school, including proof that the applicant has received teaching certification (World Bank, 2018). Such guidance, like England's School Staffing Regulations, 2014, which provide guidance to governors and school leaders on wider school staffing issues, may help school owners and headteachers to consider all aspects of employment for their schools.

Moreover, THT participants stated that they are involved in staff induction to a certain extent, depending on the type of staff employed, such as teaching staff. The NTHT participants are not involved in inducting teaching staff as they delegate this role to other specialist senior staff—a deputy or assistant with a teaching background. Even though the role is delegated, it is regarded as being within the sphere of the school leader (Heyden and Thompson, 2016, p. 85). The deputies and assistant headteachers in schools, led by NTHTs, often have teaching and leadership experience, which may give them the pedagogical competence to provide guidance during the induction.

5.3.4 Supervising, supporting, and managing staff appraisal

All participants stated that they have an overall responsibility to supervise, support, and manage staff appraisal, but variation was found to exist in the type of staff they supervise and support. Although the NTHT participants indicated that they delegate the supervision, management, and support of teaching staff to their deputies, they stated that they lead the establishment of systems to ensure that all teachers and staff are accountable for reaching their schools' goals (Ekundayo et al., 2013, p. 185). In describing their specific roles in staff supervision and appraisal, participants acknowledged the significance of these tasks and the impact they have on school teaching and learning outcomes. Betts (2000, p. 4) stated that, as key supervisors in their schools, headteachers have the authority to delegate the supervision roles, such as providing professional support to teachers as part of maintaining good standards of teaching, guiding them in the planning and delivery of the curriculum, and following up on students' learning outcomes.

The World Bank (2018) found that 'most schools that took part in the study (91%) provide some sort of supervision for teachers. This can entail classroom observations where teachers are assessed and given feedback on their performance. Teachers can also receive guidance on class management, lesson planning, and teaching methods. However, in group discussions, many teachers claimed they do not receive supervision or guidance' (World Bank, 2018, p. 47). This study did not investigate the reasons for the absence of teacher support.

In the researcher's own experience in this field, there will be various middle leaders or team leaders who are tasked with keeping an eye on the appraisal targets of members of staff, talking with them about their performance, and informing the headteacher if there are areas that need developing and what needs to change, among other things. Such conversations often happen between a team leader or head of year and the headteacher. They will have that overview rather than anything else. However, in terms of the headteacher's involvement in staff appraisals, the headteacher makes sure that he or she models the appraisals to leaders and undertakes their appraisals; thus, he or she appraises them and then tells them that is how something should be done. At the researcher's school, the headteacher coaches the senior leaders and discusses the appraisal processes regularly; thus, all

appraisals are organised and they feel confident about what they are doing and the targets and actions that need to be taken. The headteacher coordinates them on a day-to-day basis and asks for feedback in terms of where things are, such as how the appraisals are and how they are working. In a sense, headteachers moderate and then talk with governors about what is happening.

According to Rapp (2010, p. 336), 'headteachers are expected to promote a secure foundation from which to achieve high standards in all areas of schoolwork, such as evaluating the school's performance'. Undertaking this role certainly requires leadership as well as 'pedagogical skills that enable them to understand the requirement for high-quality teaching' (Peko et al., cited Varga in 2020, p. 176). The NTHTs may lack this level of understanding and rely on the judgement of their deputies, who may have the skills to support and challenge teaching staff but not the leadership required to fulfil this role effectively. However, their management experience has significantly contributed to the effectiveness of the coordination and management of supervision processes.

In conclusion, the observation uncovered evidence that the THT participants seemed quite confident in undertaking supervision roles, along with other senior staff in their schools. Their overall commitment to undertaking direct supervision and support of teaching staff can only be realised with their knowledge and skills in teaching and learning (Sahana, 2018, p. 797).

5.3.5 Engaging with stakeholders

All participants stated that they have engaged with stakeholders. They know who their stakeholders are, which is a notion supported by Briggs et al. (2004). Their most common stakeholders are local CECs, private sponsors (private companies), parents, and the wider community. While the participants acknowledged the importance of engaging their stakeholders, variation existed in the types of stakeholders, frequencies of their engagement, and approaches to their stakeholders. The variation was also highlighted by Briggs et al. (2004), who stated that the importance of the effective management of these relationships does vary considerably as a consequence of the educational system and phase, stakeholder group, and specific circumstances.

Four of the NTHTs provided details of stakeholder engagement in their schools, including structured engagement events, regular meetings with trustees and boards of directors, parent–teacher meetings, community events including celebrations and fundraising events, and activities jointly held with other private schools' networks. One of the participants (HT015) said the following:

'Each stakeholder has a reason to be involved in our school, and we have to deal with them according to their motivation and priority; for example, our parents are more interested in discussing fees, exams, and the progress their children make'.

This statement was supported by Briggs et al. (2004, p. 75), who stated the following: 'Different groups will have different priorities, and the vision the institution presents to those groups will need to be tailored accordingly. Parents may be particularly interested in exams or educational costs'.

5.4 Discussion of Findings for Research Question 3

Research question 3: What views do Somali private primary school headteachers hold on the personal qualities, attributes, and competencies a headteacher should possess?

Under this question were several interview questions that concerned competencies and skills, personal qualities, the motivation to seek a headship, and when and how the interviewees became a head.

All participants stated that a headteacher should possess relevant and required skills and competence if they are to lead their schools well. Participants further stated that skills such as leadership and management are key. Leadership skills are defined as leadership behaviours and skills that can contribute to superior performance (Giles, 2016). The participants' responses and the theoretical arguments for the key emerging points are discussed in the following subsections.

5.4.1 Skills and competencies a headteacher should possess

Although the participants commonly agreed with the literature, differences of opinion existed within their detailed responses about relevant and required skills, such as

teaching skills, knowledge, and experience. Specifically, some of the THT participants rated these skills as more important than leadership and management skills. They argued that those skills are more important as they enable headteachers to challenge and support teachers. Rapp (2010, p. 340) agreed with their argument, stating that 'overall commitment to coordinate and organise quality school's work can be realised if a school leader has the understanding and then challenges teaching staff with the requirement for high quality teaching'.

As highlighted in the findings chapter (Chapter 4), several key points emerged, including the following:

'A competent, knowledgeable, and skilled headteacher can provide guidance and support to staff and create a conducive learning environment'.

(HT03)

'A competent headteacher is a good headteacher, and he or she knows what needs to happen in the school to raise students' achievement'.

(HT04 and HT07)

'As schools have a complex system, it requires a competent leader with the required experience and knowledge to guide, mentor, and challenge teachers. This level of competency enables schools to achieve a better outcome for their students'.

(HT03, HT024, and HT027)

These statements clearly refer to what Morgenroth et al. (2015, p. 3) called 'modelling', which is shorthand for role-modelling and the power of example. Role models are individuals who provide an example of the kind of success that one may achieve and often also provide a template of the behaviours that are needed to achieve such success (p. 3). In describing knowledge as a skill, Mumford et al. (2000) asserted that 'knowledge' directly influences a leader's capacity to define complex organisational problems and solve them. A similar statement was made by Uzohue et al. (2016), who stated that a leader is expected to be the most knowledgeable and experienced member of a group. Modelling is one of three strategies that have been found to be particularly effective in improving teaching and learning. The other two are monitoring and professional dialogue and discussion (Bush and Glover, 2013, p. 12).

This model of leadership is often associated with the instructional leadership model, which typically assumes that school leaders, usually principals, have both the expert knowledge and the formal authority to exert influence on teachers (Leithwood et al., 1999, p. 8; Bush and Glover, 2013, p. 11). The emphasis is on curriculum development and supervision, and principals with instructional leadership skills exhibit behaviours that affect classroom practice, including framing goals, maintaining high-quality supervision, evaluating instruction, and monitoring student progress.

Although there was very limited time to conduct rigorous observation, the researcher noted very little direct interaction between teachers and the participants during the observation, except for one participant who shared instructional input into the teaching and learning in his school. Some participants with teaching experience considered themselves instructional leaders, but Khalifa et al. (2014, p. 253), who conducted a study on Somali school leaders, stated the following: 'Somali principals observed in their study did not support instruction in the school by supporting teachers and learners'. They also found that leaders did not provide modelling and encouragement to promote school improvement. This lack of support for teachers will eventually have a negative impact on the assurance of effective teaching and learning in the classroom, including the content of lessons, planning of teachers, monitoring of the effectiveness of teaching and learning activities, supervision of assessment practices, and reporting of results.

Furthermore, the NTHT participants acknowledged that they have no direct involvement in the instruction of teaching and learning and that their deputies and assistants perform this role. This does not mean they have no involvement in their schools' teaching and learning vision, but rather that their lack of knowledge and experience prevents them from taking on this role. They stated that their general management skills and capabilities for accomplishing a set of objectives (Koskei, 2020, p. 22) have contributed to successes in their schools. As the headteacher is considered to be the most vital and compelling individual in each school, it is the administration and other management skills that they possess that determine the quality of the school, the atmosphere of learning, and the dimension of refined methodology (Sergiovanni, 1995).

'A headteacher must possess professional management and leadership competencies to effectively lead and manage the school'.

(HT05, and HT015)

This sentiment was shared by two of the observed participants, both of whom had no teaching background. It emphasises that leadership and management skills matter more than the teaching competency of a school leader. Furthermore, Male (2006, p. 13) stated the following: 'Effective headship, therefore, is the combination of leadership, managerial and administrative behaviours, and actions that are appropriate to the given circumstance'. This level of managerial competencies of some of the NTHT participants was clearly evidenced during the observation, including their understanding of strategic business management, market intelligence, financial management, creativity, and innovation, as well as marketing and market research, the planning team, and conflict management. A clearly defined school vision was more visible, and their engagements with non-teaching staff (administration, finance, and facility management teams) were more structured than with teaching staff. Their efforts in managing the school's resources, both human and material, were visible. These efforts were echoed by Everard et al. (2004, p. 4), who stated the following: 'Three things are expected of managers in school systems: integrate resources in the effective pursuit of goals, be the agents of effective change, and maintain and develop the school's resources'. Therefore, 'principals are the main coordinators of all activities' (Strukan et al., 2014, p. 102).

'A competent headteacher should possess competencies such as problem solving, good interpersonal and communication skills, as well as management skills'.

(HT022)

This statement agrees with Northouse (2016, p. 53), who stated the following: 'Effective problem solving and performance are the outcomes of leadership, and these outcomes are influenced by the leader's competencies'. Northhouse further elaborated on this notion by saying that when 'leaders exhibit these competencies, they increase their chances of problem solving and of high overall performance.

According to Mumford et al. (2000) cited in Northouse, 2013, p. 48), problem-solving skills are a leader's creative ability when they must solve new and unusual, ill-defined, organisational problems. These skills include being able to define a significant problem, gather information and formulate new understandings about it, and generate prototype plans for the solution.

During the observation, a couple of the observed participants highlighted the importance of these particular skills and how they influence their day-to-day activities. They shared some practical evidence they had been required to solve problems or issues that had happened in their schools. Cultural values were the most common input that they mentioned in solving problems. Aligned with this, Lazaridou (2007, p. 339) stated that values become one of the fundamental processes used in problem-solving. Culture shapes the values, attitudes, and behaviours of people (Alves et al., 2006). How culture influences participants' personalities and attitudes is discussed as follows.

West-Burnham (2001, cited in Bush and Glover 2003, p. 10) stressed the importance of collaboration and interpersonal relationships:

'Much of the teachers' day is taken up in an intensity of relationships. Understanding the changing nature of relationships with young students, the changing context of their lives, and developing appropriate and effective responses to both their personal and academic needs require constant reflection and adjustment'.

To summarise the aforementioned emerging points, most of the responses were congruent with Mumford's model of skills, which was the theoretical framework chosen for the study.

As cited in Northouse (2013, p. 48), the skills model of Mumford et al. (2000) refers to leadership as the capabilities (knowledge and skills) that make effective leadership possible. Competence and career experiences are two of the five components highlighted in the model. Competence is perceived to mean the ability to do something well. Thus, school leaders must gain the necessary competencies if

they are to perform their school's leading role well (Omemu, 2015, cited in Gurmu, 2020, p. 655).

5.4.2 Personal qualities

As stated in the literature (Leithwood, 2004), all participants indicated that school leaders must possess certain qualities that can contribute to leadership success. School leaders will require a broad range of skills and qualities in order to effectively discharge these important roles in leading the school. Similarly, Davis and Thomas (1989) stated that 'leaders require personal qualities or traits that make them stable and resilient, which help them to engage successfully with the demands of the job' (Goolamally and Ahmad, 2014, p. 123).

Although common agreement existed among participants over their views on the acquisition of certain qualities by school leaders, variations were noted in their responses to the question about the key personal qualities that a headteacher should possess to be a leader. This study noted that these variations were mainly influenced by the cultural and spiritual beliefs of the respondents. During the interviews, a significant number of participants mentioned examples of the prophetic leadership qualities of Prophet Mohamed (PBUH), including trust, resilience, patience, competence and knowledge, courage, spiritual intelligence, compassion, and credibility. Some of these qualities were also noted by Al-Azami (2019, p. 44), who identified 11 of the most personal qualities of a leader, including integrity, competence, vision, courage, holistic, pragmatic decisiveness, resilience, compassion, and spiritual intelligence. Islamic traditions are deeply infused into the personal, political, and daily lives of most Somalis, and the traditional, customary laws are informed by sharia rulings and governance and influenced by these rulings daily (Andrzejewski, 1983). Similar observations were noted by Khalifa et al. (2014, p. 250), who stated that Somali school principals are culturally and spiritually responsive to their students and families, that this spiritualised school leadership has unique expression in Islam, and that it rests in a moral vision linked to specific goals.

Those participants with strong views of personal qualities, such as knowledge, competence, and spiritual competence (HT03, HT013, HT022, and HT025), argued that when a school leader is spiritually competent, staff, parents, and even students

will respect and trust him. Explaining this in detail, participant (HT03) stated the following: 'Those of us with strong spiritual intelligence seem to follow Prophet Mohamed's (PBUH) leadership style and the sharia rulings, and this is why people trust them'. In Islam, the association between religion, knowledge, and teaching creates a discourse of educational leadership that elevates teaching and learning to a sacred duty of the highest order (cited in Shah, 2006, p. 366). Knowledge was another key personal quality highlighted by this cohort of participants, as they argued that knowing what needs to be done is crucial to their roles as headteachers. Marzano et al. (2005) also agreed with this notion. They developed a list of 21 categories (responsibilities) of school leaders, such as knowledge of the current curriculum and instructional and assessment practices, which were found to be positively correlated to student achievement. According to McEwan (2003, cited in Barton, 2013), 'school leaders need to have a strong intellect and a personal depth of knowledge regarding the curriculum as well as to be able to give instruction and learning that motivates and facilitates the intellectual growth and development of themselves, their students, teachers, and parents'.

A number of other key personal qualities were highlighted by other participants (HT06, HT015, HT020, HT023, HT025, and HT027), who were predominantly headteachers with no teaching background (except HT027). They stated that personal qualities included problem-solving ability, creativity, and emotional intelligence. Their views were also shared by Mumford et al. (2000 in Northouse, 2013, p. 48), who asserted that 'these qualities are key to a leader's creative ability when having to solve new and unusual and ill-defined organisational problems'.

5.4.3 Motivation and career in education

The final interview question related to this research question sought to determine participants' motivation, careers in education, and routes to headship by asking the following two questions: How and why did you get into education, and when and how did you become a headteacher?

Different responses were given by the participants in response to this motivation question. Those with a teaching background indicated that their key motivations for becoming a headteacher as peer encouragement, career progression (step up),

spouse-parental advice, and teacher training being shorter than training for other professions. Some of the participants with no teaching background shared some of these reasons, such as peer encouragement and career progression, for choosing to become headteacher, in addition to friends or relatives and community advice, as well as having a dream to set up a private school. Harris et al. (2003, p. 2) supported the reason of peer encouragement, particularly for headteachers, who prepare and support deputies and assistants. They further explained that 'the support of the headteacher and other members of the leadership team is a key contributor to feeling valued and motivated in the role'.

In responding to the question about their journey to headship, 12 participants stated that they had a teaching background and passed through different levels of leadership before becoming headteachers. This career-stage approach is also reflected in the literature, as Pont et al. (2008, p. 113) asserted that leaders should build on prior learning and continue throughout the stages of their career as principals. Mumford's Skills Model also suggests that the experiences acquired in the course of leaders' careers influence their knowledge and skills for solving complex problems (Northouse, 2016, p. 54). Mumford et al. further highlighted that leaders can be helped through challenging job assignments, mentoring, appropriate training, and hands-on experience in solving new and unusual problems. During the observation, participants (OHT03 and OHT04) stated that experiential leadership in schools is crucial because of the knowledge and skills of leadership they applied in other positions they held as they moved through the ranks.

In responding to the question, participants related their journey to headship. Twelve participants had served as assistants and deputies before taking up the headship appointment, and this experiential leadership in schools was found to be beneficial for inspiring and aspiring leaders. According to Okoko et al. (2015), this experience is useful because of the assumption that concepts and practices of leadership are applied to the positions they have held as they moved through their careers. A number of key benefits of staged career leadership have been discussed in the literature. Mumford and Connelly (1991) argued that the skills and knowledge of leaders are shaped by their career experiences as they address complex problems in their organisations. Three participants did not have that staged career experience

but became heads after teaching for several years in their schools. A significant number of respondents in the survey (33%) stated that they had been appointed after several years of teaching, while 29% said they were a deputy at the time of their appointment to headship.

Another group of three participants stated that they had no teaching background and had been appointed as headteachers because of managerial experience in other sectors. The recently published HTTM in Somalia (MoECHE, 2020, p. 43) advises against the idea of the appointment of a person with a non-teaching background and experience to headship. It argues that a school leader must be an instructor, an experienced educator, and, at best, an experienced class teacher. It further states that 'headteachers should understand the problems their teachers face in instructional delivery' (p. 43). A similar notion was echoed by Okoko et al. (2015, p. 286), who found in their study on preparing and developing headteachers in Kenya that the majority of headteachers considered seniority as a factor in their eligibility for leadership and as a crucial aspect of their school leadership preparation experience.

In summary, a number of key skills, competencies, and personal qualities were highlighted by the participants, and all agreed on the importance of school leaders possessing these qualities if they are to lead their schools well. Those with a teaching background underlined the importance of instructional skills and an understanding of teaching and learning, the curriculum, and other programmes of instruction, while those with a non-teaching background stressed management and other skills as the keys to leading an organisation successfully. In this section, it was also noted that their views on personal qualities were influenced by participants' cultural and religious beliefs. Participants strongly voiced certain qualities, such as those highlighted by Al-Azam (2019, p. 44). The 11 leadership qualities of Prophet Mohamed (PBUH) were also mentioned by the participants.

The participants' journey to headship was found to vary, as some of them had gone through staged careers before taking up headship positions, while others had been appointed without this journey and became headteachers after being appointed by the management or ownership of the school.

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5.5 Discussion of Findings for Research Question 4

Research question 4: What provisions are available in Somalia for preparing, developing, and supporting private primary school headteachers?

This research question intended to determine participants' views on the availability of preparation and development opportunities open to them during their journey or before their appointment. The participants were asked if they had any formal school leadership and development training that had prepared them to hold the headship role.

A significant number of the participants (22) stated that they did not have any formal training or professional development opportunities that prepared them. The study also noted that participants' understanding of the concept of preparation and development opportunities varied, as some mentioned having formal qualifications such as postgraduate degrees and diplomas in either general leadership and management or educational leadership. Furthermore, four participants (HT02, HT09, HT011, and HT014) indicated they had the abovementioned qualifications, and they believed that the possession of these qualifications made them eligible to be headteachers. Their views are also shared in Kenya, because many school principals there have obtained their principalship upon successfully completing degrees in administration, leadership, and management at a university or other HE institution.

As highlighted in the literature review, although 'the preparation and development of school leadership is universal to some extent, schools in Africa operate in different philosophical contexts' (Lumby et al., 2008, p. 152). The Kenyan principals considered their preparation to be a formal programme from a university or college, which may not have been in educational administration, leadership, or management. Others had participated in workshops, seminars, and informal courses as a way to prepare for school leadership (Okoko and others, 2015, p. 286). In Ethiopia, school principals are expected to be qualified teachers with at least 3 years of teaching experience and a university degree.

The recognition of principalship as a profession for graduates must start with the consideration of a professional qualification and leadership experience as part of the selection criteria (Gurmu, 2020, p. 667). During the interviews, some of the participants (HT03, HT04, HT011, HT013, HT016, HT018, HT022, HT028, and HT029) highlighted that they had attended trainings and seminars specifically organised for them by their schools during their headship. This approach to ongoing professional development activities has been supported by many experts in leadership and development (Davis et al., 2005; Pont, 2008, p. 113). Professional development may take different forms, such as training, on-site processes, networks, and professional development schools. Mathibe (2007, p. 523) contended that training is the traditional and still dominant form of professional development. Training includes direct instruction, skill demonstrations, workshops, and presentations.

In responding to the question related to their awareness of any existing models or opportunities for preparing and developing primary school headteachers in Somalia and elsewhere, only two participants (HT021 and HT03) mentioned that they were aware of such programmes abroad. The majority indicated that they were not aware of any specific professional programmes for headteachers in Somalia. In sharing their views of the adaptability of the Sudanese and Ugandan models to the Somali context, the two participants (HT03 and HT021) raised several challenges that may make adaptability impossible, including the language, culture, differences in education systems, and resource allocation. This clearly reflect on how important that is culturally and environmentally adaptable training programmes should be carefully considered as countries vary culturally.

In summary, based on the data gathered through the interviews and observation, the participants agreed with the majority of academic evidence presented in the literature that principals need appropriate knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA) to be effective leaders. Their preparation should be a priority in any attempt to improve the quality of education in any country. 'Schooling and school results have made it essential to reconsider the role of school leaders' (Pont et al., 2008, p. 3). While the participants acknowledged the importance of professional development opportunities to their leadership practice, these opportunities were not offered to them during their journey

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to headship. Although variations were noted in their journey to headship, similar limitations were also noted in those with no school leadership experience.

Kenya and Ethiopia, neighbouring countries that share many characteristics, such as their social and economic system, have structured professional development programmes for their aspiring school leaders; however, they may not be adaptable to the Somali context due to the different educational systems and policies. Culture, religion, and language must be carefully considered when modifying appropriate preparation and professional development opportunities for headteachers in Somalia.

5.6 Discussion of Data from Observed Participants

This study selected and observed eight participants out of the 29 headteacher interviewees. Six participants were observed by the researcher, while the other two observations were conducted by a research assistant. This was due to COVID-19-related international travel restrictions, which led to the researcher returning to the UK immediately. Their selection was based on the information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest (Paliinkas et al., 2013, p. 2). The detailed data gathered in the observation were presented in Section 4.1, but some of the key points that emerged as of interest for the study are highlighted here.

Of the eight observed, four participants were trained teachers and four were non-trained teachers. In this study, it was noted that those with a teaching background seem to have more involvement in managing and supporting their schools' teaching and learning programmes. Their knowledge, competency, and experience as teachers were the main reasons that they were engaged. This notion is also reflected in the literature, as Morgenroth (2015) described it as modelling, which is a key example of how knowledgeable school leaders promote successful teaching and learning through clear instruction. Carol and Edward (2004, as cited in Victor, 2017, p. 2) also asserted that the successful performance of a task requires knowledge-based skill to accomplish it. Thus, their involvement in teaching and learning activities seems crucial.

The non-teaching participants observed in this study indicated that they have no direct involvement in the teaching and learning activities in their schools but still have responsibilities for the schools' overall performance. These participants rely heavily on the judgement of their deputies, assistants, or senior teachers with regard to the schools' teaching and learning programmes. However, the deputies and assistants do not have the authority to enforce any changes, as this privilege still lies with the headteacher. This absence of authority may undermine the deputies or assistants' authority to influence changes, as Crawford (2014, p. 55) stated: 'in organisation is a system with a hierarchy and an official structure, in which leaders have power and authority because of their official roles in that organisation'. Further studies on the role and decision-making mechanism of the deputy or assistant for an NTHT may be of interest.

Moreover, all of the schools in the study were private schools, but their ownership varied. The type of ownership greatly affected the abovementioned power of authority of the participants. Participants who were owners of the schools (OHT02, OHT07, and OHT08) indicated that their decision-making process is simpler than that of headteachers owned by a third party—private companies or foundations. Their decision-making arrangement is consultative, and they consider themselves participative leaders—leaders who consult with subordinates, obtain their ideas and opinions, and integrate their suggestions into the decisions about how the group or organisation will proceed (Northouse, 2013, p. 143).

In their journey to headship, the four participants with a teaching background stated that they had passed through the ranks before they had taken up headship posts. While three of the NTHT participants (HT06, HT07, and HT08) did not have staged career experiences, one participant (OHT05) with a non-teaching background served 5 years in a deputy headship before his appointment as head.

In relation to access to professional development opportunities for the eight observed participants, only two (OHT03 and OHT05) had accessed training prior to their appointment. These were distance learning programmes that were not directly linked to the preparation and development of a headteacher, and they did not modify

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appropriate training and development opportunities, as found in many countries (Huber, 2004).

5.7 Discussion of Findings for the Main Research Question

This study's central or primary research question was as follows:

> What views do Somali private primary school headteachers hold about being professional headteachers?

The analysis and discussion of the research data regarding the skills, knowledge, and experience required for a school leader to be professional revealed a number of key factors that influence the professionalisation of school leadership. These factors included personal and professional competencies, knowledge, career experience, and management and leadership skills and qualities.

This section extensively discusses the key roles that a headteacher as a professional undertakes as well as the skills, knowledge, and experience required for them to be considered professionals. A number of themes and their subthemes were considered to help the study find answers to the research question:

1. The role of private schooling in post-conflict Somalia;

2. Leadership and management in schools and the role of headteachers

    1. An international perspective on the roles and responsibilities of headteachers;

    2. An international and regional perspective on the preparation and development of headteachers;

    3. Managerial and pedagogical competences that contribute to successful school leadership;

    4. Personal qualities and attributes of a school leader;

    5. Cultural and religious implications for leaders' personal qualities and competencies;

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3. The profession, professionalism, and professional identity.

5.7.1 Role of private schooling in post-conflict Somalia

The emergence of private schools followed the state's collapse, when all educational infrastructure was destroyed. Then, there was no alternative to private schools. In fact, everything, including security and the provision of law and order, became private (Abdinoor, 2007, p. 160). In the last 20 years, the share of primary enrolment in non-state schools in low-income countries has doubled, from 11% to 22%. This is an indication that non-state providers account for a significant and growing proportion of school enrolment (USAID, 2018, p. 6).

To advocate for their existence, Somali private schools have formed associations that bring them together and provide a platform for collaboration, working partnerships, capacity building, and improvements to the quality of education they provide. These umbrella associations of private schools provide teacher training and development, school inspections, and exam facilitation services for private schools in the country.

The government introduced a private school policy during the research, the aim of which is to develop private education provisions, which include minimum standards, school licencing, curriculum implementation, and quality assurance. According to its ESSP (2020–2023), the government intends to enhance the quality of education and children's learning outcomes through the provision of school-based coaching for headteachers to improve school performance in all schools in the country, regardless of whether they are privately owned or state schools (MoECHE, 2020).

This study further found that 92% of leaders who held headships did not have access to preparation and development opportunities before they took up headship positions. This is critical to any professionalisation of the role of school leaders, as they consider themselves the driving force for the school's development towards achieving better outcomes for those involved in their setting—both pupils and staff. As a result of the absence of government regulation and support, no institutions exist for preparing and developing headteachers in Somalia. Furthermore, no formal

training and leadership development exists for public and private primary headteachers in Somalia, whereas in many other parts of the world, great emphasis is placed on school leadership preparation through professional development and training (Bush, 2008).

5.7.2 Leadership and management in schools and the role of headteachers

Leadership and management were the second theme selected in the review of the literature. This theme was guided by the theoretical and practical understanding of leadership and management skills and competencies and how this understanding might be applied in developing the professional competencies of headteachers in private schools in Somalia.

This study noted that participants' understandings of leadership and management varied. Those with a non-teaching background stated that leadership and management skills and experience were more important than teaching skills. Schon (1984) stated that 'leadership and management are not synonymous terms; one can be a leader without being a manager'. While participants with a teaching background acknowledged the importance of leadership and management skills, their argument was that knowledge, skills, and experience in teaching are crucial for someone to lead a school successfully.

While differences of opinion exist in models of leadership and management, this study noted that instructional leadership or leadership for learning, which is an essential element of successful schooling (Bush et al., 2019, p. 5), has more relevance to the Somalia context. Another important model noted in the study was the managerial leadership model, which has a direct relationship with leadership for learning. Due to its management function for supporting learning and teaching, it can be considered paramount (Hoyle and Wallace, 2005, p. 68).

Moreover, many of the comments made by the participants about being a professional headteacher were related to learning-centred leadership, which is equivalent to instructional leadership (Peeke, 2003, cited in Brundette et al., 2003, p. 166). From the literature review, this study highlighted several arguments related to this view. Many of the key arguments presented in the literature include the

expectation that instructional leaders ought to be aware of the qualities of teachers and what they are teaching as well as ensure that effective teaching and learning are occurring in the classroom. This should include the contents of the lessons, planning of the teachers, monitoring of the effectiveness of teaching and learning activities, supervision of assessment practices, and reporting of results. This study noted that some of the participants observed were not involved in managing and supporting teaching and learning, which means that they cannot be considered instructional leaders. In an aforementioned study, Khalifa et al. (2014) observed the same outcome and found little evidence that leaders of the observed schools were in fact instructional at all, despite the significance of the application of this model of leadership to a Somali context. The recently published HTTM in Somalia (MoECHE, 2021, p. 43) also stresses the importance of school leaders as instructional and role models for other teachers.

As discussed in the literature review chapter, there are universally agreed roles of a headteacher, which are to lead and support teaching and learning as well as to manage resources and stakeholder engagement effectively (Bush, 2018, in Bailey and Gibson, 2020, p. 1007); however, there are also differences in the national context. Through these variations in national policies and regulations, the commonly agreed roles of a headteacher are confined to the following: managing teaching and learning, leading and supporting staff, providing a vision, controlling or overseeing resources, developing policies to achieve the school's objectives, and engaging and being accountable to stakeholders, such as the governing body and community (Male, 2006, p. 93).

This study found that participant involvement in these roles varied. The participants with no teaching background had less involvement in managing and supporting teaching and learning in their schools, as they felt less knowledgeable and experienced in teaching and learning instructions. These responsibilities are conducted by deputies or assistants, who then report to the headteacher. Despite the direct involvement of deputies and assistants in managing the teaching and learning roles in schools, performance-related or resource allocation decisions still lie with the headteacher. This study also found that participants with a teaching background seemed to be more directly involved in managing, teaching, and

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learning strategies in their schools. The increasing emphasis on managing teaching and learning as the core activities of educational institutions has led to 'instructional leadership' being emphasised. The support and supervision of staff are key to improving teaching and learning, and participants' involvement in this role varied. A previous study mentioned that 'most schools (91%) provide some sort of supervision for teachers, classroom observations where teachers are assessed and given feedback on their performance, as well as being provided with guidance on class management, lesson planning, and teaching methods' (World Bank 2018).

Furthermore, this study noted commonalities in participants' undertakings of other roles, including resource management, staff appraisal, and stakeholder relation management. Participants stated that they had a system of managing their school resources, and it was either their responsibility or it might be delegated to a specialist staff member. Despite the absence of a guiding policy to define who the education stakeholders are, different entities in the private education sector have continued to deliver education without guiding policies (MoECHE, 2020). Participants clearly identified the individuals and communities they engage so that appropriate strategies can be adopted (Briggs et al., 2004, p. 74). According to the researcher's own experience as a governor and trustee, schools do benefit from the effective engagement of stakeholders, and the level of engagement is determined by the nature of the stake held by a group. Governors have important and strategic roles to play in a school's strategic direction. Like other stakeholders, parents also play a crucial role in school life, and their effective involvement in schools can lead to better outcomes for their children.

All of the participants agreed with Day and Sammons (2014, p. 28), who stated that headteachers achieve success not only through the strategies they employ but also through their personal qualities and traits. Thus, they should be required to possess a broad range of personal qualities to effectively conduct their important roles in leading their schools. Some of the personal qualities of a leader highlighted by the participants were also noted by Al-Azami (2019, p. 43), including integrity, courage, knowledge, competence, and spiritual intelligence.

Another important point that emerged from the study was the cultural influence of the participants in their role as leaders. They stated that cultural values had a greater influence on how they solved problems within their schools. Culture shapes the values, attitudes, and behaviours of people, which becomes one of the fundamental processes used in solving organisational issues (Lazaridou, 2007, p. 339). As Somalia is a predominantly Muslim culture, participants stated that Islamic beliefs played a crucial role in their daily lives. Somali school principals are culturally and spiritually responsive to their students and families (Khalifa et al., 2014, p. 250). This finding clearly stresses the need for religious and culturally responsive input in any future leadership development programmes in Somalia.

5.7.3 The profession, professionalism, and professional identity

To address the central research question, participants' views of being a professional headteacher were sought. They agreed that a headteacher must be a professional with the required knowledge and skills. Sammons et al. (1995) reinforced this notion of professional leadership as the key to schooling, as they featured it as one of the central elements of school effectiveness (cited in Huber 2004, p. 2). Although they agreed in principle, the detailed arguments or explanations provided vary. Participants with non-teaching backgrounds strongly expressed their views and stated that teaching qualifications and experience are not significant factors in being a professional headteacher. Their responses were more focused on emphasising management skills and leadership qualities, while their arguments were based on managing resources and facilities rather than on headteachers' overall responsibilities in effectively leading the school. Many researchers agree with them about the necessity of a headteacher possessing certain management skills, such as Hoyle and Wallace (2005, p. 68). Noteworthily, a couple of participants with non-teaching backgrounds agreed with the notion that a headteacher must be a professional with teaching and leadership experience. One participant (HT04) said the following: 'A professional headteacher is someone who is a trained teacher and has several years of teaching experience'.

The detailed explanation provided by the participants with a teaching background was more about the teaching competence and skills that combine to help a headteacher lead and be involved in what goes on in classes. In the participants'

professional practice, attitudes towards personal learning, students' teaching and learning, leadership, and progress that school leaders possess are key aspects of their individual capacities as professionals (Bukhatir, 2018, p. 2).

To answer the overall research question, participants were very clear and collectively agreed that a headteacher must be a professional, and they believed that balanced skills in pedagogy, management, and leadership are equally important. The mechanism by which professional development opportunities should be created for Somali primary school headteachers is presented in the recommendations section of Chapter 6.

Chapter Six: Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides conclusions regarding the overall research question, the implications of the findings, and the contributions of this study. It also provides suggestions for headteachers and school owners, for further future research, for education policymakers, and for wider education stakeholders in Somalia.

6.2 Overall Research Question

The study explored leadership and management experiences and perceptions of what constitutes a professional headteacher. The central research question that guided the study was as follows: What views do Somali private primary school headteachers hold about being a professional headteacher?

The central or primary research question then led to the development of the following secondary questions:

5. What does 'being a professional headteacher' mean to Somali headteachers?

6. What is their understanding of the roles of a primary school headteacher? (Research question: secondary)

7. What skills, attributes, and personal qualities contribute to being a professional headteacher?

8. What provisions are available in Somalia for preparing, developing, and supporting Somali private primary school headteachers?

    c. Are there any similar provisions that they are aware of in the region?

    d. Can these provisions be adopted in Somalia?

The study further sought to understand the selection and recruitment criteria of these headteachers and what qualifications were a condition of their appointments.

Professionalisation and the professional development of Somali school leaders in Somalia have scarcely been touched on by researchers, which stresses the need for such research.

It is important to note that the main rationale behind focusing on private schools over public schools in Somalia is that there are more private than public schools there. Over 65% of schools in Somalia are privately owned. This is because of a lack of reliable data on the share of private schools in Somalia. As mentioned in earlier sections of the thesis, regions do vary in the number of existing private schools. For example, in Mogadishu, only 23 schools are considered public, which were privately run during the civil war before later becoming public schools.

6.3 Conclusion

This research study used many sources of literature and documentary evidence to achieve its research aim. It gathered the views held by headteachers as professionals in private primary schools in Somalia. It intended to investigate their perceptions, beliefs, and understanding of what makes a headteacher a professional. Furthermore, the study sought to reveal the professional development opportunities that Somali headteachers accessed before their appointment and the teaching and leadership experience they had gained. The study also examined the international and regional perspectives on the preparation and development of and support for school leaders. The study used a range of data collection tools to collect data, including semi structured interviews, survey questionnaires, and observation. Twenty-nine headteachers were selected for interviews.

In summary, the main objectives of the research study were as follows: to gather feedback on what Somali headteachers understand about being professional; to identify any gaps in the views they hold and the scholarly views as highlighted in the literature; to explore the importance of formal preparation and development for aspiring headteachers; and to explore any existing model that creates professional development opportunities for Somali headteachers of private primary schools in Somalia.

The research objectives were addressed using a set of research questions and sub questions, which framed the study and gathered the participants' views on the main research question.

Based on the literature reviewed, the study concluded that school leaders are required to have a set of skills and competencies that can be acquired through education and professional experience. Therefore, the study carefully considered this conclusion in accordance with the conceptual framework of Mumford et al.'s Skills Model, which refers to leadership as the capabilities (knowledge and skills) that make effective leadership possible.

In accordance with the literature reviewed, the study noted that there is a growing call for the professional development of school leadership due to poor results in schools, which are linked to poor or inappropriately trained school principals; therefore, principals need appropriate KSA to be effective leaders; their preparation should not be left to chance. The study extensively discussed the skills, knowledge, and experience required of a school leader to be professional, and the literature revealed key factors that influence the professionalisation of school leadership, including personal and professional competencies, knowledge, career experience, and management and leadership skills and qualities. Many countries recognise school principalship as a distinct professional career that requires its own systematic preparation. The policies and strategies used to professionalise school leadership, including those from Kenya, Ethiopia, Rwanda, and England, were also discussed.

The research acknowledges the uniqueness of Somalia's education system, which has experienced total destruction for more than two decades. The enormity of the effects on education during armed conflict and post-conflict was felt everywhere, including in teacher training provision as well as preparation and development for schools and school leaders. These effects included the complete destruction of the education sector in the country. Despite these effects, the post-conflict educational debates have largely undermined the voices of those who were on the frontlines during the crisis. In the absence of a state or government in Somalia, non-state providers responded to the urgent demand for education. In the last 20 years, the share of primary enrolment in non-state schools in low-income countries has

doubled, from 11% to 22%. This is an indication that non-state providers account for a significant and growing proportion of enrolment. The research found that there are no institutions that prepare and develop headteachers in Somalia. Moreover, there is no formal training or leadership development for public and private primary headteachers there.

This study underlines the agreements and disagreements from the literature reviewed, the participants' responses about the description of a professional headteacher, and the effect that this professional career has on students as well as a school's overall success. Many factors that influence the professionalism of school leaders were highlighted in the literature review, and participants' responses were noted in the study.

Mumford et al.'s five suggested components are competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcome, career experiences, and environmental factors, which directly influence a leader's capacity to define complex organisational problems and solve them. The participants shared views that accord with the Mumford skills model, and they stressed that a headteacher must be a professionally trained person, have years of experience in teaching, possess knowledge and competencies, as well as have management and leadership experience.

The study also noted the difference of opinion among the participants, particularly those with no teaching background, who argued that conventional leadership and management skills are more important. These participants had delegated the management and support of teaching and learning responsibilities to their deputies and assistants, and they believed that a strong working relationship between them is critical. In discussing their journey to headship, the study noted variations in their journey. Some of them had gone through a staged career before taking up a headship position. There is clear evidence in the literature that leaders should build on prior learning and continue throughout the stages of their careers as principals. Some of the participants had been appointed without experiencing this journey.

In addition, this study found that participants' perceptions of personal qualities that effectively influence leadership were based on culture and religion. They shared a

number of personal qualities that they linked with the Islamic faith, particularly the prophetic leadership qualities of Prophet Mohammed (PBUH), including spiritual competency, trust, honesty, integrity, and respect, which are also found in other non-Islamic literature.

The data gathered in this study were driven by categories that were specifically used to link the research aims and the literature. These included headteachers' understanding of their roles in teaching and learning, management of resources and finances, stakeholder engagement, staff supervision, and their views about being a professional headteacher. These roles are universally agreed upon by headteachers. Several points were noted from the findings that explain participants' understanding of their roles and how the perceptions they hold about skills and knowledge are required to effectively conduct them.

Leading, managing, and supporting their schools' teaching and learning programmes were seen by some participants (those with teaching backgrounds) as crucial. They require certain skills and capabilities for managing the teaching and learning process from planning to the evaluation stage. Participants with a teaching background provided detailed descriptions of their involvement in managing and supporting teaching and learning. They indicated that their direct involvement also means working with others within the school to ensure improvement in students' learning. A headteacher must ensure that internal processes and pedagogic practices directly result in school improvement. The recently published HTTM in Somalia advises against the idea of the appointment of a person with a non-teaching background and experience to headship. It argues that a school leader must be an instructor, an experienced educator, and ideally an experienced class teacher. It further states that headteachers should understand the problems that their teachers face in instructional delivery.

Furthermore, this study noted that the notion of a headteacher being a pedagogical leader is becoming increasingly vital, which has been highlighted in much literature. Participants also stated that an overall commitment to organising and co-ordinating quality schoolwork can be realised if a school leader has an understanding and then challenges teaching staff with the requirement for high-quality teaching. Due to their

experience in teaching, the THTs indicated that they hold teachers to account, and that their direct involvement in managing and supporting teaching and learning makes a difference to pupil learning outcomes. Several researchers have also established a link between pupil outcomes and how school leaders mobilise and work with others.

Participants with no teaching background seemed to express different views about the teaching and learning responsibilities of a headteacher, acknowledging that they are directly involved in the undertaking of this role. They had delegated the overall responsibility of this task to their other members of the senior leadership team, either deputy or assistant headteachers, and merely rely on their professional judgements as they are trained and experienced teachers. Although they may not be involved in the teaching and learning aspects of their schools, they seemed confident that their managerial competency enables them to effectively manage the available human and material resources for the achievement of desired goals and objectives.

In the findings, this study noted that participants' views on the other roles of a headteacher, such as resource management, staff performance and accountability, and stakeholder engagement, were similar to those mentioned in the literature review. The study also noted that participants have their roles in overseeing the school's resources, but they provided more details about the financial resources' aspect—that is, about money—than the human and material resource aspects, particularly NTHTs. This is because they are not involved in managing teaching staff. Some participants, specifically THTs, included both human and material resources, such as teaching and learning equipment, as part of school resources, as noted in the literature. According to the documentary evidence gathered from the HTTM published by the government, one of the main functions of the headteacher in Somalia is to organise school resources effectively and arrange them in an optimal manner.

This study concludes that 92% of participants did not have access to preparation and development opportunities before taking up headship positions, and that such opportunities did not exist in Somalia. This is critical to any professionalisation of the role of school leaders, as they, as school leaders, consider themselves the driving

force for the school's development towards achieving better outcomes for those involved in their setting—namely pupils and staff.

The HTTM, which was not widely known by the interviewees, intends to enhance the quality of education and children's learning outcomes through the provision of school-based coaching for headteachers to improve school performance. However, this is not the formal training that prepares those who aspire to headship, and it requires different forms, such as training, on-site processes, networks, and professional development schools. Formal and well-prepared professional development and support for headteachers would be an important advantage to the FGS, as it intends to improve the quality of education and headteachers' leadership qualities in public and private schools.

Participants agreed with the literature and referred to the significance of structured and formal preparation and development opportunities for headteachers in Somalia, particularly in the private sector, which is the main education provider in the country. They also stressed the relevance of such a model in a Somali context. Culture, religion, and language must be carefully considered when modifying appropriate preparation and professional development opportunities for headteachers in Somalia.

6.4 Contributions of the Study

The study makes several contributions, including (a) in the field of research and the limited literature in this area; (b) the early-stage recognition of the importance of the role of headteacher in the Somali educational context; and (c) towards any national policy on professionalisation of primary school headship.

6.4.1 Contribution to the Research Field

As stated in the World Bank (2018) study, there is a need to further study the role of school leadership (including ownership and management), as school leaders have important roles in determining quality through resource allocation, hiring practices, and the establishment of school guidelines. This study did not focus on all areas suggested by the World Bank study (2018), but some key areas were investigated,

including the role of headteachers in managing and supporting teaching and learning, resources, in managing staff, and in engaging stakeholders. The study found that participants with a teaching background tend to engage better with the management and support of teaching and learning programmes than participants with no teaching background, which is due to the latter's lack of teaching experience and knowledge of instruction. Although the participants with no teaching background had delegated this role to their deputies, the decision-making power lies with the headteacher.

This study confirms the findings of the World Bank study, which found that disparities exist in how schools are owned and managed. This has greater implications for how decisions are made, how staff are supervised, and their performance is managed, how resources are allocated, how staff are recruited and supported, and how stakeholders are engaged. The study found that this disparity is due to a lack of guiding policy at both the national and regional levels. Detailed suggestions for further research are presented in the recommendation section.

6.4.2 Contribution to early-stage recognition of the importance of the role of the headteacher

This research extensively discussed the views held by the participants about their roles as headteachers and their understanding of the importance of the role. This finding of early-stage recognition of the importance of the role by participants can contribute to any future debate about the professionalisation of the school principalship in Somalia. Participants acknowledged that their role is critical in raising standards and leading schools successfully. This acknowledgement can create an atmosphere of acceptance for developing and supporting Somali headteachers in the public and private sectors.

6.4.3 Contribution to national policy on the professionalisation of headship

Eleven participants indicated that they were not trained teachers and had no teaching experience, while 18 participants indicated that they were trained teachers with teaching experience, although their leadership journeys varied. Their views on

being a professional headteacher also varied, which is due to the absence of a nationally agreed framework on the qualification criteria for school leadership in Somalia. Participants with a non-teaching background strongly expressed their views and stated that teaching qualifications and experience are not significant factors in being a professional headteacher. Their responses focused more on management skills and leadership qualities. Despite their varying perceptions, all participants agreed that a person who leads a school must be a professionally trained person and have an understanding of teaching, management, and leadership. The detailed findings include suggestions made by the participants about what a professional headteacher should possess and that both skills and personal qualities can contribute to the wider discussion of any national standards for headship in Somalia.

The study also found a number of key factors that influence the professionalisation of school leadership, including professional competencies, knowledge, career experience, and management and leadership skills. Although these findings were already in existing literature, the participants added spiritual, cultural, and traditional understanding as key skills expected of a headteacher.

The study further found a policy model of professionalisation of headteachers that is being used by two neighbouring countries, Kenya and Ethiopia, which may be adaptable and modified to make it appropriate to the Somali context.

Due to the limited available literature, this study cautiously makes recommendations based on its findings in the next section.

6.5 Recommendations

In light of the research findings, a number of recommendations are provided for future research, education policymakers, and training institutions, as well as headteachers and school owners (umbrella, foundation, and private companies).

6.5.1 Recommendations for Future Research

Due to the limited literature available about school leadership in Somalia, academic and research communities can play a crucial role in further researching this area.

There is a need for further research in many areas of the education field in Somalia, including the quality of teacher training and other professional development for teachers; the definition of school typology, ownership, governance, and accountability; as well as the professionalisation and professional development of school headteachers in Somalia. Researchers and academicians are recommended to research

- the role of deputies and assistants in leading and managing the teaching and learning of schools as a result of delegated responsibility in their schools (i.e., schools led by headteachers with no teaching background);

- the implication of a lack of professional development for headteachers on school effectiveness;

- the accountability mechanism at the school level and the role of trustees, owners, and CECs.

- school ownership and the implications of resource allocation at the school level;

- the role of foundations in schools and the mechanism of accountability (i.e., these are foundations that own a large number of schools);

- the recruitment and support of headteachers and the role of school owners.

6.5.2 Recommendations for education policymakers, training institutions, and wider stakeholders

The enormity of the effects on education during armed conflict and post-conflict is still being felt in Somalia. The effects were not only physical and material, but they were also found in the education policy and guidance for education providers, including regulation. In the absence of regulation that provides guidance, the education sectors, both private and public, suffer, including from a lack of minimum standards, accountability, curriculum, teaching quality, and leadership. As a country affected by a conflict, Somalia's private education providers will continue to provide education as long as there is an absence of government.

The absence of a comprehensive and country-wide education policy for guiding all stakeholders in the provision of education services has adversely affected learning outcomes at all levels. Different entities in the private education sector continue to deliver education without guiding policies, procedures, and standards. The chaotic situation has led to poor quality, both at the system and school levels. In Somalia's context, the definition of state and non-state schools is contested. Schools in Somalia are managed and funded in complex ways that often involve more than one stakeholder and multiple bodies, including community and private individuals, private individuals, and umbrellas, and the community can claim ownership over a school. This research study demonstrates that ownership of the school effectively matters in many aspects of the school system, including the decision-making mechanisms at the school level, such as staff recruitment and allocation of resources.

During the study, the FGS was in the process of developing a policy for private education provision, which includes minimum standards, school licencing, curriculum implementation, and quality assurance. The policy intends to define Somalia's private education system and outline policy measures that will guide the development of an effectively regulated education sector in Somalia. It is important to acknowledge the fact that the private sector has been providing education without government support or regulation, and many of these education providers argue that the government should have less influence over these provisions.

As stated in an earlier section, school leadership in Somalia is a still under-researched area, and the country does not have a set of agreed-upon standards of code of regulation for preparing and developing headteachers. Although there are government efforts to improve the quality of basic education in Somalia through strengthening school leadership, there are no provisions for preparing and developing school leaders in the country.

As a result of the aforementioned gaps, this research study makes the following recommendations to the FGS, FMSs, and training institutions:

To the Federal Government and Member States:

- Any private school policy must define the typology and ownership of private education providers.

- Considering the improvement of education provision requires a direct, holistic, and collaborative approach with umbrella organisations, parents, and other wider stakeholders.

- Consider the professionalisation of school leadership through dialogue with all education stakeholders, including the private sector, perhaps considering models that exist elsewhere that are appropriate to the Somali context, including culture, religion, and language.

- Consider producing a national minimum standard for headteachers, which may include the requirement for a person selected for headship to be knowledgeable in teaching and the curriculum, a trained teacher with a minimum of 6 years of teaching experience, and a minimum of 3 years of senior leadership experience. The government must provide resources, both material and human, to support schools in implementing these standards, including developing their middle leaders and facilitating leadership development for middle leaders.

- Consider creating partnerships with HE or non-formal training providers to deliver formal and structured professional development programmes for existing and inspiring school leaders in line with the national minimum standards.

- Consider establishing external supervision support for school leaders in both public and private schools. This could be cluster-based and accessible to existing or newly appointed school leaders.

To training and development institutions:

- Consider working in partnership with the government at the federal and local levels to design and deliver professional and leadership development programmes for senior teachers, middle leaders, and current headteachers.

Such programmes must cover the key aspects of school leadership highlighted in this study, including teaching and learning competency.

- Consider working in partnership with individual schools or umbrella associations to design and develop non-formal training for continued professional development for school leaders, such as short courses that advance and enhance leadership skills, school-based mentoring, and support.

- Organise events, seminars, and other network opportunities for school leaders (deputies, assistants, and senior or specialist teachers). Such events create an opportunity for sharing good practices and learning from each other.

6.5.3 Recommendations for Headteachers and School Owners

As mentioned in the World Bank study (2018), many schools in Somalia are privately owned. It is crucial to acknowledge the noble contribution that the private sector can make in improving the quality of basic education in the country through developing and supporting their school leaders. Umbrella associations are the most important non-state actors in the Somali education landscape, and they fulfil a quasi-governmental role by setting minimum standards for member schools, developing curricula, and facilitating teacher training. Despite the government's restoration of its role in the education sector, the position of umbrella associations remains strong as critical providers of education and guarantors of minimal education quality.

This study presented some literature that has discussed the link between professionally developed leadership and students' learning outcomes. Several participants with a non-teaching background stated that they had delegated the responsibility of managing teaching and learning to their deputies and assistants, but that these staff do not have access to support with regard to their own development. A significant majority of the participants stated that they did not have access to professional development support before their appointment.

Accordingly, this study makes the following recommendations to headteachers and school owners:

- Private school owners and headteachers must create an environment for learning for staff and senior staff, as well as for teachers.

- Ongoing professional development for staff can have a positive impact on students' learning as a result of advanced knowledge and skills.

- Create and distribute leadership opportunities for inspiring leaders within schools.

- Set a structured and consistent system of role delegation with appropriate support and mechanisms of accountability.

- Be consistent with schools' teaching and other policies and review these policies within an agreed-upon timeframe.

- Create awareness of the existence of these policies and their implications for the wider learning and teaching strategies in the school.

- Provide ongoing professional development opportunities for current headteachers. These opportunities can be delivered in different forms, including training, on-site processes, or the building of a professional network.

- School owners must initiate a structured system of staff recruitment and proper checks on the suitability of potential candidates for teaching and leadership roles.

- The decision-making structure must be made clear, particularly in situations where a deputy is responsible for leading and managing teaching and learning.

- Staff induction, supervision, and appraisal must be made clear and consistent.

To umbrella associations and school owners:
- Recruit a professionally qualified teacher as a headteacher, while supporting current NTHTs to develop an understanding of the teaching and learning aspects of their role. As stated in the National Teacher Policy, for private schools, a professional without teaching qualifications and experience would be regarded as a director of the institution and not a school headteacher.

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- Clearly define the school management structure, which defines the decision-making mechanism of the school, including recruitment, induction, supervision, and staff appraisal.

- Work in partnership with the government and HE and training institutions to deliver a school-based programme of professional development for teachers and support staff to advance their specialist subjects. This continued professional development opportunity will help teachers and leaders stay up to date with the development of their specialist teaching areas and leadership instructions.

- Create an environment in which best practices are shared within groups of schools. This suggestion could be useful for foundations that manage more schools.

To headteachers:

- Develop the pedagogical experience of those with no teaching background as well as a structured, regular form of communication with the deputy or assistant headteacher, as they are delegated to lead, manage, and support teaching and learning in the school.

- Attend assessment and progress meetings, even though the role of leading and managing teaching and learning is delegated to deputies, to have an oversight of students' progress (for those with no teaching background).

- Create distributed leadership opportunities for middle leaders with a teaching background so that they can step in in the event of leadership absence.

- Develop a system to review and evaluate schools' policies, including teaching and learning, safety, and child protection, on a regular basis.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The Pilot Study Summary

Appendix B: Participant Recruitment Letter

Appendix C: Interview Schedule

Appendix D: Observation Diary

Appendix A: The Pilot Study

Summary of the pilot study.

 Prior to the study, a pilot study was carried out to test the methods used to gather data for the main study. As an under-researched area, it was important to test methods used to gather information from Somali primary private headteachers, such as interview questions. Holloway (1997) suggests that when conducting a qualitative inquiry, researchers can pilot a study to assess the acceptability of an interview, an observation protocol, or both (Kim 2019, p. 193). This idea is also supported by Catillo-Montoyo's (2016, p. 827), who found in her study that interview protocols could be strengthened through piloting the interviews, as this helps the researcher get a realistic sense of how long the interview takes and whether participants are indeed able to answer questions. Due to the lack of information about training and development available to headteachers in preparing and developing headteachers in Somalia, this was a major concern for the researcher, as the questions set in the interviews may not have been applicable to the interviewee's personal situations.

 The pilot study clearly prepared a plan to address key issues, including organising access, defining the interviewee-interviewer relationship, and the quality, reliability, triangulation, and validity of interview data. These issues will be elaborated on in the analysis section of the pilot study.

 The pilot study selected five headteachers of private primary schools in Mogadishu, and a purposeful sampling method was used to select them. This method, which is widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases, was the most effective use of limited resources (Patton 2002, in Palinikas et al., 2013, p. 533).

 There were four main questions with a series of sub-questions presented in the interview schedule. They were intended to establish detailed and factual information and were very relevant, specific, non-specific, direct, indirect, and linked to the literature review. These formats were based on the four question formats identified

by Tuckman (1972), cited in Cohen and Manion (2000, p. 278). Questions were organised under the following headings:

- Professional development needs of target headteachers

- Competency issues faced by the sample headteachers

- Models of professional development opportunities

- Adaptability issues of introducing these models in Somalia

These key headings had a set of sub-questions, which were also linked to the main proposed research questions presented to interviewees, including: what professional development needs do private primary school headteachers have in order to effectively lead and manage their schools?, what professional development opportunities do they access whilst they are on the job?, and are there models of school leadership development programmes elsewhere that are appropriate to the headteachers of primary private schools in Somalia?.

It is evident that some of the proposed interview questions were challenging to the respondents as they were either inappropriate and irrelevant to their local context or they lacked confidence in providing detailed answers. Other challenges were also present; the defined roles and responsibilities of respondents varied, and this is due to a lack of clarity in the management structure of their schools. The later challenge was a concern already raised in the literature review part of the main study. Some of the respondents were owners of their schools and held the headship position of their schools, and their management structures were not clearly defined.

On a number of occasions, the respondents have expressed frustrations in answering some of the interview questions, particularly in how they were prepared and developed as headteachers and in their lack of professional development opportunities, despite not knowing what professional development needs they have. This confusion was mainly to do with the lack of defined headteacher standards in Somalia. The respondents did acknowledge the importance of professionalising school headship in Somalia and suggested a number of suggestions that may be

included in any future professional development opportunities for private and public primary school leaders.

The main implication of the pilot study for the main study became clear after the participants of the study did not know what professional development needs they had, and this is due to the lack of recognised headteacher standards in Somalia. As a result, the study remodified some of the research questions for the main study.

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Recruitment, introduction Letter and Consent Form

Part 1: Information

Dear participant,

I am Somali national pursuing doctoral degree in international education at University of Buckingham United Kingdom. As a requirement for the completion of the degree, I am conducting a research study that focuses on the views held by Somali private primary schools in Somalia about their professional development needs. This letter extended to ask you for your help and participation in this research study. The research is specifically interested in private schools that charge less $10 or less per month, Low Cost Private Schools as they are called according Global Schools Forum.

It's hoped that results of this study could help determine the main leadership development needs you and others may have and some training and professional development support opportunities that you or others may need. In addition, educational policymakers may use the findings to help school leaders to access specialist support to lead schools effectively.

Your participation is voluntary, and you can help in this study in a number of ways; One to one interview at your school or another place we can decide on. Interview my last for between 40 and 50 minutes depending on what you have to say and question I may have to ask. The interview would be audiotaped for transcribed with your permission for analysis purposes. You will also be asked to kindly take part in observation which will be conducted afterwards. The researcher will communicate with those whom has selected for observation. If you are selected to participate in

the observation, you will be notified at later time. The time for observation can be agreed with your availability and it can take between couple of hours or all day.

To ensure anonymity is applied, your identity will not be disclosed and the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential.

For any questions relating to this study or if you are interested in participating you may call me on 0614913849 or email: abdishtarah@hotmail.com.

Sincerely,

Abdishakur Tarah

Part 2: Consent Statement

1.	I confirm I agree to take part in this research		
2.	I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet including confidentiality and anonymity.		
3.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the research at any time within 15 working days after consent has been given and interviews have taken place.		
4.	I give permission to be interviewed and be tape recorded.		
5.	I understand that data collected during this study will be processed in accordance with data protection law as explained in the Participant Information Sheet.		

Participant name:_____

Date:_____

Signature:_____

Researcher:_____

Date:_____

Signature:_____

Interview Schedules

Research title: Views of private primary school headteachers in Somalia about what it means to be professional headteacher.

Date: _____

Time _____

Location _____

Interviewer _____

Interviewee _____

Introduction

Welcome and introduction: Introduce the participant to the research: Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research.

Consent reconfirmation

Please read the participant recruitment sheet

Key points to agree:

- Participation (is voluntary and participants can withdraw at any time)
- Use of voice-recorder to record the interview.
- Anonymity and confidentiality reassurances

Interview questions

1. **Interview questions for Research question 1**

- What is the difference between a professional and a non-professional headteacher?

- Do you consider yourself to be a professional headteacher? Please explain your answer

2. Interview questions for Research question 2

Please describe your roles in the following areas within your school:

7. Managing and supporting teaching and learning;

8. Managing finance and resources (human and capital);

9. Selecting and recruiting staff within your school;

10. Inducting and supporting new staff in school;

11. Supervising staff and managing staff appraisals;

12. Engaging stakeholders (school board, parents, and students).

3. Interview questions for Research question 3

4. What competencies and skills should a headteacher possess?

5. What are the key personal attributes a headteacher should have to lead a school?

6. How and why did you get into education, and how and when did you become a headteacher?

7. Interview questions for Research question 4

5. What school leadership development and training have you received to prepare you to become a headteacher?

6. Are you aware of opportunities for preparing and developing primary school headteachers in Somalia?

7. Are you aware of any models of preparing and developing primary school headteachers that exist elsewhere?

8. Do you think that these models are adaptable to Somalia?

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Observation Diary

Logistics

Name of Observer:	
School name:	
Event date:	
Participant:	

Notes on agenda/outcome

Agenda Item 1: Managing and supporting teaching and learning

Activity	How the participant is involved in managing and supporting teaching and learning in school
Intended outcome	Observe school's policy and practice, gather evidence of headteacher's applications of policies, systems and processes

Notes:

Agenda Item 2: Managing school finance and resources (human and capital)

Activity	How the participant is involved in managing school finance and resources both human and capital resources.
Intended outcome	Observe school's policy and practice, gather evidence of headteacher's applications of policies, systems and processes.

Notes:

Agenda Item 3: Selection and recruitment of staff within your school

Activity	How the participant is involved in selection and recruitment of staff within school.
Intended outcome	Observe school's policy and practice, gather evidence of headteacher's applications of policies, systems and processes

Notes:

Agenda Item 4: Inducting and supporting new staff in school

Activity	How the participant is involved in inducting and supporting new staff in the school
Intended outcome	Observe school's policy and practice, gather evidence of headteacher's applications of policies, systems and processes

Notes:

Agenda Item 5: Supervising staff and managing staff appraisal

Activity	How the participant is involved in supervising staff and managing staff appraisal
Intended outcome	Observe school's policy and practice, gather evidence of headteacher's applications of policies, systems and processes

Notes:

Agenda Item 6: Engaging Stakeholder (School Board, Parents and Students)

Activity	How the participant is involved in engaging stakeholders including School Boards, Parents and Students
Intended outcome	Observe school's policy and practice, gather evidence of headteacher's applications of policies, systems and processes

Notes: